Training the Language Services Provider for the New Millennium

Proceedings of the III Encontros de Tradução de Astra-FLUP

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INTRODUCTION

This conference came about for a variety reasons. On the one hand, at a meeting of the former SOCRATES/ERASMUS ICP familiarly known as the 'Dublin network', Porto had agreed to host the 2001 meeting on condition that it should be coordinated with a conference that would allow as many people as possible to attend. On the other hand, Porto had worked on the LETRAC project and this seemed like an ideal opportunity to continue with the work related to the development of translation curricula that was one of the wider objectives of this project.

However, besides these more practical aspects, we felt that there was a need for a forum to discuss the changing roles of both the graduates of translation and interpreting courses and the teachers who train them. In order to avoid the 'translation and interpreting' label we opted for the expression 'language services provider', in the hope that this would focus the need for training students for other functions, like those of revision, re-writing and even writing the original texts, technical writing, terminology work, special language studies, dubbing, sub-titling, localisation and the new technologies that have revolutionized the world of the more traditional translator and interpreter.

It would seem from the papers in the Proceedings that the conference was successful in bringing together people from several countries to discuss aspects of these problems. The event began with a summary by Anthony Pym of the various factors that produce the difficulties felt in curriculum reform. It ended with Daniel Gouadec's forceful expression of what needs to be done, followed by a debate during which many people expressed their views on the subject. In between came the variety of papers in these Proceedings.

The selection of papers posed a certain problem of organization. The topic of the conference – training the language services provider for the new millennium - seems to have produced the largest number of papers, and we therefore

start with the more general approaches to curricular reform, followed by descriptions of specific attempts at curricular innovation, and various uses of information technology. We end with a section on another theme of the conference – building bridges between the academic world and society.

CURRICULAR REFORM

Nowadays there is so much political and market pressure on higher education to provide sound vocational training that most academic areas are well aware of the need for curricular reform. Twenty years ago translation training was roughly of two kinds: the post-graduate training for well-educated bilinguals needed to work in international organizations, and that of the 'secretary with good language skills' provided by a variety of polytechnics and private institutes. Since then, courses in translation, interpreting and other practical applications of languages have developed, often out of more traditional modern language courses, and sometimes painfully, particularly over the last ten years. This has led to a wide variety of curricula at an undergraduate level, and there is now a growing number of post-graduate courses on offer as the complexity of the profession is becoming more clearly recognized. The main tension is between how to provide good language skills and professional training, while also providing the cultural background and general education in a variety of subjects that will help prepare the language services provider for the work ahead.

Anthony Pym's paper focuses the real world in which courses in translation, interpreting and other applied language skills have to be taught. He draws attention to the expectations of the students, their parents, the institutions that provide these courses, and the market, and points out that the interests of each do not necessarily coincide, and that the local conditions vary considerably. He expresses well the dilemmas the academic world faces. There is pressure both internal and external to create these courses: the traditional modern languages departments need to survive by offering new vocational training, and the students and their parents perceive that there is a future in being proficient in languages. However, the market, which often expects either secretaries or subject specialists to do their translations, does not always appreciate either the need to train language services providers to graduate level or the consequent expectation of decent payment for the services required.

Daniel Gouadec looks at the certainties of the market and what is needed for a curriculum that will prepare people to work in the real world. He recognizes that, too often, the main obstacles to innovation are the entrenched interests and refusal to provide vocational training of the academic establishment. His assessment of the need of the real world for language services providers – rather than just 'pure translators' – is based on the experience of designing

courses for market needs, and he rightly insists on the responsibility of the teaching institutions to provide appropriate education.

Svetlana Carsten poses several of the general questions on curriculum design that trouble many of us. Drawing on the curricula of several universities, she debates the relative values of theory and practice in interpreter and translator training, the position of linguistic theory, the need for special subjects, and the pros and cons of undergraduate versus postgraduate courses. She also draws attention to the fact that many graduates in interpreting and translation are by no means ready to be professionals, even when their courses include or are supplemented by practical in-house training periods, and suggests that there is an urgent need for cooperation with the market here.

Jesús Torres del Rey stands back from the more everyday problems we are discussing and places the whole process of teaching translation in the wider context of globalisation and the effects of the information society.

The section on specific proposals for curricular reform[1] reflects a variety of attempts to address the problems discussed in the first section. Robert Clark, Andrew Rothwell and Mark Shuttleworth describe the post-graduate courses at the University of Leeds and Imperial College, London that have been designed to train translators in all the possibilities now offered by language technology. Christiane-Jacqueline Driesen and George Drummond's paper documents the progress made in the methodology of training interpreters at the Hochschule Magdeburg, Hamburg, following the decision of the JSIC of the European Commission to decentralise the training of conference interpreters. Cornelia Groethuysen describes how the Sprachen- und Dolmetscher-Institut München have responded to market demand and now offer special training in localisation and translation software to their undergraduate and post-graduate students.

On a different note, Elżbieta Skibińska reflects on the need for the *'mariage particulier d'un enseignement traditionnel avec une formation pour le marché du travail en évolution'* and how the curriculum at the University of Wrocław has been planned with this objective in mind. Also from Poland, Bartosz Walicek first tells us how the Tempus programme PROCLAME (Programme for Communication, Languages and Management in Europe) investigated the existing infrastructures for training translators and interpreters in Poland and made recommendations for the future. He then goes on to explain how the Postgraduate School for Translators and Interpreters in Cracow responded to the needs of Poland in the late 90s.

Agnes Whitfield's paper is apparently limited to an explanation of how she turned away from the more traditional literature-based translation theory content of her course and created a programme more suited to the preparation of

professional translators for today's world, with particular emphasis on the need for a learner-centred approach. However, her paper has wider implications for the whole design of translation and interpreting curricula today because it demonstrates quite clearly how one can provide a teaching programme that is both suitable for vocational training and academically rigorous.

TECHNOLOGY AND THE LANGUAGE SERVICES PROVIDER

One of the objectives of the conference was to encourage papers on the possibilities of language technology and the interest shown is clear from the number of papers in this area. Paul Schmidt's paper is an interesting reflection on the relationship between human translation theory and machine translation. Drawing on Sperber and Wilson's Relevance Theory, he shows how the relationship between the two areas is far closer than is popularly believed. Those from both areas who view the 'other side' with indifference or antagonism could benefit from reading the arguments he uses.

Johann Haller points the way to the future in his plenary session, with his explanation of MULTIDOC, a state-of-the-art authoring tool. This tool draws on earlier technology to provide a robust tool that goes well beyond normal spelling and grammar checking, and combine these with techniques from translation software and controlled language. The result is a tool that can be tailored by the author and translator to suit specific circumstances and is particularly useful in an industrial setting where reliable technical documentation is so essential.

The emphasis of Chris Taylor's paper is on how the multi-modal aspect of sub-titling can be used to effect, while taking the technological possibilities and limitations of the software into consideration. He describes how the subtitling is inserted into documentary films, but also draws attention to how the context, the sounds and the visual effects can be employed to supplement the text which, for reasons of space, often has to be less explanatory than would be possible in normal translation. This is an interesting reflection on the multimodal function of texts of this kind.

The sub-section on corpora shows how corpora of various kinds can be used both for translation research and as a valuable resource for all forms of language and translation work. Silvia Bernardini quite rightly starts by reminding us all that we should *educate* rather than *train* translators and the use of corpora highlights this point of view well. Instead of training students to trust dictionaries as ultimate authorities, we should be educating them to use the insights of corpora study and take intelligent decisions on appropriateness of both style and terminology by observing corpora of relevant texts. She then goes on to describe the CEXI corpus, a parallel bi-directional corpus in Eng-

lish and Italian, and how it has been planned with three priorities of translator education in mind: awareness, resourcefulness and reflectiveness.

Ana Frankenberg-Garcia describes how she constructed the COMPARA corpus in English and Portuguese with the technical help and support of Diana Santos. This corpus can be consulted on-line at http://www.portugues.mct.pt/COMPARA, and after explaining how it can be used, Ana goes on to describe its effectiveness in the practical work of translation teaching.

Guiseppe Palumbo shows us the value of using specialized corpora, not just to find correct terminology, but also to find how apparently general language usage and collocations can change in a certain context. He gives examples of how prepositions, when used with certain nouns, will differ in usage according to whether the context is LSP or more general. Apart from the study of both general and special languages, this paper is also relevant to those interested in term extraction from corpora

Clara Inés López Rodríguez, describes how newspaper texts can be used to help students discover, examine and correctly identify cultural references. Working with Wordsmith and newspaper texts in English and Spanish, she shows how searching for words and expressions with cultural relevance can also lead the student to texts that include further information on the subject in question. Federico Zanettin's paper tells us of the experiment conducted with students who were obliged to create their own resources, in the form of 'disposable' corpora from texts found on the Internet, as a necessary part of the translation process.

Josef Schmied's paper is an example of the contrastive work that can be done once one has assembled a sizeable parallel corpus. He uses the Chemnitz English/German corpus to demonstrate similarities and differences between prepositions in both languages, and is able to make a distinction between prototypical, figurative and idiomatic usages based on the examples found.

EDUCATING THE LANGUAGE SERVICES PROVIDER

Although nearly all the papers are concerned with education, this group provides a series of suggestions for change, and several give descriptions of techniques used in the classroom. The first sub-section refers to language teaching from a more general point of view followed by one on teaching LSP. There are then three smaller subsections – on terminology studies, contrastive analysis and quality in translation.

Maribel Andreu, Laura Berenguer, and Pilar Orero present the GRELT project, which has been set up to research the problems of teaching language in

a way specifically designed for the needs of future translators. This is an interesting perspective that is well worth developing in a world where monolingual language teaching theory tends to dominate in a context where general purpose language skills are considered of primary importance, and the alternatives are presented as LSP or Contrastive Analysis.

Carol Ann Goff-Kfouri and Peter Kornakov both concentrate on specific techniques for language teaching. Carol Ann offers us lesson plans for creative language teaching of the kind discussed in her workshop. Peter describes techniques he has developed when teaching students of interpretation and includes examples of exercises in grammar training he has prepared.

Ian Roffe, David Thorne and Julie Brake have taken the notion of training students for the new millennium seriously by reflecting on the benefits of distance learning, and presenting the e-learning course in Welsh produced by the University of Lampeter. The analysis they make is encouraging for those who wish to tackle the difficulties of teaching language by distance learning.

Languages for Special Purposes, or LSP, are of ever-growing interest to anyone training language services providers for the future, as the papers here demonstrate. Philippe Delahaut and Christine Demaecker start by posing some questions on how one defines and deals with technical texts in a way that can be useful educationally to their students, and go on to describe their teaching methodology. Minh Ha Lo-Cicero's paper is an interesting description of how some of the more general aspects of two such dissimilar languages as French and Vietnamese also impinge on the specific problems of scientific and technical translation.

Rosemary Mackenzie shows how the demanding task of translating patent applications can be used to considerable effect in the classroom, providing training not only in terminological and phraseological precision, but also as a way of drawing attention to the need for understanding the technology involved and for interaction with the patent agent/inventor. She also points out that the rather stereotyped and repetitive nature of texts of this kind makes them ideal for practice with translation memories and other software, and claims that the net result is greater motivation and self-confidence for the students.

Sylvie Vandaele's paper on the conceptual metaphors to be found in medical and pharmaceutical publicity demonstrates how, despite legislation banning aggressive advertising, the language used evokes cognitive representations related to collective views of health and disease. The examples given make it clear that, apart from having a good technical grasp of medical terminology and textual conventions, the translator must also be aware of these underlying metaphors.

The subsection on terminology studies consists of three papers. Pamela Faber's paper describes the ONCOTERM project in which terminology was collected from both traditional references sources and corpora. She goes on to explain the system employed to organize and categorize the terms found. The methodology used and the resulting ontologies and glossaries are all examples of good modern terminology practice and the related area, information retrieval.

Belinda Maia draws attention to the problem that students (and teachers) of translation, who usually belong to humanities faculties, face when confronted with understanding the concepts behind the terms used in special languages. She argues against both the 'generalist' translator training approach and the insertion of superficial 'specialisation' courses into the curriculum. Instead she argues for the need to encourage translators to understand the concepts rather than just use the words, and to develop a teaching methodology that trains them in how to specialise in any subject, as and when the occasion arises.

Klaus-Dirk Schmitz points out that students often prepare useful glossaries as part of project work in their courses but that, once they have their grades and move on, much of this work remains unused in university cupboards and computers. The Webterm project is an excellent proposal for making sure that this terminology work can be systematically collected and used by the community in general.

Maria Elisete Almeida reflects on the different pronoun usage of Portuguese and French, while Sílvia Becher describes the differences in discourse conventions between Brazilian Portuguese and English. Sílvia goes on to discuss the special problems of creating awareness of these differences in trainee interpreters, and asks some interesting questions on how far interpreters can be taught to cope with these problems in the immediacy of the interpreting circumstances.

BUILDING BRIDGES - TRANSLATION AND SOCIETY

Emma Wagner's paper is aimed at building bridges between academia and the world of the professional, and in particular the translation services of the European Commission. As she rightly says, there should be more communication between the two, and she makes several specific suggestions as to how this could be done, both at the level of training and research.

The intercultural perspectives provided by those describing two aspects of translation in Australia help to demonstrate further the different factors that affect the education of language professionals. Peter Carroll's paper tells us of Australian policies for teaching Aborigines to translate from English to their

native languages, and Chrys Chrystello describes an experiment in trying to solve the problems of translating government documentation in English into the wide variety of languages spoken by the large number of immigrants.

Last but not least, Jorge Pinho reminds us all of the need for quality in translation and the problems in creating, recognizing and evaluating this most difficult-to-define aspect of the results of all the efforts of language services providers and their teachers.

Belinda Maia

[1] This section is ordered alphabetically according to the surname of the main author.

1.1 general problems

Training language service providers: local knowledge in institutional contexts

Anthony Pym
Universitat Rovira i Virgili, Tarragona, Spain

Abstract: Despite spectacular growth since the late 1980s, translator-training institutions are becoming increasingly inadequate to even newer market demands, particularly those ensuing from the sectors associated with the term 'localization'. And yet the humanistic values at the base of those institutions are not without relevance in the technocratic world. This paper will propose ways in which training programmes can at once adapt to market forces and retain some hope of helping to shape the direction of those same forces. Particular attention will be paid to the use of case-study methods, the in-class use of CAT software, and the integration of ODL techniques.

We might once have talked immediately about translators. Yet translators these days are called upon to do far more than translate; they move between tasks; they mix professions in the course of their careers. The hyperonym 'language service provider' is simply meant to recognize that diversity, placing translator training within the context of a more complex and technological age. This could mean thinking in terms of a list, or of professional things-that-people-do: translation, yes, but also revision, terminology mining, terminology management, multilingual document management, project management, cultural consulting, interpreting of all kinds (since oral tasks surround the written), relations with clients, and perhaps the odd thought about the ways our communication cultures should be headed (call it 'policy'). We can, however, also approach the object top-down, from general ideas about these tasks, from ideas about the professional intercultures within which all these things are done. Thought about training, I submit, should involve such a vision, seeing the tasks as one, and thereby helping to create a professional identity that still largely fails to recognize itself. My various points, along with a few paradoxes, will be formulated from this perspective.

Best practices or local knowledge?

A common approach in seminars on training issues, and indeed in a long-term Thematic Network project on the need to train translation teachers, is to

identify a series of 'best practices'. You find out what the best people do, then you reproduce it. A classic case might be the dissemination of Seleskovitch doctrine in the training of interpreters. More recent examples can be found in terminology and especially localization, where 'best practices' tend to coincide with a discourse of 'industry standards'. For each domain and sub-domain, we hunt around the world to find the most prestigious experts, then we reproduce what they do. Alternatively, if we are setting up a comprehensive training program, we might look for the most renowned program in the world, then copy it. This is certainly one way to train language service providers. But it is not the only way to think about what we are doing.

There are several problems with the idea of 'best practices'. Most obviously, it sets up enlightened centres and dependent peripheries, in the image of a colonial world that we are supposed to have overcome some time ago. More seriously, it tends to privilege the centres that have been established the longest. Those centres have accumulated prestige over decades, often without regard for the rapid market changes that make the same institutions the *least* appropriate to meet current demands.

Even more fundamentally, the 'best practices' approach implicitly assumes there is just one way of doing things well, no matter where we are located in time and space. As such, the idea contradicts something that language service providers are supposed to know: namely, that practices change from location to location, in accordance with myriad local conditions. We know this from the very fundamental terms of our own metalanguage. The term 'translation' means different things when translated into different languages; a concept like 'public-service interpreting' has lavatory connotations when rendered into Spanish; in some locales 'community interpreting' is still confused with interpreting for the European Communities; and something like the German 'Translationswissenschaft' is decidedly unhappy as an English 'translation science'. Not only do our metalanguages vary, but our practices themselves vary from place to place, context to context. If that were not so, there would be little need for anything but translation as a banal word-replacement exercise. Why then, if we know these things in our own field of enquiry, do we not see the same diversity operating legitimately on the level of training?

The alternative to a 'best practices' approach is not simply to bury one's head in traditionalist sand. Confronted with training problems, we should quite obviously look around to see what solutions have been found elsewhere, and with what results. But what we should not assume is that those solutions are easily transferred from one locale to another. Just as we adapt texts to new situations, so we must be prepared to adapt curricula and methodologies. Instead of 'best practices', such adaptation requires something akin to what

anthropologists call 'local knowledge', an intimate awareness of what is required in each time and place. This would be a flexible kind of knowledge built up over time, constantly open to experimentation and modification. At once primitive and postmodern, local knowledge might help counter the centralism of established experts.

What's in a school?

What might local knowledge involve? First, perhaps, the awareness that we are working in a training environment, in a school of some kind, with needs and constraints that may be quite different from the professional world in which our trainees will later have to work. For as much as prospective employers (the EU Translation Service, for example) tell us what kind of skills they demand of our students, their requirements and our requirements will often differ, and legitimately so. The reason is simple: as trainers, we establish relationships not only with employer groups or the current market, but also with a series of local interests. Among which:

- *Students' demands* are key, even if they often have a very indirect relationship with vocational concerns. To take an uncomfortably close example, the 27 or so Spanish universities involved in translator training of one kind or another might have just under 7,000 students in them in any one year (Pym 2000a: 231-232). That means they are churning out far more graduates in translation (and ostensibly interpreting) than any labour market can be expected to absorb. Students can be told this. But they still want to study translation, because it is practical, because they enjoy it, because they want to be UN interpreters, because they secretly want to be novelists, or whatever. Behind those students and their *ilusiones*, parents form a social entity that is similarly well disposed to a training activity that sounds vaguely professional. Their interests and hopes deserve respect.

- *Teachers' demands* are also a powerful institutional factor. The problem here is not that teachers are queuing up in their hundreds simply because they always secretly wanted to train language service providers. It is more that they want to keep their jobs. As English increasingly restricts the role of the other imperialist languages, teachers of those languages (French, German, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, etc.), have fewer students in their classrooms. And since most translation programs require students to study at least two foreign languages, the otherwise under-employed language teachers find work within those programs. One drawback, of course, is that we could find a generation of language teachers conveying communication skills (translation and the rest) of which they have

virtually no professional experience. Yet that is no reason for ignoring the institutional interests of our teaching colleagues.

- *University administrations* then ideally represent what students and teachers want. However, they are more likely to be grappling with factors such as 1) the difficulty of getting rid of tenured teachers in language departments, 2) declining birth-rates in the more advanced economies, which means fewer student entries, 3) the concomitant desirability of attracting students from abroad, and 4) the similarly consequential need to move to specialized postgraduate programs. Courses in multilingual communication skills, with translation at their centre, provide possible solutions to all these problems.

- *National and regional governments* might then be expected to enact the choices of university administrations, if not of some kind of more comprehensive democracy. In Spain, to continue with what is more than an example, further translation schools are sure to be set up, even though it is plain to all that the labour market has no shortage of translators. The reason is that, as long as the existing schools fail to absorb the demands of students and the pretensions of teachers, more such schools will be required in order to meet the *internal* demands of the education system. There might also be more noble logics involved. For instance, it is in a country's interest to have a broad segment of the population with good multilingual communication skills, for economic and political reasons that extend far beyond the narrow market segments that rely on translation. We will come back to this later.

- *Other university departments and disciplines* should also be included in the list of people we must negotiate with. Here we basically mean modern-language departments, with their traditional division into linguistics and literature. These, after all, are the people whose students we have been taking away ever since the barriers were broken between vocational and academic training (when the polytechnics became universities). What happened here very much depends on the local context. If a generalization can be risked, translator training has moved away from linguistics, whereas the more literary locations have come toward translator training, sometimes under the cloak of Cultural Studies. In the middle of all this, the invention of Translation Studies as an academic discipline in the 1970s can be seen as a series of responses to the underlying institutional antagonisms. One branch (German *Translationswissenschaft*) initially did all it could to look like an Applied Linguistics, while another (European-Israeli DescriptiveTranslation Studies) went to great lengths to appear a structuralist literary science.

> Both those strategies might now be considered excessive, if not unnecessary. The vocational training base is in most cases sufficiently well established for our academic research to dialogue with neighbouring disciplines, without excessive kow-towing. Yet we must still talk with them.

What's in a school? In the university context, a school involves at least the above factors. It cannot be reduced to a training ground for a labour market. We, as trainers, have to negotiate with a wide range of social actors, and in this resides the complexity of our local knowledge. Rather than serving no more than a market, we would mostly do better to adopt the perspectives of 'human resource development'. We must work from what we have, and in the places we find ourselves, rather than lamenting the distance of ideals.

Some would say that here we are trying to justify the unjustifiable. Indeed, we have tried to explain why a country can have a large number of training programs that are actually dysfunctional with respect to professional ideals (the excessive number of graduates effectively prohibits professionalization at the lower end of the market). Whether or not this is legitimate is quite a different question. Our first task is to understand where we are, why we are here, and what interests are at work in our immediate positionality.

Worse, would add others, the complexity of intersecting local interests means that there is considerable resistance to market adaptation, so training programs tend to fall well behind current market demands. It is difficult, for instance, to replace the term 'translator' with 'language-service provider' or perhaps 'localizer' in the name of our programs, simply because the various social actors have become used to the established term. Often the best we can do is teach new skills under old names. And yet, even this resistance to change may present hidden advantages. We might, for instance, use our academic distance to discuss long-term views of what we are doing with our cultures, in addition to the short-term aims of giving skilled professionals comfortable and interesting lives. We will come back to this too.

Two illusions of the market

The above view might help explain one related paradox and a minor illusionary causation concerning globalization:

- *The diversity paradox*: As English becomes the world language, thus leading to reduced linguistic diversity in cross-cultural communication, one might expect the demand for translations to be decreasing. And yet, but whatever yardstick you choose, the global demand for translations is increasing.

- *The indirect service causation*: As the demand for translations increases, the demand for translator training also increases, so we might expect a very direct causal relation between market growth and expanding training institutions. However, on the strength of what we have said, there would seem to be tendencies going in the opposite direction, moving training into an academic environment that is even further from direct market demands.

Both problems are explained by the same phenomenon. The diversity paradox can only be understood once we take account of directionality, with rising text production in English and transfer then operating *out* of English into a very wide range of languages, often simultaneously and increasingly with aid from electronic tools, for the global marketing of goods and services. The second illusion is also explained by the rise of English and its specific effects within academic institutions, as intimated above. More simply, translator training has not expanded simply because the social demand for translators has grown; both sectors have expanded because of the growing central role of English in their respective domains.

Working with a segmented labour market

None of what we have said so far should suggest that market demands must be excluded when we think about our training programs. Our argument is more exactly that the service function is functionally indirect. This could become an ethical argument if critical use of such distance were to help overcome some of the problems presented by the market. General tendencies suggest that the market for language services is becoming increasingly segmented, if not functionally fragmented (see Pym 1999, 2001; Gambier 2000). There are two main reasons for this.

First, as might be gathered from the 'diversity paradox' above, the global growth of asymmetrical communication flows means that there is a rising demand not only for translations, but for language learning as well; that is, for *non-translations*. Everyone has to learn English, and teaching it is a language service, alongside and sometimes inseparable from translation. There is a kind of continuum here. Think, for example, of the translator working for a physicist, translating a paper and then checking the terminology with the author. Then think of the physicist who has written the paper in English and comes to a translator to have it revised. The work done is virtually the same in both cases; what changes is the professional status of who is doing it (a professional translator in the first case, a multilingual author in the second). Language-service providers must be prepared to switch between both modes, especially in movements into English.

What this gives us is a very wide range of services and possible relations with clients. Of course, as long as there is professional mobility across this range, there should be no inherent fragmentation. Indeed, language service providers and multilingual text producers would belong to the same professional environment, as cooperating members of intercultural communities. A further factor, however, means that this is not quite the case.

At the same time as the range of language services broadens, electronic communications technology enters to give the field its more problematic segmentation. In areas such as screen translation, software localization and multilingual product documentation, we find that combinations of short deadlines and sophisticated technical skills mean competent professionals are very well paid and have indeed abandoned traditional concepts of translation (as the spreading term 'localization' would suggest). On the other hand, in the lower-paid segments traditionally covered by precarious freelancers, technical skills with electronic tools are normally quite limited, if indeed the language-service provider has been able to invest in them at all. The people translating anything from menus to promotional material for small companies are operating in quite a different world from that of the top-end localizers, and their notions of 'translation' are correspondingly restricted.

We thus find that a broadening of language services, combined with the unequal distribution of technical competence, gives a highly segmented labour market. If we scratch the surface, we also find signs that these segments are pushing each other apart, as when a broad middle class of 'professionals' (teachers and staff translators) simply brush aside struggling freelancers, who apparently have no social status and perform no useful functions. Or again, we find that localization projects—and localization software—technically separate translation from re-engineering or management tasks, with the effect that translators are left with the most boring work and the slimmer pay-cheques. Similarly, in large projects such as the translation of the *acquis communautaire* in EU-candidate countries, the role of the translator is kept rigorously separate from official deliberations over terminology, technology or policy, often with quite disastrous results (cf. Gambier 1998). In other presentations of this environment (Pym 1999, 2000b) I have used a crude sociology of types in order to suggest three main sectors, with corresponding characterization of the salaries, work habits and translation concepts of each. That picture has a certain pedagogical virtue, at least in that people are invited to locate their current position and map out where they want to go. It must be confessed, however, that the combination of a global language and asymmetric technology means that there are many more than just three segments at stake. The problem is not how many segments there are, but what long-term consequences this segmentation is likely to have.

The effects of segmentation

Short of radical social engineering, we must allow that all market segments have their place. If the precarious freelancers challenge professionalism by doing questionable translations and wandering in and out of part-time language teaching, we have to live with that. After all, their existence as a multilingual workforce helps overcome the language barriers that limit the mobility of labour, and mobility is the main problem facing the operation of the EU, NAFTA or Mercosur as economic spaces. Again, if the odd pompous professional proclaims, after decades of comfortably living off government salaries or subsidies, that 'Translation is...' or 'The translator must...', they resist new communication demands and must thus be ultimately negative for their society's efficiency. Those staffers are, however, quite effective at getting official money to keeping paying for multilingual administrative institutions, and are thus ultimately positive for an inclusive democracy. They too have their place. Finally, if the high-tech localizer is busy spreading 'industry standards' in the name of efficiency, their work might seem to map out a globally glorious future until, as too rarely happens, we delve into the mechanized discourses they work on and the quite tedious translation jobs they produce. What we gain in efficiency, we lose in humanity.

One of the main effects of segmentation is that all these parts have their place, with their pros and cons, but none is effectively conscious of the whole. We thus find people from a localizing or subsidy-consuming position pretending to speak in the name of 'the market' or 'employer demands', as if they themselves were the entire market. Alternatively, we find language-service users criticizing 'translators' on the basis of a few shoddy jobs done at the more precarious end of the range, somehow concluding that all translators are in the same basket. The criticism indicates a lack of awareness of how diversified the whole has become. The 'market' does not speak with one voice, and seems unlikely to do so until some outsider holds up a mirror so that the whole body can be seen. That is, until language service providers have some kind of identity as a complex professional interculture.

What is to be done?

This giving of identity is, of course, something we might ideally expect from our training institutions, alongside the various professional associations (although they too are highly fragmented). Here I have argued that our academic locations, subject to numerous local complexities, can give us a critical distance with respect to market demands. I have also argued that the labour market for language service providers is ultimately without an

established sense of a unified professional identity. It follows that one of the things we should be doing as trainers is not just to supply the existing market, but to help change that market, to improve it, to make it more aware of what it is and what it can do. Local knowledge need not contradict comprehensive vision. In fact, it wins us the distance needed for such vision.

Such an argument inevitably trails off into the vagaries of 'human values', if not the unshakeable virtues of the humanities à la George Steiner. That is not quite where I want to finish. There are far more precise values to be sought, notably in rationalist cooperation as mutual benefit, and intercultures as fields in which the seeds of a cooperative ethics might be sown. But those arguments are for other places, for a more technical kind of theorization.

In the present context, it would seem more important for trainers to look critically at their own institutions, at the social actors they have to negotiate with, and at the various market segments with which they and their graduates will have to deal with. That is, all this should be done within the complexity of immediate situations, without expectations or certitudes drawn from international experts or centres of authority. We must learn from our own attempts to apply ideas and experiences, and hopefully the odd ideal as well.

What is to be done? Exchange ideas, decide what you want from the market around you, then negotiate in order to get what you want. Local knowledge, not just theoretical knowledge, Nathanael.

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Training translators: certainties, uncertainties, dilemmas

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Abstract. The author argues that the basic objectives of translator training are quite plain. He describes the standard profile of would-be translators and the architecture of a training programme geared to that profile. He reviews the uncertainties and dilemmas facing institutions and individuals who have decided to assume responsibility for translator training.

CERTAINTIES

I would like to make it clear that I will not be speaking as a language teacher. I won't be speaking as a teacher of translation, either. I will be speaking as a trainer of would-be professional translators. This will clear up any of the usual misunderstandings about "translation".

We have to stop pretending we do not know what should go into the training of translators. Obviously, we are supposed to train people to perform clearly identified functions in clearly identified environments where they will be using clearly identified tools and "systems". The problem may be one of defining the architecture and implementations of the curriculum, not of defining the curriculum itself.

We know our trainees will be working in specialised translation, preferably multimedia translation, localisation, and such specialties as telecommunications and anything to do with the more technical aspects of computers, networks, and such (if they have any sense and want good job opportunities). We know that they will necessarily be using and, hopefully, adapting what goes by the name of a translator's workstation with all kinds of "tools", "helps", "gimmicks" and ... bugs. We know that they will be part of a team – and that is going to become fact even for those who work in the apparent isolation of their home. We know that they will be the actors in a process of industrialisation of translation and linguistic communication at

large. And, above all, we know that productivity will be the word – productivity being, as ever, first and foremost, and even coming before quality - whatever some people might say to the contrary.

Obviously, our trainees must be good overall language service providers. This means, they have to be (or become) translators, technical writers and, preferably, rewriters, terminologists, phraseologists, possibly webmasters and, beyond any doubt, expert users of anything that relates to the hard and soft of any standard translation agency.

Incidentally, translation as a service must be broken down into segments by type of material translated (localisation, multimedia translation, subtitling, dubbing, voice over) by subject matter or domain (technical translation, legal translation, medical translation, etc.) and by type of instruments required.

To complete the picture, we must add that some of our trainees will be practising partly or fully as pre-translators (getting the material to be translated[1] ready and providing such raw materials as terminology, phraseology and technical information for the translator) or as post-translators (getting the translated material up to standard and reprocessing it before it goes out into the wide world). The standard post-translator is none other than the reviewer or reviser. He has been in the picture for a long time and is gaining new legitimacy in a market where checking the quality of what freelancers turn in has become an obsession.

To answer the demands of the market as we see it (and this requires no foresight; it is already there!) we have to give our trainees the required mix of knowledge, competencies, know how, and behaviour, not forgetting the additional ingredients that provide the added value.

Trainees must have or acquire some kind of "culture générale" – provided this is related the technical aspects of the universe. They must understand, or become able to understand, the basics of computer science, of electricity, of physics, of chemistry, of economics, of medicine, of meteorology, and so on and so forth. At least, they should have a propensity to learn about things technical. This is a question for those who are in charge of enrolling candidates for training programmes. What the trainers are supposed to do is teach them how to get to any information on any subject in the shortest time possible.

Trainees must master the two languages they are supposed to translate from and into. Obviously, this again can be dealt with at the time of enrolment. It must be stressed that no serious training of translators can even start until the students have the required linguistic capabilities.

Now for the skills:

Would-be translators must be able to:
- Fully understand the material to be translated
- Detect, interpret and cope with cultural gaps between the originating and destination cultures
- Transfer information, facts, concepts, arguments, lines of reasoning, into a different culture, for a different set of readers/users, and so on.
- Write and rewrite
- Proofread
- Control and assess quality

The above skills translate into know-how. Thus, would-be translators must know how to:
- Get the information and knowledge required
- Find the terminology
- Find the phraseology
- Translate
- Proofread
- Rewrite
- Manage their task(s)
- Manage a project (and other people)

At the same time, would-be translators must have the physiological and psychological qualities that enable them to sit long hours in front of a computer, to withstand pressure and stress, and to surf over and manage crises. They must be both born leaders as well as fully cooperative team-mates.

Finally, the "product" that we launch onto the market must have added value. This is anyone's choice. Added value comes from knowing how to use that paraphernalia of "helps" and "tools", from being further acquainted with one particular (and particularly "trendy") domain, from having gained previous experience, or from being able to take on any of the new "trades" that go by the name of terminography, language industry development, technical writing, web mastering, or from any combination of those, not to mention the full range.

CERTAINTIES STILL

The challenge of creating a trainee's profile along the above lines has a simple answer: let's go professional all the way and make the training environment, the curriculum, the organisation, the trainers, the trainees, the teaching and training techniques, and the tasks (more) professional.

No serious translator training programme can be dreamt of unless the training environment emulates the work station of professional translators. This means that plenty of computers must be available, that accessing the Internet at any time is the rule, and that all the software packages that translators use must also be available – and not only on show when visitors come (who would ever dream of training interpreters without the cabins and everything that goes with them?). This means the burden of investment is quite heavy. All the more so if the environment is to include overhead projectors for the classes (this works wonders since you can actually show the students what happens whenever a decision is taken in the translation process) and lots of other technological wonders. Obviously, we must adapt the environment to the requirements of training real professionals. We can't go about it the other way round and be satisfied with adapting the training to constraints on available resources. All students must be made aware of the fact that technology has a strong impact on the translation process and teachers must change their ways to take these changes into account.

Given the proper environment, the curriculum must be implemented in stages, down cascading prerequisites. Minimum requirements prior to any translator training curriculum are a mix of linguistic competencies and skills, information retrieval skills, and mastery of basic "office" tools (word processor, database management systems, worksheets) together with Internet literacy.

The core of the architecture should be general translation. This can be implemented as a sequence of indexing translation, synoptic translation (translation for gisting purposes), documentary translation, rough-and-ready translation, "flat" translation, then full translation with absolute quality requirements. The steps of moving from one stage to the next can be decided individually and fulfilment of the requirements at any given stage is required as a condition to moving up to the next level of complexity.

The progression from one type of translation to the next up the above scale of specifications provides the backbone of a system of prerequisites within each of the components of the overall translation task. The components are:

- Comprehension and analysis of the material to be translated
- Terminology mining and retrieval
- Phraseology mining and retrieval
- Information retrieval and documentation
- Writing skills within the requirements of the task component
- Use of required tools and technologies within the scope of the task component
- Proofreading skills

This means, in fact, that the progression in the requirements of the translation task are echoed in a parallel progression in the requirements of the task components (all components addressing competencies and skills that are basic to the overall task). It also means that the major requirement is a dedicated team of teachers contributing to the various task components when an whenever the actual need exists and actual solutions must be provided. Synchronising the whole system is the key to efficiency.

The above core architecture expands into a diversity of domains and types of translations. Depending on local choices, this can be localisation, multimedia translation, legal translation, and so on. When all students are ready to move into specialised activities, the point is to keep the same architecture as before, with a global task of translation "requiring" the specialised application of the skills required for the task components. This means upgrading the terminographic, phraseographic, documentary, writing, technological, proofreading and quality control skills to take the new specialties into account. It also means keeping the same progression from indexing translation to absolute translation.

In all matters having to do with translation, sessions can be organised as a sequence of three stages :

1. pre-transfer
2. transfer
3. post-transfer

This refers to a diagram of the translation process that can easily be transposed into the classroom and into all kinds of practical tasks. In very broad terms, the diagram would be as follows:

Pre-transfer	Transfer	Post-transfer
1. Options/specifications		➢ Self-checks
2. Planning		➢ Quality controls
3. Disassembly	**(with heavy writing and/or rewriting components)**	➢ Corrections
4. Work environment		➢ Reassembly/integration
5. Quality-check		➢ Qualification
6. Documentation		
7. Comprehension	**(with or without technology)**	
8. Terminology		
9. Phraseology		

In the pre-transfer phases, the translator decides on which options to choose and what the specifications are before planning the task. If need be, he disassembles the material, breaking it down into various types of components that have to be processed in various ways. He then sets up his work

environment to suit the requirements of the task and checks the material to be translated for any defects. Then comes the time for documentation, analysis and comprehension, terminology retrieval and phraseology retrieval. At the end of that phase, any raw material that will go into the translating process is validated.

The transfer phase is a cultural-linguistic-media specific-functional process with – in the case of text translation - very heavy writing or rewriting components.

In the post-transfer phase, the translator checks his own translation, which is then subjected to various quality control procedures. Corrections are usually made by the translator himself, as are reassembly and reintegration of the translated material into an organic/functional unit (unless that takes a computer wizard). In a quality management model of translation, the post-transfer phase ends with the certification of the translation.

It is therefore possible to define a model of quality assurance applied to professional translation **and** to translating practices within university training sessions. This means drawing up full specifications for the task of translating, having the students manage the job as a team with specific responsibilities for each team-member, establishing and enforcing streamlined procedures, building the logics of insurance quality (upstream) and quality control (downstream) into teaching and training, and whenever possible, having the whole system managed and supported by dedicated software packages[2].

The above model provides an accurate representation of the way specific skills contribute to the overall process of translating in the stages of curriculum implementation where general translation and specialised translation, respectively, are the backbone of the system.

The last and uppermost stage of the curriculum would be when each of the contributing skills can be converted into a job profile of its own (or as a strong individual component of a composite job profile). From that stage on, trainees may choose, as a professional option, to undergo proper training in terminology, or technical writing, or documentation, or rewriting, or even software analysis and developments for the language industries. This would make it possible to turn out confirmed translators with extended opportunities for employment.

To make things professional, the curriculum should also concentrate on emulating the actual work conditions of language service providers. University courses for translators should be organised as a sequence of:

- Information
- Acquisition
- Simulation

- Emulation
- Immersion
- Integration

Information is for the teachers to provide through lectures, presentations, and their usual tricks of the trade.

Acquisition is what students do when they apply the teachers' (and other) specifications in doing translations as homework, in class, individually, in groups, with pen and pencil or keyboard and CPU.

Simulation is more ambitious and should bring in situations where students do translate considerable amounts of material in conditions that tend to resemble those the translator commonly faces. The only difference (but that matters a lot) is that time limits, deadlines, and quality requirements may be eased.

Emulation is a case of doing a full-scale translation job in real-world conditions of deadlines, client's specifications, requirements to use particular techniques and tools, budgets, and so on.

Immersion means integrating the real world of translating. This can happen in a translation bureau or service or in any kind of setup, provided the students get adequate tuition, support, and revision. This is the time for the transition between university training and the constraints of time to market, customer satisfaction, quality management, and project and budget management.

Integration happens when the would-be translators get their jobs and launch on what will hopefully be a long and pleasant career.

UNCERTAINTIES

That the whole training system should be organised more or less according to the above architecture is a matter of common sense. That architecture is a set of embedded requirements and conditions that progressively have trainees move from very simple tasks to more elaborate accomplishments and from general translation to specialised translation. It is driven by the skills that professional practice requires. When it comes to implementing the curriculum, uncertainties arise.

First, the teachers and trainers must go vocational. The above does not make sense unless the trainers are prepared to change their ways and, in most cases, literally change jobs. This means that anyone who decides to set up

shop teaching professional translation simply because enrolment in language classes is on the wane will be a poor recruit. Training translators should be seen as a very serious matter, not as a lifebuoy for language teachers, nor a stepping-stone for promotion. Anyone without a true experience of professional translation or proper training in training translators cannot actually claim to teach would-be translators. This in no way means that we should surrender translator training to the language service companies and businesses. It means that translator training should take place in vocational schools within universities, with any number of contributing outside professionals, but under the responsibility of the universities – provided those universities and their staff go vocational. The danger is real that some institutions decide to thrive on the ever-growing theoretical slice of the cake while farming out the practicalities and hands-on experience to the "professionals".

Second, to be effective, translator training must be inter-disciplinary. Most academics are in no way ready for that. Besides, the question of who coordinates soon arises, with the risk that coordination be entrusted to the person who happens to be in authority for administrative reasons and possibly not because he or she has the necessary talents.

Third, the above architecture does not fit into traditional divisions of time periods, weeks, and semesters. Students move along the line at different paces as they master the various skills required, and, unless properly informed about the purpose of the whole system, strongly resent the fact that they are not "allowed to" translate right away. On the other hand, teachers have to be available to provide information, or tuition, or coaching at the very moment the particular need arises, not ex cathedra, at week 12 or 13 of a two-hours weekly course. Inevitably, in such learning configurations, disruption occurs: the architecture is incompatible with the normal day-to-day flow of smooth, uneventful teaching. In the end, administrative priorities usually get the better of training priorities, probably with the support of both the teaching staff (who are relieved at getting back to the familiar track) and of the students (who are more concerned with passing their exams at reasonable cost and effort and attending regular classes than with being well prepared for the race – or struggle – for jobs).

DILEMMAS AND CAUSES FOR WORRY

If, for the sake of argument, we consider that all conditions are met, and that the translator training programme will work to everyone's satisfaction [students getting a job, teachers getting the rewards of a well-done job,

universities moving from academic pursuits to vocational concerns with the support of the public and the administration, employers and 'clients' getting the service they expect] there remain a number of very disturbing questions. Those questions arise once we move out of the "core business" of teaching-educating-training what we might call general-purpose translators. This probably explains why there is so much resistance to change: all institutions can quite snugly argue that they do turn out adequate translators if a translator is someone who can translate, is reasonably skilled with a word processor, has acquired a theoretical background against which to analyse the nitty gritty, and is supposed to have been taught how to track down any information that he might need to understand the material he or she will be translating.

The problem is this: unless the job market is wide open, such translators fare very poorly when they leave university. They are often considered as "of no value". Out there, the translator must be more than a "pure translator". In fact, the basic profile of what the market wants is a translator with a lot of add-ons: the ability to use translation memory managers, the ability to review and rewrite translation, the ability to manage the terminology, and so on, and so forth.

We may decide not to take up the challenge and let others (employers, translators' associations, our former students themselves, private organisations) take care of that side of things. Alternatively, we may decide – I think we should decide - to keep expanding the skills and competencies of our trainees. Then, we are faced with the following dilemmas:

What kind and level of specialisation should we introduce? Should we insist on domain specific or tool-specific translation? If we choose a particular domain, what should that be? Should we consider that localisation skills must be taught to all since this is a prosperous niche? Or should we prefer subtitling on the grounds that the DVD will open vast new markets? What translation memory manager should be considered? Must all students know how to use them all?

And if we have the answers to that first series of question, there is another one just round the corner: who will be in charge? Who will actually do the training? How far and how long must we try and keep abreast of the technological race?

The answers to those questions heavily depend on conditions that prevail nationally or even, sometimes, locally. They depend very heavily – if not solely – on the availability of trainers, specific equipment, and, more generally, money. Ultimately, there is a danger that none but the bigger operators will remain in viable business, with the smaller operators surviving

as second rate institutions whose graduates will join the ranks of the lesser paid general practitioners of translation. Their only alternative would be to go for niches within the niches, but if that has worked quite well over the past few years, it has become risky too. Niches soon turn into open markets and, when they do so, the attached prestige and money plummet. Fifteen years ago, a translator with specialist skills in the domain of computers and software was a very rare bird indeed. Today, thousands of translators have crowded (and debased) that particular former niche.

This, in fact, is the crux of the matter: translator trainers are faced with policy dilemmas. And those dilemmas have very strong implications indeed for their graduates.

CONCLUSION

There is room for improvement in translator training at universities: curricula, teaching methods, training architectures, enrolment, environments, and even teachers may be improved. Whatever universities decide to teach in their own right, the requirements of the translation markets should be the driving force and translator training should definitely be vocational.

Yet, any improvement inevitably leads to the need for further improvement, both because the translation scene, technology, operators and markets keep changing and because any level of improvement is wasted the moment everyone has improved. Change has never been as fast and as extensive as it is today. The net result is that we have to "produce" translators who can translate, who have more and more technical expertise[3], to whom all helps and tools are familiar, who can perform more and more jobs (provide more diversified services) and who can perform them with increased productivity. It makes absolutely no doubt that the translator's profile must be broader, more diversified, and that each skill must be more extensively developed. Unless we can be sure that our graduates will all find jobs or make a living as "pure translators" or unless we decide that our commitment stops at "teaching translation", we do face heavy responsibilities, lots of uncertainties, and no end of dilemmas, simply because the signs and landmarks set by the job market for translators keep changing and moving and shifting.

Notes

[1] This is particularly important in localisation and multimedia translation, where various components of the material to be translated have to be separated and processed in different ways.

[2] Cf. for instance, Procedures and Rules for Enhanced Quality in Translation – a translation quality management package and organiser developed at Université de Rennes 2.

[3] There must be some reason why so many practising translators are technicians or "domain specialists".

What are the objectives in the curriculum design of an interpreting and translating programme?

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Abstract. In any traditional academic course the objectives will stipulate that the student should a) know the principles of his subject and b) understand some of the uses to which his subject is put (Beard, 1972:76). In the case of vocational courses we may have to consider the objectives of the training programme in reverse.
The discussion in this paper is centred round the issue of how, when designing an I/T course, we define our objectives. In setting these objectives, we need to consider: what will be expected of our graduates when they join language services upon the completion of the programme; what proportion of the curriculum should be taken by skill-related activities, i.e. interpreting and translating practice, and a more theoretical study of the subject; what is the subject of study in I/T programme: a) is it the theory and practice of Translation & Interpreting; b) is it linguistic theories in I/T studies; c) is it international institutions, international law, world politics and cultural studies; or d) is it new technologies in I/T studies?
The paper also addresses the question of whether job providers should participate in the design and delivery of our curriculum and at what cost.

1 What are the objectives?

1.1 Pathway A

The objectives of most well established I/T schools are formulated on the assumption that the schools are producing a fully-fledged translator or interpreter. Their graduates will be ready to join the profession on an equal footing with its existing members. If the graduate passes, for example, the interpreting tests for the interpreting services of the European Commission, the European Parliament or the UN, she or he will be expected to go into the booth the following day. The situation is not dissimilar with translation services, though a training period of about six months is not uncommon among respectable and successful translation agencies whereas some international organisations offer *stage* of a similar length. Established European schools pride themselves on the quality of linguists they produce. However, the pass rate for interpreting, for example, can be expected to be

low. The objectives of I/T programmes may vary depending on the type and length of the programme but not always. Thus a four-year undergraduate programme can be aimed at achieving the same objectives as a one or two-year postgraduate programme. There is a well-known group of schools whose students graduating from a four-year undergraduate programme have been replenishing European language services for a long time now. Among such schools are ESIT (Paris), ETI (Geneva), ISTI (Brussels), SSLMIT (Trieste), Hoger Instituut voor Vertalers en Tolken (Antwerp), Institut für Übersetzer und Dolmetscherausbildung (Wien).

Whichever programme is on offer, undergraduate or postgraduate, the schools who believe they produce fully-fledged linguists will have to stipulate the professional level of attainment in their objectives. The objectives will be along the lines: *by the end of the I/T programme graduate linguists will have developed the skills of interpreting and translating to a professional level.* To give an example of professional attainment, all schools participating in the European Masters in Conference Interpreting will comply with the following objectives[1]: 'Within the framework of the European Union's drive towards the promotion of knowledge through wider access to specialist education and of the objective of improved employability through the acquisition of specialist competence, this intensive course is designed to equip young graduates with the professional skills and knowledge required for conference interpreting.' (http://www-gewi.kfunigraz.ac.at/emci/) ESIT's (Paris) general objectives for translation and interpreting respectively read: 'L'objectif de l'ESIT est de préparer les étudiants à la vie active pour en faire des traducteurs professionnels capable de s'adapter rapidement à n'importe quel domaine.' And '...former des interprètes de conférence de haut niveau aux techniques de l'interprétation consecutive et simultanée.' (www.univ-paris 3.fr/esit) Heriot-Watt University (Edinburgh) defines its objectives for translation on MA in Languages, Interpreting and Translating, in the following way: 'Competence in the specialist skills of translating... at a level which would enable students to seek professional appointment as translators.' (http://www.hw.ac.uk/lang/degree.html) And the University of Westminster offers: '...students successfully completing this intensive practical training programme will be able to perform effectively as both consecutive and simultaneous interpreters...' (pg Dip/MA in Conference Interpreting Techniques) and '[pg Dip/MA in Bilingual Translation]...trains language specialists to a professional level in translation.'[2] (http://www.wmin.ac.uk)

1.2 Pathway B

A professional level or greater pass rate is more likely to be achieved where training takes more than one year. In the UK until recently there has

been only one school that offered an undergraduate degree in interpreting and translating, Heriot-Watt University in Edinburgh, though far from all the graduates are expected to achieve a professional level. A much more common type of I/T training in the UK is at a postgraduate level, aiming at either a diploma or an MA award. As a rule, the majority of students applying to these, so called 'lean', 12-months programmes come from traditional (not I/T) courses. These candidates are normally offered aptitude tests and those with linguistic and personality aptitude are admitted. Yet we find that as little as 10% and no more than 20% of graduates attain a level in interpreting where we would advise them to take the European Commission, the European Parliament or the UN tests, and only about 50% to 60% achieve marks in translation high enough for us to recommend that they are ready to offer their services on the market.[3] In most cases we would advise the graduates to seek a type of employment where further in-house training might be offered, though it is rather difficult to find a position with *stage* phase in interpreting services. We are fully aware, however, that none of this is available in a freelance engagement. The employment pattern demonstrates that we may have to set perhaps less ambitious objectives where we will have to state that the attainment of competence should be further developed. The objectives then should be formulated in approximately the following way: '*by the end of this programme graduate linguists will have acquired competence in the skills of interpreting and translating which they will be able to consolidate in their professional capacity as translators and/or interpreters.*'

More ambitious objectives will inevitably impact on resources and the distribution of other subjects if these are to be included. Let us for the moment consider the recommended curriculum elements of the European Masters in Conference Interpreting. The European Masters in Conference Interpreting is a postgraduate programme launched in 1997 as a pilot project by the European Commission, The European Parliament and DGXXII in partnership with eight European universities. Its aim is to train highly qualified conference interpreters. The European Masters stipulates that the curriculum should include the theory of interpretation, the practice of interpretation, consecutive interpretation, simultaneous interpretation, the EU and International Organisations. Further it requires that the overall class contact hours should be no fewer than 400 and that no less than 75% should be devoted to the practice of interpreting. With the UK pattern of 15-week semesters (12 teaching weeks plus 3 weeks of preparation and examination) this translates approximately to 17 contact hours per week where 12.5 hours are devoted to interpretation alone. If we allow 2 hours per week for the theory and practice of interpretation (Leeds requirement) and average 2 hours for EU and International institutions then in real terms there is no room left for any translation training.

Training in translation of course is not in the remit of the European Masters. For many European I/T Schools with a four-year undergraduate programme the specialisation happens half way through the course where the students are required to choose between interpreting and translation. Most one-year I/T programmes in the UK offer specialisation in the second semester (Bath, Bradford, Heriot-Watt, Leeds), with the exception of the University of Westminster where the two programmes are completely separate. In terms of job prospects, the programmes that offer both skills are quite successful. Since there are more jobs in the translation rather than interpreting services, there is a feeling among the UK academics that it is 'safer' to offer training in both skills.[4] Most graduates find employment within one year after graduation. This is predominantly in the area of translation regardless of their study specialisation. Translation agencies have been the most common destination. Experience has also shown that most graduates, when starting their new job, were offered further in-house training. The UK experience also demonstrates that graduates very rarely succeed in passing interpreting tests to European or International organisations in the first year of graduation, but the success rate is higher after a couple of years of experience in the freelance market. It is not only the employment record with various organisations that speaks in favour of a two-skill training. A considerable proportion of graduates enter the freelance market where they will be using both skills. With this approach, room for both skills has to be found perhaps at the expense of the other skill or other subjects.

Coming back to the question of the objectives under Model B, it would only be prudent and more realistic to say to our students that we will offer them professional training and competence, but they may still need to enhance their skills by work experience before they can offer their services as fully qualified translators and interpreters.

2 Theory vs. Practice

The next question that has relevance to the issue of objectives is *what proportion of the curriculum should be taken by skill-related activities, i.e. interpreting and translating practice, and the theoretical study of the subject*? It is a matter of choice for each school to decide whether or not to offer both interpreting and translation on the 'lean' postgraduate programme or to specialize in one skill or the other. But is there room in a one-year vocational course for the study of theoretical elements? Furthermore, theory is not only a question of time or space allocation in the curriculum. Often our professional colleagues put these questions to us: Do you really need theory

on such courses? And what do you need it for? Why do your students need to write an MA dissertation? What use does it have for their work in a booth? Of course similar questions are asked time and again in relation to many other practical subjects and we should not dismiss it as groundless but should explain the rationale as to why we insist on maintaining a theory input.

The answer to the MA dissertation question is simple. The students can stop at the diploma level if they wish to. Most of them, however, nowadays choose to complete an MA. As regards theory in general, there are variations in courses across the UK but on the whole most university courses have a certain proportion of the curriculum taken up by theoretical aspects: some choose to place greater emphasis on theory, others to a lesser degree.[5] The European Masters in Conference Interpreting as a pan-European programme serves as a suitable model for a skill-oriented postgraduate training and a theoretical component comprises a compulsory part of its curriculum. There is hardly any point in questioning the premise that in I/T training theory helps to explain how our complex mental processes work. In his book *Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training* Daniel Gile explains the 'potential benefits of theoretical components' in I/T programmes (1995:12-14). By definition, one of the universities' missions is to develop and instil research culture and this remains the status quo.

The question that we still need to answer is what proportion of the curriculum should be assigned to theory? The answer to this question depends on the length of the programme and the aims and objectives. If in a one to two-year programme we are aiming at a professional level of training, we have to be aware of the availability of time to students, so that they can put all their effort into practising the skills. We cannot overburden them with translation theory assignments. Here, perhaps, we should be aiming at providing the basics of Translation and Interpretation studies, acquainting students with major trends and, if they become really interested, move them to a more research-oriented programme. If we are aiming at a near-professional level of I/T skills and intend to prepare our students for research activities as well, we have to design our courses accordingly, giving T & I Studies greater prominence and a greater time allocation. But then skill-related activities will inevitably occupy less time. We are not speculating here as to which model or programme is better we are considering different approaches to training and variations in emphasis.

4 Job Providers and Their Role

Should job providers participate in the design and delivery of our curriculum and at what cost? The problem of a gap between the professional world and interpreter and translator training in academic institutions is an old one. There is a good deal of cooperation taking place between interpreting and translation services and I/T schools, yet there is not enough of it. The POSI project completed in 1998 addressed precisely this issue. The debate between academics and professionals is an ongoing process and the Porto experience has served as yet another example of this debate (see the papers by Daniel Gouadec, Belinda Maia and Emma Wagner). As regards training in machine assisted translation and translation management, there are some excellent courses where schools have links with the translation industry and therefore professional training is provided (two such programmes represented at Porto were from the University of Leeds, UK and Rennes University, France). As for traditional translation courses, it is not uncommon to hear the criticism from the employers that often the training that the graduates receive does not correspond to the needs of the industry. Therefore there is every reason to continue the dialogue between the academics and professional translators and promote a closer cooperation. The system where the schools can bring in practising translators to take part in the university training programme would seem the best approach.

As regards interpreter training, the situation is somewhat different from translator training because a majority of interpreting schools traditionally employ or, more often, 'hire' professional interpreters to carry out the training. This, naturally, comes at a cost. If the participating interpreters are freelance, they will normally expect to be paid the rate that they get for interpreting plus travel expenses. If they are full-time members of an organisation, they may choose not to charge for teaching but they cannot give enough of their time to training students. The European Masters in Conference Interpreting, mentioned earlier, does offer greater scope for cooperation between the schools and interpreting services. After all, three major European institutions participated in its curriculum design. Particularly active as regards cooperation is SCIC, the European Commission Interpreting Services, which offers pedagogical assistance to interpreting schools. The assistance comes in the form of teaching visits up to one week in duration or participation in the interpreting examinations. SCIC normally sends interpreters with significant training experience. The problem is we cannot have enough of them. When it comes to professional freelance interpreters participating in our programmes, it is very difficult to ensure that they have sufficient 'know-how' experience in training.

In the ideal world a larger part of our training programmes would be executed by competent professionals from a range of language services, but language services are under tremendous pressure to deliver and cannot release their staff often enough to meet our needs. Relying on freelance input seems to be the best option, though it may prove to be costly at the end of the day. However, a complementary approach may offer the best available solution, i.e. internal resources plus greater involvement of languages services (if we can persuade them to give not a lot but some of their time) plus a contribution of freelance translators and interpreters. And, last but not least, we should promote some form of in-house induction scheme, once our graduate enters the services. Then perhaps we will be able to turn our graduates into highly competent language service providers.

Notes

[1] For the list of schools see http://www-gewi.kfunigraz.ac.at/emci/

[2] These examples have been selected from those websites where clear objectives have been stated. It is assumed that not all schools may have their objectives displayed in this form.

[3] These statistics were discussed at the meeting convened by SCIC, the European Commission Interpreting Services, and hosted by the University of Westminster in London on 2 February 2001.

[4] This feeling was shared at the meeting in London.

[5] For UK I/T curriculums see the following websites: http://www.bath.ac.uk/esml/madiploma.html;http://www.brad.ac.uk/acad/mod-lang/ brochur.htm;http://www.hw.ac.uk/langWWW/degree.html;http://www. wmin.ac.uk; http://smlc01.leeds.ac.uk

[6] The fifth SCIC-Universities Conference 'Interpretation: the Changing Landscape' held in Brussels on 5 February 2001 was partly devoted to the question of technology use in interpreting.

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Shifting concepts and values for translator education in the global information society?

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Abstract. In this paper we interrogate the alleged new-century 'information' and 'globalisation' changes in the light of their likely implications for translation studies, translators and translator education. The much-celebrated paradigmatic shift to student-centred, lifelong learning and distance education is often wedded with highly optimistic confidence in the potential of ICT tools for translators and their training, and the enhanced possibilities of a globalised market. In the fast-moving, media-driven, image-laden world of ours, it is just as important not to be a passive, acritical consumer of grand discourses of human emancipation and bright, promised futures as it is to appropriate novel forms of technology, education and social manifestations, for personal, professional and ethical purposes. It is on that understanding that we wish to explore the ways in which the above changes and processes may influence the practice (and theory) of translation and their teaching. We shall proceed by looking at 'concepts' and 'values', symbols whereby subjects identify themselves and the society and times they live in, unquestioned axioms that are full of 'objective' values and emotional value, usually promoting and shoring up ideas and institutions such as humanistic education, Information Technology, market-oriented training, discourse analysis, cultural studies in translation, and so on.

Around 1992, full-blown 4-year undergraduate degrees in translation and interpreting were introduced in the Spanish university system. This was part of a translator training institutions boom that can be traced back to the 1980s, sometimes earlier, and has only been on the increase ever since. It was also a fashionable development coincidental with the establishment of Translation Studies as a very influential interdiscipline. Given the importance that this activity *and* profession – and its theorisation – needed to acquire, and considering the deep international recession, joblessness and uncertainties of the time, it is not difficult to infer the reasons why machine translation, and computer aids in general, were widely viewed with deep suspicion, sarcastic contempt, but also with growing concern. Machines, it was rightly argued, are both unable to replace and to understand human creativity, linguistic ambiguity, feelings and the great complexity of languages. Translators were then considered to be *the* (only) efficient bridgers of texts, languages,

cultures. Soon, however, with the new technological wave that came with the internet and the realisation of the potential and actual power of (hyper)media, the older picture became obsolete, leaving little if any trace behind. This was furthered by the consolidation of translation studies in/through its many different, often hardly interconnected, branches and nurturing disciplines, and the rapid, successful development of Computer-Assisted Translation (CAT) tools – along with the abandonment of overly ambitious projects for machine translation, which no longer posed a threat but hoisted human translators back onto centre stage.

Only a few translators, as Douglas Robinson (2000) points out, disagree with the idea that the most relevant work is being carried out in virtual communities, that without computers and certain computer-automated tasks they would be lost. Besides, most translation teachers and lecturers value the contribution of IT very highly and seem increasingly anguished by their own (or embarrassed by their colleagues') flagrant computer illiteracy. Even if they are no firm believers in the potential of technology, they will rush to encourage their students to become competent in new technologies, just in case...

There *are* voices against new technologies, new media, and the Internet, nonetheless. But not so many within the translation and interpreting trade. Why is this? In contrast to (professional or 'self-proclaimed') sociologists, for instance, who argue that television is a source of human isolation, 'cheap fast food for thought', no good for memory enhancing, this is a very valuable medium of information and source of income for translators. So both as consumers and as service providers, translators are increasingly attached to television. The same is even truer for any other piece of electronic or communications technology. The reason, of course, being, that the main role with which translators are associated is that of communicators. Consequently, the higher the prestige and profile of the medium, the more there is a need for translation and translators.

What about the Internet? What are the main arguments or cautions against it? Again, these are rarely voiced in the translation field. All the translators and translation teachers I know who still militate against mobile phones, excessive television watching, and so on, seem to have greeted the internet with great interest and enthusiasm. The reasons are easy to infer, and, again, have to do with certain concepts to which translators are deeply attached. In order to explore these attitudes towards new technologies and communications tools, I will look into more or less established (or shifting) ideas (*concepts* and *values*) that have caught on for different reasons and to various degrees among translation users, producers, researchers, etc. My assumption is that the impact of new developments and stimuli in general (e.g. education) can be determined only to a certain extent and from a certain perspective. The

interaction of those (perceived) effects with society's more or less shared concepts and values, in turn, produces new concepts and values, new expectations that feed into the very direction of prospection for development.

Before discussing those values and concepts that influence our perception, use of, and reaction to, new technologies, I would like to very briefly draw on the ideas of Jean-François Lyotard (1979), who tried to expose the principles of legitimation within our society, and the contradictions that characterize the passage from modernity to postmodernity. I will here refer to the ideas of 'discourse', 'language game', 'metanarrative', 'master narrative' and 'grand narrative' interchangeably – meaning the construction and constant actualisation of a network of coherent principles that are accepted as 'natural' or 'good' or 'efficient' in a society. 'Discourses' have one crucial feature and that is their unreflexivity – i.e. concealing their own condition *as* discourses in order to be presented as objective and unimposed. Key elements in the configuration of discourses are so-called (in poststructuralist terminology) master signifiers': 'those words through which an identity is created [...] what people desire to be recognised as, ego ideals, thus they are emotional investments. As such, they tend to be recognized as axiomatic, unquestioned and unquestionable' (Bracher and Lacan, *apud* Usher & Edwards 1994:74-78 *passim*); or, in my own definition, 'powerful trend(y) descriptors, symbols within those narratives whereby subjects identify themselves and the society and times they live in, and serve as reference points for us. A few examples: humanistic education', 'market-oriented training', 'new technologies', knowledge', and so on.

Lyotard identifies two main discourses in modern times: the grand narratives of 'emancipation' and 'speculative unity of knowledge', to be found most commonly throughout/within primary and university education, respectively (54-62). In our postmodern era, however, these pillars of our Western liberal society are constantly challenged and always in the process of falling apart. Principles of society are fragmented into little, individual narratives. New discourses are introduced that more often than not supersede and confuse the above-mentioned humanistic ones. Emancipation and unity of knowledge are still high in the agenda but there are other crucial language games like 'efficiency/performativity', 'informativity', 'personal enjoyment', 'immediacy and non-mediation –transparency' that are increasingly being valued above the old ones.

In such a confused and confusing scenario, education and new technologies are closely interconnected. Both are anxiously forced to provide for technically efficient/*performant*, informed, joyful, independent subjects and, at the same time, emancipated and critically knowledgeable. Education and new technologies are therefore identified with a few common but

contradictory master signifiers like 'enlightened emancipation', 'individuality building/enhancing', 'continuing self-education', 'market-orientedness', libertarian or humanistic education', 'language and information', unity/fragmentation of knowledge', 'crisis of authority/legitimisation', and so on. With that theoretical framework in mind, my aim here is to ask, and give a few partial answers to, the following questions: what values and concepts are intimately attached to the influence of new technologies for translation and translation educators? Where do those ideas come from? How can they be seen as empowering or disempowering for translators?

Globalisation. The fall of national barriers

Where does translation lie in the globalisation/localisation rift? As can be easily inferred, translation thrives on both. Localisation is enormously productive and profitable for translators. And so is globalisation: it is precisely the tension between these supplementary forces that creates ample, if also discontinuous, spaces for translation mediation. The internet amplifies the effects of nationless, frontierless exchanges, probably shifting the borderlines onto languages, cultures, peer-to-peer negotiation. As Pym (2000:220ff) points out, cultural/economic/linguistic products can hardly be identified as originating in a specific nation-state – or language for that matter. In a context where *patents* (here, the right to claim the paternity, lawful or legitimate property rights) are questionable, translators could be freed from the burden of source/target tolls and move freely back and forwards across globalising cultures, languages and conventions. Exclusive distribution deals that impose abusive conditions on the lesser, intermediate agents/axis – the translators – can be bypassed by direct global mediation, or internationalisation'[1], by translators themselves.

Accessibility, availability, transparency, democracy

Is everything readily available on the Internet? Is information presented in a transparent way, eliminating the need for mediation and mediators? If we follow through this argument, we will end up in a terrible paradox. Never before has it been so easy for translators to gain access to information (specific knowledge, text types, formats, terminology and so on) for quality translations. At the same time, however, their role as mediators will be ever more underestimated, since unmediated, immediate access to information, reality and pleasure is one of the most powerful master signifiers in today's individualistic consumer society.

It becomes clearer and clearer, nevertheless, that what is needed is value-added information, qualified knowledge, the ability to tell the superfluous from the relevant. All sorts of 'junk' information can be found on the internet,

it is said, so we should know how to discriminate the good from the bad. But who is to decide what is to be believed and accepted, and what not? Shouldn't we, instead, challenge traditional views about authority and truly democratise 'truth' and 'relevance' in the independent, unbranded distribution of unauthoritative information. In what sense are translations more or less credible than 'originals', in particular if we consider that translated material is always there and everywhere, mainly inadvertently, passing itself off, and functioning, as an 'original'?

If experts and authors around the world have never been so easily reachable, this might be an excellent opportunity to exercise responsibility by and for translators, whose work is more than ever open to scrutiny, but also to press for collaboration, co-authority. Translators' work in the global ICT world, it seems to me, can be seen as that of a qualified mediator or a derivative author, in Venuti's terms (1998:43).

Collaboration, cooperative spirit

Valuable work today requires cutting across and joining disciplines, languages, expert fields, media, technologies and skills. The Internet can be of great help, bringing a myriad experts together in joint projects. New technologies, the translation of quality work, knowledge and information into a computerised language that can be reused and re-reused endlessly makes complementary competences an urgent necessity. Lyotard warns, however[2], that if exclusively linked to performativity and efficiency – values subordinate to market and institutional pressures, collaboration, group work, etc. can end up serving conservative values that have little to do with humanistic ideals.

An alternative approach to collaboration and cross-disciplinary cooperation would be to accept *parology* (Lyotard: 98ff), or infinite, cross-disciplinary innovation, channelling varied methods, objects of enquiry, phenomena through different languages and fields, dispelling the natural tendency for individual disciplines and their associated discourses to construct theories that primarily serve the purpose of self-legitimation instead of criticism. Another of the possible consequences of the Internet medium could be the displacement of the notion of translators as 'lonesome guys', secluded in the solitude of their own homes or preferred libraries to tackle a basically individual task. Both 'wishful' possibilities would no doubt affect the very foundation of the present discourse of translation, with its emphasis on individuality, creativity and universality. In our opinion such a move could foster a more democratic, open, enjoyable, responsible, cooperative attitude towards translation.

'New encyclopedism', collective intelligence[3]

A few sources of authority don't contain *the* valuable knowledge any more. Instead, discussion lists, newsgroups, e-mail exchange, instant message services, hypertextually-linked information and so on, can open the way to a more democratic sharing of knowledge and opinions and further accessibility of hitherto 'distant' information. This, as theorists warn, however, does not in itself disperse the sources of control or authority. What is necessary, instead, is to consider those sources as intermediaries that critically construct meaning that is relevant for one's own purposes or the community's (Talens 2000:346-7). A case in point is the accessibility of authors and 'legitimate' experts to be consulted for meaning and a critical update of 'original' texts. Direct contact with them can reinforce the idea of shared authorship and sense-building/enhancing, as we have seen and will see immediately again.

In our time, knowledge and information seem to equal power. But knowledge, as Lyotard warned, does not necessarily mean cumulative, communicative, denotative knowledge. The endless display of information in pre-packed, ready-to-be-used forms should not force translators to absurdly know "all there is to know" (Arrojo 1996:98-9). Knowledge also means a different, incommensurable wisdom: how to act, react, please, criticise, teach, learn, listen, live, enjoy (Lyotard:36).

Authority, authorship, originality

In a medium where hypermedia challenges the very concept of a unified original and an original author, translation is foregrounded as an activity on a par with 'original' writing. The ease with which information can be stored, selected, transformed and so on, makes the idea of a pure, untouchable original something increasingly uncertain. If thanks to our digital highways, texts (at least 'valuable' texts) are those that refer to multiple sources, and originality is only a function of an as-yet-unexperienced reshaping of pre-extant material, translation can certainly benefit from these new definitions.

Distance learning, lifelong education

In our society, where competitiveness forces us to increasingly integrate complementary skills and knowledge, and information is seen as unreachable in its 'totality', where self-recycling is regarded as essential to reassert usefulness and adjustment to fast-changing modes and technologies, lifelong education can be conceptualised as, crucially, a way of self-development and enjoyment of different/varying social media or, dangerously, as a source of lifelong control by institutions in power. Distance learning is in its turn a way of more flexible learning with special audiovisual aids that replace rigid face-

to-face, on-the-spot pedagogy and seduces learners with the idea of individualised attention and de-institutionalised knowledge. It encapsulates the modern ideal of human emancipation, with its promises of 'freedom to learn', 'learner-centredness' and 'open access' promoted by the Internet. It prepares trainees to be workers 'on the go', available wherever they are. However, the pervasiveness of work (tele-work) can also turn the promised paradise into hell.

Market*ability* vs. Humanistic, critical knowledge

Are all technological developments meant for a more efficient performance in the market-place? Is it really what education is all about? Mesmerising techniques and promises of a computerised future can lure us to acritically accept a life of submission to technology and relinquishing of personal growth and enjoyment.

The new marketing/human resources/customer-centred strategies are aimed at making the experience of the people on whom the institutions, market and business powers depend more comfortably personal while demanding them to gregariously accept their solutions as *standard* and 'good-enough'. Translation and teaching software produces more attractive, usable material and simplifies processes, at a cost: these methods might disempower translators and teachers by turning them into users and consumers rather than programmers and thinkers (Talens:388-9)

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Needless to say, none of these questions has any simple answers. What is important is to acknowledge the variety of language games and discourses in science, university, trade and street life, as well as the unpredictability of new phenomena, which can produce positive as well as undesired effects in different places. It is crucial that we realise that such concepts and values as we have presented here are historical and relative, that globalisation and localisation are contradictory but complementary, that professional life and university education are not incompatible just because their objectives and priorities may be different. It is precisely for that reason that both discourses are necessary and equally important.

Translation, it is our view, can no doubt benefit enormously from new technologies and the Internet. This, however, should be done *critically*, on the understanding that new conditions and media are being created that cannot but reconfigure power positions, discourses, priorities and work conditions that are not necessarily an improvement always and for all. Finally, if translators abandon rigid definitions to conquer the fight for language/culture/power mediation, new concepts and values promoted by the 'internetisation'

of our technological environment can be useful to reassess the role and the status of translators and translation as a human activity.

Notes

[1] Increasingly, 'internationalisation' becomes the other side of localisation, whereby texts are being marked and prepared for translation in multiple languages. Translators, therefore (or 'localisers', or 'globalisers'), interact with and through each other as real intermediaries.

[2] Lyotard (1979:78-88), in his chapter 'L'enseignement et sa legitimation para la performativité' (Teaching and its legitimation through performativity).

[3] See Lévy (1997); Gaia (1999:chapter 1); Landow (1992).

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1.2 curricular reform-specific proposals

Integrating language technology into a postgraduate translation programme

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Abstract. No one-year Masters programme in technical or specialised translation is now complete without a significant component devoted to the theory and use of translation technology. If syllabus developers are to take seriously the recommendations of bodies such as LETRAC, such a programme should aim to develop expertise in the use of the internet and of industry-standard terminology management, machine translation and translation memory systems. Ideally, students studying for an MA or MSc programme geared to the needs of the translation industry should acquire competence in using a variety of systems and approaches and should complete their training programme fully equipped to take on a number of different rôles within the industry. In addition to providing an overview of suggested current good practice, this paper also aims to consider a number of issues which need to be addressed by anyone planning to offer training in the use of this vital new technology. 1) The decision needs to be taken as to what proportion of the programme needs to be devoted to translation tools, and how this will balance the other course emphases. Indeed, the problem of integration with the rest of the programme is a serious one, the danger being that the translation technology component can develop into a kind of "bolt-on" unless time is taken to disseminate expertise and serious thought given to the problems of producing a fully co-ordinated syllabus. 2) As well as taking students through some of the standard packages, ways need to be found to include some coverage of "cutting edge" practices such as advanced WWW-based terminology mining, automatic terminology extraction, manipulating glossaries and other files between different proprietary formats, and working with a range of different technologies in tandem (e.g. MT and CAT). 3) With a range of tools having gained widespread acceptance in the translation industry serious thought needs to be given to which packages should be included in the training, and what order they will be covered in. The aim should be to present packages as even-handedly

and impartially as possible, while still encouraging students to draw their own conclusions regarding their relative strengths and weaknesses. 4) The need to produce courseware with carefully-constructed source texts for students to work on means that, in a multilingual group, some participants may find themselves translating out of their native language. Every effort needs to be taken to ensure that this is for practice purposes only. 5) The significant problems associated with some target language scripts need to be solved. This is particularly the case where facilities for using double-byting languages (i.e. Chinese, Japanese and Korean) need to be provided under a Western operating system.

In early 1995 the School of Modern Languages and Cultures at the University of Leeds, among the largest centres for the study of Modern Languages and Linguistics in the UK, decided to launch a postgraduate translator training Masters. The idea was to combine the School's unrivalled range of languages, which would allow students to study say Japanese and Portuguese, or Chinese and Bulgarian, with its cross-departmental expertise in Linguistics and Translation Theory, and the experience of the many practising translators on the staff, into a programme that would have unique strengths and a distinctive practical identity. Two of the present authors, Mark Shuttleworth (then of the Leeds Department of Russian) and Andrew Rothwell (French) were invited to design and co-ordinate the programme.

Quickly, however, we realised that there was something missing from our plans: the kind of specialist computerised translation tool that had recently been demonstrated to a research group in the School. The software was the then new IBM TranslationManager, and the speaker was Robert Clark, Leeds languages graduate in Russian and Arabic and (fortunately for us) Leeds-based professional translator and writer on Language Technology (LT). Without Bob's intensive professional input from outside the academic sphere, the MA in Applied Translation Studies (MAATS)[1] at Leeds could not have developed the software-intensive slant which proved to be its most distinctive selling-point and allowed it to exceed the recommendations of the European Union's LETRAC (Language Engineering for Translators' Curricula) project well before its 1999 report was published.[2] In the first year of operation (1996-7) Bob taught the whole of the compulsory Translation Tools module on his own, and only gradually did a few academic staff begin to acquire the expertise to contribute to that component of the course. The learning curve was steep and is still ongoing, since every year brings new products, new versions of existing tools, new operating systems and/or new IT training facilities, all of which introduce unknowns and fresh problems and require teaching materials to be rewritten.

Now that MAATS has spawned offspring of its own,[3] it seems appropriate to stand back and review the lessons learnt from five years of incorporating LT into postgraduate translator training programmes, starting with three general observations:

1. LT skills are definitely in demand from the translation professions and graduates who have them have much greater employability;
2. LT can and should be taught in an academic environment, but with strong support from the translation profession and software developers, as part of a rounded and integrated programme;
3. Expert technical backup is crucial.

1 has now been conclusively demonstrated by experience. 2 and 3 go together: although it cannot fully mimic the "real world" of commercial translating, a university course provides an ideal environment in which fledgling translators can experience a whole range of LT tools, rather than just those adopted in a particular company, and explore their comparative functionality and design principles in depth, rather than just learning the features required to "get a job done". Installing and maintaining LT software in an academic networked environment for which in many cases it was not designed does, however, place extremely heavy demands on technical support staff. Once it is working, the benefits (collaborative working by students, access to programs and data from anywhere on campus) can be invaluable, but the difficulties involved in getting it right should not be underestimated.[4]

Objectives

Realistic goals need to be set when planning the syllabus for a postgraduate training course of this type. After all, there is typically only one calendar year to play with, and participants are likely to come from a variety of backgrounds as far as nationality, age, previous translation experience and IT expertise are concerned. Clearly, attempting to cover every aspect of translator training in equal detail is an unrealistic goal given these very real limitations. However, over the past four to five years we have generally found it perfectly feasible to produce graduates who have at least a basic amount of experience translating a range of text-types and are equipped with a range of skills which make them highly desirable to potential future employers. In addition, we try to ensure that their new-found knowledge and skills are underpinned with a significant grasp of theoretical issues.

In practice, though, the main focus of our courses has been on providing training in LT. Somewhat surprisingly, given the overtly technology-intensive nature of our programmes, our participants have ranged from the highly

computer-literate to the out-and-out technophobe. One of our greatest challenges has therefore been to ensure that all students commence the course with at least a basic proficiency in Windows skills and some familiarity with a number of standard Windows-based applications. Before students can work with TRADOS Translator's Workbench, they quite clearly need to be able to resize a window; before attempting to develop a multilingual terminological database, they must know how to enter accented characters.

Within this context our chief aim is to provide our students with a thorough understanding of and wide-ranging experience in the use of industry-standard translation software. Hand in hand with this, we seek to make participants aware of a range of modern working methodologies and get them used to the idea of teamwork. It also goes without saying that familiarity with the Internet occupies a place high up on our agenda.

On a more theoretical level, we aim to familiarise students with all aspects of the translator's decision-making and to introduce them to a range of theoretical and historical thought on the subject of translation. In addition, we seek to make explicit the interface between LT, translation theory and linguistics, as we hope will be made clear below.

Delivery

Depending on the main subject-focus of the programme – which will in turn be determined to a large extent by the constraints operating at an institutional level – it is possible to cover a wide range of subject areas and text-types. Obvious candidates for coverage include product documentation, institutional documentation, scientific, legal and medical topics, localization projects (involving both software and web pages), marcom materials and so on. Covering a range of texts – and including plenty of less repetitive material to highlight to students this fundamental limitation on translation memory technology – will enable students to reflect on the limited usefulness of the software when dealing with certain text-types. Students can be encouraged to put into immediate practice the skills and techniques which they have been acquiring in the computer laboratory when working on their practical translation tasks; there is also plenty of scope for co-ordinating tool with text-type so as to play to the strengths of each particular package.

Because of the control over language settings which it gives to individual users Windows 2000 is rapidly becoming the operating system of choice. We have also found the use of a networked facility with dedicated server space and qualified technical support to be indispensable. This not only enables

classes to be conducted in an environment in which the software can be delivered to users in a reliable and controlled manner but also affords unlimited opportunities for students to practice and complete assignments out of class time.

Training sessions are usually fully hands-on, although sometimes feature a presentation or demonstration from the front. The teaching team includes not only lecturers but also demonstrators, who are typically former students of the course; in this way we aim to offer language-specific expertise for most or all the languages which are being actively used by students studying on the programmes. This approach is backed up by detailed courseware with step-by-step explanations of procedures and functionalities; however, knowledge is taken to be cumulative, with skills and conceptual understanding acquired while working on one package being assumed to be available for all applications subsequently covered.

LT Syllabus

For reasons which have been outlined above, our programmes start with a few sessions on Windows basics, fonts and codepages, and both basic and more advanced word processing skills. This is swiftly followed by a section on how to exploit the WWW for translation-related purposes. This includes such topics as term databases, search engines and creative terminology mining. Once students complete this component the stage is set for the introduction of specialised LT tools.

There is such a bewildering variety of tools available now that it would be infeasible to cover all specific application types, let alone each individual product within every single category. Our three programmes all concentrate above all on translation memory applications. The Leeds programme, which with five years under its belt is by far the oldest of the three, has gradually extended its coverage from a single tool to three. Thus students now cut their teeth on IBM TranslationManager, the application on which they learn all about how to produce a translation within the translation environment, how to work with dictionaries and translation memories, how to import and export information, and so on. The advantage of introducing them to IBM TranslationManager first is that they can see everything functioning within a single integrated application without having to worry about the sometimes significant challenges of making as many as three separate applications function in a co-ordinated manner. IBM TranslationManager is followed by STAR TermStar and TRANSIT, which in turn are followed by TRADOS Translator's Solution. Swansea uses the same basic arrangement with minor

alterations. On the other hand, Imperial will be taking a slightly different approach, aiming to provide students with an overview of a wider range of tools.

While translation memory systems form the main focus for all three programmes, in each case the syllabus includes significant coverage of terminology management tools. The aim is for students to become proficient in using the (often stand-alone) terminology component of the range of workbench tools covered to create, consult, import and export bi- and sometimes multilingual databases. Some time is devoted to the principles of database structure, while high flyers have the chance to master how to manipulate data between formats using the global search and replace and mailmerge facilities of Microsoft Word. Finally, the explosion of web-based machine translation systems has made incorporation of this important area of translation technology on a hands-on basis something which is fairly easy to implement, at least at a basic level. However, in order to give students a feel of the true potential of machine translation it is probably necessary to have a locally-installed system available as well.

Significant staff effort is required to design and update student workbooks for each LT product on the syllabus. It is important for the exercises chosen to be not just procedural (which buttons to press to accomplish a particular task) but conceptual (how the product has been engineered to accomplish a particular task, and the advantages and disadvantages of doing it that way). With students of a dozen or more languages working in the same lab, it is important to write the workbooks and practice texts (often software Help files) in the common language (in our case English), to avoid having to produce multiple versions. This does mean that for practice purposes mother-tongue English students are translating the "wrong way"; others, however, find themselves translating into their mother tongue, which is some compensation to them for the fact that the rest of the programme is in English. Tasks can be made cumulative, i.e. the practice text for a second workbench-style package can be a new version of the one translated with the first package and, after suitable data conversion routines have been applied, re-use the same dictionary and translation memory (this really brings home the lesson that translation data is re-usable, but also that bad translations come back to haunt the translator!). Workbooks facilitate self-directed study and allow students to work at their own pace, but it is important that they be substantially bug-free (otherwise large amounts of demonstrator time are spent talking students through the errors) and properly "localized" (in terms of drive letters etc.) for the networked system on which the product is being taught. The tutorials supplied by TRADOS from version 3 onwards have been found to be excellent and usable with very little modification; with IBM

TranslationManager on the other hand we have had to start almost from scratch.

LT "interface" issues

In an integrated translator training programme it is important for LT training not to be seen as a discrete component unrelated to the other skills students are learning. In particular it should be designed to interface both with practical translation exercises and with the study of linguistics and translation theory, so that students can apply both their practical experience as translators and their theoretical understanding of the translation process to the complex problem of how to optimise LT use in the real world.

A number of exercises have been devised to link LT with practical translation classes, including building in MT assignments in which students select texts for automatic translation, critique the output in linguistic terms, post-edit it to different quality levels and report on their experience, and Terminology Acquisition Projects in which students use Web and paper-based resources to research a technical domain about which they have absolutely no prior knowledge, then produce for assessment a bilingual term-base in one of the terminology management packages they have been taught to use, together with a short methodological commentary (both linguistic accuracy and use of the software are assessed). In this latter case knowledge of structural semantics and basic lexicography gained from the Translation Theory module also comes into play. Finally, the two summer Extended Translations which complete the MA syllabus are (in the Swansea programme at least) performed using two different workbench systems, and the assessment gives equal weight to the quality of the data files and of the translations themselves.

LT interfaces with translation theory in a number of other ways, beginning with the broad notion of cultural equivalence as it relates to the complex issues underlying localization. The theory module at Swansea in particular also places heavy emphasis on the linguistic principles and problems of MT design (POS tagging, parsing, transformational syntax, structural semantics and knowledge representation), to give students an insight into why successful MT is so profoundly difficult to achieve, to deepen their awareness of what they as human translators are doing every time they perform a successful translation, and to reinforce their awareness of the differences between MT and the workbench tools that they are using in LT classes. Recent research on problems such as automatic lexicon-generation from non-aligned and aligned corpora (conceptually identical of course to translation memories) is discussed to stimulate thinking about the likely future

convergence of MT and CAT technologies, and students are invited to consider how useful it would be if the translation memory tools they have learnt to use were enhanced by different types of MT-like linguistic analysis, rather than being, as they are today, simply dumb string-matching routines.

Notes

[1] See http://smlc01.leeds.ac.uk/

[2] http://iaisun.iai.uni-sb.de/letrac/

[3] The MA in Translation with Language Technology at University of Wales Swansea, co-ordinated by Andrew Rothwell (http://www.swan.ac.uk/sel) and the MSc in Scientific, Technical and Medical Translation with Translation Technology at Imperial College London, co-ordinated by Mark Shuttleworth (http://www.hu.ic.ac.uk/translation/intro.html). Bob Clark remains a Co-Director of MAATS.

[4] We gratefully acknowledge here the vital technical contribution made to MAATS in its first three years by Michael Beddow, then Professor of German at Leeds.

Accelerated training courses for conference interpreters in Hamburg

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Abstract. The following is an account and analysis of teaching experience gained during a series of courses designed to train university graduates as conference interpreters for the European Commission and the European Parliament.

Background

As a consequence of the policy to decentralise the training of conference interpreters the Joint Service Interpretation-Conferences (JSIC) of the European Commission organised training courses in various European cities. The institution hosting the course in Hamburg, Europa-Kolleg, unlike the other training facilities has no tradition in the training of linguists, but offers post-graduate studies in subjects related to European law and economics to students from many countries including some far beyond the boundaries of the European Union.

The first course organised in 1992 was an adaptation of the six-month accelerated training course offered in Brussels. Europa-Kolleg provided a classroom fitted with two booths for simultaneous interpreting training and other state-of-the-art audio-visual equipment. The students also had access to the extensive library on the premises and were provided with a reading room for private study and reading newspapers and periodicals. The trainer interpreters were seconded from the European Commission in Brussels, working alone with the students in the mornings for periods of up to four weeks.

When the second course was planned to start in October 1993 it was decided for practical reasons to engage local trainer interpreters to provide instruction. The authors, being local, experienced conference interpreters with a background in teaching, were contacted and invited to Brussels to discuss in detail the expectations and requirements of the Commission in order to set up the course accordingly. The authors spent a week meeting those responsible for training including the Chief Interpreters for the relevant

languages and observing ongoing training courses. The Guide for Trainers published by the JSIC (1989) was taken as the underlying principle. Reference was also made to Seleskovitch and Lederer (1989), Pédagogie raisonnée de l'interprétation, an important work on which the training courses were based.

Schedule

The second course of this type was scheduled to last six months as before, the authors being responsible for the first four months at Europa-Kolleg in Hamburg before the successful candidates moved to Brussels for the final two months. After each two-month period the candidates had to undergo a test supervised by members of JSIC and only the successful candidates were able to continue the course. The first test after two months was intended to ascertain the ability of the candidates to grasp the principles of consecutive interpreting and their application of note-taking techniques. During the second test, after four months, the candidates had to demonstrate consolidation of consecutive skills and to show their ability to develop the techniques of simultaneous interpreting. This pattern had already been established in other training courses organised by the JSIC and therefore there was little scope for flexibility. However, it was decided to extend the initial memory training exercises to four weeks before introducing note-taking techniques. The wisdom of this approach was confirmed when all five candidates passed the initial test.

The candidates

The second course in Hamburg duly started in October 1993 with five pre-selected candidates, all graduates having a first degree in economics, education and biology and each highly proficient in their relevant working languages.

The teaching programme

The course followed a strict timetable. Four hours were spent each morning five days per week on interpreting techniques. Afternoons and/or evenings were devoted to private study when the students had to read newspapers and magazines for the daily press reports they were requested to present, practise exercises within the group, and prepare their presentations for the following day in their native language. As a matter of routine, the daily exercises included press reports and/or a brief description of crisis areas throughout the world. The students were also requested to give detailed presentations on the institutions of the member countries of the European

Union and major international organisations. Two afternoons on average per week were devoted to lectures organised by Europa-Kolleg and given by academics on subjects relating to European law, politics and economics.

Memory training

The introduction to memory training consisted of instruction on techniques such as association, visualisation of descriptive narrative and logical arguments. The trainers and the students gave presentations without notes on a variety of subjects that were interpreted from memory by the students into the mother tongue in each case. This exercise fulfilled the dual function of improving the memory and encouraging the students in rhetoric at the same time. The length and complexity of the presentations gradually progressed so that after four weeks the students were capable of interpreting from memory for periods of up to five minutes presentations based for example on news items, which were either prepared in advance or sometimes improvised and always without notes. From the very beginning the students were encouraged to offer positive criticism immediately after the others' performance - an important exercise in group dynamics. This followed an objective pattern of assessment criteria such as accuracy, presentation, and terminology. Another result of these exercises was that even after four weeks the students developed considerable rhetorical skills.

Consecutive interpreting and note-taking

On completion of this phase the students were so confident of their ability to interpret from memory that they hardly appreciated the necessity to take notes. It was emphasised that the notes were simply there to assist the memory and to avoid mental acrobatics with figures, dates, proper names, etc. At this stage more attention was paid to detail, and presentations were to include such elements that demonstrated the advantages of applying note-taking techniques. In the introduction to the theory of consecutive interpreting the basic principle applied was the "théorie du sens". As Seleskovitch (1999) later summarised:

> "If the only problem to be overcome in interpreting were finding matching lexical items and syntactic structures in two languages, there would be no need for training in consecutive. Consecutive however shows that interpreting is not a two way process of putting language X into language Y, but a three way question: language meanings – things meant – spontaneous rendering. Language meanings are mere pointers to the things meant by a speaker (facts, events, individuals ... any real or

> fictitious thing); it is those things that are expressed by interpreters in an appropriate language. Therefore starting students' training with consecutive is a means of getting them accustomed to putting a stage of deverbalised sense between two languages. It not only shows students what interpretation is about, it also deflects them from considering only language meanings, and sets a pattern for work in simultaneous."

Note-taking techniques were demonstrated applying the principles of vertical and diagonal notes, clear separation of ideas, noting thoughts rather than words, use of abbreviations and symbols and structural links as explained by Rozan (1959) and Ilg (1988). It was pointed out that the technique is highly individual, some interpreters finding symbols more suitable than abbreviations and vice versa. The actual language used for note taking was left to the discretion of the interpreter. The trainers refused to impose a set regime, but gave recommendations based on experience. After a relatively brief introduction to the theory of note taking, the students immediately started practising, working only into their native language. They were also requested to use note-taking techniques when preparing presentations and press reports. At certain intervals thereafter the students took notes using an overhead projector. The notes were subsequently explained by the student concerned and discussed by the group. Another feature was that all students who were not actively presenting were required to take notes. One student was then asked to leave the room while another interpreted consecutively. The first student then gave her interpretation of the same presentation and the results were compared. The students continued to make audio recordings of their performance periodically. In addition, one session was recorded on video film and subsequently discussed in the group.

The trainers now gave more elaborate presentations of more formal speeches almost daily. For practical reasons consecutive interpreting was limited to series of ten-minute exercises. Post-graduate students from Europa-Kolleg were also invited to speak on the particular subject of their work. There was still a great need however for a wider variety of speakers, especially in languages not covered by the trainers. Close co-operation was established with lecturers whose native languages in this case were Spanish, Italian, French, English and German. These lecturers were required to make presentations on specific subjects but also to monitor the level of language, accuracy of interpretation, terminology and expression of the students. Most of these lecturers were not interpreters themselves and so there was always a trainer interpreter present to pose the relevant questions with regard to interpreting techniques and to place any criticism in perspective.

Simultaneous interpreting

After successful completion of the first test the course continued along the same lines as before, that is with the daily routine of memory exercises, press reports, presentations by trainers and students and consecutive interpreting. The latter exercises were continued throughout the course albeit on a reduced scale. Unfortunately there was little time to practise sight translation systematically as a useful exercise in the transition from consecutive to simultaneous interpreting.

By way of introduction to simultaneous interpreting brief instruction was given on operating the interpreting equipment and the importance of courtesy in the booth towards colleagues and listeners was underlined. One of the trainers accompanied each student in the booth during preliminary exercises to point out the more basic do's and don'ts. Exercises continued as for consecutive interpreting, this time, however, listeners with headphones (trainers, lecturers or fellow-students) constantly monitored the students in the booth. The same presentation was usually interpreted simultaneously using two booths and often followed by a consecutive interpretation. The logistics of these exercises became somewhat complex. It was important for each student to work in the two modes and out of each working language every day as far as possible. As before, each presentation was followed by a brief, structured discussion among all participants based on a checklist of criteria such as completeness, style, accuracy, terminology and delivery.

As the students progressed, the complexity of the presentations had to increase. The trainers then organised presentations to be given by specialists from various sectors of activity. Each week at least two such expert speakers gave presentations lasting approximately one and a half hours. Subjects ranged from computer technology, renewable energy sources, crime prevention, media marketing, and medicine to sign-language communication. The intention was to simulate as far as possible an authentic conference situation with expert presentations.

Phase two

Following the success of this course, the authors were approached by the Commission once more to organise another course along similar lines but with some major differences, presenting the trainers with a new and exciting challenge.

Schedule

As previously, the course was scheduled to last six months. This time the authors were responsible for the entire six months in Hamburg. Again after

each two-month period the candidates had to undergo a test supervised by members of the JSIC.

The candidates

The course was launched in Hamburg in October 1995 with seven pre-selected candidates with the following language combinations:

5 Finnish native speakers, each working from English and German, one from French, one from Italian and one from Swedish

2 Swedish native speaker working from German and English.

The candidates were all graduates having a first degree in economics and education, each again highly proficient in his or her relevant working languages but with a strong bias towards German.

The teaching programme

The timetable was essentially similar to that of the previous course. The list of expert speakers was extended to include several representatives of the consular corps and other foreign institutions based in Hamburg.

Exercises

The same pattern was adopted for memory training, consecutive and simultaneous interpreting training but with some major differences. Since neither of the principal trainers spoke Finnish or Swedish it was very important for the students to be able to criticise each other to a greater degree. The trainers were confident of the potential of the students in this case and decided to use it to advantage, integrating their contribution into the teaching method. The result was a higher level of self-confidence on the part of the students who recognised their role as that of tutor as well as learner. To foster this role the trainers had planned to recruit the assistance of the lecturers in Swedish and Finnish only after the pattern of group dynamics was firmly established. After one month the lecturers accompanied the students in their exercises every day, always in conjunction with a trainer interpreter. The element of constructive self-criticism presupposes however that the students have a high standard of eloquence in the native language and are sufficiently confident of their linguistic abilities. Another deviation from the established pattern was that the students were asked to make more active use of German and English in their presentations. The intention was to prepare for the function of "pivot" at a later stage.

Speech training

During the second course it emerged that one of the students had serious problems with her vocal chords, which would undoubtedly have made it impossible for her to exercise the profession without undergoing surgery. For this reason the authors decided to invite a speech therapist to observe the students at an early stage in the course to see if there were any potential difficulties.

Regular exercises in posture, breathing, voice projection etc. were introduced and the students' performance was monitored using video recordings at certain intervals. The students gained a considerable degree of professionalism in public speaking and were able to develop techniques of avoiding fatigue.

Further developments

The success of these courses was evidence that the new approach was functioning well. Confirmation soon followed when the authors were invited to organise a course to train interpreter candidates for the European Parliament.

Schedule

This course was scheduled to last seven months. This time the authors were responsible for the first five months at Europa-Kolleg in Hamburg. There were no constraints imposed by intermediate elimination tests, which meant that the trainers were able to adapt the schedule according to the actual progress made by the students. At the request of the authors a test was held at the end of the five-month period attended by officials from Parliament.

The candidates

The course started with six pre-selected candidates with the following language combinations:

2 German native speakers, each with strong Finnish, both working from English, one from French.

4 Finnish native speaker working from German and English and one from French.

The candidates were all graduates having a first degree in law or linguistics. One of the Finnish candidates was almost bilingual in Finnish and German.

The teaching programme

The main elements of the previous courses were maintained with emphasis on teamwork as before. The candidates responded quickly to the teaching programme, demonstrating a sufficient degree of progress at an early stage, so that it was possible for the trainers to adapt the pace accordingly. Introduction to note-taking techniques was started only after three weeks of memory training. Most of the candidates quickly grasped the principles of consecutive interpreting as a preparation for simultaneous interpreting. At this point exercises in sight translation were introduced and practised more frequently than in the previous courses. The impact on the performance of the students in the booth was immediately noticeable. On consideration it can be concluded that this kind of exercise should be introduced at an earlier stage and practised systematically in parallel with the phase of memory training.

Further adjustments had to be made to the teaching programme since one of the objectives was to prepare some of the candidates more specifically for their future work as "pivots". More presentations were given in a language other than the native language. Later, where appropriate, the candidates interpreted consecutively into the working language, German or Finnish. The exercises in simultaneous interpreting were expanded to include working from relay, closely monitored by trainers, lecturers and candidates.

Conclusions

Experience confirms that it is possible to train candidates to an acceptable level within a short period of time, provided the candidates have the necessary linguistic skills. The brevity of the course does not afford time for language tuition. The academic background of the candidates is also important. They must adopt an analytical approach and be able to research and work independently as well as in a team. The subject of the students' academic experience is irrelevant. The results achieved by biologists were just as valid as those attained by linguists.

Adequately trained conference interpreters are not always available for every language. Even less available are adequately trained trainer interpreters for some languages. However, the results have confirmed that trainer interpreters need not have knowledge of all of the languages used during the course, provided that there is close co-operation between trainers and lecturers specialising in these languages. A trainer interpreter was present at all times when the lecturers worked with the students. In this context the role of the students in group criticism is of fundamental importance.

In retrospect it appears that there are certain pedagogical disadvantages in subjecting the students to a formal test every two months. There is hardly room for flexibility in the curriculum and the students are forced to work at a predetermined pace irrespective of their individual and cultural specificity. On the other hand it is important to establish overall objectives which the students must meet in order to complete the course successfully. It goes without saying that the institution funding the course must be assured of acceptable standards. The ideal situation could be one where the progress of the students is monitored by periodic visits from representatives of the institution, preferably other interpreters with first hand knowledge of the work environment. Final assessment would then be made during a formal test at the end of the course. In every case, an external training course of this type must always be followed by an intensive period of introduction to the new work environment as soon as possible after completion of initial training and even the best students are in need of support and assistance from more experienced colleagues.

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Real-Life training translators – Software localisation and technical documentation

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Abstract. Changes in the language professions have required changes in the way we teach translation and, of course, some important additions in recent years. This paper looks at what these changes are and how students can be better prepared for the demands of their profession.

Let me begin with a brief description of the Sprachen- und Dolmetscher-Institut München (SDI) in Munich and the training it provides to give you an idea of the background and environment we offer our post-graduate courses in. The SDI is a private school for translators and interpreters and was founded almost 50 years ago in 1952. Due to a political decision in Bavaria, training for translators and interpreters was not included in the offering of universities but in a special kind of professional school or college, although the requirements are the same: the German 'Abitur' or a similar school-leaving certificate of other countries. On the EU level, this training has been recognised and takes part in the Erasmus programme. Most of our teaching staff are active translators and interpreters providing a close link with the real life of translation and interpreting.

The institute offers a three-year course of studies for technical translators and interpreters in English, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian or Chinese and four (in some departments two) specialist subjects, i.e. Economics, Technology, Science and Law). The students choose one first language, one specialist subject plus a second language or a second specialist subject. The emphasis in the first year is on language studies and translation, in recent years complemented by technical writing in German, the native language of most of our students. In the second and third year the main focus is on the specialist subject and translations in this subject. Interpreting (simultaneous and consecutive) is another focus in the third year for those who want to become interpreters as well. Due to the comparatively short duration of this course of study, our students have about 30 course hours per week. At the end of the three years they sit a state examination. In the fourth (post-graduate)

year they can do another subject or language and improve their interpreting skills and in the fifth year we offer a training for conference interpreters to the "crème de la crème" of our students (not more than 2 or 3 in most years).

While this basic structure has not changed much during the last few decades, changes in the language professions have required changes in the way we teach them and, of course, some important additions in recent years. Text processing and computer-aided terminology have been part of the curriculum for the last ten years or so but this is not enough. Translators of my generation – whether employed or freelance - typically worked on their own using first the typewriter and later the computer. They got their translations on paper - first by post and later by fax - and sent them off by the same means. Today, they usually get them as files by e-mail or over their company's intranet. They do their research on the Internet and they use electronic dictionaries and other reference material. And due to the increasing volume of translation projects, they have to work in teams rather than on their own and they use terminology databases and translation memories to speed up their production and to guarantee a consistent team output. All this means that computer literacy has become a highly important competence of translators and also interpreters. This is why in addition to the basic courses required by the Bavarian curriculum for this type of school we offer an optional PC training consisting of the five additional modules Basics of Data Processing, Windows and Excel, Text and Computer, Image and Computer and Internet. And in the courses in computer-aided terminology (CAT) in the second and third year we also offer a module in computer-aided translation where they get acquainted with the use of professional tools like translation memories etc.

But this is not what I want to go into today. What I would like to present to you are two post-graduate offerings we have developed more recently – Software Localisation and Technical Documentation.

1. What is the situation?

Let us have look at software localisation first. The localisation market is fairly young and growing fast. The fact that most participants of our courses - if they were interested - were taken over by the companies they had done their in-house training with, is another indicator for the good market situation. The market is even starting to diversify. We can identify three fields in which companies can position themselves:

a) Classical Software Localisation

i.e. the localisation of general software such as operating systems and office applications. Most localisation projects involve Windows-based products. Linux does not yet play an important role. A slightly younger market is the localisation of industry-specific applications (business processes, banking, medical software). This is an additional challenge for the translator who does not only need to know software terminology but must have industry-specific knowledge and terminology as well.
Both areas have common features, however. They are technically sophisticated due to various data formats. And they include parts other than the software that need to be translated (documentation, online help, training materials, license agreements). The life of these texts is comparatively long and their re-usability in case of updates very high. The target group of users is relatively homogenous and the source language usually is English.

b) Localisation of Websites

The second most important market segment is the Internet. The question actually is whether this is software localisation as software – apart from the Java scripts – does not play a very important role here. But for translators of HTML documents their working environment and methods (testing) are not very different from pure software localisation. Language combinations are more varied here: companies want to be customer friendly and therefore want to address their potential customers in their own languages. Other features of web-site localisation are that these projects tend to be relatively small, the life of their content is much shorter and they are limited to a few data formats (HTML / XML / WML; graphics).

c) Localisation of Multimedia Applications

A third segment of software localisation is the localisation of multimedia applications such as encyclopaedias, games and other entertainment software. These products usually have a very culture-specific background so that a lot of effort might have to go into their adaptation and editing. In addition, they are usually technically demanding because of their variety of data formats (images, sound).

Adapting a source text to the regional conditions of the target language is, of course, nothing new and translators have always done this. But what becomes clear in the various definitions of "software localisation" is that economic benefits come to the fore. For instance, as Klaus-Dirk Schmitz says: "The process of adapting a (software) product to regional markets, i.e. to different linguistic and culture areas is called software localisation"[1].

Process, product, market – these are new words in the small world of translators. Software localisation is a business and must be treated as such. This requires the translator to adapt to the requirements of software vendors in terms of workplace, working processes and quality assurance.

Technical documentation or, more specifically, multi-lingual technical documentation, on the other hand, is nothing new and translators have been involved in it for a long time. What is new, however, is a more wide-spread professional approach. European and national liability legislation have included documentation in the manufacturers' liability, making it in their interest – apart from other considerations such as the saleability and usability of their products – to provide adequate documentation. Regardless of the quality of the source text, translators are expected to produce translations which meet the requirements in their specific country in terms of cultural and linguistic habits as well as legal regulations. As in software localisation, the sheer amount of documentation to be produced as well as the reusability of texts with new models requires the development and use of software tools to streamline and speed up production. The terminology used must be consistent with the company terminology in all other publications and be stored and made available for everybody by proper terminology management. And while translators involved in documentation projects will probably not be required to create graphics or layout they will have to be able to work with the most common desktop publishing systems.

2. Translator competencies for localisation

This means that translators involved in a localisation project or in a documentation project must have specific competencies:

a) Linguistic competence

This competence is, of course, one you would expect from a translator anyway. Native language competence is the most important one in technical documentation and localisation, as in most other fields of translation, a fact that is often overlooked in the training of translators. Technical writing requires findings in the field of human information processing to be implemented. The trend is towards a clear and precise language, i.e. a customer-friendly language which might not always be "translator-friendly". In software localisation, the linguistic requirements depend on the project and might even require literary standards. Games or web-sites can be quite sophisticated and this must be reflected in localisation.

b) Technical competence

As in many other fields, translators must be able to understand the technology and the steps described in a text. While translators do not have to able to build a machine or engine themselves they must understand how it works. They must have the necessary technical knowledge in those fields of technology that may require technical documentation - from computers, machines and cars to aeroplanes and power plants - to enable a problem-free communication with all other experts involved in a documentation or localisation project. In software localisation this includes a basic understanding of software development and programming.

c) Social and organisational competence

To develop a software product many competencies must be brought together. One of them is localisation, which comprises a wide range of service – consulting and translation among them – which a single translator cannot offer. Efficient communication is therefore required to enable an effective solution to be found. Also, localisation projects are normally too big to be handled by one person. The same applies to many technical documentation projects. They require exact planning and transparent communication rules. Realistic deadlines must be worked out and the co-operation between freelance translators and in-house staff must be managed. The quality of the results must be assured by proper quality assurance procedures.

d) Pragmatic competence

Translators must be able to work efficiently with the various programs and tools that make up the increasingly complex modern translator workplace. As a minimum requirement they must have a good knowledge of translation memory systems. In technical documentation the variety of tools is even wider ranging from desktop publishing systems, terminology and content management systems to translation memories and machine translation. There is, of course, no upper limit of what might be useful and translators must be able to acquaint themselves with new programs quickly and efficiently.

3 Institutional solutions

So, how did we become involved in those new fields of real-life training? It all began with the institute organising weekend seminars (for our teachers and students as well a practising translators) on subjects like "Translation in the Time of the Internet" and "Software Localisation". But these seminars

could obviously not compensate for the lack of specialist training available. The experience of companies involved in software localisation showed that a translator with a traditional training needs between one and two years to get familiar with the requirements of software localisation placing a tremendous strain on in-house training resources and making it difficult for beginners to benefit from this promising market. This is why we got together with experts from Bowne Global Solutions, one of the biggest international software localisation companies, which has its German branch near Munich, and Siemens to develop a curriculum which closely reflects the requirements of this industry. Bowne also provided practical in-house training of 3 months for participants without previous working experience, i.e. our post-graduates, when we did this course for the first time in 1999/2000. Meanwhile the number of companies involved has increased to 6 and the course has become a forum for the localiser scene, which is particularly active in Munich.

The course is divided into several modules – some of them seminars, some of them workshops. As it is not only offered to our post-graduate students but also to practising translators, they take place in the late afternoon as well as on Friday afternoons and Saturdays. Teachers include SDI teachers as well as specialists from the companies involved and from other areas of business or from universities. In 2000/2001, the course started with an introduction to software localisation followed by the following 5 modules:

1. Tools for translators (for license reasons this module could only be offered to our post-graduate students);
2. Working methods;
3. Introduction to software development;
4. What the localiser needs to know;
5. Quality assurance and project management.

The aim of module 1 is to enable students to efficiently use the tools required in this industry such as terminology management (Multiterm), translation memory (Workbench) and alignment tools (WinAlign), localising tools such as Corel Catalyst or Passolo, machine translation systems such as TI and terminology extraction tools. Module 2 looks into the basic rules of team work, project management and working efficiency (Gesellschaft für Arbeitsmethodik). The aim of module 3 is to enable software engineers and translators to communicate efficiently and includes topics such as data formats, formats of online helps, software programs and their structures, an overview of programming languages such as C++, Java or Visual Basic, macro programming and user interfaces. Module 4 looks at the various processes and skills involved in software localisation, such as the various software components to be localised, 'simultaneous delivery' projects,

country specific elements of a software (language, symbols, currencies, dates, standards etc.), localisation and testing of online help systems, linguistic aspects, localisation of voice-overs, dialogs, images, multimedia content, economic aspects of localisation (big players, industry associations, standardisation, prices, preparation of offers, timing etc.). Module 5 finally deals with questions such as liability, industry standards, certification, project management and communication, change management etc.). At the end of the course, i.e. after the in-house training at one the companies involved, the students' practical work is presented and discussed before a committee. The modules are being assessed and reviewed each year and adapted where appropriate.

For the coming academic year, we have developed a new course in Technical Documentation together with representatives of the industry and industry associations. The curriculum comprises the following elements: Introduction to multi-lingual documentation, particular aspects of technical communication, human information processing, terminology extraction and terminology management, project management, processes involved in the creation and production of multilingual documentation (text processing, style sheets, markup languages, data structures, document structure and layout, processing of structured data, information and content management, editing of source texts, translation memories, publication systems etc.), quality assurance (same as software localisation) and language engineering (linguistic analysis, text analysis, machine translation, controlled languages, information retrieval). Post-graduates or other participants with specialist subjects other than technology will be required to attend the relevant courses (terminology and translation) in the second and third years.

4. Conclusions

So what is important in devising new post-graduate and further education courses? First, stay close to the market and analyse new developments and new requirements. Second, ask users of translation services – and interpreting services for that matter - what they need and what they feel is lacking in the training of translators and interpreters. Third, involve them in the development of the curricula, and ask them to provide information, lecturers, hands-on training and – where applicable - internships. If you do not have qualified teachers for new subjects use guest lecturers until your own staff has acquired the necessary qualifications. We have taken this approach with software localisation and technical documentation. We will do so with our new course for conference interpreters with 3 C languages (on of them East-European) from 2001/2002 which is going to complement our traditional

conference interpreter training with two B languages. The new course aims at meeting the demand of EU organisations and similar institutions in view of the future EU enlargement by inclusion of East European countries. In our experience, all partners involved – training provider, students and the industry - greatly benefit from such co-operation and will be eager to make it work.

Note

[1] Schmitz/Wahle (2000) *Software-Lokalisierung.* Tübingen: Stauffen-berg Verlag (My own translation)

Composantes culturelle et interculturelle dans la formation a la traduction a l'Institut de Philologie Romane (Université de Wrocław)

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Abstract: Translation as one of the forms of international mediation and respect for the cultures in contact is an ethical component of the translator's work. A profound knowledge of both cultures is one of the necessary requirements for the translator, to the same degree as linguistic competence. This paper shows how this conviction has influenced the translators training curriculum offered in the Institute of Romance Philology at the University of Wrocław , Poland.

Résumé: La traduction est une médiation entre les cultures et le respect pour les deux cultures mises en contact dans l'acte de traduire est inscrit dans l'éthique du travail du traducteur. La connaissance profonde des deux cultures est une des compétences incontournables et indispensable au traducteur, au même degré que celle des deux langues et des processus discursifs propres à chacune d'elles. Former à la traduction veut donc dire aussi équiper en connaissances culturelles et interculturelles appropriées. L'auteur de l'article se donne pour but de montrer comment la conviction sur l'importance des composantes culturelles et interculturelles se reflète dans l'organisation et dans le contenu des enseignements proposés dans le cadre de la formation à la traduction dispensée à l'Institut de Philologie Romane de l'Université de Wrocław.

0. A l'entrée du 3e millénaire, la traduction apparaît comme "un impératif existentiel": nous vivons dans un espace international, interlinguistique, interculturel, dans lequel on doit communiquer avec l'Autre, afin d'apprendre, afin de comprendre, afin de savoir... Il faut donc traduire toujours davantage, traduire des textes de plus en plus variés, traduire de plus en plus vite, en utilisant des outils taillés à la mesure du XXIe siècle[1].

La traduction a toujours été considérée comme une voie par laquelle une culture peut entrer en contact avec une autre et - de manières diverses - s'enrichir par ce contact. Aussi, même si pendant des années, l'acte de traduire a été perçu essentiellement comme une opération de nature

linguistique, les compétences du traducteur embrassaient-elles également la connaissance de la civilisation, ce que rendait bien le postulat suivant de Georges Mounin:

> "Le traducteur ne doit pas se contenter d'être un bon linguiste, il doit être un excellent ethnographe: ce qui revient à demander non seulement qu'il sache tout de la langue qu'il traduit, mais aussi tout du peuple qui se sert de cette langue. Alors il est un grand prestidigitateur, un magicien, le prêtre d'un huitième art" (Mounin 1976:50).

Autrement dit, le traducteur n'est pas un simple "passeur de mots", mais aussi un "passeur de culture".

Depuis une vingtaine d'années, la réflexion traductologique privilégie ce deuxième volet du rôle du traducteur, la traduction, quant à elle, étant considérée avant tout comme un moyen de communication entre les cultures.

La prise en compte de la dimension interculturelle de l'acte de traduction le situe dans un contexte social et historique déterminé, dans lequel agissent de multiples facteurs qui décident de la façon dont la traduction se fait et fonctionne ensuite dans la culture-cible. La contextualisation de la traduction a ainsi une double nature: si l'acte de traduire est toujours une médiation entre deux cultures, il dépend aussi bien de facteurs inhérents à la culture-source que de ceux qui sont imposés par la culture-cible. Les uns et les autres sont pris en considération par le traducteur et laissent leur empreinte dans le résultat de son travail, qui est ainsi un texte "métissé". On souligne aussi la dimension déontologique de la traduction: le rôle de "médiateur interculturel" exige du traducteur une éthique de "limitation de la souffrance" et de "respect de l'autre", selon l'expression d'Antoine Pym, pour qui ces deux principes sont des "critères généraux pour des relations interculturelles à la fois justes et vivantes" (Pym 1997:137).

Cette nouvelle façon de voir la tâche du traducteur fait aussi revoir les opinions sur ce que devraient être les compétences du traducteur. Le postulat de Mounin évoqué ci-dessus pourrait ainsi recevoir une nouvelle formulation:

> "Le traducteur ne doit pas se contenter d'être un bon linguiste, il doit être un excellent médiateur: ce qui revient à demander non seulement qu'il sache tout de la langue qu'il traduit et de celle dans laquelle il traduit, mais aussi tout des peuples qui se servent de ces langues".

On revient ainsi au linguistique, puisque c'est la langue qui est le matériau dans lequel travaille le traducteur-médiateur, et à la relation entre le

linguistique et le culturel[2]. La *langue* - système abstrait et social, tel que le définit la dychotomie saussurienne - peut être vue comme **un véhicule de la culture**, puisqu'elle reflète, aussi bien dans le système grammatical que dans le système lexical, le savoir collectif et les croyances partagées par ses usagers ainsi que leur façon de percevoir la réalité extralinguistique. Qui plus est, le lexique fige les acquis d'une culture dans les noms de ce que l'on appelle généralement *realia*, éléments propres à une langue-culture, et absents dans d'autres langues-cultures.

Mais l'action de la culture se laisse saisir aussi au niveau de la *parole*, où elle joue le rôle d'un **facteur façonnant l'usage de la langue**: les formules de politesse, les marques linguistiques des rôles sociaux et des rapports entre les individus, les conventions propres à divers types de textes, depuis une petite annonce, en passant par un acte de naissance, un mode d'emploi, un diplôme, un discours politique avec sa rhétorique propre, jusqu'aux genres littéraires: partout, on peut trouver l'empreinte de la culture propre à une société.

Et enfin, la culture peut être vue comme **résultat de l'usage de la langue**: tout texte, qu'il soit un chef d'oeuvre littéraire ou un texte utilitaire de la vie quotidienne, devient un élément de la réalité culturelle d'une société où il a une place et une fonction déterminées.

Ainsi, en apprenant une langue étrangère avec les règles de son usage, on accède en même temps à une culture étrangère. Cependant, cela ne suffit pas encore pour être un bon médiateur entre les cultures. En effet, le savoir inscrit dans la langue doit être complété par tout un savoir extralinguistique indispensable à la compréhension d'un texte. Or, ce savoir a une dimension sociale: l'émetteur et le recepteur d'un acte de communication unilingue et uniculturelle partagent certaines connaissances du fait même qu'ils appartiennent à une communauté linguistique et culturelle. Ces connaissances communes - qu'on les appelle "le savoir partagé", selon l'expression de William Labov, ou qu'on les voie sous forme des *scenes and frames* de Fillmore - varient d'une langue-culture à l'autre. Le travail du traducteur, qui doit assurer une communication interlinguistique et interculturelle, devient ainsi une "...double négociation dans laquelle sont engagés d'un côté l'auteur de l'original et le traducteur comme membres de la communauté de communication source, et de l'autre ce même traducteur et ses lecteurs comme membres de la communauté de communication cible. Traduire un énoncé ne signifie pas simplement calculer sa valeur pragmatico-sémantique et rendre cette valeur avec les moyens linguistiques de la communatuté cible. Le traducteur interprète au contraire cet énoncé à l'aide de sa compétence communicative en langue et culture d'origine, et il le réinterprète en fonction de l'horizon linguistico-culturel de la communauté cible" (Ludi 1987:60).

1. La situation de cette "double négociation" se complique sérieusement si l'un des deux partenaires vit une période de mutation extrêmement rapide et pleine de tensions. La chute du communisme en Pologne, en 1989, a entraîné des changements profonds dans la vie des Polonais, dont certains ont été immédiats, comme celui du système socio-politique, et dont d'autres se font plus progressivement, mais leurs premiers résultats sont visibles assez rapidement (vie économique); d'autres encore - conséquence des premiers - sont plus lents et observables à plus long terme. C'est le cas des changements culturels au sens le plus large.

Le choc de l'année 1989 a été aussi une ouverture à l'étranger. La disparition de "l'ancien régime" a signifié aussi la disparition de la censure, ce qui a entraîné une importation d'idées par les médias (dont Internet), des livres jusqu'alors inconnus, de nouveaux types d'émissions à la radio et à la TV, de nouveaux types de presse, etc. La disparition de certaines entraves économiques a entraîné une importation de biens matériels jusqu'alors introuvables ou très rares, mais aussi l'implantation d'entreprises étrangères. La disparition des visas et la possibilité de disposer librement de son passeport ont énormément facilité les déplacements. L'étranger est ainsi devenu une partie de la réalité polonaise, sans être pour autant une partie communément acceptée et valorisée de façon positive. En effet, si l'on admire et aspire aux standards de vie occidentaux, on n'est pas en même temps prêt à accepter le prix qu'il faut payer pour y accéder, tels le chômage, une organisation plus rigoureuse du travail, la disparition de certaines protections et privilèges sociaux, etc. L'intégration européenne - un facteur de plus, et non des moindres, d'accélération des mutations en Pologne - tellement souhaitée par certains, est perçue comme un danger par d'autres. Dans une société où les jeunes loups, se plaignant de l'évolution des mentalités et des habitudes trop lente à leur goût, coexistent avec les nostalgiques de l'avant 1989, qui n'arrivent pas à trouver leur place dans un monde qui a changé trop rapidement, les tensions et les heurts sont inévitables; on ne peut pas oublier que 10 ans, dans la vie d'une société, c'est une période très courte, surtout lorsqu'il s'agit du passage d'un régime politique favorisant la stagnation et l'obéissance à un régime exigeant de l'initiative et du dynamisme. Et le traducteur - médiateur interculturel ne peut pas ne pas en tenir compte.

2.1. Les changements entraînés par les événements de 1989 ont touché également l'enseignement. En prévision des modifications profondes du marché du travail, influencées dans une grande mesure par l'ouverture de la Pologne aux pays occidentaux, des réformes d'études proposées par les écoles supérieures ont été entreprises dès 1990. Pour les facultés de langues et civilisations étrangères (philologies), contraintes jusqu'ici à des cursus très restrictifs, coulés dans un moule unique conçu par le ministère de l'éducation

nationale, et formant uniquement des professeurs de langues, la question fondamentale a été la suivante: faut-il sauvegarder le profil traditionnel et laisser les diplômés se former sur le tas, ou bien professionnaliser les formations, en fournissant des savoirs et savoir-faire directement utiles sur le marché du travail? L'Institut de Philologie Romane de l'Université de Wroc?aw a choisi une combinaison mixte: constituer un tronc commun de matières philologiques traditionnelles, obligatoire pour tous les étudiants, et proposer des spécialisations professionnelles facultatives. Le dessein des auteurs du programme réformé en 1990 a été de former des personnes qui, ayant un niveau de connaissances en histoire, littérature et civilisation françaises proche de celui de bacheliers français, soient aptes à assurer une communication interculturelle dans divers domaines d'activité, principalement enseignement, communication et traduction. C'est à ces trois domaines que correspondent les spécialisations professionnelles offertes.

Dans le cursus de base (tronc commun), une place importante est réservée à l'histoire de la littérature française et à la civilisation française. Les matières du bloc "français pratique" servent à perfectionner les compétences en compréhension et expression en français, principalement sur base de documents authentiques, présentant l'actualité française. Ainsi, tout étudiant est censé devenir bilingue et biculturel.

Les savoirs acquis lors des cours du tronc commun sont naturellement exploités dans les cours formant à la traduction. Cela va sans dire pour des matières telles que l'histoire de la civilisation française ou l'apprentissage du français. Très utile est aussi le cours de grammaire contrastive français-polonais pendant lequel un accent important est mis sur les divergences dans la conceptualisation de la réalité extralinguistique.

Mais le facteur interculturel, qui nous intéresse ici, intervient explicitement avant tout dans les matières liées à la traduction.

2.2. Dans la formation "philologique", la matière "traduction" avait, jusqu'en 1990, une place dans le bloc "enseignement pratique du français", et ses contenus étaient centrés autour de la compréhension et, éventuellement, de l'expression. Dans le cursus actuel, pendant les cours de "traduction", obligatoires pour tous les étudiants de la 3 année, ceux-ci doivent acquérir, en 60 heures, les techniques de traduction fondamentales; ils sont sensibilisés aussi aux différences entre les deux langues et cultures. Il s'agit donc d'une initiation au travail du traducteur, qui doit **comprendre pour faire comprendre:** analyser et interpréter un texte original français pour réexprimer son contenu dans un texte polonais.

On insiste particulièrement sur la première phase du travail: **comprendre.** La compréhension du texte original (TO) est foncièrement différente de la compréhension par un recepteur "normal" de ce texte. Si celui-ci le lit et l'analyse pour lui-même, le traducteur en tant que futur émetteur du texte traduit (TT) - le lit et l'interprète pour d'autres. Cette première phase se fait en deux temps. Dans le premier (correspondant à la "lecture pour soi"), après la toute première lecture, préparative, exigeant l'utilisation d'un dictionnaire de la langue française pour s'assurer de la connaissance des sens possibles des mots et expressions, il faut extraire les informations contenues dans le texte et son cotexte par la mobilisation aussi bien de la compétence linguistique que des compétences encyclopédique et logique (cf. Kerbrat-Orecchioni 1986:161-298). Il faut préciser que les TO sont délibérément choisis de sorte qu'ils présentent diverses facettes d'enracinement dans la culture française: ils parlent de réalités françaises, ils appartiennent aussi à des types de textes conventionnels (lettre administrative, brochure d'information, mode d'emploi...). Les étudiants sont donc obligés d'utiliser les connaissances linguistiques et culturelles acquises dans les cours du tronc commun (souvent en les complétant).

Vient ensuite le deuxième temps, celui de "la lecture pour d'autres", qui fait passer les étudiants dans un "espace d'entre-deux", pour emprunter l'expression de Daniel Sibony. Ils lisent donc le TO en essayant de puiser dans leurs compétences "françaises" et "polonaises" en même temps, pour percevoir les écarts culturels entre les destinataires du TO et ceux du TT. On arrive ainsi à dresser un inventaire des difficultés potentielles et des questions auxquelles il faudra chercher une solution dans la "double négociation" menée par le traducteur (même apprenti), médiateur entre le contenu du TO à transmettre et les possibilités perceptives et attentes des lecteurs virtuels du TT. En effet, si la compétence "française" permet aux étudiants de comprendre le TO, la compétence "polonaise" leur permet de prévoir ce que les récepteurs du TT ne pourront pas saisir du fait de leur appartenance à une autre culture. Il faut préciser que dans cet inventaire, on trouve des éléments très disparates, en commençant par des noms de réalités propres à la culture française, sans équivalent en polonais (*bol, grandes écoles, TGV...*), en passant par les expressions stéréotypées (formules de politesse), les conventions textuelles, jusqu'à des connaissances qui permettent de saisir les implicites.

Ici, commence la deuxième phase du travail: **faire comprendre.** Le point de départ est le choix de la stratégie à adopter pour la traduction du texte précis, elle-même déterminée par les attentes et les horizons du récepteur du TT (pendant les cours de 3e année, on invente un récepteur que l'on veut curieux, ouvert aux altérités et doté d'une culture générale relativement

vaste). C'est en fonction d'un tel récepteur que sont choisies les solutions adaptées aux difficultés répertoriées dans l'inventaire établi.

Ce choix est déterminé par la stratégie adoptée pour la traduction, mais aussi - sinon avant tout - par l'importance de l'élément donné dans la totalité du texte et du message à transmettre. Aussi, en classe, les difficultés comprises dans l'inventaire sont évaluées, une à une, quant à leur nature (pragmatique, sémantique) et leur fonction dans le texte, et des solutions proposées, discutées et provisoirement retenues; elles obéissent à une des maximes conversationnelles de Grice, celle de quantité.

Le cours ainsi conçu permet aux étudiants de se rendre compte du fait que si l'acte de traduire est un espace de confrontation de deux langues, il est surtout un espace de rencontre et de confrontation de deux cultures; dans cet "espace d'entre-deux", c'est le traducteur qui décide de l'image que le récepteur aura de l'original et de la culture que celui-ci véhicule et à laquelle, en même temps, il appartient. Dans leur pratique, ils acquièrent aussi la conscience de la dimension éthique de ce travail.

Ces objectifs sont poursuivis dans les matières de la "spécialisation professionnelle" (150 heures en deux ans, réparties entre les matières suivantes: techniques de traduction fr.-pol.; techniques de traduction pol.-fr.; initation à l'interprétation). Les méthodes de cours changent cependant par rapport à celles du cours de 3e année, principalement en raison de la simulation d'un travail réel: les textes à traduire sont plus longs, parfois spécialisés, présentant souvent des contraintes formelles liées à des conventions textuelles; à côté du personnage du récepteur apparaît aussi celui du donneur d'ouvrage, avec ses exigences quant aux délais, au contrôle de qualité etc.; l'importance des textes parallèles devient plus grande, puisque ce sont eux qui, en plus de fournir des connaissances relatives au contenu et à la terminologie, servent de modèle, les conventions textuelles variant aussi d'une culture à l'autre[3]. C'est dans ces cours aussi que les étudiants peuvent se rendre compte du volet créateur de leur travail: certains modèles textuels n'existant pas, il incombe au traducteur de les créer (telle la lettre de motivation française); un autre cas est celui des modèles qui étaient propres à l'époque d'avant 1990 et qui, ne fonctionnant plus dans une réalité sociale et culturelle profondément modifiée, doivent changer aussi (tels certains modes d'emploi ou offres de travail). Ainsi, le traducteur-communicateur interculturel, est aussi "importateur interculturel". Tout ceci ne change cependant pas essentiellement le fond du cours, la traduction étant toujours pratiquée comme négociation dans laquelle se décide la façon dont une culture sera montrée à une autre.

L'interculturel intervient aussi, de façon pratique, dans le cours de terminologie (30 heures). La constitution des glossaires terminologiques révèle aussi bien des particularités culturelles de la communauté d'une des langues de travail, que les différences de l'état d'aménagement des domaines dans les deux langues (voir Kaufman 2001).

2.3 La formation à la traduction s'inscrivant dans le cursus philologique traditionnel, les étudiants sont tenus de préparer un mémoire de maîtrise de littérature, civilisation ou linguistique, condition d'obtention du diplôme national de fin d'études. Un enseignement spécial, séminaire de maîtrise, à raison de 120 heures pendant deux ans, est prévu pour préparer le mémoire. Il est accompagné d'un cours optionnel, comptant 90 heures, qui a pour but d'approfondir les connaissances liées au sujet du séminaire de maîtrise. Depuis plusieurs années, dans le cadre des enseignements de maîtrise, on propose aux étudiants un séminaire de traductologie et/ou de terminologie, qui permettent aux étudiants d'avoir une approche plus théorique des problèmes de la traduction. Le profil de spécialiste de la communication interculturelle que nous voulons donner à nos diplômés détermine le contenu de ces enseignements.

Ainsi, après une période d'acquisition des bases théoriques et de la recherche des outils nécessaires à l'analyse, dans le cadre du séminaire de maîtrise, les étudiants présentent les résultats de leur recherche individuelle sur un problème précis. Les sujets portent principalement sur les solutions des problèmes culturels de diverse nature dans la traduction soit d'une seule oeuvre (par ex. le traitement des néologismes onomastiques dans la traduction française de *Dzienniki gwiazdowe* de Stanisław Lem), soit dans une série d'oeuvres (par ex. l'image de Paris véhiculée par les traductions de la série "Maigret" de Georges Simenon). Le but de ces mémoires est de décrire les procédures utilisées par le traducteur et d'interpréter leur influence sur la formation de l'image de l'Autre aux yeux de leur lecteur.

Un autre type de travaux consiste à préparer la traduction d'un texte bien ancré dans la culture-source: l'auteur doit lire et interpréter le roman pour un lecteur de la culture-cible et préparer un inventaire commenté des difficultés avec les propositions de leur solution, propositions qui doivent être correctement motivées en fonction de la stratégie adoptée.

Lors du cours optionnel, accompagnant le séminaire de maîtrise, les étudiants font, en équipe, une recherche qui porte sur les solutions apportées dans la traduction aux problèmes que posent les éléments à forte connotation culturelle. Ainsi, on a étudié la version française du mensuel *Polska* (*La Pologne*), édité en plusieurs langues dans les années 70, dans un but

fondamentalement de propagande. Les analyses ont montré un échec de communication interculturelle, les procédures adoptées par les traducteurs étant essentiellement exotisantes et donnant un résultat peu compréhensible pour un lecteur virtuel français ne connaissant point la réalité de la Pologne Populaire. En 2000/2001, une équipe a analysé les différences entre divers types de textes conventionnels. En effet, comme il a déjà été dit, les changements que vit la Pologne se manifestent aussi par la disparition ou la modification de certains modèles textuels, et par l'apparition, souvent par l'intermédiaire de la traduction, de modèles nouveaux. Les observations faites par les étudiants, toutes imparfaites qu'elles puissent être, permettent de saisir des écarts culturels propres à un certain domaine; elles apportent aussi des données utilisables dans des cours pratiques de traduction. Une autre équipe a étudié les traductions de divers textes utilitaires pour observer l'impact de la traduction sur la langue polonaise de ces textes.

3. Conclusion

Les principes esquissés concernent un aspect particulier de la formation à la traduction basé sur un programme particulier dans une université particulière. Au colloque sur la formation à la traduction organisé à l'Université de Haute Bretagne - Rennes II en 1999, pour parler de ce mariage particulier d'un enseignement traditionnel avec une formation pour le marché du travail en évolution, nous avons parlé d'une "greffe réussie" (Skibińska, Kaufman 2000). La réussite de cette greffe vient aussi de la synergie des diverses matières du tronc commun et des matières professionnelles.

Mais, nous semble-t-il, au-delà des particularités de cette formation, il est possible, et intéressant, de percevoir des phénomènes plus généraux, tel le rôle de la traduction dans l'évolution de sociétés qui se posent comme objectif l'intégration européenne, ou tout au moins la réduction des écarts qui les séparent de sociétés plus développées. Si le rôle du traducteur - médiateur interculturel est évident et indéniable, il acquiert des dimensions nouvelles lorsque la médiation se fait entre des partenaires dont l'un vit des mutations intenses. Si certaines évidences semblent tomber sous le sens, situées dans un contexte nouveau, elles gagnent peut-être à être redites.

Notes

[1] Les compétences dont nous parlons sont loin d'être les seules. Aujourd'hui, on parle de plus en plus souvent de la disparition du métier du traducteur, remplacé par les **métiers de traduction** qui recouvrent, en plus de la traduction au sens courant, la traduction spécialisée par domaine, par type de matériau et par type d'outils, mais aussi, et de façon de plus en plus intense, le sous-titrage, la traduction multimédia, la traduction de logiciels, etc., sans oublier la terminologie, la traduction assistée patr ordinateur (TAO) et la rédaction technique et spécialisée en contexte international. Le travail de traduction ainsi considéré exige de ceux qui veulent l'effectuer des compétences multiples, qui ne se réduisent pas à des seules compétences linguistiques et communicatives (voir à ce propos Gambier 2001, Gouadec 2001).

[2] Le terme "culture" est utilisé ici au sens large, admis dans les écrits sur la traduction sous l'influence du sens donné au mot *culture* en anglais, qui renvoie à des éléments aussi divers que que coutumes, traditions, religions, croyances, organisation de la vie sociale, littérature et art, mais aussi la vie matérielle et les produits humains; voir Skibinska 1999.

[3] Voir à ce propos Kussmaul 1995:72 et suiv.

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The challenge of market-oriented translation and interpreting curricula for training communication specialists in Poland

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Abstract. In recent years, there has been a growing need for professional translation and interpretation services in Poland, which has not, however, been matched by an increase in the professional standards of the translators and interpreters whose services were available on the market. What is more, institutions training translators and interpreters were, until recently, practically non-existent.

In my paper I attempt to present the current situation on the translation and interpreting market in Poland and how it has been evolving over the last decade. In the second part, I describe how Jagiellonian University responded to the market situation by setting up the Postgraduate School for Translators and Interpreters in Cracow. Between 1995 and 1998, as part of the international Tempus PROCLAME project, curricula for teaching translation and interpreting were prepared in the School. The paper focuses on the co-operation between Polish universities and EU educational institutions as well as the research that has been conducted to assess the market conditions in which Polish schools operate. Conclusions drawn from the questionnaires distributed around the country and their impact on the curricula are discussed in the following section.

In 1999, further contacts with translator and interpreter training institutions, as well as the Service Commun Interprétation Conférences (SCIC) and the Directorate of Interpretation in Brussels, resulted in a number of changes being introduced into the curricula to bring them closer into line with the European Master's programme and AIIC guidelines for training interpreters.

1. Introduction

The paper is divided into three parts. In the first part, I briefly present some recent developments on the Polish translation and conference interpretation market as well as the main challenges facing translator and interpreter training institutions. In the second part, I concentrate on the Postgraduate School for Translators and Interpreters in Cracow (southern Poland, the old

capital of the country) and the translation and interpretation curricula that have been prepared as part of an international Tempus programme. In the third part, from the perspective of a conference interpreter and an interpreter trainer, I discuss the current interpretation curriculum with special focus on preparing students for the challenges of their future professional careers, especially in the light of Poland's coming accession to the European Union and the growing need for training in the EU-related subjects and specialised language.

2. Translation and interpreting market

Since the political and economic changes of 1989, there has been a steady growth of the Polish translation market. The shift towards a market economy and the international involvement in Polish privatisation processes, as well as the development of various international assistance programmes called for translators and interpreters who would specialise in new areas. There also emerged a need to translate numerous textbooks for business and management, the abolition of communist ideology made it possible to redefine the basic concepts of social sciences, for which a number of western textbooks were, and still are being, translated (Tabakowska 1992). At the same time the number of international conferences and business meetings soared. This tendency is likely to continue, bearing in mind the approach of Poland's integration with the European Union. The author of a recent article published in *Gazeta Wyborcza* (one of the leading Polish daily newspapers) claims that it is translators and interpreters who will reap the greatest benefits from the process.

It was only in 1989 that first two private translation offices were opened in Cracow. In 1997, a large telephone directory already listed over 15 of them. Most of them rely on services of students and other individuals whose only qualification is their claim that they know the language. This is only too natural as translator and interpreter training has in the recent years been making definitely slower progress than the booming demand for such services (Tabakowska 1996). In 1992 Tabakowska wrote: "Translation training, which should unite within a coherent methodological framework and apply in the actual teaching practice theoretical achievements of translation studies and findings of other cognate disciplines (...), is almost non-existent." (1992:7). At that time there was only one institution that offered a fully fledged translation and interpreting programme for students: the Institute of Applied Linguistics in Warsaw. Translation was and still is being taught at a number of language departments of Polish universities, but translation classes form are integrated into practical language training curricula and there usually is not enough time and expertise to provide systematic knowledge to students.

One of the main problems that face new schools of translation and interpreting is that of teaching curricula. Some of the questions that have to be answered have been formulated by one of the pioneers in the field, James Hartzell, of the Lodz translation centre. These include such questions as:

- Do we need specialists trained in language or linguists trained in specialised fields?
- Do we teach ONE or TWO foreign languages? Only the first option is feasible now in Poland, while it is the second that complies with European standards.
- Should we encourage, in the view of the practical need, translation into a foreign language? (quoted after Tabakowska 1996:5)

3. Tempus PROCLAME - international co-operation aimed at modern training curricula

The Cracow School for Translators and Interpreters was fortunate to take part in one of the TEMPUS programmes financed by the European Union whose aim was to devise a number of curricula for teaching relatively new subjects in the Polish educational system. The project brought together twelve educational institutions from seven countries into a new network that facilitated research co-operation on an international scale. The Polish side was represented by the Jagiellonian University and the Academy of Economics in Cracow. The topics of Tempus PROCLAME (where the acronym PROCLAME stands for Programme for Communication, Languages and Management in Europe) were: Business English and Business German, Intercultural Business and Management Communication and Translation and Interpreting. The scholars involved in the project firmly believed that the societal and vocational utility of university teaching should form an important consideration in the determining of priorities for the work of a university faculty. Intensive training sessions run by academic experts from EU universities, as well as updating periods spent by Polish researchers, abroad contributed to the final success of the programme.

In the first stage of the project, teachers of translation and interpreting from Cracow, most of whom teach both at the Postgraduate School for Translators and Interpreters and in the English Department of the Jagiellonian University, prepared and distributed several types of questionnaires. The questionnaires, on which further parameter and needs analysis was based, were sent out to teachers and students of translation and interpreting around the country, to translation offices, individuals working as translators and interpreters, companies which need translation and interpreting services, as well as foreigners who need such services in Poland.

Translation and interpretation curricula developed in the second stage of the project were founded on the comments obtained from the respondents. The following section of the paper presents some of the findings of the questionnaires received from teachers and students of translation and interpreting from Polish translation and interpreting schools as well as universities and teacher training colleges which offer translation (and sometimes interpreting) classes as a part of the practical English programme.

- Although translation is taught at all of these institutions only 48% of them teach interpreting. Both teachers and students emphasise a need for more interpreting courses.
- Translation is taught in 32% of the surveyed institutions for 2 semesters and in another 32% for 4 semesters, in 28% for 6 semesters. Respondents claim that the optimum number of semesters for teaching translation is 4 (44%) and 6 (36%), which is slightly more than in the current teaching programmes.
- In 68% of institutions translation constitutes part of the canonical programme of studies, and exactly 68% of respondents claim that this should be so. The largest discrepancy between what is now and what should be is in the subject of translation specialisation available to regular university students. It is available only in 20% of institutions, yet 60% claim that there is a need for such a specialisation.
- As far as the number of students in one group is concerned, there are on average 15 students in one class, whereas the number 10 is usually considered as the best number of students in class.
- All surveyed institutions teach translation from and into Polish and there is widespread agreement that this should remain so (96%).
- There is a need for more practice in all aspects of interpreting: consecutive, liaison and simultaneous. Respondents claim that the number of hours devoted to these techniques should be on average doubled.
- In written translation there is a need for diverse types of texts. There is not enough literary translation (32% now, compared to 60% needed). Areas such as Business English and journalism should be included in translation curricula.
- Specialised books on translation and interpreting are available only in 84% of the institutions' libraries, and the situation is worse with language laboratories. They are to be found in only 64% of the surveyed institutions.
- Booths for teaching simultaneous interpreting are used only in 24% of the institutions, only 32% have a camcorder, and 68% a computer. Almost all have photocopying machines, videos and tape recorders.
- Only 4% of them use ready-made materials and 88% of the respondents claim they do not have enough original materials at their disposal (it is

particularly difficult to get hold of original audio and video recordings for interpreter training).

- In 80% of the surveyed institutions, translation and interpreting classes are conducted by trainers who are also translators and/or interpreters. In 52% they conduct all classes, but in 20% not a single class is taught by practitioners. Only 19% of students are satisfied with their teachers' qualifications.
- As many as 88% of the teachers among the respondents see a need for further training of the staff. 20% claim such training should be organised by experienced translators and/or interpreters.
- Additional comments of the respondents referred to such problems as: a need for handbooks containing practical texts for students of translation and interpretation and lack of specialist trainers teaching Business English translation.

The following comments come from the questionnaires that were circulated among employers.

- Around 50% of surveyed companies were involved in regular interaction with foreigners.
- The answer to the question of who provides language services in the company seems to be a clear reflection of the current problems that face the translation market in Poland. In more than 70% of companies, translation is done by an employee who is not a translator but who works as one, or by another employee who simply knows the language.
- As far as the types of services for which there is the greatest demand are concerned, 61% of employers indicate written translation, 47% authorised translation of documents, 41% oral translation, mainly consecutive or liaison. Roughly the same proportion was indicated by translation offices.
- In one of the questions, the employers were asked to decide whom they would rather employ: a language specialist who knows a given subject or a subject expert who knows the language. 91% of employees chose the subject expert with language qualifications! However, answers to the same question addressed to translation offices were rather different: half of them preferred language specialists, the other half subject experts.

As far as foreigners who need translation and interpreting services in Poland are concerned, what seemed to be reassuring was that in spite of all the conspicuous shortcomings, most of them assessed the available services as satisfactory or even good.

An in-depth study of the results obtained from the questionnaires made it possible to draw a number of conclusions that helped to shape the final structure of the curricula. Some examples have been presented below.

- The need for more hours of interpreting resulted in equal status being granted to interpreting and translation in the Postgraduate School for Translators and Interpreters in Cracow. Students may choose to attend one of the subjects or both. There is, on average, an equal number of hours devoted to teaching translation and interpreting.
- Interpreting classes are currently also available to undergraduate students of the English Department of the Jagiellonian University.
- Translation specialisation (at an M.A. level) has also been organised in the English Department. Every year it attracts more students than alternative specialisations (literature, linguistics, methods of teaching English as a foreign language).
- More varied texts are being used during translation and interpreting classes. There is more emphasis on Business English.
- As a number of students expressed their interest in literary translation classes, one of the first specialised courses devoted to this issue has been recently launched in Cracow. A specialised periodical devoted to literary translation has been published for more than three years.
- Teachers of translation and interpreting from the Jagiellonian University published handbooks for teaching their respective subjects. The textbooks include parallel texts in English and Polish which cover a large variety of disciplines together with some comments on their translation or interpretation.
- Thanks to the assistance of the Tempus office, a new state-of-the-art language lab equipped with interpretation booths has been bought for the Philology Department of the University, which now forms an indispensable venue for training conference interpreters. The same programme provided opportunities for further training for all teachers who conduct translation and interpreting classes.
- All the surveyed institutions teach translation from and into Polish and there is widespread agreement that this should remain so. The answer to the question whether translation into a foreign language should be encouraged is in the affirmative. There is simply no alternative. There are few native speakers of western languages who are qualified to work as translators and interpreters from Polish. It seems that most translators, interpreters and their trainers are aware of imperfections of translation into non-mother tongues. This calls for even greater emphasis to be put upon their effective continuous training.

4. New programme in conference interpreting

The original curricula prepared for the Postgraduate School for Translators and Interpreters in Cracow covered both translation and interpreting. All

students were required to study both subjects and, at the final exam, they had to demonstrate their skills both in translation and conference interpreting.

In 1999, however, the curricula were thoroughly revised and, as a result, translator and interpreter training were separated. Regular contacts established by the School with a number of EU interpreter training institutions, as well as with the SCIC (the European Commission's Joint Interpretation-Conference Services) and the European Parliament's Directorate of Interpretation in Brussels, resulted in the introduction of an interpretation curriculum based on the European Master's programme and AIIC guidelines for training interpreters. The issue of quality interpreting in the domestic and international market is the main concern for everyone involved in the course.

The way interpretation services are organised in Poland (and most other Central European countries) is still very much different from the system used outside the region. All language booths are manned with native Polish interpreters with Polish A who are expected to be able to work fluently into their respective B languages. Retour is therefore our every-day reality. What is more, the role of C languages is practically negligible as relay is used at all multilingual meetings. The technical aspect, i.e. the number of booths required for each conference (for instance, two booths instead of three for a conference with three working languages) and very few interpreters with A other than Polish working in the country make the whole system unlikely to change in the foreseeable future. Furthermore, in the light of Poland's approaching accession into the European Union, Polish interpreters working for the EU institutions will be required to provide fluent and reliable retour.

The Protocol on Enlargement attached to the recent Nice Treaty specifies the role and influence of the candidate countries when they become EU member states. The future weighting of votes in the Council and the number of Members of the European Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions indicate that Poland will become one of the big six states of the enlarged EU with the role comparable to that of Spain. That means more Polish at EU meetings and other international conferences and, consequently, more relay interpretation. The JICS and the Directorate of Interpretation have already started co-operation with Polish interpretation schools and the EU interpreters seem to be very keen to add Polish to the list of their working languages.

The Cracow School follows the established and widely accepted conference interpreting training paradigm that is shared by many universities and other interpreter training institutions, as well as international

organizations such as the Commission of the European Union which occasionally runs in-house training courses to meet its particular needs (Mackintosh 1995). The most important AIIC criteria to test the quality of training courses are fulfilled. Applicants to courses in conference interpretation have a university degree or equivalent education and are required to pass an entrance test. The test assesses their proficiency in the languages offered, their general knowledge and cultural background. The curriculum for conference interpreting has been designed and is taught by practising conference interpreters who are, at the same time, well versed in the methods of training interpretation. Training in both consecutive and simultaneous is included in the program. The curriculum and the language combinations offered reflect the requirements of the market for conference interpretation. The requirements of the market for conference interpretation, however, mean that the course needs to address the ubiquitous problems of retour and relay. Coping tactics for retour as well as for relay constitute the backbone of the curriculum (cf. Jones 1998).

Interpreter trainers are aware of the need for the EU interpreters to provide a retour with the related issue of intensive training into a B language (Marzocchi and Zucchetto 1997). Out of 264 contact hours in the interpretation classroom, approximately the same number of hours is devoted to interpreting exercises into A and B languages. The weak point of the School, as well as all the other Polish interpretation schools and the whole interpretation market, is the absence of professional interpreters and at the same time interpretation trainers who are native speakers of languages other than Polish. As it is not likely to change in the near future, we invite native speakers who are not interpreters to deliver speeches and assess student performance. What we consider most valuable, however, is our growing co-operation with foreign universities and interpretation services of the EU, which send their interpreters to Poland to assist us in our training programmes. The help of Brussels-based interpreters who spend a few months in Poland learning Polish and are keen on mutually beneficial work with our students is also invaluable.

One of the main concerns of the Polish interpretation schools is therefore the issue of training into a B language. It is reflected in the focus on proficiency in a B language, which is monitored and assessed throughout the course. Master's type entrance and final exams held in accordance with AIIC recommendations (AIIC 1991) are organised by the examining board that is made up of both tutors who taught at the course and external examiners who are practising conference interpreters and at the same time native speakers of the B languages offered by the examinees. All members of the board have the right to vote.

The scope of this paper does not allow us to go into more detail regarding the techniques used in the classroom to develop skills pertaining to the optimum performance of pivot interpreters. An overview of those strategies might constitute the main subject of another contribution devoted to this issue.

5. Conclusion

A thorough training in the skills of interpreting is indispensable and the current paradigm together with the methods of instruction employed form a solid foundation upon which would-be interpreters will build throughout their professional careers. Apart from training, however, an excellent command of languages and extensive knowledge of the world are necessary. This is the life-long challenge that interpreters have to meet on their own.

Those who do manage to overcome the initial difficulties and demonstrate their physical and psychological staying-power may look forward to their future interpreting careers as, to quote J. Herbert (1952: 81), conference interpreting is "one of the most interesting professions of our times... travel, conditions, being admitted to places, all conferences - like courses given by a world travelling university, where the most highly competent specialists come before (an interpreter) in order to discuss, for his benefit, the most burning topics of the day. In addition to that, he is generally very well paid for kindly listening to them".

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Teaching translation theory: a Canadian case study

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Abstract. Based on a Canadian case study, this article offers a reflection on how the traditional course in the theory of translation can and should be re-structured as an essential part of the professional curriculum. The goals such a re-designed course should meet are identified. A possible course format and content is developed and the results of their implementation assessed. Teaching theory shifts from a text-based to a contextual, learner-centred approach. Students are encouraged to relate contemporary theoretical constructs to their own experience. The overall goal of the course is to enable students to develop an informed, flexible and responsible self-concept as language professionals. The course has been given during the past four years to over 300 students working in translation combinations involving three languages: French, English and Spanish. In conclusion, some suggestions are made for further useful modifications to the course. Some general issues in teaching translation theory in a complex inter-cultural context are also raised, all with a view to preparing students more effectively for work in the new multifaceted workplace, where an ever wider variety of language, translation and interpreting skills are required.

Both curricular and financial constraints of current university translation programmes place considerable pressure on the role and place of theory courses in professional translator training. There is little room in an already heavy curriculum to provide students with an overview of contemporary reflections on translation theory. Priority seems naturally to go to courses in source language(s) and culture(s), target language writing skills, general and specialised translation, terminology and computer applications. Where budgets are being cut, or training programmes are being privatised, the pragmatic takes precedence over the theoretical. Students, as well, often perceive the focus in theory classes on linguistic or cultural theories of transfer as being quite removed from the actual "real world" practice of translation.

1. Theory in the Canadian Context

Professional translation training in Canada focuses primarily, but not exclusively, on French/English, English/French translation (and

interpretation) within the context of the Canadian Official Languages Act. Following the North-American Free Trade Agreement, Spanish is also gaining importance. Curriculum is fairly standardised throughout the country, through the Canadian Association of Schools of Translation, although there are some variations in the weighting of different components[1]. Generally a programme leading to an undergraduate university degree in translation includes the equivalent of 20 semester courses in translation, along with a similar number of courses in other disciplines. Among the translation courses, theory is often given as a one-semester course, and considered as part of what Valentine calls the "complimentary skills" vs. the "fundamental skills" students are required to acquire (1995: 100).

In recent years, several factors have put pressure on theory courses in Canadian programmes. The impact of technology has meant that students and employers have asked programmes to offer more in-depth courses on computer technology and terminology and data base management skills. In an effort to bridge the ever-widening gap between their academic courses and the conditions and demands of the workplace, students are demanding more hands-on training in specialised translation. Traditional theory courses focusing on linguistic models of translation have been criticised by students as being too abstract or even irrelevant at the under-graduate level. This reaction has been compounded in recent years by the proliferation and increasing complexity of such linguistic models. As a result, it has appeared more effective, to both students and professors, to move some of this conceptual material into the methodological domain, and to integrate it directly within specialised and general translation courses. This trend also reflects the increasing availability of manuals and methodological material in specialised translation (technical, scientific, medical translation etc.).

At the same time, students have expressed new needs:

1. The move from in-house translation service jobs to a market dominated by free-lance and out-servicing has generated apprehension. Students worry about how they will be able to integrate such an uncertain market.
2. Client demand for increasingly complex technological skills and the rapidity of technological change means continuing professional up grading. The number of skills they will require and how they will face the rapidity of technological change discourage students.
3. In a more diversified and complex international market and without the framework provided by traditional in-house translation services (and revisers), students are more and more concerned about issues of professional responsibility, liability and ethics.
4. Following the still recent recognition of the profession in Canada, students are more aware of questions relating to the role of translators

in society, their status and professionalism and want to know where they fit in. Professional associations are also seeking to increase their visibility and recruitment among students of translation.

2. New Goals for a Course in Translation Theory

In this context, and particularly as a response to new student needs reflecting changes in the practice of professional translation, I undertook to redesign the one semester course in translation theory given at School of Translation at York University (Toronto)[2]. Based on anecdotal feed-back from former students and current student course evaluations, it seemed that students would only perceive and reap the benefits of such a course if the theoretical components could be anchored in their more pragmatic concerns about how to become and develop as professional translators. This meant a basic shift in thinking about the course: from a traditional text-based to a learner-centred theoretical approach. This was seen as essential for students to perceive the course as being relevant. For this reason, I felt it was important to express course goals, not so much in terms of what particular theoretical concepts students should acquire, but more in terms of how they could take control of their own learning about the theory (and practice) of translation.

Within this learner-centred approach, I identified three main goals for the re-designed theory course. It should help students:

1. develop an identification with the profession, and a flexible and responsible self-concept as language professionals;
2. acquire a general view of translation practices that will enable them to find their place in the profession and respond to on-going changes in the way professional translation is carried out;
3. learn how to ground theoretical concepts (dealing with the practice and process of translation) in their own professional context; and
4. plan more effectively for continuing up-grading and new skills acquisition as the market shifts.

3. Description of the course[3]:

For one semester course (three hours/week of classroom time with students for 13 weeks), the material covered is divided into 5 units:

1. who translators are and how they work;
2. what role translators play and have played in society;
3. what translators do in the process of translation;
4. how translation can be viewed as a linguistic process, and
5. how translation can be understood as a form of intercultural communication.

The first unit uses as a starting point Robinson's distinction between looking at translation from an internal (translator's) vs. an external (client or translation user's) point of view (1997: 5-46). Focusing first on the internal viewpoint, students look at who becomes a translator (typical backgrounds, interests, skills), and see which of these traits (inevitably quite a few) they share with their fellow professionals. They are exposed in their readings to a broad overview of the different historical and contemporary types of translation and interpretation practices, which gives them an idea of which part of the profession they find most attractive. At the same time, we discuss how translation is viewed from the external point of view, raising such issues as the social status and invisibility of translation and how such social stereotypes affect how they see themselves as professionals. This section enables students to develop greater identification with the profession, and validates the profession generally. The notion of professional ethics, as a broad-ranging concept extending beyond mere professional competence, is also introduced.

The second unit focuses on the diverse social roles of both historical and contemporary, of translators. Through readings on the fundamental contributions by historical translators in the invention of alphabets and national literatures, the spread of scientific knowledge, and the propagation of religions (Delisle and Woodsworth, 1995: 23-136; 163-189), students develop a broader conception of the importance of translation. Robinson's notion that translation is a social and not only linguistic activity (1997: 192-219) is used to assist students in relating this historical material to issues concerning their own social role as translators. The presentation by Delisle and Woodsworth on translation and power (1995: 137-162) is used to further discussions of professional ethics. Students are asked to relate historical examples to the similar situations contemporary translators and interpreters can find themselves in.

For the third unit, devoted to the actual process of translation, students read Robinson's chapters on learning, and working environment preferences (1997: 47-108). They are asked to identify their own particular learning styles, and to relate them to how they go about the translation process. Through group discussions, students see how the actual process of translating varies from one individual to another. Issues raised here are self-awareness as a learner, the roles of intuition in the translation process, and how confidence can be increased.

For the fourth and fifth units, I chose accessible readings available at my University library to introduce students to a variety of linguistic and inter-cultural models of translation. Students are asked to relate these readings to

three key concepts (meaning, function and context), to see how different linguistic models and concepts can help us understand more precisely what each of these concepts can be useful to the working translator. Readings on the inter-cultural dimensions are chosen for their relevance to the Canadian context, as such issues as colonialism, majority vs. minority cultures and how translation navigates the inevitable power relationship between cultures.

In terms of assignments, students keep a journal where they are encouraged to express their own insights as they move along their own particular learning path. Most start by describing what their expectations from the course (or program) are, how they initially see translation as an activity, and what they think a career in translation means. At the end of the journal, they are asked to re-read their entries and assess how their thoughts as professional translators-in-training have evolved. They also do a critical review of an article on translation, or interview a professional translator or profile an historical translator or interpreter. There are two tests, the first, more fact-based, deals with the first two units and the majority of the historical readings. The final examination requires students to synthesise their thoughts on key themes raised during the course: professional ethics, the social role of translators, and the utility of linguistic concepts for working translators, the relationship between translation and power.

The class itself is divided into a lecture component and group discussion and reporting time. An attempt is made to make the class as inter-active as possible. I have included email discussion groups. Assignments, as well as the final examination are administered electronically, and corrections and comments are returned to the students by email.

Throughout the course, through the readings, class discussions and assignments, students are continually brought back to the need for each one of them to acquire a sense of who they are as language professionals. Early focus on who translators are and what social roles they have played allows students to identify with the profession, to feel pride in the achievements of language professionals. This is a considerable motivator in helping them develop a self-concept which both informs and nourishes their practice while at the same time providing room for a healthy sense of self reflection and criticism.

4. A Preliminary Assessment

The course has been given for four years in English to students working in the following language combinations: French/English, Spanish/English and English/Spanish, and been offered for three years in French to francophone

students translating from English into French. It is a third-year level course in a four-year under-graduate degree programme. In all, some 300 students have taken the course. Students vary considerably in age, background and culture. The English-language course is taken by Spanish-speaking students from Spain and virtually every country in South and Central America, along with anglophone students, many of whom are first or second generation immigrants to Canada and speak another language at home (Portuguese, Italian, Polish, Serbian, Greek, Korean, Hebrew, German, etc.). The francophone population is equally diverse, including francophones from Quebec or Ontario, France, other French-speaking countries in Europe, Africa, the Middle East and Asia. The classes are overwhelmingly composed of women students with about equal numbers of post-secondary students and older women returning to school for professional up grading or a career change.

In general, most students find the course informative and enjoyable, although the readings are considered heavy. The historical components of the course are seen as enriching (students are amazed to discover all the accomplishments of translators in the past), and generate a sense of professional pride and belonging. In the last entry of their journal, students indicate the course has given them a better sense of how they fit into the profession, enabled them to confirm their career choice, and provided them with a working framework for their professional aspirations. Robinson's treatment of learning styles is particularly effective. Students are often surprised as they identify their learning styles, and many say this new self-awareness as learner has helped them improve their translation strategies in specialised translation courses. They have a better sense of their own particular strengths and weaknesses as learners and translators, and can develop strategies to maximise the former and compensate the latter. They have also acquired new strategies for professional networking, and a more conscious and coherent view of their career aspirations and how to go about realising them.

Other observations on the effectiveness of the course concern the relationship between the theory course and other courses in the programme. Students in our programme appear to have interiorised a fairly rigid, text-based and highly normative approach to translation and translation quality. As a consequence, tensions have been felt from time to time between the non-normative approach to translation in the theory course vs. the normative perspective used in hands-on translation classes. These tensions manifest themselves as resistance to certain parts of the course. For example, it is sometimes difficult for students to accept that a good translation might take any one of several forms: literal, commentary, adaptation or summary,

according to client requirements. They may feel hesitant to raise certain questions in class about translation quality or their social role as translators, or see these questions as irrelevant to their professional future. In a few cases, such tensions can even affect how pertinent the student perceives the course to be for his or her professional development.

When these tensions surface in group discussions (as opposed to journal entries), they can be the springboard for some fruitful class insights. A rigid and narrowly normative approach to translation quality (the notion that there is one perfect translation, for instance) is often associated in students with considerable apprehension about their own work and a decrease in self-confidence. In this context, criteria for translation quality may be perceived as abstract and absolute (therefore intimidating), yet unclear. This can be demoralising, and, in the worst cases, jeopardise students' desire to continue in the programme. Through class discussion, students clarify and contextualise both the criteria they are seeking to apply and the expectations they are trying to meet, and evaluate their pertinence and range of application. By doing so, they gain some control over and responsibility for how their work will be judged in different contexts.

5. Suggestions for further modifications

A final series of observations concerns general issues with respect to teaching translation theory, and suggestions for further modifications in the course content or delivery. The first observation concerns the impact of cultural difference on the success of the course. I observed that students coming from cultures with a traditional or hierarchical approach to pedagogy found it more difficult to handle the learner-centred orientation of the course. They tended initially to feel insecure with the course, question the usefulness of group discussions, remain text-based in their understanding of translation, and in the beginning of the course at least, be uncomfortable with the personal dimension of the journal.

Other cultural differences were also apparent and impacted on how different groups within the classes re-acted to the various concepts introduced in class. Latin-American Spanish-speaking students, well versed in the need to change vocabulary and presentation from one country to another, and confronted daily with the economic weight of English, were particularly informed during the final, inter-cultural unit of the course when we discussed the politics of translation. Similarly, francophone students working in a context where French is a minority language found the discussion of the social role of translators particularly validating. Cultural attitudes to language usage (from highly normative to more communicative), cultural differences in

how collective and individual values are negotiated, and cultural variations in the appreciation for theory or more pragmatic approaches were also reflected in the response to different parts of the course.

Finally, class discussions were quite revealing of the unresolved contradictions within the programme as a whole. For example, there are considerable differences between the French to English and the English to French translation market in Canada. The vast majority of what one might consider "traditional, text-style" translation work is from English into French, while the French to English market is far more fragmented, and usually requires other skills (communications, technical writing, client services, computer or specialised knowledge). Unfortunately, curriculum for both groups remains quite similar, thus creating a gap between anglophone students' expectations of the programme (notably in terms of employment opportunities) and what they perceive it delivers. However, the programme as a whole has yet to develop a coherent response to this problem.

Based on student feedback and my own reflections after the course, I see room for several modifications to make the course more effective.

1. The use of electronic communication should be increased and integrated more coherently with strategies for professional networking. Students are given a list of useful web sites for translators, including the addresses of professional associations. While many choose to interview, often by email, a working translator for one of their assignments, more networking activities could be included in the course. The course could be made more inter-active with chat groups on a web site, and international discussion groups with students from other countries.
2. The presentation of translation and interpretation practices, i.e. how the market is structured in the Canadian context, could be developed further, and be presented more clearly to students.
3. While the course was successful in opening up areas for discussion and reflection in the area of professional ethics, more concrete information could also be provided here, particularly concerning the legal and institutional frameworks within which translators must negotiate their choices.

6. Conclusion

Clearly the pedagogical, professional and curricular dimensions of teaching translation theory in professional translator training programmes cannot be dealt with in detail in an article of this length. Reflections on translation pedagogy tend to focus on issues in general and specialised translation courses (Delisle and Lee-Jahnke, 1998). Nonetheless, some main

points can be stressed. Most importantly, the culturally diverse student population involved in this case study demonstrates that teaching translation theory is a culturally context-based as theory formulation itself. The pedagogical and curricular implications of this need to researched. In addition to assessing the different cultural reactions to the concepts covered, this research needs to address other important questions. Strategies should be developed for creating and maintaining an inclusive learning environment respectful of cultural difference in the classroom, and the need to work out an "ethics of difference", as an essential dimension of the self-concept of the language professional, should be addressed. On another level, it would appear that the success of such a professional theory course would benefit from close integration with the general and specialised translation courses within the programme, so that students would see differences in approach as complementary, rather than conflictual. Finally, much of the work done to mount this course is based on anecdotal evidence. It would be useful to do a follow-up assessment with graduates from the programme, to see how helpful they see the course after a few years of working experience.

Notes

[1] Egan Valentine provides a more detailed outline of the curriculum offered by the translation schools which are members of CAST (Valentine, 99-108).

[2] I would like to thank my colleague and professional translator, Brian Mossop, for his informed suggestions for the course.

[3] A complete course outline is included as an appendix to this article.

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Appendix
TRAN 3270A - THEORY OF TRANSLATION
WINTER 2001

INSTRUCTOR: Agnes Whitfield
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COURSE OBJECTIVES:

The aim of this course is to help students acquire an understanding of:

1) who translators are and how they work
2) what role translators play and have played in society
3) what translators do in the process of translation
4) how translation has been viewed as a linguistic process
5) how translation has been viewed as a form of intercultural communication.

At the end of the course, students should have developed:

1) a self-concept of themselves as translators
2) an understanding of the history and present practice of translation
3) a good sense of what the translation process is and a vocabulary with which to talk about it
4) an understanding of the main linguistic and cultural theories of translation in the discipline of translation studies
5) an ability to discuss translation meaningfully with other professional translators and clients in the workplace
6) an ability to reflect in a self-critical manner on their own practice as translators

COURSE STRUCTURE:

The course will be given once a week: Thursdays from 1:30 - 4:30 pm. Each session will consist of a lecture component followed by group discussions. Students are expected to complete the compulsory readings BEFORE each class.

There are two main texts for the course: Douglas Robinson, *Becoming a Translator: An Accelerated Course*, Routledge, 1997; and J. Delisle and J. Woodsworth, *Les Traducteurs dans l'histoire*, Presses de l'Université d'Ottawa, 1995.

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EVALUATION:

ASSIGNMENTS: There will be two assignments:

1. "**journal de bord**":
   - Students must complete at least one page-long entry per week (total of 11 entries) where they reflect on their course readings as they relate to their experience as translators or to other books, newspaper articles on translation.
   - The last entry should include a general reflection on what they have learned during their readings in the course.
- **DUE: Week 13**

A) a critical analysis/review of one of the optional readings:
- typed pages in length,
- pages: what are the main ideas expressed by the author
- pages: how do these ideas relate to concepts discussed in the course
- Choice of reading must be approved in advance by the instructor:

OR:

a short profile:
- typed pages in length
- pages: biographical material related to background as translator
- pages: professional issues this translator(or interpreter) has confronted
- Choice of particular translator (historical or contemporary) must be approved in advance by the instructor

DUE: Week 8

TESTS:

1. TERM TEST (1): **Week 6 :** Students will be responsible for all material covered in class and compulsory readings up to Thursday, March 29.

2. TERM TEST (2): **Week 13:** Students will be responsible for all material covered in the course.

WEIGHTING:	Written assignment	15%
	Journal de bord	35%
	Term Test I	20%
	Term Test II	20%
	Participation*	10%

* In keeping with how professional translators network and communicate, students are expected to communicate via email with each other and with the instructor, as part of the participation component of the course.

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COURSE OUTLINE:

I. WHO TRANSLATORS ARE AND HOW THEY WORK (weeks 1-2)

COMPULSORY READINGS:

Week 2:

- Douglas Robinson, *Becoming a translator*, External Knowledge: the user's view", pp. 2-23: "Internal Knowledge: the translator's view", pp. 25-46.

II. WHAT ROLE TRANSLATORS PLAY AND HAVE PLAYED IN SOCIETY (weeks 3-5)

COMPULSORY READINGS:

Week 3:

- Douglas Robinson, *Becoming a Translator*, "Social networks", pp. 191-219
- Jean Delisle and Judith Woodsworth, *Translators Through History*, "Interpreters and the Making of History", chap. 9

Week 4:

- Robert Barsky, The Interpreter and the Canadian Convention Refugee Hearing... TTR VI (2), pp. 131-156.
- Ruth Roland, *Interpreters as Diplomats*, "Europe and the New World to 1919", pp. 41-82

Week 5:

- Jean Delisle and Judith Woodsworth, *Translators Through History*, "Translators and the Inventors of Alphabets", Translators and the Development of National Languages, chaps. 1,2.
- Jean Delisle and Judith Woodsworth, *Translators Through History*, "Les traducteurs, diffiseurs des connaissances", "Les traducteurs, acteurs sur la scène du pouvoir", "Translators and the Spread of Religions", chaps. 4,5,6

Week 6: Test (1)

III. WHAT TRANSLATORS DO IN THE PROCESS OF TRANSLATION (weeks 7-8)

COMPULSORY READINGS:

Week 7:

- Douglas Robinson, *Becoming a Translator*, "The Translator as Learner", pp. 47-91; "The Process of Translation", pp. 93-108

Week 8:

- Douglas Robinson, *Becoming a Translator*, "People", pp. 127-143.

IV) TRANSLATION AS A LINGUISTIC PROCESS (weeks 9-10)

COMPULSORY READINGS:

Week 9:

- Peter Newmark, *Approaches to Translation*, "The Theory and the Craft of Translation" , pp. 3-18; "What translation theory is about", pp. 19-37.
- Peter Newmark, *Approaches to Translation*, "Communicative and semantic translation I", pp. 38-56; "Communicative and Semantic Translation II., pp. 127-144.

Week 10:

- Marianne Garre, *Human Rights in Translation*, "Current Translation Theories in the World of Human Rights", pp. 69-100. "Cognitive Models in the Understanding and Translation of Human Rights texts", pp. 127-158."Understanding contested concepts", pp. 155-171.

V. TRANSLATION AS A FORM OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION (weeks 11-12)

COMPULSORY READINGS:

Week 11:

- Jean Delisle and Judith Woodsworth, *Translators Through History*, "Les traducteurs, importateurs de valeurs culturelles", chap. 7.
- Richard Jacquemard, "Translation and Cultural Hegemony: the case of French-Arabic Translation", Lawrence Venuti, *Rethinking Translation*, pp. 139-158.
- Michael Cronin, "Altered States and Minority Languages", *TTR*, VIII (1), pp. 85-103

Week 12:

- Denise Merkle, "Émile Zola devant la censure victorienne", *TTR*, VII (1), pp. 77-91.
- Marianne Garre, *Human Rights in Translation*, "The Role of Languages and Translation in International Human Rights Law", p. 193-202.
- Susanne de Lotbinière-Harwood, *Re-belle et infidèle/The Body Bilingual*, pp. 100-136.
- Claire Lebrun, "La littérature canadienne-anglaise pour la jeunesse en traduction québécoise :analyse discurisve de la politique éditoriale et de la réception critique des 'Deux Solitudes/Jeunesse' (1980-1992)", *TTR*, VII (10), pp. 153-189.

WEEK 13: FINAL EXAMINATION

VI. SUPPLEMENTARY READINGS

- Françoise Barret-Ducrocq, *Traduire l'Europe*, Payot, 1992.
- Jean Delisle, *The Language Alchemists*, translated by Mary Plaice, University of Ottawa Press, 1990.
- Marianne Garre, *Human Rights in Translation*, Copenhagen Business School Press, 1999.
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- Christiane Nord, *Translating as a Purposeful Activity*, St Jerome Publishing, 1997.
- Anthony Pym, Pour une éthique du traducteur, Presses de l'Université d'Ottawa, 1997.
- Douglas Robinson, *Translation as Empire*, St Jerome Publishing, 1997.
- Clem Robyns, *Translation and the (Re)production of Culture*, Leuven, 1994.
- Ruth Roland, *Interpreters as Diplomats*, Univ. of Ottawa Press, 1999
- Sherry Simon, *Gender in Translation. Cultural Identity and the Politics of Transmission*, Routledge, 1996.
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2. technology and the language services provider

2.1 theory

Human translation theory and machine translation

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Abstract. The paper will present and develop the perhaps surprising view that there is a closer than expected relationship between human translation theory (HTT) and machine translation (MT) with consequences for both disciplines. The first part of the paper reviews the major lines of research in both disciplines, and gives an indication of how and on which level the relationship between MT and HTT can be described. In the second part one major aspect of the relationship is sketched out. The basis will be a cognitive theory of utterance comprehension, Relevance Theory (Sperber and Wilson 1986), which explains utterance interpretation as an inferential task which makes it potentially accessible to formal methods and thus to a computational treatment. The results will then be applied to translation. The outcome will be a sketch of a formal approach to translation. It is meant to show that there is a place in HTT for a formal discipline that investigates translation on the basis of methods borrowed from Cognitive Science, Computer Science, Logic, Knowledge Representation, disciplines that may be at the same time the basis for MT as wel,l and this will form the most important aspect of the relationship of MT and HTT.

1. The Relationship between MT and HTT

The concepts of translation applied in MT are linguistic equivalence theories at best ('at best' meaning that there are also approaches that 'engineer' the problem on a rather unprincipled basis). Thus, MT at its best is based on a concept of linguistic meaning. On the other hand, recent approaches in HTT are characterised by focussing on non-linguistic aspects of translation, cultural embeddedness of texts, relativity of meaning, the role of communicative intentions, the realisation of translation purposes (Vermeer, 1996) according to the rules of the target culture. In view of this situation the two disciplines seem rather incompatible.

Many representatives of HTT consider MT a hopeless endeavour. They argue (rightly) that the performance of available MT products is not very

impressive (to say the least). However, advanced concepts of MT realised in research systems including a systematic syntactic analysis, the calculation of a semantic representation, a device that transfers the representation of linguistic meaning extracted from the source sentence into some representation closer to the target sentence which is then used by a third component to generate a target language string, all in all delivering (if the translation succeeds) a target language string that is semantically equivalent to the source sentence, are hardly considered worth their name as a 'translation system' on the basis of assumptions made in HTT. There is agreement amongst translation scientists that translation that is solely based on linguistic (semantic) equivalence is inadequate. At best, such MT is considered useful as an engineering device that has some practical relevance in very limited (mostly technical) domains and for very restricted purposes, but not as a serious source of inspiration for HTT. Referring to Vermeer (1996) and Holz-Maenttaeri (1984) in a nutshell, there are two of the arguments why this is so.

The view that translation is not re-coding of linguistic meanings in a different language, among others, can be derived from the pragmatic and 'anti-essentialist' philosophy of Wittgenstein (1977) arguing against a notion of meaning that is isolated from the situations in which linguistic expressions are used. Wittgenstein's statement 'the meaning of a word is its use' relates to his concept of 'language games' in which linguistic expressions get their meaning and expresses the close relationship of linguistic and non-linguistic factors in the interpretation of language. A second important notion Wittgenstein introduced was 'family resemblance' which destroyed a concept of meaning that was based on the idea that meanings are pre-existing entities, defined by necessary and sufficient properties (the essential properties) which are responsible for the application of words to objects in the world. This has two consequences for translation: One is that any notion of meaning that is isolated from context (e.g. early structuralist approaches) is ill-conceived. Meanings are constituted in historical situations and include much more than what is covered by linguistic concepts of meaning. Translation cannot then consist in a replacement of meanings which are stripped of their situational parameters, but requires one to consider the situational embeddedness of the meanings of the target text. A second (methodological) consequence is that if 'meaning' is not an entity isolated from context, which exists independently of the use of words, then essentialism is no longer viable, with consequences for the scientific study of translation. It no longer consists of the definition of the 'essential properties' of translation. So, if MT is an equivalence theory, based on a restricted concept of meaning, it is inadequate from the beginning, and therefore bound to failure. The above argument is often paired with the view that all this requires intelligence and creativity, and other (exclusively) human capabilities, which computers cannot deliver.

At least the following points can be raised as a defence of MT:

- The claim that MT is confined to equivalence theory is only a problem if MT falsely claims to be a general approach to translation. The production of 'a semantically equivalent target text' can be one possible translation skopos. So, if MT reduces its claims from general purpose translation to a specific translation purpose it may be considered a partial translation theory, a theory of equivalence-based translation.
- MT is not necessarily an instantiation of an essentialist theory.
- It is wrong that computer programs cannot mimic intelligence. They can handle general world knowledge, they can make inferences, and solve problems and they can at least simulate intelligent behaviour to a certain extent. However, there are limitations to the extent such tasks can be performed.

The 'simulation of intelligent behaviour' is not in the focus of MT research at the moment. MT is currently characterised by a trend towards statistical methods and other analogical systems like example-based MT. Analogical systems are based on large bilingual corpora. They use these corpora for calculating statistical probabilities on the basis of which translations are (statistically) generated or they calculate bilingual correspondences on phrase level that are used to recombine translations of sentences in so called example-based MT. These approaches represent a trend towards engineering the problem. These systems are of practical relevance, but do not contribute very much in their present form to the topic of this paper, which is about a better understanding of translation.

There have been some attempts to explore the integration of general knowledge. It is obvious that the processing of non-linguistic knowledge is necessary for understanding a text and that understanding is one of the prerequisites for a correct translation, which is one line of argumentation in MT. A simple example shows that in (1) extensive knowledge about how ratchet wrenches are used, namely to loosen or to tighten nuts and how washers are used, namely to replace nuts etc., and that washers are not used to loosen or tighten nuts must be available to resolve the linguistic ambiguity. (An example by Martin Kay).

(1) Replace the nut with a ratchet wrench.
Replace the nut with a washer.

Hobbs & Kameyama (1990) apply the concept of abduction to MT and language interpretation. Abduction is a concept that stems from 19th century pragmatics (especially Charles Peirce) and has played an important role in

symbolic Artificial Intelligence for a long time. 'Abduction' is the seeking for an explanation and is the predominant form of inference in daily life. If 'a' is seen as the cause of 'b', abduction infers from 'b' to 'a'. You see someone staggering and you conclude that he may be drunk, as you know that one cause for staggering is that someone is drunk. Hobbs and Kameyama showed with a limited example that abduction can be integrated with a parser and a transfer component and that it can be used to resolve reference structure problems, metonymies and relations within compounds, and thus provide and integrate non-linguistic knowledge relevant for translation. The experiment, though very interesting, did not prove too much as it was too small and it was not shown that it is generalisable. This marks the basic problem of general knowledge processing in MT, the generalisation. The same holds for other approaches in different areas of Artificial Intelligence. There are theories of common sense reasoning, micro world theories, formalisation of everyday knowledge. These attempts can be interpreted as partial formal theories of everyday knowledge and reasoning and thus of what is called a cultural knowledge in HTT. Thus, the findings of these disciplines are very relevant for a theory of translation. It has been shown, in all these cases, that a limited prototype can be built for the treatment of specific problems, that all the knowledge can be provided (which is partly non-linguistic), and that the knowledge processing that is involved can be modelled. It cannot be shown, though, that the prototype and the treatment of this problem can be generalised to large domains. Generalisation is the difficult problem and leads us into the deep waters of a general (epistemological) problem known as the 'frame problem'.

2. Relevance Theory and Communication

I will now sketch out some principles of Relevance Theory (RT) (Sperber and Wilson, 1986) as an example for a theory that partially formalises insights that have been formulated in the previous section RT is a theory of utterance interpretation that makes explicit what translation scientists like Vermeer and others assume about meaning and understanding. RT shows and explains how it can be that more is communicated than what is said. RT is not a translation theory, but can be applied to the problem of translation.

A first important insight about utterance interpretation that is implicit in Vermeer's work is that understanding of linguistic utterances is not the decoding of linguistic meaning as assumed in some simplified theories of communication (e.g. Shannon and Weaver). Natural languages actually are codes, as they pair a phonetic form with a meaning. A code is a device that pairs messages with signals. Communication is achieved by encoding a message that cannot travel, into a signal that can, and by decoding this signal

at the receiving end. For natural language utterances, there is a gap between the semantic representation of sentences and the thoughts that are communicated. A code theory has only one possibility to explain what linguistic utterances mean, namely that it is encoded (Sperber and Wilson, 1986).

(2) **The semioticians [thus] never came near to discovering an underlying code [...] which would explain how myths and literature works succeed in communicating more than just linguistic meaning.**

The gap between what is encoded and the thoughts communicated is filled by inferential interpretation. Situations may differ drastically in terms of who speaks, who listens, at what time, at what place and against which background knowledge the utterance is made. The speaker may be smoking or eating while speaking, he may speak with a hoarse voice and have specific intentions with uttering a sentence. All these factors contribute to communication. The utterance:

(3) **It is 9 o'clock.**

makes explicit assertions about time, but may implicitly suggest that it is time to go. It is obvious that semantics (which represents an explanation on the basis of the code model) falls short of giving this interpretation.

RT claims that it is an inferential machinery whose functioning is based on an explanative cognitive principle, the principle of relevance, that enables individuals to infer exactly those assumptions that are to be communicated. From (3) infinitely many assumptions can be inferred, e.g. that the speaker has a watch, that he is able to see a clock, that he is intelligent enough to interpret the place of the fingers. The principle of relevance explains how an individual manages to filter out exactly the right interpretation among infinitely many possible ones. Relevance is defined in terms of storage and processing efficiency. Humans assume that the message communicated is relevant, otherwise it would not have been uttered. This is the single reason for making processing it worthwhile. Memory resources are allocated to the processing of information that is likely to bring about the greatest contribution to the mind's goal at the smallest processing cost. For the example in (3) this means that though there are infinitely many possible conclusions, the only (right) interpretation is exactly the one that the speaker wants to indicate, namely that it is time to go. The principle of relevance requires the hearer to assume that there is some additional contextual effect that takes him to the interpretation given.

A contextual effect is a change in an individual's representation of the world. But it is not every change that will do qualify as a contextual effect. Neither new information, just duplicating old information (repeating what is already known) nor new information totally unrelated to old information will do. Only the interaction of old and new information delivers a contextual effect. There are three ways relevance can be achieved in terms of contextual effects: The inference of a contextual implication, the strengthening of old information by providing further evidence, the abandoning of old assumptions by providing evidence against them. The first case, the occurrence of a contextual implication, may be illustrated by an example from Sperber and Wilson (1986).

{C} may be the set of old assumptions (the context), {P} the set of new assumptions, then {P}, contextually implies an assumption {Q} (the contextual implication) in context {C} iff the union of {P} and {C} implies Q, {P} does not imply Q and {C} does not imply Q.

Example (4) shows how the contextual implication {Q} can be inferred from {C} and {P}.

(4)

{P}: Flag-seller: Would you buy a flag of the Royal National Lifeboat Institution?
Passer-by: No, thanks. I'll spend my holidays with my sister in Birmingham.

{C}: Birmingham is inland.
The Royal National Lifeboat Institution is a charity.
Buying a flag is a way of subscribing a charity.
Someone who spends his holidays inland has no need for the services of RNLI.
Someone who has no need for the services of RNLI need not subscribe.

{Q}: The passer-by cannot be expected to subscribe to RNLI.

It is trivial to show that the statements in (4) can be formalised in some logical form notation (e.g. some first order predicate logic), and how the statement in {Q} can formally be inferred. It would be equally easy to show how the logical form representations could be processed e.g. as Prolog clauses and be integrated into some NL-parsing algorithm to allow for those inferences that lead to the implicature {Q}, thus automatically producing the 'understanding' of the utterance in (4).

3. Translation and RT

There is one attempt to apply RT to translation (Gutt, 1991). He defines translation as the sum total of expliciture (explicit linguistic knowledge) and implicature (implicitly conveyed knowledge) of a sentence. His work is one of the inspirations for this paper, but it includes some problematic conclusions. Gutt claims that RT in itself is a translation theory, which it is not. Implicitly he reformulates an equivalence theory on the basis of RT, which, however, does not necessarily follow from RT.

RT can be used to study the processing of information that is involved in translation. One aspect of this processing shall be briefly discussed. One difference between 'ordinary' communication and 'translation' is that knowledge sources are applied that contain meta- knowledge, the expert knowledge a translator has. The set {C} of old assumptions may contain these meta-level assumptions. They allow the translator to draw additional conclusions, meta inferences concerning the translation. The translation *skopos* also goes into {C} as old assumptions. In (6) {C} is split into {C1} and {C2}. On the basis of these assumptions translation itself becomes an inferential task.

Understanding consists of deriving the contextual implications of utterances. In formulating the target text the translator has to observe how the principle of relevance achieves optimal relevance for the audience. These contextual implications are the key factor for translation. It is the translator's task to decide which of them are relevant when considering the translation *skopos*, or otherwise it is her task to present the translation in a way that the target audience is able to derive those contextual implications that are to be derived (according to translation *skopos*). The translator then is in the situation to design a target text in a way that the contextual implications s/he has decided to achieve are accessible by the target audience according to the principle of relevance.

Let us assume for the sake of the argument that the above dialogue in (4) is to be translated into German assuming a rather vague translation *skopos*: the audience are kids, a story is to be told from England for fun implying a close to source text translation. Let us further assume that the translator cannot be sure that the kids know about Birmingham being situated inland. So, s/he may translate (4) into (5).

(5) **Verkäufer: „Möchten Sie eine Fähnchen der Königlichen Seerettung kaufen."**
Passant: „Ich fahre dieses Jahr nach Birmingham zu meiner Schwester. Das liegt mitten in England. Da brauche ich keine Seerettung."

(I'll visit my sister in Birmingham this year. That's in central England. There will be no need for lifeboat services.)

So, what the translator has to take into account is the target audience and its (cultural) knowledge and the assumptions that are available as context. The assumptions are different to those assumed in (4).

(6) **{C1}: Birmingham is inland.**
The Royal National Lifeboat Institution is a charity.
Buying a flag is a way of subscribing a charity.
Someone who spends his holidays inland has no need for the services of RNLI.
Someone who has no need for the services of RNLI need not subscribe.

{C2}: My target audience are German kids.
They do not know about Birmingham being inland.
They do not know about RNLI.
Names like RNLI usually should not be translated.
.....

{Q2}: I have to be explicit about the location of Birmingham, otherwise the implicature that the passer-by cannot be expected to subscribe could not be derived.
RNLI should be translated in this case.
.....

The meta-knowledge allows for additional inference, such as {Q2}. RT, however, would see the meta-knowledge processing being handled by a different module of the mind as the general understanding.

The discussion must be left at this stage. Getting back to the original topic of this paper, it can be concluded that everything that has been described about the determination of the contextual implications, can be formalised and thus in principle be modelled in a computer programme. So, is it possible to build an MT system that models these inferential processes that have been described? It is only possible to a certain extent.

What has been shown so far in the discussion of (4) - (6) was a post mortem formalisation, a formalisation of what happened, of how the inferences worked out. In the example it was possible to determine the set {C} of knowledge that it was necessary to infer {Q}. The problem, however, is to explain exactly how those assumptions in {C} were chosen from the

memory as premises for the inference, despite the fact that, in principle, millions of other assumptions were available. The answer is that this is due to the relevance principle. But how this works is hardly formalizable. The overall process of utterance comprehension includes two parts: Hypothesis formation that is this 'creative imagination process' that delivers {C}. It is based on induction and abduction. It is probabilistic and thus not based on logical inference. It is the part of the understanding we know least about.. The second process that is included in utterance comprehension is 'hypothesis confirmation'. Hypothesis confirmation consists of deductive processes as shown in the example. As soon as the set {C} is identified, the determination of the implicature is a deductive process.

The discussion of the hypothesis formation process leads into an epistemological problem, called the frame problem (FP). The FP has so far turned out to be unsolvable and represents the major bottleneck for computational knowledge processing.

Is all this terribly interesting for translation if it turns out that a computational treatment of translation, in the spirit of a computational cognitive science, has an epistemological problem? In fact it is and the FP is as interesting for HTT as it is for MT. HTT may ignore it, but it will not escape it.

4. Summary

The paper investigated to some depth the relation between HTT and MT. The findings may be summarised the following way:

1. MT and HTT seem to be incompatible at first glance, MT being basically equivalence theory, HTT being *skopos*-oriented and thus strongly opposed to equivalence theory. However, there is the important point that equivalence-based translation may be a translation *skopos*. MT, thus, can be seen as a partially formalised, explicit and precise equivalence theory, a better understood equivalence theory than currently available in HTT. By adopting this idea, MT could extend its basis and start formalising a core concept of equivalence theory for translation techniques such as compensation or adaptation, which would mean progress for both HTT and MT. (This aspect was not developed in this paper).
2. HTT and a sketched out, translationally oriented computational cognitive science have a common topic, namely the knowledge that is represented in the human mind and the knowledge processing that operates on this knowledge base. The relationship between

'translational computational cognitive science' and HTT is the same as that between any scientific discipline and its computational counterpart. In general, computational models allow for the determination of the consequences of a theory. Deficiencies and unwanted consequences can be detected. Some of the problems of a particular approach may have become obvious if formalised.

3. So, what is the task of computational cognitive science oriented TT? It has to provide (partial) computational models of aspects of translation. TT would find access to all kinds of information processing and AI models of the human mind and would adapt them and study them wrt what they mean for translation. Cultural knowledge is very important for HTT. Computational cognitive science would be able to contribute in a bottom-up way to investigating and formalising everyday knowledge and its use in translation.
4. Finally, unsolved epistemological problems such as the frame problem exist all over the place. It should not be a reason for giving up on the approach to translation sketched above.

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2.2 working with software

Educating translators for the challenges of the new millenium: the potential of parallel bi-directional corpora

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Abstract. This paper argues in favour of an educationally oriented translation teaching approach in which students are surrounded by a stimulus-rich learning environment, with ample opportunities to increase their critical awareness, learning capacity, flexibility, alongside opportunities to practice translation and become familiar with technological aids. It is suggested that parallel bi-directional corpora may be useful instruments within such a pedagogic framework, in so far as they provide learners with opportunities to observe norms regulating text production in different contexts, analyse the effects of socio-cultural constraints over translation practices and become familiar with the construction and use of different corpus typologies (parallel, comparable, reference). As a way of exemplifying the present argument, the CEXI corpus a parallel bi-directional corpus of English and Italian (currently under construction) is briefly described.

1. Introduction

Over the last decade, Translation Studies has become a well-established independent field of interest within corpus linguistics[1], with considerable effort and resources being devoted to the construction of "translation-driven" corpora (Laviosa 1998; Frankenberg-Garcia this volume) and the development of ad hoc software (such as the announced TransConc). Such tools have been proposed as relevant to the corpus-aided study of translation practices (e.g. Kenny 2001) with implications for the development of an empirically-based theory of translation (Baker 1999), and as aids in translator education (Aston 1999, Maia 1997, Zanettin 1998).[2]

This paper is concerned with the latter area, considering the role of translation-driven corpora in relation to the priorities of translator education.

It will be particularly concerned with what may be termed parallel bi-directional corpora, consisting of collections of source texts in two languages and their translations into the other, selected to represent all or some part of the universes of texts translated between the two languages.

2. A basic question: Should we train or should we educate translators?[3]

Let me begin with a few words on this rather unusual phrase, *translator education*, which I tend to like better than its more common competitor, *translator training*. Without going into an extensive discussion (for which see Bernardini 2000 and forthcoming), I would suggest, following Widdowson 1984, that by "training" we imply teaching approaches whose aim is to teach learners to solve problems that can be identified in advance through the application of pre-set, or "acquired" procedures. From this perspective the priorities would typically be those of developing skills through repetitive exercise, accumulating practice in the use of the latest CAT tools, reproducing real-world working conditions within the classroom and so forth.

This view of translation teaching is not without its enthusiastic supporters, for the understandable reason that it provides the market with ready-to-use resources - no need for costly and time-consuming training. However, a number of objections can be raised against heavily training-oriented translation courses in a university context. To take just two fairly obvious points: 1) in order to be successful they have to cater for the demands of a well-defined market, yet globalisation and technological progress mean it is very difficult to foresee what the market might be like in five or ten years; 2) they only work well if all learners taking a course intend (and have the capacities) to become professionals in the targeted market, and if the targeted market is able to receive them.

An educationally-oriented translation course would be less focused on the current needs of the market, and consequently less well-integrated with it. It would be more focused on the growth of each individual learner, providing her with room for the development of competences and capacities of much wider scope and application than those they can, and indeed will be trained into once they enter the job market.

In the education of translators, three main priorities seem to be relevant (Bernardini 2000):

1. Raising their awareness, both linguistic - "capacity [...] to see through language to the ways in which messages are mediated and shaped" (Carter 1993: 142) - and cultural/professional. The latter is crucial if translators are to become aware of their role as cultural mediators,

equidistant from both the language/culture of the source text and that of the target text (see Venuti 1995 and Malmkjær 1993 on some shortcomings of this lack of awareness in literary translation).

2. Making them resourceful, not simply in the sense of being conversant with the latest technological aids, but also of being capable of adapting acquired knowledge to solve new problems or master new tools as they become available.
3. Teaching them to reflect on their learning processes and progresses, developing and restructuring translation-specific as well as more general learning strategies and procedures (related to text analysis, use of reference works, vocabulary/noticing skills and so forth; see e.g. Skehan 1998 on the notion of "restructuring of knowledge" and Robinson 1995 on the "noticing hypothesis").

In spite of the many charms of training, I would therefore suggest that translators need first and foremost to be educated in the course of their studies, and claim, with Kiraly (2000: 182), that our primary goal as educators is "to help [translation students] become competent, self-confident, autonomous professionals for today and life-long learners for tomorrow".

3. Corpora for translators: what are they (and how can they help)?

3.1 A summary taxonomy

The aim of this paper is to point at some ways in which (a particular set of) corpora can assist educators and learners in their pursuit of such an ambitious goal. This argument requires, however, that we be clear what a corpus is, and the best way to clarify this issue is probably to present existing corpora and their (intended) uses.

For our purposes, it is useful to distinguish "translation-driven" corpora, put together for translation-related research or as supports to translation teaching and practice, from "linguistics-driven" corpora, put together for purposes of linguistic analysis.

"Linguistics-driven" aim either a) to represent a state of a particular language, or b) to isolate one major research variable related to that language (for instance time, geographical variety, or, more controversially, genre, subject matter). In the first case, we have "reference" corpora, which can be put together thorough an accurate procedure of text selection, sampling and analysis - as is the case with sample corpora like the *British National Corpus* (BNC), first generation corpora like the *Brown* and *London Oslo Bergen* (LOB) corpora, historical corpora like the *Lampeter corpus* - or else

assembled opportunistically, left unanalysed and enlarged in size and scope as more texts or text typologies become available, as is the case with a "monitor" corpus like the *Bank of English*.

In the second case we have "research" corpora, which tend to be smaller in size and more homogenous. They can be simple (e.g. "specialised" corpora like *BIVEG* described in Williams 1998: variable: subject matter/genre) or comparable, like the *International Corpus of English* (ICE: variable: geographic variety of English) or the *International Corpus of Learner English* (ICLE: variable: native language of learners of English as a foreign language). Clearly, this is little more than a rough-and-ready simplification, with a number of intermediate cases (for instance the Brown and LOB corpora, which started their existence as reference corpora, have since been recycled as research corpora (variable: time) through the construction of comparable corpora (*Frown* and *FLOB*) of texts produced thirty years later).

In spite of so many distinctions, linguistics-driven corpora have one aspect in common: they are, with few exceptions, monolingual. Translation-driven corpora, on the other hand, are characterised by the presence of texts written, or at any rate originally produced, in more than one language. Although there is some disagreement on terminology at the moment, we can group existing translation-driven corpora under the headings of "comparable", "parallel", and "parallel bi-directional", the latter being a mixture of the former two. Comparable corpora can be mono-, bi- and pluri-lingual, while parallel corpora can be mono-, bi- and pluri-directional. Some examples of existing translation-driven corpora will clarify these points.

The *English Comparable Corpus* (ECC, Laviosa 1998) has two components, a collection of texts translated into English from a variety of source languages (also known as the *Translational English Corpus*, TEC), and a collection of original English texts, that are considered to be comparable with the translated ones along a number of dimensions such as time and text type. The ECC could therefore be considered as a "monolingual comparable corpus" just like linguistics-driven research corpora, the only difference being that the research variable to be isolated is one aspect of the mode of production (translated vs. original) rather than, say, the place or time of publication.

Bi- and pluri-lingual comparable corpora are probably more familiar to translators, as the electronic version of those "parallel texts" often used for reference when translating: collections of texts in two or more languages assembled so as to be comparable according to a relevant variable or set of variables (usually text type or subject matter). These are usually assembled ad

hoc for a particular translation project or a contrastive linguistic study (Maia 2000 and Gavioli and Zanettin 2000, for instance, discuss the relevance of these constructs in the translation classroom, focusing on corpus construction and corpus use respectively).

Moving on from comparable to parallel corpora, the simplest model is the mono-directional parallel corpus: a collection of texts in one language, with their translations in another, such as Kenny's *Gepcolt* (a two-million-word German-English Parallel Corpus of Literary Texts, Kenny 2001) while other mono-directional corpora follow a plurilingual design, with multiple target texts (e.g. George Orwell's *1984* translated into 6 Eastern European languages (distributed by *Multext East*)).

Bi- or pluri-directional parallel corpora include both originals and translations in two or more languages. Thus the CEXI Corpus, which is the subject of the next sub-section, consists of English and Italian original texts and translations of each into the other language. Other corpora have adopted even more complicated designs (see e.g. http://www.hf.uio. no/german/ sprik/ english/project_outline.shtml for an outline of a three-directional parallel corpus, with originals and translations in English, German and Norwegian).

The literature suggests that both linguistics-driven and some translation-driven corpora may have roles to play in the education of translators. Mono-directional parallel corpora may favour the observation and evaluation of translation strategies and norms (Malmkjær 1998), bilingual comparable corpora may help learners investigate the expectations of the linguistic communities involved (Zanettin 1998), and even monolingual reference corpora may favour the development of language and learning skills required for successful communication in general, and more specifically for successful translation (Bernardini forthcoming). In what follows I shall argue that bi-directional parallel corpora offer further distinctive advantages in the translator education context.

3.2 The CEXI corpus: a parallel bi-directional corpus for translator education

The CEXI corpus under construction at the School for Interpreters and Translators of the University of Bologna contains excerpts from fiction and non-fiction texts published in book form after World War II in Italian and English, and their translations into English and Italian respectively (see table 1, adapted from similar schematisations developed for the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (ENPC, Johansson 1998; see also Zanettin forthcoming for a more detailed account of the design of the CEXI corpus.

and Frankenberg Garcia, this volume, for an account of a sister project for Portuguese and English). This model is meant to allow for comparisons of:

1. originals (or translations) in two languages, as in a standard comparable corpus;
2. originals and their translations in two directions, as in two separate parallel corpora;
3. originals and translations in the same language, as in a monolingual comparable corpus:

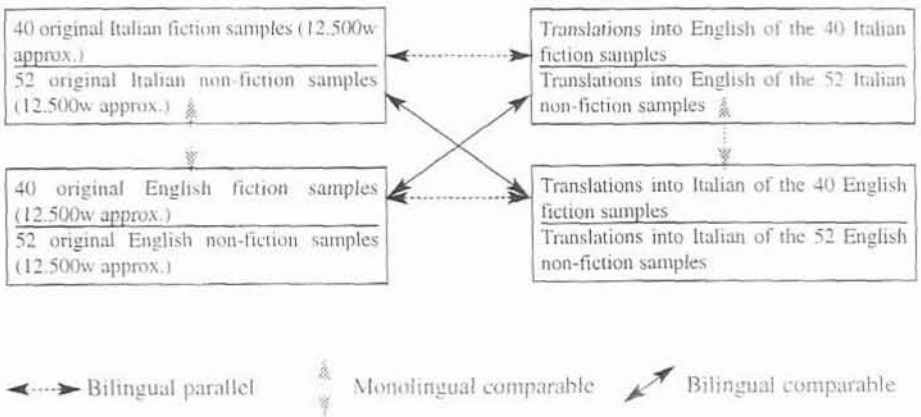

Table 1. Structure of the CEXI corpus

This neat structure is in fact, as we shall see (3.3), the result of an idealisation: the two sets of texts sampled (English and Italian) differ along many a dimension, suggesting caution when interpreting any results obtained. This is not a flaw of the design. Rather, it is an effect of the socio-cultural forces regulating translation policies between the languages in question, which corpus building highlights. This drawback can even be turned into an advantage if corpus work is seen (also) as an activity providing learners with chances to increase their critical awareness of the translation process and the translator's role. Let us therefore move on from this brief description of the structure of the CEXI corpus to a more pedagogic-oriented discussion of its uses.

3.3 Parallel bi-directional corpora in the translation classroom

Going back to the three priorities of translator education proposed above, I want to suggest that parallel bi-directional corpora may have the potential to provide learners and teachers of translation with chances to increase their

awareness, resourcefulness and reflectiveness in ways that other corpora may not. Let us take the three points in order:

Awareness. A corpus like CEXI may highlight asymmetries in translation practices across language communities. As suggested at the end of the previous sub-section (and in more detail in Zanettin forthcoming), for instance, the set of texts translated from Italian into English and that of texts translated from English into Italian are by definition comparable along the translation dimension, but would appear less comparable in many other regards.

Italian authors of fiction that get translated into English are few and famous, prestige-laden writers of "serious" literature whose works are perceived as "classics". Looking at the flux in the opposite direction, not only are many more books translated (in 1999, about 25% of all books published in Italy were translations, English being the source language for half of them (Vigini 1999: 87)), but these are largely science-fiction, fantasy, and romance books by authors who are often hardly known by British and American readers themselves[4]. In other words, lowbrow fiction in English makes its way into Italian much more easily than lowbrow Italian fiction does into English. This scenario is, I think, not surprising, as it follows a trend typical of the translation activity between asymmetrical cultures hypothesised by Even-Zohar (e.g. 1979).[5]

In non-fiction too, there seems to be a tendency for different genres to be more or less often translated into the other language: somewhat stereotypically, Italian non-fiction books on the arts and religion have a better chance of being translated than say, economics or computing texts. In the other direction the flow is massive for all sorts of texts, but especially for applied science and philosophy/psychology (see table 2 below, adapted from Zanettin forthcoming).

The circulations of translated texts would also appear to be asymmetrical. Whilst translations from English are generally published by major Italian publishers, (according to Lottman (2000) the average print runs for English translations in 1999 were almost double those for Italian originals) Italian translations into English are often published by University Presses, with the support of Cultural Institutes, or by small publishers specialising in foreign literature, religion, art history etc. These are arguably signals of a limited circulation, a trend that is independently confirmed by the general oblivion of translation as an aspect of the publishing industry in specialised English publications (such as *The Bookseller*, *BookTrack*, *Publishers Weekly* etc.). According to the *New York Times* and *Publishers Weekly*, only two Italian authors have achieved best-selling status in English, namely Oriana Fallaci and Umberto Eco.

If one wishes a bi-directional corpus to represent these divergent trends, one is obliged to assemble two collections of non-comparable samples. Alternatively, if one strives to achieve optimal comparability, representativeness must be lost.

Though one may find a number of compromises, this is ultimately a problem without a solution. But it is not one that should worry educators too much. Future translators can gain much from becoming aware of these and similar asymmetries, in terms of perception of their potential future status as professionals within the wider context of the publishing industry. More importantly perhaps, it gives them the chance to observe the effects of these "external" forces on the work of professional translators, establishing links between, say, the tendency toward simplification and the direction of translation (from "minority" to "majority" language or viceversa). Far from being the sole province of theoretical translation studies, the corpus-based investigation of translation norms (Toury 1995) would appear to be a stimulating and awareness-raising exercise for students and teachers of translation, and one that is not too demanding where a bi- or pluri-directional corpus is available to facilitate the comparison of data from different settings.

	E → I (1976-1995)		I → E (1977-1996)	
UDC category	*Texts*	%	*Texts*	%
Art/Games/Sport	757	6%	343	19%
Education/Law/Social Science	1251	11%	187	11%
Applied Science	1835	16%	138	8%
History/Geography/Biography	919	8%	171	10%
Natural and Exact Science	643	6%	111	6%
Philosophy/Psychology	833	7%	53	3%
Religion/Theology	477	4%	267	15%
Generalities/Information Science	101	1%	2	0%

Table 2. Non-fiction texts translated from English into Italian and from Italian into English (as listed in the *Index Translationum*, Unesco1998)

Reflectiveness. Besides allowing for the comparison of translation practices across *language* communities, a corpus structured along the lines of the CEXI corpus can favour the comparison of translation practices across *discourse* communities within and across language communities. The existence of two major sub-components (fictional and non-fictional) and of a number of sub-divisions within the non-fictional component is meant to facilitate the comparison of different subject-based groupings. Learners and teachers of translation may find it useful to spend some classroom time reflecting on the norms operating within discourse communities. The norms regulating scientific and technical discourse (Swales 1990) are often

especially problematic for translators who are non-experts of the field in question (a very common condition, in the Italian market, especially for free-lance translators). It is therefore highly desirable that students become aware of these norms and learn to analyse specialised corpora in order to derive from these a surrogate, so to speak, of the expertise they lack (see Gavioli and Zanettin 2000 on the higher acceptability level of medical research article abstracts translated by students using comparable corpora of this text typology).

Whilst this does not necessarily require a parallel bi-directional corpus (a bilingual comparable corpus may go a long way towards convincing learners of the importance of contrastive corpus analysis as a support activity for translation), this provides the added bonus of allowing comparisons to be carried out not only across languages but also across discourse communities and genres within languages. With a corpus like CEXI, fiction and non-fiction texts can be compared, and sub-corpora of, say, applied sciences may be compared with sub-corpora of pure or social sciences to highlight more genre-specific discourse and translation norms. Although I would discourage use of CEXI as a bundle of specialised corpora (its dimensions have made it impossible to provide even remotely representative sub-corpora below the fiction/non-fiction subdivision), it may provide an initial contact with genre-specific norms, and, by allowing for activities of comparison and contrast, stimulate further and more focussed research in this area.

Resourcefulness. Besides aiming to familiarise learners with corpora as research and reference tools in translation, the CEXI corpus was also intended to provide a framework for the design and construction of other corpora and subcorpora. This both to favour the growth of the corpus itself in the future, and out of consideration that corpus construction is rapidly becoming an important aspect of a translator's resourcefulness (see Varantola forthcoming and Zanettin this volume on the subject of do-it-yourself corpora). Thus CEXI can be seen as a core - small but reasonably homogeneous - corpus, to be enriched as a result of individual and group projects. Learners may, for instance, put together tiny but very specialised corpora following their interests or the topic of a given course, compare them with the core (used, in this case, as a *reference* rather than *research* corpus), and then add them to the core as separate "satellite" corpora. Subsequent users can then decide whether to include or exclude these satellites, depending on the aims of their study.

Experience of corpus design and construction, with all the activities involved (sampling text populations, selecting representative texts, obtaining permission to reproduce them in electronic form, scanning them in, coding them in a shareable format such as TEI-conformant XML etc.) would not only

be valuable exercises in themselves. As suggested by Aston (forthcoming), they would also appear to have potentially positive effects on corpus use in general, increasing learners' ability to interpret data derived from corpora and giving them a firmer grasp of their limitations.

4. Conclusion

In the last ten years or so, parallel bi-directional corpora have become a well-established resource for contrastive linguistics and for descriptive and theoretical translation studies. In the latter field in particular, they would seem to be particularly promising, in so far as they can be employed more safely than other corpus types to highlight translation norms and in the search for potential translation "universals" (see note v and 3.3 above). The pedagogic potential of this corpus typology has been, on the contrary, somewhat neglected so far.

In this paper I have suggested that this should not be the case, and that translation corpora of this type can be profitably employed for practice as well as theory, provided that they are designed and built according to certain criteria. On the basis of a discussion of three priorities of translator education, namely awareness, resourcefulness and reflectiveness, I have suggested that bi-directional corpora may provide learners with opportunities to reflect on translation practices and norms, and to observe discourse conventions within different genres and text types. To these we have added the more generic value of exercises involving corpus use and construction.

A corpus like CEXI, I have suggested, is an open-ended resource for research and for learning (learning about translation as well as learning to translate). Its most interesting features in these areas relate to its being:

- translation-driven: the source texts have a secondary status, following current theoretical trends in translation studies;
- flexible: it can be used as a research or reference corpus, and different parts can be compared in different ways;
- modular: each sub-component can be used independently and increased in size and variety;
- "culturally-aware", in the sense that it does not hide the asymmetry in translation practices in the two directions, especially if headers[6] are included with each single text and with the corpus as a whole, to provide meta-textual information about the texts, the authors and translators, encoding procedures etc.

I would suggest the use of this and similar resources may be one of the most powerful antidotes to a view of translation teaching as repetitive, short-sighted, product-oriented training, and an important element in any process-oriented educational approach which values critical thinking and aims to instil linguistic, cultural and professional awareness as well as technological conversance in the translators of tomorrow.

Notes

[1] I am assuming that the reader is familiar with the notion of *corpus* as it is currently understood in corpus linguistics: a collection of texts in electronic form designed and constructed according to a set of thought-out and spelt-out criteria, to serve purposes of research into language performance. For those interested in a more general discussion than the summary one provided here, a number of introductory works exist (such as, in chronological order, McEnery and Wilson 1996; Kennedy 1998; Biber et al. 1998)

[2] For the sake of brevity, a number of related and relevant developments are not discussed here, such as the massive increase in the availability and variety of multilingual textual resources (Ostler and McEnery 2000) and of commercial tools that make use of parallel corpora, known in this case as "translation memories".

[3] The ensuing discussion of training and educational views of translation pedagogy is based on Widdowson's reflections on the related topic of LSP pedagogy (Widdowson 1984). It was however suggested to me by Margherita Ulrych (whom I thank for the hint) that Sergio Viaggio has also discussed this dichotomy in relation to translation and interpreting research and pedagogy, taking a stance not dissimilar from the one taken here.

[4] To check on my intuition on this point, I asked ten colleagues of mine, five native speakers of English and five native speakers of Italian, to go through a list of 20 randomly-selected titles from our list and evaluate, each for their native language, the fame of the authors, the prestige of the books and the genres, if any, each might belong to. The results are as follows:

Italians judging Italian originals: I know this author= 87.5%; I know this book= 59%; Highbrow + classic= 76%; Other= 18%

Britons and Americans judging English originals: I know this author= 64%; I know this book= 13%; Highbrow + classic= 18%; Other= 56%

[5] In passing, these observations regarding asymmetries in the populations of texts translated into different languages suggest that it may be safer to use bi-directional corpora rather than monolingual comparable corpora when searching for evidence of translation norms and so-called "translation universals", as is nowadays the case in descriptive and theoretical translation

studies. The absence of source texts makes it impossible to ascertain that differences between originals and translations are indeed a result of the translation activity, and not inherent in the texts themselves which, as suggested here, are not always and not necessarily taken from comparable populations.

[6] CEXI is being coded in XML following the Guidelines of the Text Encoding Initiative, an international standard for computerised text encoding and interchange (http://www.tei-c.org/).

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COMPARA - language learning and translation training

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Abstract. This paper is an introduction to COMPARA and to how it can be used in language learning and translation training. COMPARA is a machine-readable and searchable collection of Portuguese-English and English-Portuguese source texts and translations. The present corpus is made up of published fiction. However, COMPARA is open-ended, and other genres will be added to the corpus at a later stage. COMPARA is freely available on the Web and has been made for people who have never used corpora before as well as for experienced corpus users. COMPARA's criteria for text alignment allow users to investigate translational discourse changes such as when and where translators have chosen to join, separate, delete, add and reorder sentences. Other innovative features are that users can inspect translators' notes, and that the corpus admits more than one translation per source text. COMPARA is encoded according to the IMS Corpus Workbench system, developed at the University of Stuttgart, and is distributed on the WWW via the DISPARA interface, developed in collaboration with the Computational Processing of Portuguese project. In addition to its use for countless theoretically oriented contrastive studies of language, COMPARA also lends itself to quite a significant number of practical applications. It can be used in the development of bilingual lexicography and terminology, and for refining machine-translation programs. The final part of this paper will focus on some of the more immediate uses of COMPARA. A couple of practical examples of how it can be used in second language learning, teaching and translator training will be presented.

1. Introduction

This paper is an introduction to COMPARA, the Portuguese-English parallel corpus. The word corpus is being used here to refer to a collection of texts held in a machine-readable form so that they can be automatically processed by a text-retrieval program. Notable examples of monolingual corpora include the Bank of English and the British National Corpus, both of which are extremely useful to help us understand the English language as it is used today. For Portuguese, one of the most impressive corpora that exists is CETEMPúblico, which contains around 180 million words of machine-

searchable contemporary European Portuguese. In addition to monolingual corpora, there are also corpora that contain more than one language, like the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (Johansson et al. 1999). Modelling itself on the core structure of the latter, COMPARA is a machine-readable and searchable collection of source texts originally written in Portuguese and in English that have been aligned with their respective English and Portuguese translations.

Two special features of COMPARA are that it is fully searchable via the Internet and that it has been made for people who are not necessarily corpus-literate as well as for experienced corpus users. Potential users include Portuguese learners of English, English learners of Portuguese, students and teachers of translation, professional translators, bilingual dictionary makers, developers of machine translation software and whoever else might be interested in translation language and in the similarities and differences between Portuguese and English.

The advantages of using a corpus to compare and contrast English and Portuguese are that corpus-based analyses can be more objective, more systematic and a lot more extensive than analyses based on conventional introspective linguistics. In order to use a corpus well, however, it is important to know what the corpus is made of and how it is structured.

2. Selecting Texts

When selecting texts for COMPARA, all varieties of Portuguese and English were considered, and no priority was given to any particular variety. In terms of date of publication, both contemporary and non-contemporary texts were accepted. In addition to this, the possibility of having a source text aligned with more than one translation was not ruled out. Having established this, it was decided to begin the corpus by assembling an initial collection of published fiction, although other genres are to be included in the corpus at a later stage.

The decision to leave COMPARA open-ended was taken partly so that it could grow in whichever direction proved to become important to its users, and partly because this meant the texts incorporated in the corpus could be put to use as soon as they were processed. The second of these two reasons is not trivial: it meant that it was possible for the corpus to become operational within a reasonable amount of time.

3. Copyright permissions

At the time this paper was written, COMPARA had permission to include extracts of 60 different Portuguese-English text-pairs by authors and translators from Angola, Brazil, Mozambique, Portugal, South Africa, the United Kingdom and the United States. These texts represent the combined product of the work of 33 authors and 31 translators[1].

Because COMPARA allows for the inclusion of more than one translation of the same source, some interesting text-pair combinations have emerged. For example, permission has been obtained to include extracts from a couple of novels by David Lodge paired up with both their Portuguese and Brazilian translations, which can be useful for the study of similarities and differences between Brazilian and European Portuguese. Another interesting example is that of a Brazilian nineteenth century Romantic classic, Iracema, which has been paired up with a contemporary English translation published by Oxford University Press less than a year ago and a contemporaneous translation which dates back to 1886 - this could be interesting for a diachronic study of translation.

4. Preparing texts

The procedure for preparing texts for COMPARA is as follows:

1. The texts in the corpus that are not available in electronic form are scanned and submitted to an optical character recognition (OCR) program.
2. The OCR is revised (if the text was scanned) and all non-translational material such as page numbers, pictures and diagrams is removed.
3. Marks for titles, foreign words and expressions, emphasis and translators' notes are introduced so that these elements can later on be retrieved automatically.
4. Source text and translation are aligned in a way that enables the text-retrieval software to interpret which parts of the source text and the translation match.
5. The texts are automatically encoded so that they can operate within the IMS Corpus Workbench system.

5. Alignment Problems

Aligning source texts and translations is not a simple task, for translators do not always translate texts in a predictable and linear manner. Source-text

sentences are sometimes divided into two or more sentences in the translation. Translators may also join source-text sentences together, rendering them as a single translation sentence, or they may leave things out and insert elements that were not present in the source text. In addition to this, translators sometimes reorder elements so that the order in which they appear in the translation differs from that in which they appear in the source text. The way these problems have been dealt with in COMPARA is described below.

6. Aligning texts in COMPARA

The basic unit of alignment in COMPARA is the source-text sentence. Whenever there is not a one-to-one sentence correspondence between source and translation, it is the translation that is split or joined up to conform to the way sentences were originally divided in the source text. Thus an alignment unit is always one orthographic sentence in the source text and the corresponding text in the translation, whether it is one, more than one, or even only part of a sentence. Source-text sentences that have been left out of the translation are aligned with blank units. Sentences that have been added to the translation with no corresponding text in the original are fitted into the nearest preceding alignment unit. Figure 1 below summarizes these alignment criteria.

Figure 1: COMPARA criteria for text alignment

SOURCE	TRANSLATION
S TM	S
S TM	S,S
S TM	1/2 S
S TM	ø
S TM	S(+S)

Apart from the above, if there are any sentences that have been reordered in the translation, they are aligned with the sentences that prompted them in the source texts.

One of the advantages of aligning the corpus in this way is that, as the source texts in COMPARA are always divided in the same way, it is possible to align a source text with multiple translations and compare not only source text and translation, but also different translations of the same source, in which case the source text can act as a common denominator to several translations. In addition to this, this alignment procedure enables one to search automatically for translational discourse changes such as where and when translators have decided to join, split, delete, add or reorder sentences.

It is important to note, however, that it is not possible to automatically retrieve the addition or deletion or reordering of units smaller than the sentence such as individual words, phrases and clauses.

7. COMPARA in May 2001

Preparing texts for the corpus is a time-consuming task. The COMPARA corpus project began in mid-October 1999, and ten pairs of texts had been fully processed at the time this paper was written. The part of the corpus that is available for research in May 2001 is summarized in table 1 below.

Table 1: Composition of COMPARA in May 2001

COMPARA	Portuguese language	English Language	Total
May 2001			
Source Texts	7	2	9
Translations	2	8	10
Words	91.142	99.911	191.053

The above figures mean that in May 2001 COMPARA is still a relatively small corpus. Although small corpora are not recommended for lexicographic studies, syntactic analyses do not require very large corpora (Biber, Conrad and Reppen, 1998). COMPARA is already a reasonably good-sized corpus for comparing certain aspects of Portuguese and English syntax, but still has limitations with regard to contrastive studies of Portuguese and English lexis. In addition to this, because for now COMPARA contains only fiction texts, words and expressions that do not belong to the language of fiction cannot be expected to be found in the corpus.

8. Using COMPARA

COMPARA can be accessed free of charge at http://www.portugues.mct.pt/COMPARA/. Its Web interface, DISPARA, has been developed in collaboration with the Computational Processing of Portuguese project, and serves as a bridge between the IMS Corpus Workbench software and the specific requirements of COMPARA. Two search options are available in DISPARA. The Simple Search was made for people who have never used corpora before. It allows users to search the entire corpus either in the Portuguese-English or in the English-Portuguese direction. The instructions on how to conduct a Simple Search are extremely simple. Users only have to

write a word or expression in English or Portuguese and press the search button. No special training is required.

The Complex Search was made for those who find the Simple Search too restrictive and want to conduct more sophisticated queries. We have endeavoured to make the Complex Search as user-friendly as possible, so that newcomers to corpus studies should feel confident enough to exploit its potentialities. Users are guided through the following four search steps:

1. Users are asked to choose their search direction. As in the Simple Search, they can search from Portuguese to English or from English to Portuguese. However, in the Complex Search, instead of searching the whole corpus, users can also tell the system that they only want to search from source-texts to translations, or only from translations to source texts. It is an option to consider if the directionality of translation is relevant to a particular query.

2. Users are asked if they want to narrow down the corpus, and, if so, they are asked to choose which texts within the corpus you want to use. This is a very important step because, as COMPARA is an open-ended corpus, it is here that users will be able to control which texts they are going to use if their queries require a balanced corpus or a specific subset or other of the corpus. COMPARA can be automatically narrowed down so as to search only within specific varieties of Portuguese and English. It is also possible to narrow down the corpus by date of publication. Users who are not interested in non-contemporary language, for example, can automatically remove source texts and translations published before a particular date. The third narrowing-down option available allows users to select any manual combination of texts. Users can determine exactly which texts they want to use for their search queries, and create their own, tailor-made sub-corpora of COMPARA. They are thus able to conduct searches within texts by only one particular author, translator, group of authors, and so on. Eventually, when other genres are added to the corpus, there will also be an option that allows users to select texts automatically by genre.

3. Users can select how they want their results to be presented. The options available include concordances, distribution of forms, distribution of sources (how a search expression is distributed in the texts within the corpus) and a quantitative wrap up (the distribution of the search expression in the two languages, for searches that involve alignment constraints - see below).

4. Users are asked to enter their search queries. The IMS Corpus Workbench syntax[2] can be used here to refine searches so as to include in a single query

access to different spellings of a word (for example, *analyse* and *analyze*), different morphological variants of a word (for example, *walk, walked, walks*, etc.), a word and a collocate with any number of elements in between (for example *make* and *decision*), and so on.

In addition to a search word or expression, in the Complex Search it is also possible to enter an alignment constraint. For example, users searching for the Portuguese translation of *even*, which is often rendered as *até*, can retrieve just the cases in which *even* is translated into *até* or just the cases in which *even* is translated into something other than *até*.

Some searchable features that are very specific to COMPARA are already directly available through the DISPARA interface. DISPARA allows users to inspect the translators' notes and alignment properties associated with each search string. In addition to this, users can leave the space for entering a search string blank and search directly for translators' notes, emphasis, foreign words and expressions, and titles. And because of the way the texts in COMPARA have been aligned and encoded, it is also possible to inspect when and where translators have decided to join, separate, delete and add sentences to the translation. The possibility of looking at reordered sentences was not yet operational at the time this paper was written.

9. Search results

The users of COMPARA are welcome to use the results of their search queries for research and education.

The concordances are displayed in two vertical columns, with the Portuguese or English search item appearing in bold on the left-hand side, and the corresponding text in English or Portuguese on the right-hand side. The context within which the results appear is one full source-text sentence and the corresponding text in the translation.

Next to each parallel concordance displayed, there is a link to the full reference of the pair of texts from where the parallel concordance was retrieved. When looking up a reference, users also get information on copyright, on language variety, and on the number of words and alignment units for the extracts in question.

10. Using COMPARA in language learning and translation training

The first thing to do in order to use COMPARA in language learning and translation training.

is to identify ways in which comparing and contrasting English and Portuguese might be useful to students. As argued in (Frankenberg-Garcia 2000a), it doesn't make sense to use a parallel corpus to make students aware of language differences that do not affect their learning. Sometimes, however, Portuguese learners of English and English learners of Portuguese find it difficult to establish clearcut boundaries between the two languages. Frankenberg-Garcia and Pina (1997) have identified a number of problems of crosslinguistic influence that are common among Portuguese learners of English. In Frankenberg-Garcia (2000b), reference is made to a a couple of language transfer problems that are typical of English learners of Portuguese.

Having identified aspects of Portuguese and English which tend to get mixed up, COMPARA can be very useful in helping to unmix them. Appendix 1 contains a cloze exercise adapted from COMPARA search results in which students are required to give the Portuguese translation of even, a word susceptible of creating confusion among native speakers of Portuguese given its different meanings and translations.

To prepare the exercise, a search for *even* was carried out in COMPARA and the results were saved as an html file. The file containing those results was opened directly from within Word (which automatically converts the file into a Word document). It was then very simple to edit the results. The *table* menu was used to delete the row where the corpus reference links appear (which are not necessary for the exercise), and Word's *replace* function was used to replace the Portuguese translations of *even* (*até, mesmo, sequer* and *ainda*) by blank spaces. The exercise helps students understand the different meanings and translations of *even*.

Another very common problem of Portuguese-English crosslinguistic influence involves the use of negative prefixes. Appendix 2 contains the first page of a worksheet prepared out of COMPARA in order to help students understand different uses of negative prefixes in English and Portuguese. Based on the principle of data-driven learning (Johns, 1991), students are asked to look at the concordances extracted from COMPARA and underline the Portuguese words that correspond to English words beginning with the negative prefix *un*. The exercise helps students realize that negative prefixes seem to be used much more sparingly in Portuguese, and that translators use different strategies to deal with them. Out of the 57 occurences of English words beginning with the negative prefix un contained in the exercise, less

than half were translated into a word containing a Portuguese negative prefix (i.e., *i, im, in* or *des*). About a third were translated into a word preceded by a negative particle (i.e., *não, sem, difícil de* or *pouco*). In seven cases the translation was an antonym of the root of the English word. For example, a word like *untrue* was translated into an antonym of *true*, i.e., *false*. And in three cases the English word was simply not translated.

The above are just two examples of the many of ways COMPARA can be used in second language learning, teaching and translator training. As the corpus is free and accessible to all those who have an Internet connection, learners can also be trained to look things up for themselves in COMPARA.

11. Conclusion

COMPARA first became available less than a year ago and still has a long way to go. It is hoped that feedback from users will contribute towards the development of COMPARA and that this might take place alongside a growing interest in the use of corpora for research and education.

Notes

[1] For a full regularly updated list of copyright permissions, see: http://www.portugues.mct.pt/COMPARA/CorpusContents.html

[2] The IMS Corpus Workbench Syntax is explained in: http://www.ims.uni-stuttgart.de/CorpusWorkbench/CPQSyntax.html, http://www.ims.uni-stuttgart.de/CorpusWorkbench/CPQExamples.html

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APPENDIX 1

Based on *COMPARA http://www.portugues.mct.pt/COMPARA/ [15-May-2001]*

Fill in the gaps with an appropriate Portuguese translation for *even*:

I had the ideas; I **even** made notes.	Tinha as ideias; _____ coligi notas.
They had planned the trip in detail, had their hair specially curled for the occasion, and had **even** stolen flowers for the girls.	Tinham planeado a visita em pormenor, tinham ondulado especialmente o cabelo para a ocasião, e _____ tinham roubado flores para as raparigas.
Memories came out of hiding, but not emotions; not **even** the memories of emotions.	Surgiam as recordações, mas não as emoções; nem _____ recordações de emoções.
The other rooms contained medical instruments of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries: heavy metal relics coming to sharp points, and enema pumps of a calibre which surprised **even** me.	As outras salas tinham instrumentos médicos dos séculos XVIII e XIX: pesadas relíquias de metal que terminavam em pontas agudas e irrigadores de um calibre que _____ a mim me surpreendia.
She keeps the adored relic beside her, and **even** takes to saying her prayers while kneeling before him.	Guarda junto de si a relíquia adorada e começa _____ a dizer as suas orações ajoelhada na sua frente.
A cheeky bird, inducing affection, even reverence.	Um pássaro atrevido, que suscitava afecto, respeito _____.
All that remains of Flaubert's residence is a small one-storey pavilion a few hundred yards down the road: a summer house to which the writer would retire when needing **even** more solitude than usual.	Tudo o que ficou da residência de Flaubert é um pequeno pavilhão a poucas centenas de metros da estrada; uma casa de Verão para onde o autor se retirava quando precisava de _____ maior solidão do que a habitual.
Then I realised the fallacy in this: Flaubert, after all, hadn't been given a choice of parrots; and **even** this second one, which looked the calmer company, might well get on your nerves after a couple of weeks.	Depois descobri a ironia disto: Flaubert, apesar de tudo, não tinha podido escolher o papagaio; e _____ o segundo, que parecia uma companhia mais calma, podia muito bem tornar-se irritante depois de umas semanas.
In early manhood he is extremely attractive to women and his speed of sexual recuperation is, by his own account, very impressive; but **even** in later life his courtly manner, intelligence and fame ensure that he is not unattended.	Nos primeiros anos da juventude é extremamente atraente para as mulheres e a sua velocidade de recuperação sexual é, segundo ele próprio diz, impressionante; mas _____ mais tarde os seus modos corteses, a sua inteligência e fama asseguram-lhe companhia.

APPENDIX 2

Based on *COMPARA http://www.portugues.mct.pt/COMPARA/ [10-May-2001]*, using extracts from:

Julian Barnes

1984 *Flaubert's parrot* Corpus text based on London. Picador, 1985, pp 11-65.

1988 *O papagaio de Flaubert* translated by Ana Maria Amador. Corpus text based on Lisboa: Quetzal Editores, 1988, pp 11-74.

Read the extracts below and underline the Portuguese word or words that correspond to English words beginning with the negative prefix *un*.

The thrower remained a stylish, temporary statue: knees not quite **unbent**, and the right hand ecstatically spread.	O jogador ficou como uma estilizada estátua temporária: os joelhos um pouco dobrados e a mão direita erguida e estática.
Let me start with the statue: the one above, the permanent, **unstylish** one, the one crying cupreous tears, the floppy-tied, square waistcoated, baggy-trousered, straggle-moustached, wary, aloof bequeathed image of the man.	Vou começar pela estátua: a de cima, a permanente, a sem estilo, a que chora lágrimas de cobre, a que lega à posteridade a imagem circunspecta de um homem com um laço desajeitado, colete quadrado, calças largas como sacos, bigode em desalinho.
If so, then how tantalising are the **unfinished** books.	Se assim é, então que excitantes são os livros inacabados.
The **unwritten** books?	Os livros que não se escreveram?
Dot, dash, dash, dash went: the concrete caissons, with the **unhurried** water between them.	Ponto, traço, traço, traço, faziam as caixas de cimento, separadas umas das outras pela água calma.
I was close to where friends had died - the sudden friends those years produced - and yet I felt **unmoved.**	Ali perto amigos meus tinham morrido - os amigos inesperados que esses anos nos dão - mas não me sentia comovido.
But here, in this **unexceptional** green parrot, preserved in a routine yet mysterious fashion, was something which made me feel I had almost known the writer.	Mas aqui, neste vulgar papagaio verde, perservado de uma maneira vulgar e no entanto misteriosa, havia algo que me fazia sentir que quase tinha conhecido o escritor.
It's about a poor, **uneducated** servant-woman called Félicité, who serves the same mistress for half a century, unresentfully sacrificing her own life to those of others.	É acerca de uma pobre criada ignorante chamada Félicité, que serve a mesma patroa durante meio século, sacrificando sem ressentimentos a sua vida à dos outros.
It's about a poor, uneducated servant-woman called Félicité, who serves the same mistress for half a century, **unresentfully** sacrificing her own life to those of others.	É acerca de uma pobre criada ignorante chamada Félicité, que serve a mesma patroa durante meio século, sacrificando sem ressentimentos a sua vida à dos outros.

The use of phraseology for training and research in the translation of LSP texts

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Abstract. Based on a corpus-based research project carried out jointly at the Universities of Surrey and Trieste, this paper shows that insights into lexical organisation and lexical patterning can be profitably extended to subject-specific languages, with particular reference to translation training. The basic assumption of the paper is that trainee translators need to be introduced to the stylistic requirements of subject-specific texts at the collocational and phraseological levels and taught to conform to these requirements so that knowledge is effectively transmitted across different languages. After a brief review of recent research in LSP phraseology, some very preliminary findings from a small Italian corpus of texts in the special language of building construction are discussed in terms of "semantic preference". It is argued that the lexical and grammatical choices activated by specialist knowledge are often governed by the same principle of organisation that controls general language.

1 Introduction

As a translator, in dealing with specialised texts I have frequently found myself struggling not with terms, but rather with what goes around terms. In other words, I have found that, apart from the obvious need to achieve terminological accuracy, one of the challenges of specialised translation is the reproduction of the stylistic conventions used by specialists. The language of technical and scientific domains aims at transmitting knowledge as effectively as possible and the linguistic devices I am going to deal with here are among the ones that guarantee this effectiveness.

A specialist who reads a translated text will expect this text to conform to the norms that govern text production in a given discipline. If the TL text does not conform to these norms, then the translation is likely to lose credibility or even to impair communication. In some cases, the style of a text serves other functions besides effectiveness of communication. Consider, for example, university textbooks and manuals. Besides introducing students to the

fundamentals of a given discipline, the aim of such texts is also to provide them with the proper linguistic means to talk about the discipline. In this case, the register is part of the information the text provides and failure to conform to the stylistic requirements of the domain in the TL amounts to a reduction in the informative load of the text.

It would therefore seem only too appropriate that trainee translators should be alerted to the need to comply with the norms governing text production in specialist domains. To put it in a catchphrase, trainees should go "beyond terms" and look at the phraseology characteristic of the domain they are confronted with. Context has an extremely important role to play in specialised translation, at least as much as in general translation. Contrary to what was common belief up to a few years ago, LSP translation does not amount to the solution of terminological problems, but also requires awareness of "group conventions" (Snell-Hornby 1988: 124; cf. also Musacchio 1999: 387).

This paper draws from a research project currently under way at the Universities of Surrey (UK) and Trieste (Italy). The project aims at studying the role of collocation in Languages for Special Purposes, with particular reference to the domains of building construction and information technology. The project is in its early stage: a corpus of English and Italian texts of varying degrees of specialisation is currently being compiled. These texts will then be analysed, using tools capable of isolating terms within their context, so as to highlight the most frequent collocates and other significant patterns.

2 Theoretical background

Even in well-established technical fields, terminologies are far from perfectly overlapping across different languages and frequently show marked shifts and inconsistencies even within the same language. Terms, in other words, are far from being "static pairs which can be slotted in and out of texts in each language" (Rogers 1999: 114). However, I am concerned here with all the lexical items that surround terms proper and contribute to giving a text its specialist 'feel'. A number of works published in the last five years or so indicate that phraseology is increasingly attracting scholars' attention, even within the discipline of terminology itself.

Corpus linguistics has so far devoted much attention to the role of collocation in general language. However, insights on lexical organisation and lexical patterning (and on the relation of these to the context of situation) could profitably be extended to subject-specific languages. In fact, if

collocation is taken as an example of an "association pattern", i.e. the systematic way in which linguistic features are associated to other linguistic and non linguistic features (Biber *et al.* 1996), an analysis of collocation could cover not only lexical collocations but also grammatical or colligational patterns which are characteristic of a given domain. Both collocational and grammatical/colligational patterns could then be considered as part of the domain's special phraseology.

It could perhaps even be argued that the lexical and grammatical choices activated by specialist knowledge are in fact governed by the same principle of organisation that controls general language, i.e. what Sinclair (1991) calls the "idiom principle": much like general language users, LSP users have available to them a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases, which in subject-specific discourse often have terms as their cores. Though analysable into segments, such phrases constitute single choices and their use may be due as much to the principle of economy as to the need for denotative precision.

In today's predominant models of language description, lexis and syntax vary independently of each other. This means that, in LSPs, terms have been studied and analysed in isolation. However, as corpus linguistics has begun to show, the decoupling of lexis and syntax is misleading if not illegitimate. Computer-assisted analyses of language suggest that grammatical and lexical patterns *do not* vary independently of each other. So far, idioms, phraseology, collocation and the like have been confined to "a limbo of odd features" (Sinclair 1991: 104), but evidence now becoming available shows that a substantial proportion of language description refers to such phenomena, which should therefore be considered as playing a far from marginal role. A new model for the description of language is emerging, based on what Sinclair calls the principle of "coselection", or "syntagmatic interdependency" (1999: 5). This new model goes beyond the sharp distinction between "fixed expression" and "free combination" on which all previous models of language description and analysis were founded, and recognises the phraseological tendency of language as playing a central role. Sinclair and the "neo-firthians" are the major proponents of this new view of language which, however, has not yet been extended to LSPs. Sinclair (1998) has indeed contrasted the phraseological tendency to a "terminological tendency", which recognises many fixed expressions as technical terms and sees them as the linguistic items most likely to follow the principle of free combination. However, given that coselection is the basic pattern of collocation and that the role of collocation in LSPs is far from marginal, then it would probably be worth analysing LSPs in terms of co-selection patterns.

3 LSP phraseology: a brief overview of recent research

As Musacchio (1999: 381) points out in discussing the treatment of phraseology in translation-oriented terminographic work, "a complete system has not yet been developed for LSP, though it is obvious that it is restricted compared to that of LGP".

The study of LSP phraseology has been a primary concern of research on language teaching, especially within the framework of ESP. More recently terminology has also felt the need to address the problem of the terms' context.

In the discipline of phraseology proper, Cowie (1998) identifies three major approaches: the "classical" Russian approach, the "linguo-cultural" analysis and the neo-firthian approach. None of these approaches addresses LSP phraseology as such, but some of the categories they have identified could perhaps give interesting results in the description of this restricted sub-system.[1] While it may be true that LSP phraseology "cannot claim to be an inventory large enough to be considered a linguistic sub-system *sui generis*" (Gläser 1995: 56), it should be evident that the application of the concept is of immediate significance in areas like translation training.

What follows is a non-exhaustive list of the labels used to describe phrases in LSPs (cf. Thomas 1993: 56; Gläser 1995: 33-57; Musacchio forthcoming):

– *terminological phrase*
– *LSP phrase*
– *technical phrase*
– *phraseme* or *phraseological unit*
– *phraseological term*
– *professionalism* or *jargon word*
– *tecnicismo collaterale*.[2]

Some of these terms are based on research in LGP phraseology, while others are based on studies in terminology. Moreover, some of the items, which at any given moment are included in the category of phraseological units, could later reach the status of terms if they are assigned to a defined concept[3] The fact remains, however, that existing reference works give translators very little phraseological information – exactly the sort of information that could help them produce a TL text that is accurate on both the semantic and the stylistic levels.[4]

A few researchers have already begun to study methods for the identification of collocations in LSP texts (cf. Heid 1997; L'Homme 1995;

Pedersen 1995). Very briefly, the criteria they propose are based on frequency of occurrence, distribution and the previous development of a typology of collocational structures. Whatever the requirements of each individual method, the starting point is always the construction of a corpus of texts in electronic format, which is then to be investigated with either existing or purpose-built computer tools.

4 The use of corpora in translator training

Given the limitations of most reference works, some researchers have turned their attention to the possibilities offered by corpora. Once a corpus of suitable texts is available, KWIC concordancing can provide many illustrative examples of the patterns formed by a given term, helping both trainee and professional translators improve subject-field understanding and specialised language competence (cf. Bowker 1998; Gavioli 1999; Ulrych 1997; Zanettin 1999). Searching a corpus gives translators the opportunity to acquire "first-hand" information on the actual usage of term and phrases. Corpus-based work could thus prove to be the right methodology to fill the gap between the translators' actual requirements and the (often inadequate) information provided by most reference works.

5 Methodology

The project this paper draws from aims at studying the role of collocation and phraseology in LSP texts using corpus analysis tools. The main objectives are:

1) To contribute to the development of a more rigorously formalised system of LSP phraseology.
2) To develop a tool for the extraction of significant and characteristic phrases from corpora of LSP texts.

At present, the project is still at the stage of corpus compilation. The two domains I have chosen to include in the corpus are building construction and information technology. The corpus will be a "multilingual corpus" as defined by Baker (1995: 232), i.e. one comprising "two or more monolingual corpora in different languages, built up [...] on the basis of similar design criteria". The text types included in the corpus are chosen according to the text categories established at the Department of Computing of the University of Surrey. Texts from at least three of the nine categories will be chosen for inclusion in the corpus.[5]

The corpus compilation stage should thus lead to the creation of a Building Construction (BC) corpus and an Information Technology (IT) corpus, each comprising an Italian and an English sub-corpus.[6]

Some important decisions regarding the methods of analysis have not been taken yet. In particular, it has not been decided whether the texts are going to be tagged and lemmatised and what kind of statistical index will be used to measure the strength of association between the words included in collocations and phrases. Similarly, it is to be decided whether the search for collocations will be based on a previous extraction of terms or will instead proceed independently from terminology. One advantage of the latter hypothesis is that the analysis could highlight phrases and collocations which recur a significant number of times even though they do not contain terms – in other words, precisely those phrases that are likely not to be included in currently available reference works. An example taken from building construction could be the phrase *posato in indipendenza*, said of a sheet material which is *laid loose*. Another example, again in building construction, is the peculiar use of prepositions: an Italian architect or engineer referring to a concrete column would most probably say "pilastro in calcestruzzo", whereas general language would normally indicate the same referent using both a different lexical item and a different preposition ("pilastro di cemento").

I will now take this last example and a few others to see whether the corpus confirms these intuitive hypotheses, which are based on my experience as a translator of building construction texts (the findings presented here only refer to the Italian BC corpus). Given the current modest size of the corpus (approx. 65,000 running words), the findings are clearly of a tentative nature,[7] but I hope to give a clear picture of the kind of structures that perhaps only corpus analysis can help identify in a systematic way. It is noteworthy, however, that the structures commented on in the next paragraph are not likely to be found in any bilingual reference work about building construction.

6 Preliminary findings

6.1 Special use of prepositions

Intuition based on experience suggests that one of the characteristics of the language of building construction in Italian is the special use of prepositions, and particularly the use of *in* in phrases of the type *[ELEMENT]+in+[MATERIAL]*. No dictionary explicitly suggests this but, when browsing texts written by Italian architects and engineers, it becomes quite evident that

specialists almost invariably opt for the proposition *in* instead of *di*, the latter being the 'default' option in general language. Trying to validate this intuitive hypothesis in a corpus is quite a straightforward operation. Using a simple KWIC concordancer, the Italian BC corpus has been searched for the occurrences of the preposition *in*. An extract of the concordance list is given in Figure 1 ("Concordance of preposition *in* in Italian BC corpus (sample)") (nouns referring to materials appear in bold).

Figure 1 Concordance of preposition *in* in Italian BC corpus (sample)

1	tre il 75% delle famiglie risieda ormai in abitazioni di proprietà o in condizio	man.txt
2	o essere inferiori a 3 cm. I telai sono in **acciaio** dolce galvanizzato a caldo, p	riv.txt
3	13; tab. 8): - due strati di lamiera in **alluminio** all'interno dei quali è inco	riv.txt
4	ezza sino a 6 m, applicate a traversine in **alluminio** di varie forme, predisposte	riv.txt
5	essori sottili (da 0,6 a 1,0 mm circa), in **alluminio** preverniciato e bordi sagom	riv.txt
6	ueste proliferano imprese specializzate in ambiti applicativi molto circoscritti	man.txh
7	esterni a questo. Infine una tendenza in atto, particolarmente per gli ambiti	man.txt
8	ab. 6). Le tipologie si suddividono, in base alla forma degli elementi, in: I	riv.txt
9	ali individua 4 zone di vento, definite in base alla quota e/o alla distanza dal	riv.txt
10	o (v. fig. 18, foto 6). - I prodotti in **ceramica** sono caratterizzati dalla pr	riv.txt
11	assimo di 150 milioni, in quote diluite in cinque o dieci anni. I benefici rigu	man.txt
12	no spessore sottile (4 mm circa), non è in grado di assorbire difetti evidenti.	riv.txt
13	egge 46/90, legge 10/91) con interventi in grado di ottenere risparmi attraverso	man.txt
14	cuore rigido a nido d'ape (honeycomb) o in **grecatino di alluminio**. Sono molto le	riv.txt
15	(17) Alcune ricerche Censis registrano in Italia che il 30% delle imprese speci	man.txt
16	e o a incastro, su listelli solitamente in **legno**, permettendo la formazione di u	riv.txt
17	ore è inferiore a 4 mm. Se l'orditura è in **legno** si utilizzano viti mordenti -pe	riv.txt
18	a 4). I disposti normativi evidenziano in maniera particolare la valenza che vi	man.txt
19	tetiche, già a pochi metri di distanza, in modo da consentire al peso proprio di	riv.txt
20	io (v. fig. 45). CAPITOLO IV LA POSA IN OPERA 4.1 Premessa Per la posa	riv.txt
21	i meccanici a racchetta. 4.6 La posa in opera dei materiali compositi: modali	riv.txt
22	arghezze di 20-30-40 cm e vengono posti in opera secondo tipi diversi di fissagg	riv.txt
23	attribuibili a entità come i condomini in quanto non soggetti giuridici(93). I	man.txt
24	4 dalla legge n. 86. Nel 1995 è entrato in vigore il nuovo testo di legge 503/95	man.txt
25	a incastro caratterizzato da fissaggio in vista (v. fig. 58c). Pannelli meta	riv.txt

Figure 2 ("Concordance of preposition *di* in Italian BC corpus (sample)") shows that the structure *[ELEMENT]+di+[MATERIAL]* is much less frequent (only 1 instance: *strati di lamiera*, line 13), contrary to what happens in general language (this statement is again based on intuition – it should be validated by searching the two prepositions in a corpus of Italian general language, which I intend to do as soon as I have access to such a corpus).

Figure 2 Concordance of preposition *di* in Italian BC corpus (sample)

1	a standard è di 120 cm e quella massima di 150 cm, per una lunghezza massima di	riv.txt
2	i 20-30-60-90-120 cm. Gli spessori sono di 3,5-5,0-6,0-7,5-10 cm e la lunghezza	riv.tx
3	endono al di sotto di 1-2 m e lunghezze di 3-4-5 m che possono arrivare anche a	riv.txt
4	ghezze di 12x24, 12x25, 13x26 cm oppure di 4x24, 5x25 e 6x76 cm. Elementi da	riv.txt
5	ologico. 1) Il rapporto tra formazione di base orientata e formazione continua,	man.txt
6	i: 1) l'organizzazione. Si tratta cioè di descrivere una organizzazione operati	man.txt
7	(norma UNI 10144) gli elementi in grado di descrivere un servizio(63). In second	man.txt
8	ervazione. (116) Si tratta di fenomeni di diversa natura essenzialmente economi	man.txt
9	alizzati. (107) Corsi di laurea, corsi di dottorato di ricerca, corsi di aggior	man.txt

10	tà operative. (134) In quanto in grado di estrarre da ogni esperienza conoscenz	man.txt
11	1) L'applicazione di una strategia di gradualità di attuazione(25). Operar	man.txt
12	sto. I pannelli sandwich possono essere di grande altezza, autoportanti, ed esse	riv.txt
13	figg. 12 e 13; tab. 8); - due strati di **lamiera** in alluminio all'interno dei	riv.txt
14	uminio preverniciato, di 15-20-25-30 cm di larghezza, che possono essere posate	riv.txt
15	entivo. (150) Corsi di laurea, diplomi di laurea, scuole di specializzazione, m	man.txt
16	mpreso tra i 10.000 e i 15.000 miliardi di lire. In ambito industriale è eviden	man.txt
17	1) La personalizzazione del servizio di manutenzione. Uno degli statuti fond	man.txt
18	a UNI 10148 Gestione di un contratto di manutenzione UNI 10149 Manutenzione	man.txt
19	in cui al 18% di cromo corrisponde l'8% di nichel, impiegati per usi esterni. La	riv.txt
20	0, legge 10/91) con interventi in grado di ottenere risparmi attraverso l'effici	man.txt
21	ette. Tabella 1. Esempio di check-list di requisiti e obiettivi riferiti alla g	man.txt
22	oresina epossidica di 120x300 cm e 7 mm di spessore; si ottiene così un prodotto	riv.txt
23	UNI 10146 Criteri per la formulazione di un contratto per la fornitura di serv	man.txt
24	egge 179/92 che prevede il conferimento di un preciso mandato dai singoli condom	man.txt
25	ura. (106) Emergono oggi nuovi scenari di una volontà istituzionale di promuove	man.txt

6.2 Possible evidence of "semantic preference" in LSP

A preliminary analysis of the Italian BC corpus has been carried out using System Quirk, a tool developed at the University of Surrey (cf. Ahmad 1999). This tool can search for all the occurrences of any word in a corpus and then display a concordance line for each occurrence, ordering the lines by frequency of the node word. By simply scrolling the concordance lines it is very easy to notice regular patterns. The large majority of patterns identified in such a way will correspond to phrases common to all genres and text types. However, from the analysis of the concordance file produced for the Italian BC corpus two patterns have emerged that, although making use of items of a non specialised nature, seem to be typical of this particular domain. What is more, in both patterns the relationship between the core items and the other items could be explained in terms of "semantic preference" (Sinclair 1996, 1998)[8], thus pointing in the direction of an extended specialised unit of meaning behind which the principle of coselection is operating. This unit of meaning could be domain-specific like terms, but at the same time could share the same characteristics of variability that are displayed by phrases typical of general language. In the following, these two phrases are analysed and a tentative hypothesis is put forward as regards their specific semantic preference.

6.2.1. The phrase *fenomeni di + NOUN*

In the Italian BC corpus there are 35 instances of the word form *fenomeno*. Of these, 22 are in the plural (*fenomeni*), 8 of which being followed by the preposition *di*. Looking at the nouns following this preposition it is evident that, in seven out of eight cases, they refer to some undesired phenomenon that might damage the material or element the sentence is about (see Figure

3, "Concordance of *fenomeni di* in Italian BC corpus"). Apart from line 8, in all instances nouns like *disgregazione* (disintegration), *degrado* (decay), *corrosione* (corrosion) and *coazione* (internal mechanical stress) clearly indicate things to be avoided if a material or element is to go on performing its structural or architectural function.

All the nouns following *fenomeni di* seem therefore to refer to 'negative' phenomena, things that should be avoided. There is nothing inherently negative in the word *fenomeno*, which in general language is in itself quite neutral and can indicate both positive and negative things (a neutrality which surfaces in line 8 of the concordance). However, in the language of building construction, the plural form *fenomeni* seems to have acquired a specialised function, which is that of alerting the reader that 'something to be avoided/undesirable' is going to be mentioned. The fact that in a few instances the verbs *prevenire* and *evitare* (both meaning 'to prevent') appear before *fenomeni* seems to support this hypothesis. It could then be argued that the noun *fenomeni* seems to have a distinct pattern of semantic preference, whereby it tends to be followed by terms indicating phenomena that are undesirable.

Figure 3 Concordance of *fenomeni di* in Italian BC corpus

1	ndipendentemente dal telaio ed evitando fenomeni di coazione sullo strato stesso	riv.txt
2	coraggio per evidenziare e quantificare fenomeni di concentrazione delle tension	riv.txt
3	a di coppie elettrolitiche con relativi fenomeni di corrosione, la bulloneria no	riv.txt
4	ltri metalli per evitare il formarsi di fenomeni di corrosione elettrochimica.	riv.txt
5	omogeneità circa le cause che innescano fenomeni di degrado, anche se alcuni fat	riv.txt
6	ibile. È sempre preferibile prevenire i fenomeni di degrado attraverso intervent	riv.txt
7	el tempo, oltre a non essere soggetto a fenomeni di disgregazione, eccetto alla	riv.txt
8	o di conservazione. (116) Si tratta di fenomeni di diversa natura essenzialment	man.txt

6.2.2 The phrase *caratteristiche di* + *NOUN*

The Italian BC corpus includes 115 instances of the noun *caratteristica*, including 10 occurrences of the singular and 105 instances of the plural (*caratteristiche*). Looking at the patterns formed by the plural form, it can be noticed that a frequent preposition accompanying it is *di*. Figure 4 ("Concordance of *caratteristiche di* in Italian BC corpus") lists the 20 instances of the pattern *caratteristiche di*, where the phrase is always followed by a noun. In particular, in 16 instances the noun indicates a specific property of an element or a material. A closer look at these nouns shows that they all consistently refer to 'positive' properties: *resistenza* (strength), *buona aderenza* (adherence), *flessibilità* (flexibility) and so on. Whilst in general language the word *caratteristica* has no consistently positive connotation, here the use of *caratteristiche di* would seem to be closely associated with

'good' properties of a material or an element. Much like the pattern *fenomeni di + NOUN*, the phrase *caratteristiche di + NOUN* seems to have a distinct semantic preference, this time for terms referring to positive properties of elements and materials.

Figure 4 Concordance of *caratteristiche di* in Italian BC corpus

1	stione dei patrimoni immobiliari assuma caratteristiche di autonomia, configuran	man.txt
2	prevemiciati e plastificati deve avere caratteristiche di buona aderenza al sup	riv.txt
3	he permettono di sfruttare al meglio le caratteristiche di ciascun materiale e l	riv.txt
4	icabilità del modello proposto e assume caratteristiche di complementarità rispe	riv.txt
5	Gli spessori sottili e le particolari caratteristiche di flessibilità permetto	riv.txt
6	vamento, inoltre presentano particolari caratteristiche di isolamento termico e	riv.txt
7	che determina l'aspetto esteriore e le caratteristiche di isotropia e anisotrop	riv.txt
8	con una o più camere d'aria. Presentano caratteristiche di leggerezza, elasticit	riv.txt
9	nte interventi manutentivi non presenta caratteristiche di omogeneità, ma si con	man.txt
10	alto che conferisce al prodotto elevate caratteristiche di resistenza agli agent	riv.txt
11	a di 1 m e spessore da 0,5 a 1,5 mm, ha caratteristiche di resistenza agli agent	riv.txt
12	a di 1 m e spessore da 0,5 a 1,5 mm, ha caratteristiche di resistenza agli agent	riv.txt
13	vestimenti organici: per le particolari caratteristiche di resistenza alla corro	riv.txt
14	etre e i graniti presentano le migliori caratteristiche di resistenza alle aggre	riv.txt
15	ne iniziale, per quanto riguarda sia le caratteristiche di resistenza che quelle	riv.txt
16	aio è utilizzato soprattutto per le sue caratteristiche di resistenza meccanica	riv.txt
17	tentive, che va sempre più assumendo le caratteristiche di servizio. Indicazio	man.txt
18	ofilo formativo, la figura con maggiori caratteristiche di trasversalità. Nonost	man.txt
19	già state sottolineate (cfr. cap.1) le caratteristiche di trasversalità della c	man.txt
20	norma contenitore. La norma cioè ha le caratteristiche di un inquadramento e un	man.txt

7 Conclusion

Although the findings presented here are based on a very small corpus and would therefore need to be validated on a larger, more representative collection of texts, they provide good examples of the type of collocational and phraseological patterns that can only emerge from corpus analysis or that corpus analysis alone can investigate in a systematic fashion. Together with terminological systems, these patterns appear to play a central role in LSPs but, unlike terminology, they have until recently escaped any systematic and rigorous description. The analysis of LSP phraseology appears to have important implications for the study of specialised translation and, more specifically, for the training of translators. In particular, considering LSPs from a 'phraseological perspective' could help trainee translators in terms of both "language awareness" (Carter 1993: 142) and the acquisition of production skills. Students, in other words, should be made aware of group conventions and of the need to comply to these conventions in order to produce target texts which transmit information as effectively as their SL counterparts. To achieve this, terminological accuracy is often not sufficient: what the TL text also needs is, more often than not, collocational and phraseological accuracy.

Notes

[1] See, for instance, Mel'cuk's "lexical functions" (1996; 1998).

[2] An Italian term proposed by the linguist Luca Serianni (1985: 270)

[3] In this respect, cf. Gläser (1995: 55): "the interrelation between terminology and phraseology is a more intricate problem than it appears at first sight".

[4] However in some term banks, such as TERMit, the multilingual term bank set up by the SSLMIT at the University of Trieste (http://termit.sslmit.univ.trieste.it), the field *Phraseology* included in some entries contains a detailed list of collocates and recurrent phrases for the term in question.

[5] The categories are: *advert* (advertisement material), *book*, *journal*, *letter*, *manual*, *official*, *popsci* (popular science), *press*, *report*.

[6] It is hoped that the analysis of the Italian and the English corpora will yield, as a sort of by-product, a parallel list of phrases to be included in a term bank organised along the same lines as TERMit (cf. note 3).

[7] The Italian BC corpus currently comprises two monographs: the first (here referred to as *riv.txt*) is a decription of cladding materials and methods; the other (*man.txt*) is about regulatory and planning issues related to the maintenance of existing buildings.

[8] "Semantic preference" follows "collocation" and "colligation" as a level of increasing abstraction in Sinclair's description of extended units of meaning. It indicates that certain lexical items tend to be accompanied not only by particular words ("collocation") or word classes ("colligation") but also by items that, although belonging to different grammatical classes, still remain within the same semantic field. An example is the phrase *naked eye*, which is almost always preceded by a word or phrase having to do with visibility (Sinclair 1996).

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Training translators to learn from news report corpora: the case of Anglo-American cultural references[1]

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Abstract. Translation and intercultural studies can benefit from the use of comparable and parallel corpora (Maia 1998, Gavioli and Zanettin 1998, López Rodríguez 2000). The analysis of the keywords and collocations found in English and Spanish corpora of news reports may shed light not only on linguistic patterns and regularities but also on the way references to organizations, positions and professions, forms of address and quotations are used in original and translated texts. By elaborating their own corpus and recognising how these expressions shift from the source to the target text, students of translation become aware of cultural differences and develop translation skills to bridge the knowledge gap between the readership of the ST and the TT. Students also become familiar with the practice of style guides conventions.

1. Introduction

Many studies have emphasized the possibility of applying corpus linguistics to translation didactics (Maia 1998, Gavioli and Zannettin 1998). The use of comparable and parallel corpora not only contributes to learning autonomy but also help students find adequate words for a particular text type. As Zannettin (1994: 109) points out,

> ... translators need to be able to see patterns and regularities both within a language and across languages. To produce adequate texts in the target language, a translator is faced with the task of finding 'the right words' and the 'right way' to put things for a certain type of context.

Apart from providing adequate and acceptable expressions in the target text, corpora can be exploited in cultural studies, as shown in Stubbs (1996). By recognising syntactic patterns, collocations and keywords in the LOB corpus and the Bank of English, Stubbs explores the ideology masked

by language. In this direction, López Rodríguez (2000) analyses the keywords and collocations found in a corpus of Spanish and British newspaper articles on primary education in order to elicit the most salient values in both the British and the Spanish educational systems. In this research, we noticed the potential of newspaper corpora in the training of translators and interpreters[2], and, consequently, we started to apply corpora to the general translation classes in the Faculty of Translation and Interpreting of the University of Granada.

When designing and using newspaper corpora, our second year students keep up with current affairs, see real examples of translation and gain familiarity with cultural references and the ortotypographical conventions of style guides. To that end, we help them identify linguistic patterns whose cotext might be very informative for the identification of ortotypographical conventions, cultural references, and the strategies used in the translation of such cultural references. We will call these expressions *search structures*. The extraction of search structures follows previous research in terminology by Meyer and Mackintosh (1996), who propose the use of *knowledge probes* to extract superordinate terms, and Pearson's (1998) formulation of terminographic definitions based on such expressions.

In this paper, we revise some models on the translation of cultural references and describe an activity aimed at detecting conventions, cultural references and translation strategies by compiling and analyzing corpora in the general translation classroom.

2. The translation of cultural references

The translation of cultural references has drawn the attention of many scholars[3]. Cultural references include place names, institutions, judicial and administrative concepts, weights and measures, coins and references to history and traditions.

Mayoral and Muñoz (1997: 143) offer a cognitive approach to the translation of *culturally-marked textual segments*, and present a typology of strategies, i.e. protocols to adopt adequate solutions in the translation process, which is understood as a decision-making process. We have added examples concerning Britain and the United States.

1. **Established translation:** House of Commons → Cámara de los Comunes
2. **Validated translation**: Bachelor of Arts → Licenciatura
3. **Functional translation**: Federal spending → gasto público
4. **Borrowing:** Bachelor of Arts → Bachelor of Arts

5. **Paraphrase**: Bachelor of Arts → Título correspondiente a estudios universitarios de 4 años de duración.
6. **Combination of resources:** Bachelor of Arts → Bachelor of Arts [título correspondiente a estudios universitarios de 4 años de duración
7. **Omission**
8. **Creation** (calque, cognate or morphological translation, and creation of new words): First class → Primera clase; Welsh Office → Oficina Galesa.

According to this study, the choice of strategy should take into account the reader's knowledge of the target culture, the relevance of the concept in the target culture, the existence of previous translations, the text type, the skopos, the type of translation and the style of the translator (ibid: 154-155).

Nedergaard-Larsen (1993) presents a more simplified model in which the strategy followed depends on the proximity either to the culture of the source language or to the culture of the target language. Ballester (2001) adapts the model to the didactics of *Translation from English to Spanish* using the film *American Beauty*.

(1)

	Culture-bound problems	Translation strategy
↑	SL-culture-oriented translation	Identity: Media Monthly → *Media Monthly* Explicitation + identity: Media Monthly → la revista *Media Monthly* Imitation (literal transl.): Ninth → Noveno
↓	General	Explicitation: Miracle-gro à abono Paraphrase: Ninth → Primer curso de enseñanza secundaria en EE UU TL-culture-oriented translation Cultural adaptation: Ninth → 3º de ESO

With this model, students can easily perceive that there is more than one correct translation, but some translations are more adequate than others. They also notice the central position occupied by explicitation and paraphrase. Although these procedures are considered the most appropriate ones to achieve interlingual equivalents (Moya (2000: 18), they are not often used by pupils. Moya (ibid: 18) describes different linguistic resources to add information about cultural references in the translated text. Added information appears in bold.

1. **Determinación del nombre propio mediante:**

   Elemento genérico o definidor: El último número de la **revista** *Progressive Architecture* [...]

   Determinación de la procedencia: [...] rito que se celebra cada diez años en la ciudad **india** de Goa

Especificación de tendencia política, religiosa, ideológica: El **conservador** Partido Nacional Unido de Sri Lanka (isla de Ceilán)

Valoración personal: [...] la gente del MIT (el **prestigioso** Instituto Tecnológico de Massachussets) [...]

Componente clasificador: La revista **erótica** estadounidense *Penthouse* estará disponible [...]

Metalenguaje: [...] era candidato ideal para que se le aplicara la ley **conocida** como *three strikes and you are out*, expresión que se toma prestada del béisbol para indicar que se está eliminado a la tercera falta [...]

Referencia temporal: Según una encuesta publicada ayer por el **semanario** irlandés *Sunday Press* [...]

2. **Disyuntiva con 'o', 'o sea', 'es decir', 'que es...', 'algo así como...', 'una especie de...'**

Atentos a la última investigación de *The Lancet*, **especie de Biblia médica de actualidad** [...]

3. **Yuxtaposición entre paréntesis o entre rayas**

[...] el virus Ebola (**nombre de un río de Zaire a cuyas orillas se detectó la primera epidemia en 1976**)

4. **Aposición**

Una encuesta publicada ayer por el diario *The Miami Herald*, **el más vendido y el más influyente de la ciudad**, refleja una marcada diferencia [...]

5. **Nota dentro del texto**

Cerca de la Universidad de Cracovia está Wavel, lugar casi mágico para los polacos y donde tuvo lugar la recepción oficial del [...]. **Sobre el pequeño promontorio a orillas del Vístula, el Wawel es la antigua ciudadela-fortaleza, típica de esta zona de invasiones recurrentes, donde se yerguen el castillo real y la catedral**

6. **Sinonimia**

IBM centrará su estrategia de negocios en el desarrollo [...]. **La empresa norteamericana** trabaja en "cómo conseguir dar el salto siguiente en Internet" para convertir esta red en [...].

7. **Combinación de varias de las técnicas anteriores**

La multinacional estadounidense IBM anunció ayer [...]. **La compañía informática** facturó unos 18.100 millones de dólares entre julio y septiembre [...]

The models reviewed illustrate the most frequent strategies used in the translation of cultural references. Considering that our undergraduates tend to

overuse some of them, such as borrowing and creation, the presentation of these models in the classroom is not enough. The teacher of translation should engage students in activities involving exposure to many real examples of translation and awareness of the way a particular cultural reference can be translated in different situational contexts.

3. Using corpora in the translation of cultural references

In this section, we describe an activity aimed at making students widen their strategies for the translation into Spanish of cultural references related to Britain and the United States, while developing their critical awareness.

3.1. Compiling a comparable and parallel corpus

Students have to compile a bilingual corpus of newspaper texts of 12,000 words. To that end, they look for English texts about a subject of their choice (elections, economy, trade unions, peace processes, international relations, etc.), and contrast them with their translation or adaptation into Spanish or with original Spanish texts about the same subject. Most of the texts gathered are available in electronic format either in CD-ROMs (*El Mundo*, *The Times*, *The Guardian*) or on the Internet. There are links to the electronic versions of newspapers from these webs: http://ajr.newslink.org, http://cvc.cervantes.es, http://www.el-castellano.com and http://www.efe.es.

The compilation of the corpus takes place out of classroom time. However, during one session of 90 minutes, students have access to reference works such as Encarta, style guides (*Manual de Estilo de El País*, *Libro de Estilo de ABC* or *The Independent Style Guide*) and to some sites about Spanish usage[4].

The need to follow conventions is stressed by asking them to follow a style sheet and to hand in the assignment in its electronic and paper versions as required in a professional environment. The texts in electronic format contain tags informing about the source, date, text type and author of the text, so as to make the corpus reusable.

Two more sessions of 90 minutes are devoted to the use of lexical analysis software such as Wordsmith Tools. This program facilitates the detection of the most frequent collocations and keywords in English and Spanish and of suitable equivalents for translation segments. Students are asked to search for particular expressions that trigger cultural references and formal conventions, and to suggest new search structures.

3.2. Extracting cultural references, translation strategies and conventions

The teacher suggests search structures that cover some translation problems not solved in bilingual dictionaries, for example, the translation of forms of address and quotations. In the following table, we present instances of cultural references related to British and American organizations and public offices and some expressions leading to them in concordances such as the ones for *británic** and *leader**. Their translations in the Spanish press relies mainly on explicitation.

(2)

SEARCH STRUCTURES: ORGANIZATIONS, POSITIONS / PROFESSIONS TO:	
TO: • Proper name • President, leader, a top, chief, director, prime minister, PM, minister, secretary, deputy, coordinator, spokesman, chairman, official, speaker, officer, representative, member of, MP, congressman, responsible, in charge of, candidate • Party, parliament, Congress, Labour, Conservative, Liberal, Democrat, Republican, feder*, state, department, office, loyalist, unionist, group, association, administration, institute, centre, center, organization, union, wing, headquarters, court, government, executive, Cabinet • Called, known as	**TT:** • británic*, *americano, anglosajón, inglés • Proper name in English • Presidente, líder, destacado, jefe, director, ministro, secretario, vice*, coordinador, portavoz, funcionario, encargado, diputado, parlamentario, miembro, representante, encargado, responsable, candidato • Partido, congreso, feder*, esta*, departamento, ministerio, grupo, asociación, administración, instituto, centro, organización, sede, unión, ala, tribunal, gobierno, ejecutivo • Llamado, denominado

1	nas desde 1990. El anterior primer ministro británico, el conservador John Major, se
2	", en referencia a la decisión del ministro británico para Irlanda del Norte, Peter Ma
3	esiva descentralización de la Administración británica, los parlamentos autónomos de Gal
4	da hace un año. Según informaba la cadena británica BBC desde Freetown, y confirmaba
5	a los 98 años mientras dormía, la novelista británica Barbara Cartland era ya una leye
6	uxemburgo denegaron así la razón al Gobierno británico , que había recurrido la directi
7	con cuatro comandos de marines. El ministro británico de Defensa, Geoff Hoon, anunció
8	más de los sindicatos El Nuevo Laborismo británico considera el término socialista
9	Un responsable de Transporte de la central británica General Workers Union (Unión Gen
10	tiz en su interpretación. El primer ministro británico, Tony Blair, señaló que se trata
11	el comisario para Relaciones Exteriores, el británico Chris Patten; y el primer minist
12	de mañana con la dirección, los sindicatos británicos se mostraron ayer preocupados p
13	vos de seguridad con el retorno del Ejército británico a las calles de Belfast. Salvo e
14	a una decisión de Jack Straw, el ministro británico del Interior, que consideró que
15	una crisis profunda". "Tanto el Gobierno británico como la dirección del Partido Un
16	unes es uno de los organismos del Parlamento británico donde se proponen y debaten dife
17	Congreso de la Confederación de Sindicatos británicos votó ayer abrumadoramente a fav
18	os puntales de extremada tensión, las tropas británicas estaban en sus cuarteles desde
19	bido «crímenes de guerra», según un diputado británico que visitó la zona rusa atrapada

1	aback at the arrival at Drumcree of loyalist leader Johnny Adair, who brought with him
2	rom angry Britons. William Hague, the Tory leader, said 206,000 manufacturing jobs ha
3	y and "centralise" its structure, the Labour leader told delegates at the TUC conferenc
4	the Sinn Fein president, and David Trimble, leader of the Ulster Unionist, emerged grim
5	al gesture by the IRA to enable the unionist leader David Trimble to claim some kind of

6	33 people died. Another is reputed to be the leader of the Orange Volunteers, responsib
7	lence, again pointing out that the Sinn Fein leader, Gerry Adams, never did. But he did
8	outcome is a personal victory for UUP party leader David Trimble, who had threatened t
9	nd Office, the SDLP member Brid Rodgers, her leader, John Hume, and even the ecumenical
10	dicating the stance of Ulster Unionist party leader David Trimble, who went into govern
11	symbolic defeat at the hands of the miner's leader Arthur Scargill last week when the L
12	et been able to persuade John Taylor, deputy leader of the parliamentary party, to back

The search expression *británic** highlights many productive translations: "primer ministro británico, Tony Blair" (Tony Blair), "Nuevo Laborismo británico" (New Labour), "ministro británico para Irlanda del Norte" (Secretary of State for Northern Ireland), "diputado británico" (MP), "Confederación de Sindicatos británicos" (Trade Union Congress). It also illustrates the Spanish ortotypographical conventions prescribing the use of capital letters in "Gobierno británico" when referring to the executive. As to *leader*, it triggers many references to political parties.

Moreover, some forms of address (i.e. Mr, Lord) and quotation marks co-occur with references to professions and organizations, as can be seen in (3). The concordances selected show that translations into Spanish omit the forms of address except for the title of Lord. We can also see a wrong translation for "Science minister", which should not be translated using a cognate (ministro de Ciencia). The word "minister" used in a British context is a false friend of the Spanish "ministro", and in many cases "secretario de Estado" or "un alto cargo del Ministerio de Ciencia" may act as functional equivalents.

The linguistic context around the end quotation mark puts forward differences in the conventions used in English and Spanish, not only in the position of the comma but also in the great variety of verbs of speech used in the Spanish press as opposed to publications in English.

(3)

SEARCH STRUCTURES: FORMS OF ADDRESS AND QUOTATIONS (DIRECT SPEECH) TO:	
TO: • Mr, Mrs, Ms, Lord, Dr, QC, prof • ,"	TT: • Lord, Dr, prof, D. • ",

1	g of whole people will also remain banned. Lord Sainsbury, the Science Minister with re
2	s proper salaries." The science minister Lord Sainsbury of Turville said: "Fifty key
3	después de que el responsable de Ciencia, Lord Sainsbury, admitiera en una entrevista
4	algún mal. Al conocer las declaraciones de Lord Salisbury, grupos religiosos y de defen
5	n a anunciar su posición hasta septiembre, Lord Salisbury adelantó que los ministros de
6	ña después de que el ministro de Ciencias, Lord Salisbury, admitiera en una entrevista
7	cer for the commando corps of British Adm. Lord Louis Mountbatten, uncle to Prince Phil
8	iones para contrastarlas con la opinión de Lord Alton y los grupos religiosos, por eso
9	ufrimiento entre la población civil. Ayer, lord Judd, el jefe británico de una delegaci
10	Russian military," said delegation leader Lord Judd. Western nations have expressed c
11	human life for the purposes of cloning.' Lord Alton, the pro-life peer, has described
12	h touched many people around the world." Lord St John of Fawsley, her friend for 40 y

1	ious if this will be Al Gore's last stand as well," said Bush spokesman Dan Bartlett.
2	Nd well-being of all those who have been detained." Mr Annan said. The corpses believ
3	lice and the ambulance crews are dazed with shock," he said. Confirming that seven pe
4	break up the crowd and it actually was tear gas," Mr Ramsey said. "It did disperse
5	lly have become more violent since the ceasefires," Jim McDaid told the National Ass

1	elo en los 7.000 años próximos puede ser inevitable", afirma el profesor Howard Conw
2	se halla sólo a 75 kilómetros". "Eso está muy lejos", replicó el embajador. Era la úl
3	artes no pueden llegar a un acuerdo en esta ocasión", decía un escueto comunicado del
4	le una respuesta directa a menos que me la pregunte", añadió. "Utilizo palabras como
5	orense "siempre ha apoyado a la UE sin ninguna duda", por lo que le definió como "un
6	condiciones de llegar a un acuerdo en este momento", ha asegurado Crowley.
7	Cosas iban a ser políticamente difíciles de aceptar", afirmó el responsable comunitar
8	S no podemos decir a los Estados cómo deben hacerlo", advirtieron desde la Comisión.
9	Imas semanas vamos a trabajar en ponerlo todo junto", explicó. "Esto se supone que pe
10	Toda Europa a convertirse en una generación perdida", dijo el profesor Philip James,
11	Opeo basta para convertirle a uno en un anti alemán", argumentó Chevènement. El ex pr
12	Fein responsabiliza a Mandelson de la "peor crisis", según palabras de Adams, que at
13	estará al frente. "Va a haber un cambio de guardia", manifiestan las fuentes consult
14	"No creemos que vaya a salir algo nuevo de allí", admitieron las fuentes, "en est
15	tarán inferiores al objetivo establecido por el BCE", destacó el portavoz de Bruselas
16	ra siempre en Alemania. Me veo viviendo en Londres", comentó el director ejecutivo d
17	n figuras internacionales extremadamente respetadas", defendió el ministro británico
18	republicana y sus autores están hoy en el Gobierno", señaló David Jones, portavoz de
19	tuguesas islas Azores, "no se tomó ninguna decisión", puntualizó el jefe de la diplom
20	abría problemas. Contra los niños no tenemos nada", manifiesta Meimaj. Doce meses d
21	ast. "El Acuerdo de Viernes Santo está hecho trizas", denunció el presidente del Sinn
22	jico a manejar una silla de ruedas, si no a caminar", declaró Merger, según una cita
23	iles. "Aquí todo el mundo viene a ver a esta gente", se queja el jefe de MSF, "es
24	ra siempre en Alemania. Me veo viviendo en Londres", comentó el director ejecutivo
25	e la cumbre: "Se han logrado avances significativos", insistía Clinton con tono res

Once students are familiar with a methodology that combines the use of traditional reference works with the exploitation of corpora, they have to choose 15 translation problems. For each problem, they have to think about possible translation strategies, extract concordances and specify the following information:

1. Entry term posing a translation problem
2. Definition and source of definition
3. Paragraph containing the term
4. Translation of the paragraph: the one you found and/or your own proposal from the comparable texts of your choice
5. Comment about the translation problem and its solution, for example, the way a Spanish newspaper has translated a cultural reference, different denominations for the same reference, translation inconsistencies related / unrelated to stylistic reasons, cases of explicitation, omission of information…

4. Conclusions

In this paper we have described an activity designed to foster learning autonomy in the translation classroom by using corpora. We have focused on

the identification and translation into Spanish of British and North American cultural references. This type of activity has the following advantages for students, researchers and teachers of Translation:

- It contributes to the learning of cultural references and illustrates the strategies used by journalists in the translation of cultural references with special emphasis on explicitation, functional translation and paraphrase. It is also of help for the learning of formal conventions.
- It increases the motivation of pupils, who choose the subject.
- It is a preparation for specialised translation, since some newspaper articles contain specialized vocabulary.
- It increases students' ability in terms of documentation skills and makes using new technologies easier.

Newspaper corpora provide an enormous variety of examples of translation even if journalists are not professional translators. Journalists are often good writers who have an important social influence, and if their translations are seen under a critical perspective, they can shed light on the nature of the translation process and of the most frequent translation strategies. When cultural references and their translation are extracted with the right search structure, they help students become aware of the manner and the extent to which information is added in the translation of cultural references. In any case, they realize that any decision depends to a great extent on the expected reader, the main translation strategy adopted and the translator's knowledge.

Notes

[1] This research was carried out within the framework of ONCOTERM (PB98-1342), funded by the Spanish Ministry of Education.

[2] In fact, newspapers contain a great amount of translated material such as translated statements of foreign figures and celebrities, reports from news agencies, etc.

[3] For a review of these, see Mayoral (2000).

[4] We mostly visit the following sites: *Departamento de Español Urgente de la Agencia EFE* (http://www.efe.es), *Centro Virtual Cervantes* (http://cvc.cervantes.es) and *Página del Idioma Español* (http://www.el-castellano.com).

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A translation corpus as a resource for translators: the case of English and German prepositions[1]

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Abstract. This contribution uses an English - German Translation Corpus as a database for translations. It demonstrates how such a database can be used for translations by giving translators guidelines and examples when they have to choose between various expressions. It analyses the variation of English local prepositions and their German equivalents by distinguishing between original, extended, figurative and idiomatic usages. The presentation also shows that although German and English are closely related languages their use of prepositions varies a lot in detail. Thus a new form of "dictionary" on the Internet, where general rules on using English prepositions are combined with concrete contrastive examples, can be useful.

1. Introduction

The objective of this presentation is to demonstrate how a translation corpus can be used by translators and in translator training as a resource, parallel and in addition to a dictionary and a thesaurus. This has developed from a tradition well-known in translation training, the study of parallel texts, which enables translators to see how similar meanings were expressed in texts serving similar functions. This is why translation corpora are sometimes called parallel corpora (e.g. in McEnery/Wilson [1] 1999>2001); we would like to keep the term parallel corpora for (the wider) text collections with similar functions and call (the more narrow) collections that consist of real (professionally) translated texts translation corpora explicitly.

We would like to show that a translation corpus can serve as a basis for an empirical pre-translation analysis of prepositions even in the two closely related languages German and English, where "automatic" translations by humans or machines have failed because correspondences are not as simple as one might assume and idiomaticity is central to naturallanguage - as opposed to translationese (cf. Schmied/Schäffler 1996 and 1997). In

particular, language service providers in the widest sense, especially translators or writers that do not have English as their mother-tongue, e.g. Germans, will appreciate a database that gives them sample cases "at the push of a button" and summaries of usage on such an empirical basis.

2. The English - German translation corpus as a basis for analysis

The English – German translation corpus has basically two functions (cf. Schmied 1994): On the one hand it is a research tool, which helps students and linguists to find out about specific (contrastive) constructions; on the other, it is a service tool for language service providers, translators in the widest sense. In order to understand its scope and limitations a few basic facts have to be borne in mind.

The Chemnitz corpus is projected to contain over 2 million words, over one million words of which have been computerised to date (this is why we call our database a subcorpus in some quantitative analyses below). Core corpus parameters include British English, written and non-literary, with the texts ranging from academic textbooks from various domains (e.g. history, philosophy, the arts, economics and physics) to publications by the European Community/Union and a selection of tourist brochures.

The analysis of bilingual corpora and its use by translators (cf. McEnery/Wilson[2] 1999, Johansson/Hofland 1994 or Baker 1995) is facilitated by modern retrieval programs that allow the parallel scrolling of two aligned texts in two windows, such as the new Windows-based version of Word Cruncher. For the web-based version of our English - German translation corpus a specific robust retrieval system was developed (Gorlow et al. 2001), which enables the user to make a choice of simple strings or string combinations in the L1 and the L2 corpus or in selected text types only (Fig. 1). The search for a string (with options and wildcards), word or construction, in one language automatically shows its rendering in translation; comparing such translations of the same structure gives the user an impression of variable options, where these are possible. Depending on the statistical options included, general conclusions on the co- and context, e.g. the distributions across text types, can be drawn directly "from the screen"; an additional statistical-analysis program can be subsequently applied. In any case, interactive computer-aided comparison can make (attempts at) comparative analyses more entertaining and inspire the translator to look for non-prototypical solutions for translation problems.

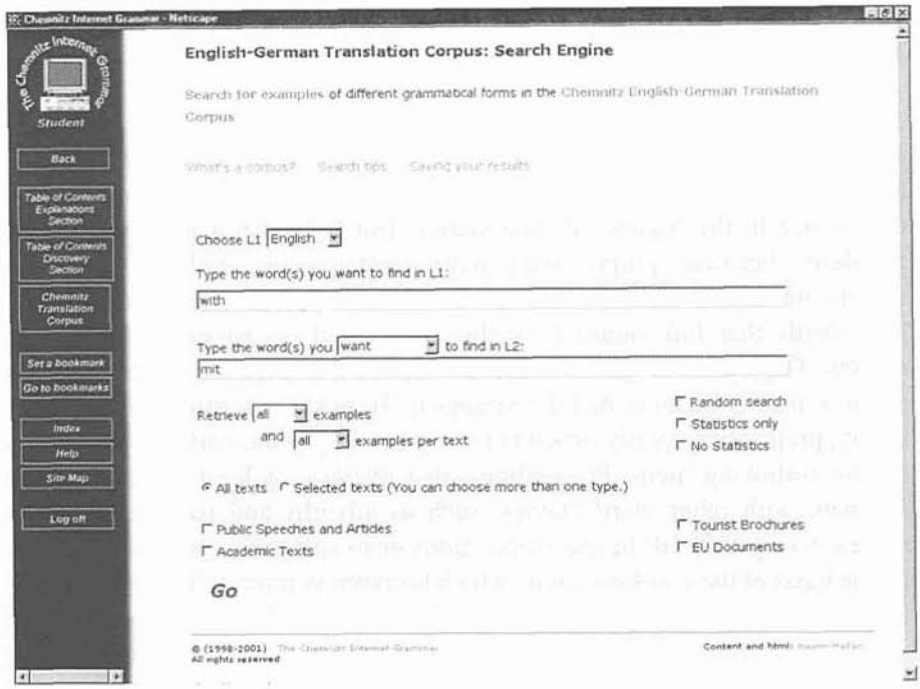

Fig. 1: Query form for the search engine of the English - German translation corpus

Since even a multimillion-word corpus is only a weak reflection of language reality, the occurrence of prepositions in our corpus has to be compared with other reference corpora. Table 1 compares the LOB corpus (Hofland/Johansson 1990: Vol. I: 19) and our normalised translation corpus and demonstrates that the distribution of the most frequent prepositions is similar[3]. Thus our database seems suitable for comparative analyses, at least for phenomena as frequent as simple prepositions.

Frequency	LOB	translation subcorpus
of	35716	41877
to	26760	31050
in	21108	20646
for	9299	9540
with	7197	6696
on	7027	6615
at	6043	4887
by	5796	4833
from	4686	4770

Table 1: Occurrences of prepositions in 1 million words: LOB Corpus and our normalised English - German translation subcorpus in comparison

3. Prepositions as a special borderline case between the lexicon and grammar

Prepositions are a notoriously difficult field for language users in general. This is partly due to the practical problem of reference works, i.e. prepositions are not really presented in an appropriate system in the traditional grammar books, nor in the traditional dictionaries. But it is also a more theoretical problem, because prepositions have syntactic as well as semantic specifications that are unique to them. Of course, prepositions are syntactic link words that link nouns to verbs, nouns and occasionally other word classes. The choice of prepositions, however, often depends on the meaning of the syntactic element that determines it. To put it in terms of dependency theory, prepositions partly depend on the preceding noun, verb, etc. and partly on the following noun. Prepositions also overlap, at least in English and German, with other word classes, such as adverbs and particles. All this makes it very difficult to use prepositions or to categorise prepositions only on the basis of their surface value, which is common practice in simple corpus linguistics analyses or automatic translations. For the more sophisticated semantically based corpus analysis and idiomatic translations we would need semantically tagged corpora; but they are not available, since there are no generally acknowledged simple tools that can do the job automatically with a sufficiently high accuracy, and experienced linguistic labour is usually too scarce to go through millions of words "manually". Thus the tagging for a corpus-based analysis of prepositions in a German - English translation corpus can, for instance, only be problem-oriented; but for that a specific tagging system would have to be developed first, possibly on the basis of a quantitative analysis as suggested below.

4. The general analysis of prepositions in German and English

Since prepositions are among the most common words in Germanic languages, the database for an analysis of prepositions is usually extremely good. In a contrastive list of the most common words in our translation corpus (e.g. with Wordsmith) we find *of* in 2nd, *to* in 4th, *in* in 5th, *for* in 9th and *with* in 13th position. In the German wordlist *in* is 4th, *zu* 6th, *von* 8th, *auf* 11th, *mit* 15th and *für* 21st. This comparison shows that generally the prepositions occupy similar positions in the frequency hierarchy[3]. But there are also a few differences between the position of equivalents, for instance *of* and *for* in English are more common and thus seem to have more functions than *von* and *für* in German. Some prepositions are relatively similar in their status in the hierarchy, such as *in* and *with*. It must, however, be emphasised again that this analysis is only based on purely formal surface parallels. A more detailed

analysis of the actual usage, which is only possible with a good compatible database like our translation corpus, reveals some interesting divergence, for instance, in the behaviour of English and German *in* and English *with* and German *mit* (cf. Schmied 1998).

A rough comparison of the English prepositions *in*, *from*, *with*, *at* and *by* German equivalents (*in*, *von*, *mit*, *an* and *bei*, respectively) shows a surprisingly small overlap, especially for *at* and *by* (Table 2). Here we have to consider not only morphological variants (like *am* or *beim*), but also the fact that semantically related prepositions like *auf* or *durch/von* are used for many of the functions of *at* and *by* in English (in brackets). Even then the direct equivalents cover only between 40 and 60 per cent.

	English	German		per cent
at	2714	*an(am/auf)*	1109	13,7 (40,9)
by	3666	*bei(durch/von)*	2221	7,9 (60,6)
from	3083	*von*	1580	51,2
in	12273	*in*	6745	55
with	3745	*mit*	2105	56,2

Table 2: English prepositions and their German equivalents

5. Original, extended, figurative and idiomatic usage

The following presentation starts from the assumption that the most frequent English prepositions have their origin in their local meaning, indicated in the following figures as PLACE, with subdivisions in one to three dimensions like POINT, LINE, SURFACE, AREA, VOLUME or DIRECTION, which is then further extended into the fourth dimension TIME. These meanings are usually seen as prototypical and constitute the basis of the discussion of the semantics of English prepositions in grammar (e.g. Downing/Locke 1992, Leech/Svartvik ²1994 or Quirk/Greenbaum/Leech/Svartvik1985). Thus we see the local/temporal meanings as prototypical at one end of a spectrum, idiomatic expressions[4] as exceptions at the other. The "meaning" of a preposition in English is often determined by the cotext, mainly by the preceding verb, noun or adjective or on the following noun, so that is has to be learnt as a relatively fixed collocation by foreign language learners. These lexicon-specific meanings will be grouped under the heading LEXICON. In modern dictionaries of the

English language such additional, lexicon-specific senses are usually listed after examples illustrating the prototypical and figurative meanings.

This study focuses on the language user, e.g. a translator, and on how information on prepositional usage has to be presented to him to ensure a wide choice of options and an efficient selection process. When German users read the detailed explanations for prepositions in dictionaries (but also in many web-based grammar explanations), they "learn" very little because a lot of the basic and original meanings are listed and explained with examples that are intuitively well-known to Germans from their mother tongue. This is not surprising, since German and English are closely related and the cognitive systems of prepositions have not diverged greatly in the past 2000 years (cf. above). Thus, German learners often assume that all their problems with prepositions are based on "idiomaticity" and think "you just have to learn it by heart" and German translators assume that they have to find an instance with exactly the same lexemes in context. But, as will be shown below, many such usages can be explained, independently of individual cases, and therefore they are not really "irregular" and "singular". In a category between prototypes and idiomaticity, which we call "figurative TRANSFER", we will put together semantically related cases, which often exhibit interesting metaphorical shifts from the original but are not lexicon-specific. Categories and labels for these multiple cases could be selected from the case grammar categories developed since Fillmore's "case" or one could try to harmonise the definitions in standard dictionaries. We have followed the latter path.

The meanings for the English preposition *from*, which looks so similar to the German *von*, have been taken from the standard dictionaries used in Germany (e.g. ALD or CIDE as a monolingual or Langenscheidt *Handwörterbuch* as a bilingual reference work). . These dictionaries follow the traditional route of explaining more prototypical, local and temporal usages first, before moving on to more figurative usages.

Thus, our presentation of prepositional usage combines a deductive and an inductive approach: the categories are first established from the dictionaries and then verified and exemplified by data from our translation corpus.

6. Presenting prepositional usage in a hypertext system

The following diagram of the preposition *in* (Fig. 2) illustrates the extent to which the prepositions have developed further and further away from the basic local meaning. Here a plus sign (+) indicates the occurrence and a minus (-) the non-occurrence of a German equivalent. Of course, these indications of partly overlapping structures are only tentative and their validity will have

to be proven in a large quantitative analysis. In a hypertext format the corpus examples and the explanations can be made visible by clicking on the diagram presented, thus an overview of all the sample cases can always be gained by returning to the diagram "surface".

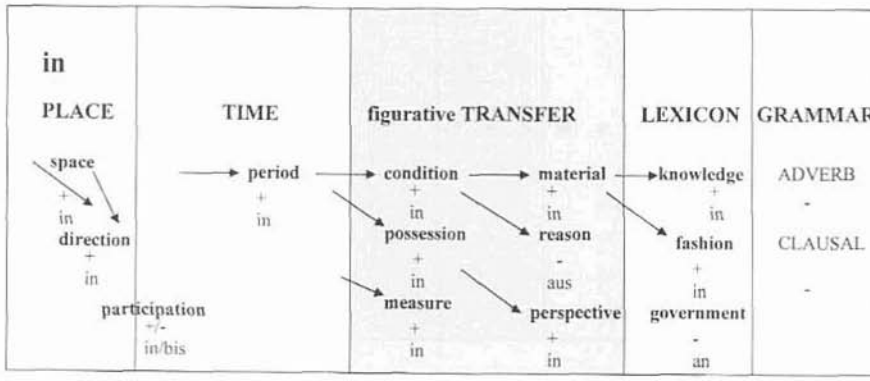

Fig. 2: Prototypical, figurative and idiomatic usages of *in* with their German translation equivalents

Of course, the system developed using the preposition *in* can be expanded to other prepositions of local origin (Figs. 3 – 6).

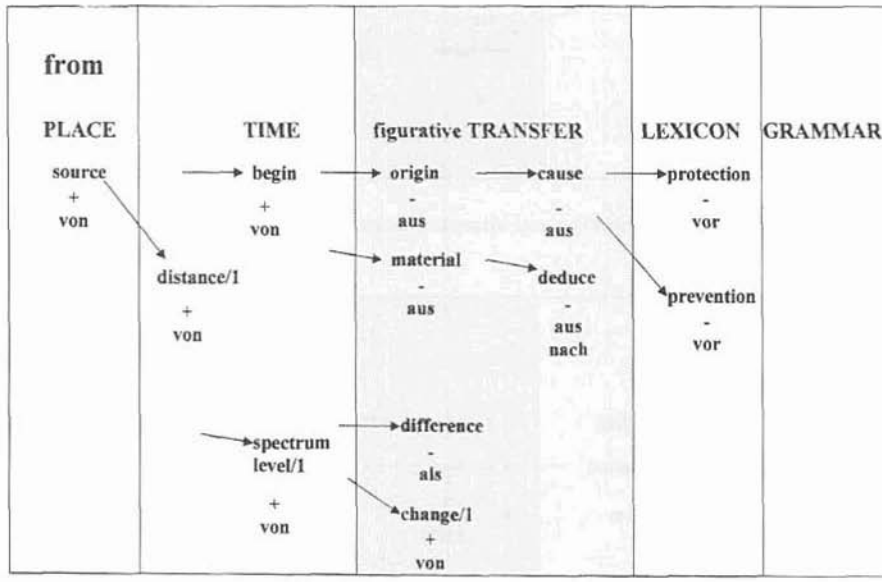

Fig. 3: Prototypical, figurative and idiomatic usages of *from* with their German translation equivalents

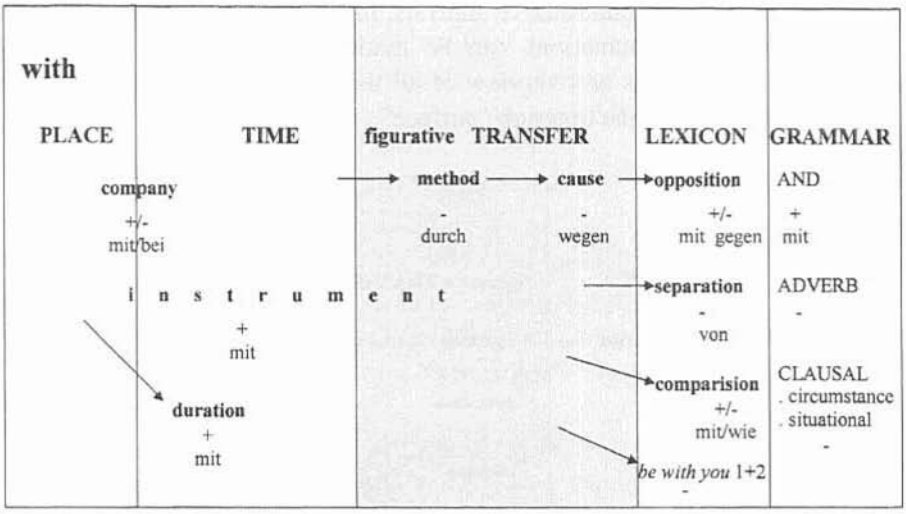

Fig. 4: Prototypical, figurative and idiomatic usages of *with* with their German translation equivalents

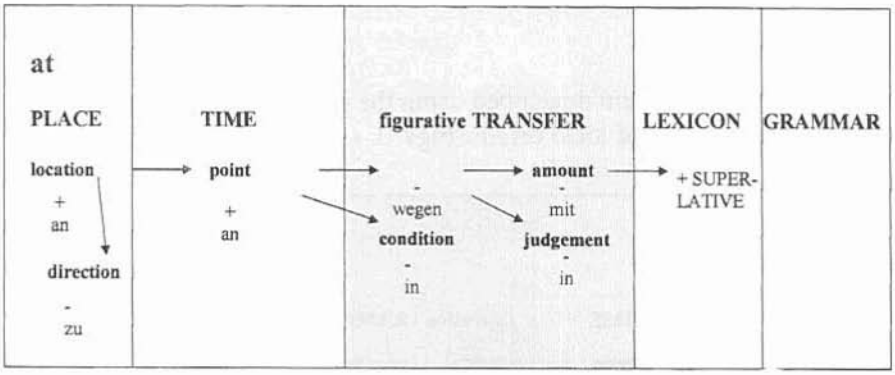

Fig. 5: Prototypical, figurative and idiomatic usages of *at* with their German translation equivalents

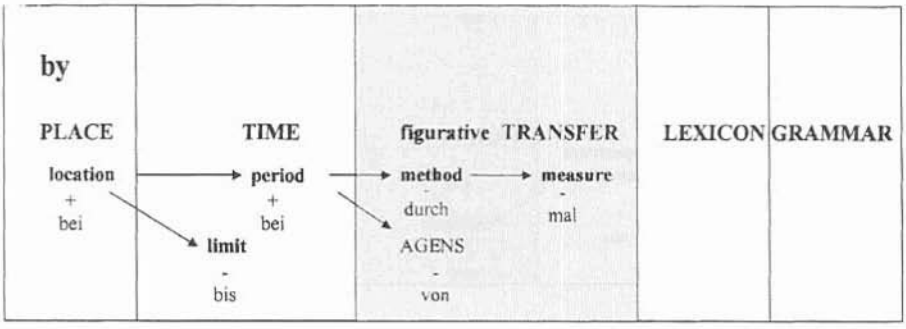

Fig. 6: Prototypical, figurative and idiomatic usages of *by* with their German translation equivalents

All these diagrams indicate to what extent the transfer of the German equivalents (*in, von, mit, an* and *bei*, respectively) is possible. They emphasise a grey area between the original meanings that can be looked up in grammars and the idiomatic lexicon-related meanings that can be found in dictionaries. This transfer area is of particular interest for two reasons:

- these meanings occur frequently enough to justify a specific entry and
- they can be deduced from the original meanings, as is indicated by the arrows in the diagrams.

They constitute a problem area, however, since the transfer is not "logically" one-directional. For instance it does, , not only occur with the local meaning of *from* but also of *with* (as in *with rage/anger*). To make matters worse, at least for the German translator into English, their mother tongue is more consistent here, using *aus* in both cases.

7. Use and non-use of prepositions as translators' choices

When you look at the actual usage of prepositions it is clear that the temporal and local usages constitute, as expected, the vast majority of examples, but prepositions are so common that other cases can be found in relatively few texts. Thus "exceptions" where, for instance, English *in* is not translated by German *in* are numerous and can be classified in various ways also on a syntactic or functional basis. The following list is based on the first few different such occurrences in one EU document (adverbials like *in addition* and *in particular* occurred several times - see concrete examples in the appendix):

- phrasal/prepositional verbs —> PREPOSITIONS integrated in full verb (e.g. 1, 8, 12, 13, 22)
- postmodifying noun phrases —> rendered differently
- as genitive or compound (e.g. 2, 3, 18, 21, 25)
- premodifying ADJECTIVES (e.g. 7)
- noun/verb phrases —> with other PREPOSITIONS (e.g. 4, 5, 10, 14, 15, 17, 20, 26)
- adverbials —> no prepositions
- short idiomatic adverbials —> adverbs (e.g. 9, 19)
- general noun phrases —> same form adverbs (e.g. 6, 16, 27)
- general noun phrases —> non-prepositional noun phrase (e.g. 11, 24)

Of course, there are a few other options, like complex prepositions that can be reduced (e.g. 23), and the subclassification could be changed, but the categorisation above highlights inter- as well as intralinguistic option for, although the typological system may be similar, the "normal" choices can be quite different. Thus apart from the, surprisingly few, cases where simply

different prepositions have to be chosen, the language user, including translators, has certain options depending on the functions that prepositional phrases can play:

- phrasal, and less often prepositional, verbs, a typical feature of English, can be rendered as normal verbs where the semantic content of the preposition is fully integrated in the main verb,
- prepositional postmodifying noun phrases can be integrated into the preceding noun phrase as a compound, rendered as a postmodifying genitive or, occasionally as a premodification, an adjective,
- prepositional adverbial complements often take the form of simple adverbs in the case of short idiomatic expressions (like *in addition, in particular* as *additionally, particularly*) and some others (like *in the community* as *community-wide*), but there are also other nominal expressions.

Such structural options would be easiest to see in a translation corpus that is part-of-speech tagged, but as long as this is not available a list of non-prototypical choices might be equally inspiring for a linguistically minded language user.

8. Outlook

In this contribution I have tried to illustrate the major areas of differences, particularly the possibilities of figurative meaning of English prepositions; this system goes beyond the usual list of "idiomatic expressions". Although other scholars (e.g. Radden 1989) have pointed out the "expansion of local prepositions", the graphic representation with underlying examples is a unique feature of our contrastive approach

Further work will have to be undertaken to corroborate the proposed system. A quantitative analysis will be undertaken in two ways: first, to determine where the borderline between regular transfer and lexeme-specific idiomatic expressions lies, and secondly, to show clusters of meanings in the transfer categories. Generally, the use of a translation corpus as a tool in language analysis and language learning has proved useful and we intend to continue until we can assemble a thorough qualitative and quantitative comparative treatment of English and German prepositions.

Notes

[1] The English - German translation corpus is part of the Internet Grammar of English that has been constructed at Chemnitz since 1998. I wish to thank

my collaborators Diana Hudson-Ettle, Naomi Hallan, Ellen Gorlow and Christoph Haase for many discussions and the German Research Assiciation (DFG) for the necessary funding. An introduction to the project is given in Schmied 1999, technical details are available on-line in Gorlow et al. 2001.

[2] The table also raises questions as to why certain prepositions are under- (*at* or *with*) and others overused (*of* or *to*) in our corpus. Interestingly, the latter are the two prepositions with grammatical functions, *of* covers most functions of the traditional "genitive" and *to* serves as the infinitive marker in English.

[3] Differences are mainly caused by the morphological endings of German articles, so that *die, der, das, den* etc. are separate entries in the German list whereas *the* is only one entry in the English list.

[4] If prepositional phrases are idiomatic in the sense that the composite meaning cannot be deduced easily, as in *be with s.o.* 1. stay in s.o.'s house 2. understand, they are clearly marked as IDM or even entered in separate lexical entries in modern learner dictionaries.

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Appendix:

Equivalents of English *in* constructions without *in* in German in one EU document (*European Social Policy. Options for the Union*. Bruxelles: Commission of the European Communities, 1993).

(1) This is reflected *in* the fear that the creation of a single market could open the way to a form of social dumping, that is the gaining of unfair competitive advantage within the Community through unacceptably low social standards.

So wird die Besorgnis geäußert, der Binnenmarkt könne Wegbereiter für ein Sozialdumping sein, das es ermögliche, sich mit unfairen Mitteln - nämlich durch inakzeptabel niedrige soziale Standards - einen Wettbewerbsvorteil innerhalb der Gemeinschaft zu verschaffen.

(2) But there is also a concern that, somehow, the imperative of action at European level can become a pretext for changes *in* social standards at national level.
Darüber hinaus wird befürchtet, die Notwendigkeit eines Tätigwerdens auf europäischer Ebene könne als Vorwand für eine Änderung der nationalen sozialen Standards benutzt werden.

(3) The premise at the heart of this Green Paper is that the next phase *in* the development of European social policy cannot be based on the idea that social progress must go into retreat in order for economic competitiveness to recover.
Diesem Grünbuch liegt die Prämisse zugrunde, daß die nächste Entwicklungsphase der europäischen Sozialpolitik nicht im Zeichen des Sozialabbaus zur Wiederherstellung der wirtschaftlichen Wettbewerbsfähigkeit stehen kann.

(4) *In* current conditions this will not be easy.
Unter den heutigen Gegebenheiten ist dies keine leichte Aufgabe.

(5) Only *in* this way will sustainable growth, social solidarity and public confidence be restored.
Nur auf diesem Wege können ein dauerhaftes und umweltverträgliches Wachstum, gesellschaftliche Solidarität und das Vertrauen der Öffentlichkeit wiederhergestellt werden.

(6) Legislation has, therefore, been only one of a number of tools at the disposal of Community social policy and is too often considered *in* isolation.
Rechtsetzungsinitiativen waren somit nur eines von vielen Mitteln zur Gestaltung der gemeinsamen Sozialpolitik. Allzuoft werden sie isoliert betrachtet.

(7) Legislation itself can be used in various ways; only rarely has it been used to prescribe certain specific actions *in* the social policy sphere.
Rechtsakte können auf unterschiedliche Weise eingesetzt werden; nur selten dienen sie dazu, konkrete sozialpolitische Maßnahmen verbindlich festzulegen.

(8) Legal provisions have been put *in* place over a long period.
Rechtsvorschriften werden schon seit langem erlassen.

(9) Other legislation concerning the protection of workers and labour law has been significant *in* particular for preventing risks of social dumping, even if number of major pieces of proposed legislation have yet to be finalized.
Weitere Rechtsakte, die den Schutz der Arbeitnehmer und das Arbeitsrecht betreffen, waren insbesondere bei der Abwendung der Gefahren des Sozialdumpings von Bedeutung, auch wenn eine Reihe wesentlicher Regelungen noch aussteht.

(10) Details of the scope and content of Community legislation are to be found *in* Annex II.
Umfang und Inhalt des Gemeinschaftsrechts auf diesem Gebiet sind aus Anhang II ersichtlich.

(11) The Charter as such was a new point of departure for the Community - not only *in* operational terms but also as a political signal.
Mit der Sozialcharta setzte die Gemeinschaft eine neue Wegmarke, die nicht nur die laufende Tätigkeit betraf, sondern auch als politisches Signal gedacht war.

(12) (iv) reducing disparities between Member States without interfering *in* the comparative advantage of the less-developed regions.
(iv) die Verringerung der zwischen den Mitgliedstaaten bestehenden Unterschiede, wobei komparative Vorteile der weniger entwickelten Regionen nicht gefährdet werden sollten.

(13) Details of the progress of individual initiatives are set out *in* Annex III.
Einzelheiten zum Verlauf der entsprechenden Initiativen sind Anhang III zu entnehmen.

(14) *In* each initiative a balance was sought and achieved.
Bei jeder Initiative wurde ein Interessenausgleich gesucht und gefunden.

(15) ... , which is the prime aim of competition *in* the internal market.
...- dem eigentlichen Sinn des Wettbewerbs auf dem Binnenmarkt beizutragen.

(16) During the period 1989-93 the ESF devoted more than ECU 21 billion to these activities, benefiting around 17 million people *in* the Community.
Im Zeitraum 1989-1993 stellte der ESF über 21 Mrd. ECU für derartige Maßnahmen bereit, die gemeinschaftsweit etwa 17 Millionen Menschen zugute kamen.

(17) There is an explicit commitment that the principle of equal opportunities for women and men should be respected *in* the implementation of actions financed by the ESF.
Es besteht die ausdrückliche Verpflichtung, bei der Verwirklichung von Maßnahmen, die über den ESF finanziert werden, den Grundsatz der Chancengleichheit von Frauen und Männern einzuhalten.

(18) A new Objective 4 has been created which aims to facilitate the adaptation of workers to industrial change and changes *in* production systems.
Es wurde ein neues Ziel Nr. 4 formuliert, das die Anpassung der Arbeitnehmer an die industriellen Wandlungsprozesse und an Veränderungen der Produktionssysteme erleichtern soll.

(19) Moreover, *in* addition to continuing its focus on young people and the long-term unemployed, ESF support under Objective 3 has been extended to cover those exposed to long-term unemployment and exclusion from the labour market.
Als zusätzliche Aufgabe neben der beruflichen Eingliederung von Jugendlichen und Langzeitarbeitlosen kommt im Rahmen des Ziels Nr. 3 die Förderung von aus dem Arbeitsmarkt ausgegrenzten Personen hinzu.

(20) *In* response to social and economic change and to common challenges facing Member States, a number of programmes and exchanges have been developed.
Als Antwort auf die sozialen und wirtschaftlichen Veränderungen und die gemeinsamen Herausforderungen, denen sich die Mitgliedstaaten gegenübersehen, wurde eine Reihe von Programmen und Austauschmaßnahmen konzipiert.

(21) These are good examples of the combining of instruments *in* social policy.
Sie sind gelungene Beispiele für den kombinierten Einsatz sozialpolitischer Instrumente.

(22) ... they are based on the same approach, one *in* which the Community added value is clearly identifiable.
... beruhen sie auf dem gleichen Ansatz, der die Vorteile gemeinschaftlichen Vorgehens deutlich erkennen läßt.

(23) *In* parallel with legal provisions and complementary to them, the development of social dialogue between employers and unions is a major feature of the evolution of European social policy.
Die Entwicklung des sozialen Dialogs zwischen Arbeitgebern und Gewerkschaften ist ein wichtiges Merkmal der Entwicklung der europäischen Sozialpolitik, das den Rechtsetzungsprozeß begleitet und ergänzt.

(24) What follows is an attempt to identify, *in* a synthetic and concise way, the major trends and challenges for Europe.
Im folgenden wird der Versuch unternommen, einen kurzen Überblick über die wichtigsten Entwicklungstendenzen zu geben und aufzuzeigen, welchen Herausforderungen sich Europa gegenübersieht.

(25) Pressure is being felt in many areas: demography, family structure, new technology, relations *in* the workplace, tax and the distribution of income, etc.
In vielen Bereichen ist ein gewisser Druck zu verspüren. Dies gilt für die demographische Entwicklung, die Struktur der Familie, die neuen Technologien, die Arbeitsbeziehungen, die Steuersysteme, die Einkommensverteilung usw.

(26) Economic and social considerations are inextricably linked *in* this analysis.
Wirtschaftliche und soziale Erwägungen sind bei dieser Analyse untrennbar miteinander verbunden.

(27) Many but by no means all, of the issues require public intervention but social policy depends *in* the last resort on the active commitment and participation of everyone concerned: public authorities, social partners, special interest groups and voluntary bodies and, of course, individuals
Viele - aber keineswegs alle - der angesprochenen Probleme erfordern zwar ein Eingreifen des Staates, letztendlich ist die Sozialpolitik jedoch darauf angewiesen, daß alle Beteiligten sich engagieren und mitmachen: Behörden, Sozialpartner, spezielle Interessengruppen, gemeinnützige Einrichtungen - und selbstverständlich auch Einzelpersonen.

DIY corpora: the WWW and the translator

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Abstract. The WWW is the single largest existing repository of electronic texts, and has recently attracted the attention of researchers involved in translator training as a suitable source of texts for the creation of "disposable corpora". These are small, specialized corpora created ad-hoc to serve the needs of the translator for a specific translation project, and their value lies not only in their analysis but even more so in their creation. This approach complements a number of studies which have been carried out on the use of small corpora for language learning and translator training, where the main focus is on methods and techniques for analysing texts already collected by the teacher. This paper presents an experiment which was carried out at the School for Translators and Interpreters of the University of Bologna in Forlì with third and fourth year translation students in the context of a course on computer assisted tools. Students were given a text to translate and asked to search the Internet, select suitable web pages in the target language, and download them on disk. In this way, while cyclically performing the translation and adding material to the corpus as the translation proceeds, they were able to familiarize themselves with the topic of the translation at hand, to select texts according to text type, to assess the reliability of text sources and evaluate the perspective readership. These DIY corpora were then browsed switching between a full text mode and a concordancing, and learners were able to tackle many translation problems related to specific terminology and phraseology..

1. Introduction

Traditionally, translators have used "parallel texts", i.e. collections of printed texts produced in similar communicative situations, as a way of checking text-typological conventions in the source and target languages. In the last few years information technology has brought about a completely new scenario. The availability of vast quantities of texts in many languages and on all kinds of subjects is a dream come true for translators as well as for all types of discourse professional, text processors and language services providers.

The WWW is the largest existing repository of texts. The number of

publicly accessible web pages has reached 2 to 4 billions (Fletcher 2001). The vast majority of these are in English (about 80% according to estimates), but the number of users whose first language is not English is increasing (Fletcher 2001), and the pages in languages other than English are increasing at a faster pace than pages in English. Table 1 gives an estimation of the growth of the main European languages between October 1996 and February 2000, sorted according to their rate of growth (which is shown in the last column).

For instance, while the number of words in Italian available on the web in February 2000 was eleven times larger that of October 1996, the number of words in English increased "only" by eight times.

With availability comes ease of access: A few clicks of the mouse are often worth several trips to the library or consultations with clients and colleagues. There is also the added bonus that electronic texts can be analysed through corpus linguistics techniques rather than just read sequentially, thereby uncovering linguistic information which would be otherwise very difficult to obtain.

	Millions of words (October 1996)	Millions of words (February 2000)	Growth factor
Spanish	104	1,894	18
German	229	3,333	15
French	223	2,732	12
Italian	124	1,338	11
Portuguese	106	1,161	11
Norwegian	106	947	9
Finnish	21	166	8
English	6, 082	48, 064	8

Recent research in translation studies has stressed the contribution which corpora of electronic texts can bring to translators. By using appropriate software translators can look up words in a matter of seconds, and highlight patterns by sorting contexts around search words. If a corpus is appropriately designed, it can provide reliable evidence of authentic linguistic behaviour and text-structuring conventions by highlighting recurrent patterns. Terminological and collocational information can be especially useful.

Experiments in the literature have reported the uses of bilingual corpora and monolingual corpora (Zanettin 1998, 2001; Bowker 1998, 2000; Pearson 1998; Gavioli and Zanettin 2000) as sources to compile term banks, and as aids during the translation task. One problem with these typically small and domain specific corpora is the limited range of topics and text types for which they are available. Recent work has concentrated on increasing this range and

availability, and a number of well crafted bi- or multilingual corpora, comparable and/or parallel, such as the English Norwegian Parallel Corpus (Johansson 1998), the COMPARA corpus (Frankenberg-Garcia this volume) and the CEXI corpus (Bernardini this volume) are complete or under way. Some work has also been done using large monolingual corpora such as the BNC (Stewart 2000, Bernardini 2001). These resources will certainly prove to be very useful. However, even the 100 million words BNC is ill-equipped to meet the needs of translators working with very specialised texts and confronted with specific terminology.

But now - for this - translators can turn to the web.

There are two sets of problems related to the use of the WWW documents as corpus material. The first concerns procedures for assessing relevance and reliability: Information is dispersed in the WWW through vast quantities of documents, and it is thus crucial for the translator to retrieve this information in the most efficient and effective way.

The second relates to strategies and techniques for searching electronic texts: Search engines provide access points to Internet documents either through lists generated by full text searches or by pre-selected lists organized by topic, and are thus catalogues rather than corpora.

The WWW is not a corpus, but it can be used as a corpus. Some search engines (e.g. Google.com, Copernic.com) display, next to document pointers (hyperlinks), a concordance-like context with the search word(s) highlighted. Some applications which, building on search engines, are designed more specifically for the needs of language professionals are also available on the web. WebCorp (Kilgarriff 2001) and KWICFinder (Fletcher 2001), [1] for instance, download and produce keyword in context abstracts of web pages which match the user's search criteria. KwiCFinder permits more targeted searches by using a number of restricting criteria and allows for the display of the output in a number of formats. These enhancements go a long way towards solving the problem of using the web as a suitable source of text-linguistic information, but they still do not solve the problems of the relevance and the reliability of the document abstracts retrieved. The Internet is full of a large number of ephemeral texts of dubious authorship and authority, and the relevance criteria of search engines are different from those of translators of specific texts (Fletcher 2001).

In this paper I would like to take another approach, which has been already explored by a number of researchers and trainers (e.g. Pearson 1998, Maia 2000, Varantola 2000, Bertaccini and Aston 2001) and look at the web as a source of texts for a DIY corpus.

A DIY web corpus can be characterized as follows:
- it is a collections of Internet documents, or more precisely of web pages in HTML.
- it is created ad hoc as a response to a specific text to be translated
- it is an open corpus. More material can be added as the need arises
- it is disposable (Varantola 2000) or virtual (Ahmad et al.1994). It is not destined to be part of a more permanent corpus, and can be disposed of as soon as the translation is completed. Copyright permissions are not required
- like "parallel texts" it can be either bilingual comparable or target monolingual.

In the following sections I report on an experiment with DIY corpora at the school for translators and interpreters of the University of Bologna at Forlì with a group of advanced translation students.

2. The experiment

This experiment was carried out within a course of CAT tools, which comprised a number of different modules and was designed as a general introduction to computer assisted translation, providing an overview of existing technologies available to professional translators such as terminology management systems and translation memory tools, and of resources such as online term banks, machine translation programmes, mailing lists for translators, etc. One module, of which this experiment was a part, was on "corpus management in translation", defined by Varantola (forthcoming) as "the knowledge and skills needed in the compilation and use of corpus information for individual translation assignments".

At the time of the experiment, which took place over two weeks in five two-hour sessions, the students had already been exposed to the use of various professional tools and online resources, and while not all of them were skilled Internet users, only one of them was a novice. They were also already familiar with the main features of WordSmith Tools (Scott 1996), the corpus analysis programme used in the experiment.

In preparation for the task students were given a brief survey of the tricks and treats of Internet Explorer and WordSmith Tools, and a task sheet was distributed with operational instructions and a set of quick reference guidelines. As regards the browser, for instance, students were instructed to take advantage of the "chronology" feature, which lists all visited documents in a side window together with their title and address and allows for off-line browsing. They were told to open documents in multiple windows and save

all relevant web pages in individual "corpus folders" on the hard disk of their computers, in order to use them as a corpus to be analysed with the concordancer. They were also given a list of some search engines (some international, e.g. Google.com, Altavista.com, Yahoo.com, and some Italian, e.g. Virgilio.it, Arianna.it, Kataweb.it). Those who translated into/from German, French or Spanish found language/area specific search engines.

Students where asked to engage in a real translation task, using a DIY corpus as a resource to help them translate either a text which they had as an assignment from another course or - for some of them - as a paid translation job. No restrictions were given as to source and target languages. Two additional texts (one in English, one in Italian) were provided for those who didn't have a better text handy.

The following are some of the texts which students translated
- an encyclopaedia article on prostate cancer, from English into Italian
- (part of) a textiles catalogue (web page), from Italian into Spanish
- (part of) a bicycle locks catalogue (web page), from Italian into English
- an article on earthquakes from a science magazine, from Italian into English
- a promotional leaflet on diamonds, from English into Italian

Students were encouraged to translate their text using a number of tools they were already familiar with, such as online terminology banks (e.g. Eurodicautom.eu, Logos.it), translator workbenches (e.g. Trados, Déjà Vu, WordFisher), electronic dictionaries (e.g. Babylon.com), etc. After setting up their workstation (opening the text editor/workbench, Internet browser and WordSmith Tools), they read the source text and started their translation. They also began to search the Web for suitable texts to include in their corpus and help them in the specific translation task. Some students chose to work alone, others worked in pairs or groups of three. The teacher acted as a facilitator, helping to solve problems. At the end of the experiment the students were asked to write a brief report on the benefits and shortcomings of creating and using a DIY web corpus as a translation resource.

A first step usually consisted in trying to get a better understanding of the source text. To this end, some students focused on unknown terminology, using paper and electronic dictionaries, term banks and other online resources. Online glossaries, usually found by searching for the word "glossary" along with words identifying the topic (e.g. "diamonds" or "prostate cancer") were reported to be especially useful. By checking for equivalents in source and target language glossaries students were able to identify some key terms to be used as key words for searching for relevant

corpus candidates. Other students started by looking at "Internet directories", i.e. lists of web sites organized into categories which are provided by "portals". A combination of the two techniques with the use of multiple search engines seemed the most useful strategy.

Students were free to choose the type and number of texts to download from the Internet and include in their corpus. They were advised to open all candidate documents, scanning them for content rather than for specific linguistic items, and save relevant pages in their corpus folder. After having found and saved a first group of texts, students used WordSmith Tools to analyse the corpus while proceeding with the translation. As the translation proceeded they added more material, refining searches according to their needs. The size of their corpora eventually varied between 10 and 50 texts, or 5,000 to 40,000 words.

The relevance of a document was usually decided after scanning the text for both verbal and visual clues, such as titles, layout and images. Decisions were taken at the level of overall content, text type, style and register. For instance, the student translating a catalogue of luxury textiles discarded a number of texts from the web site of a museum dealing with African traditional textiles and clothing; the student translating a bicycle locks catalogue discarded a newspaper article on urban safety.

As for reliability, students discarded bad translations (into which they sometimes ran by using tentative translation equivalents as search terms) and privileged texts produced by recognizable entities and authorities within the relevant discourse communities (experts, producers, public and private agencies and associations).

Finding useful web pages in the target language was also an exercise in audience design, giving a change to students to form an idea of the potential perspective readership of their translations.

Having created their corpus, they still had the problem of how to find the information they were looking for, but they could use the knowledge derived from their prior acquaintance of the texts to conduct searches around known equivalents or come up with informed hypotheses.

The corpus was mainly used for finding information on terminology, phraseology and collocations. For instance, after having established while constructing the corpus that an "antifurto per biciclette" is a "bicycle lock", it was easy for a student to get a list of different types of locks (cable lock, coiling cable lock, U-lock, disc lock, etc.) by sorting the output of a

concordance for "lock" according to the first word to the left. The student translating a scientific report on earthquakes learned that while in Italian both walls and buildings "crollano" in English buildings usually "collapse" while the word "wall/s" collocates more frequently with "fall/s". When looking for a translation for "cedimenti strutturali gravi" one student generated a concordance of "structural*" and quickly found that she could use the phrase "heavy structural damage".

When they were uncertain or presented with multiple translation candidates, students relied on frequency of occurrence as and indicator of reliability, stressing that since the texts in the corpus were carefully selected, it was unlikely that they would produce spurious examples.

Some students resorted to concordancing mainly while revising the translation. That is, they first wrote a draft of the translation while finding parallel Internet texts, then went through their text checking their hypotheses and intuition against the corpus with WordSmith Tools.

3. Benefits and problems

In their reports, many students noted the advantage of a corpus of electronic texts over more traditional reference material. While in paper dictionaries the information is usually buried in small-type heavy columns, web pages often contain images and other multimedia features which aid understanding. They stated that constructing the corpus was as useful as generating concordances from it, and that they often went back to view a web page in full after looking at concordance lines.

However, in line with similar observations made by both trainee and professional translators who participated in similar experiments (Varantola forthcoming, Jääskeläinen and Mauranen 2000), students complained about the lack of user-friendliness of WordSmith Tools. Despite its many capabilities, the current version of WordSmith Tools is still not fully equipped to work with tagged texts written in HTML/XML and, while it is possible to exclude tags from view, it is not possible to jump from a concordance line to the corresponding web page. To take advantage of important information from layout and images, students had thus to switch between a concordance in WordSmith Tools and the corresponding web page, with each file having to be located by its name and opened in the browser.

One group of students spent much time inspecting web pages for specific terminology rather than looking for suitable texts. In this respects, they used the web itself as corpus rather than as a source for creating a corpus. They

spent more time reading individual documents and looking for exact equivalents rather than deciding whether a text was likely to contain useful terminology and save it for later inspection with the concordancer. They also felt frustrated when they later found that, having saved too few documents, their corpus was not large enough to be of use.

Students noted that searching for web pages, creating the corpus and analysing it with the concordancer was time-consuming, and argued that the translation task would have taken less time if done with dictionaries alone. But they also stated that they felt more confident about the solutions adopted, especially in translating into the foreign language, and that the balance between costs and benefits would be different with longer translation assignments.

Other observations by students concerned the use of the web as a corpus resource: while some believed it would be mostly useful when translating into a foreign language, others chose to translate into their first language. While all students created a target language corpus not all of them created a source language one. [2]

4. Conclusions

DIY corpora are one of a number of different types of corpus resources which translators can use in their work. [3]

Research on corpus use in translator training environments generally takes a bottom-up approach, which could be termed "from words to texts". This approach is mostly concerned with finding appropriate ways of analysing corpus resources provided by the teacher, be they large monololingual corpora or smaller mono or bilingual corpora, created ad hoc either from electronic text archives on CD-ROM or from printed sources.

This approach has been complemented by a top-down approach, i.e. one going "from texts to words", which assumes no pre-existing corpus to be analysed, and which has been made possible thanks to the availability of large quantities of texts on the Internet. By compiling their DIY corpus prior, during or even after the translation task (Aston 2000), students (and translators) can get a first acquaintance with texts, and take full advantage of web pages prior to word prompted analysis.

Hopefully software producers and developers will create professional applications in which the functions of browser and concordancer will be better integrated, and DIY will find their place in the translator's workstation together with other corpus resources and computer assisted tools.

Notes

[1] http://www.webcorp.org.uk; http://miniappolis.com/KWiCFinder

[2] An assessment of the of the quality of the assignments was outside the scope of the experiment. However, better translations seemed to have been produced by those students who adopted successful strategies in the creation and analysis of the corpus.

[3] Another type of corpus resources are translation memories, which are a very specialized kind of parallel corpus, and are usually relevant, reliable and well integrated into the translation work-flow. But of course translators do not have a translation memory ready for all occasions.

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3 educating the language services provider

El grupo de investigación GRELT: contenidos, objetivos y metodología

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Resumo: El conocimiento de las lenguas de trabajo es una condición sine qua non para el ejercicio de la traducción. Sin embargo, las autoras de la comunicación que se propone – profesoras de lenguas extranjeras de una facultad de traducción del estado español - han constatado la existencia de un vacío bibliográfico y metodológico en relación a la enseñanza/aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras para traductores. Un vacío al que, de momento, han dado respuestas parciales aportaciones breves y esporádicas, pero que sólo podrá colmarse a través de un trabajo sistemático y constante. Para ello, las autoras han creado recientemente (enero de 2001) un grupo de investigación (GRELT: Grup de recerca en l'ensenyament de llengües per a traductors) que centrará su trabajo en este ámbito de estudio y entre cuyos proyectos ocupa un lugar importante el establecimiento de contactos y el mantenimiento de la comunicación con otros grupos o investigadores que actúen en el mismo ámbito.

Abstract. Knowledge of one's working languages is a sine qua non condition to being a translator. However, the authors of this paper, teachers of foreign languages in a translation school in Spain, have noticed the lack of bibliographical and methodological material related specifically to the teaching/learning of foreign languages for translators. This is a vacuum which, at the moment, they have only filled with partial, short and sporadic solutions, but which can only be overcome by continuous and systematic work. In order to do this, the authors recently created (January, 2001) a research group (GRELT: Grup de recerca en l'ensenyament de llengües per a traductors) which will concentrate on this area of study and amongst whose projects an important place has been given to making contacts and maintaining communication with other groups or researchers working in the same area.

Presentación de GRELT

El grupo de investigación GRELT (Grup de Recerca en l'Ensenyament de

Llengües per a Traductors), creado en enero de 2001, está formado por profesoras de lenguas extranjeras para traductores de la Facultat de Traducció i d'Interpretació de la Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona. En estos momentos abarca tres lenguas (alemán, inglés e italiano), pero tiene previsto ampliar la investigación al portugués a partir de septiembre de 2001 y, en un futuro próximo, también a otras lenguas.

La idea de crear el grupo de investigación surgió a partir de la constatación de una falta de definición teórica de objetivos, contenidos y líneas metodológicas en la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras para traductores. Este vacío teórico se refleja tanto en la escasez de bibliografía de la que se dispone, como en el poco eco que hasta ahora ha recibido este ámbito del saber en los congresos y foros de docentes e investigadores relacionados con la traducción.

Hasta el momento, el grupo se ha marcado dos objetivos fundamentales: por un lado, desarrollar una línea de investigación que contribuya a la definición de los objetivos y contenidos de la materia; por otro, organizar una red de contactos con otros investigadores y grupos de investigación que se muevan en el ámbito de la enseñanza de lenguas para traductores. Dichos contactos podrían dar pie a la creación de un consorcio de grupos de investigación de ámbito europeo o incluso intercontinental, y en algunos casos podrían convertirse en colaboraciones más o menos estables. Para favorecerlos, GRELT ha organizado para el otoño de este año (concretamente para el viernes 30 de noviembre de 2001) la I Jornada Internacional de Enseñanza de Lenguas para Traductores, que se celebrará en la Facultat de Traducció i d'Interpretació de la Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona. Se trata de un congreso, de un día de duración, abierto a docentes de lenguas extranjeras para traductores y a todos aquellos profesionales de la traducción interesados por este tema, y se pretende que en este espacio puedan ponerse en común las líneas de investigación que en estos momentos se están desarrollando en distintas universidades europeas y en los diversos centros de traducción. El congreso se concibe como un primer encuentro con afán de continuidad: la intención del grupo es la de proponerlo anualmente, poniendo a disposición nuestra facultad y sus instalaciones para la creación de un foro permanente de diálogo y debate en torno a esta temática.

La primera pregunta que se plantea es la siguiente: ¿qué es lo que caracteriza la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras para traductores, y qué es lo que la hace distinta de otras modalidades de enseñanza de lenguas? Su especificidad viene dada por el perfil del estudiante – estudiante de traducción–, por el marco académico – facultades o centros de traducción – y, sobre todo, por la finalidad – preparar al alumno para la traducción. Así pues,

no se trata de una enseñanza de lenguas con finalidades filológicas – como la que se imparte en los estudios de filología –, pero tampoco puede ser idéntica a la que proponen los centros de idiomas, donde la traducción, si está presente en clase, se utiliza como un ejercicio más para el desarrollo de determinadas habilidades del alumno.

Para definir las características de la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras para traductores hemos de recurrir necesariamente a conceptos teóricos elaborados por la traductología: en concreto, el proceso traductor y la competencia traductora.

El proceso traductor

Si tomamos en consideración el esquema clásico del proceso traductor, podremos observar que en él se distinguen tres fases:

1. La fase de comprensión del texto original o de captación del sentido (Delisle, 1980).
2. La fase de transferencia de significado (según la terminología de Hatim y Mason, 1995), en la que se sintetiza, se deduce y se elabora mentalmente aquello que se expresa en el texto original. En esta fase se elaboran también las estrategias y se diseña el proyecto traductor más adecuado para el encargo de traducción (según sostienen, entre otros, Hurtado y Presas, del grupo PACTE 1).
3. La fase de reexpresión del texto en la lengua de llegada.

Los docentes de lenguas extranjeras para traductores deberíamos reflexionar sobre la mejor manera de incidir en estas fases del proceso traductor para contribuir a que éste se realice de modo satisfactorio. Desde el punto de vista de la traducción directa, 2 interesan especialmente la primera y la segunda, es decir, la comprensión del texto original con todo lo que conlleva de captación de su sentido profundo, de sus finalidades y de sus funciones. Es así como podremos preparar al alumno para que sea capaz de captarlo e interpretarlo adecuadamente para su posterior traducción.

La competencia traductora

Este concepto define la capacidad de saber traducir, es decir, de realizar las operaciones a las que acabamos de referirnos. Muchos son los autores que abordan esta cuestión (Hönig, 1982; Roberts, 1984; Bell, 1991; Delisle, 1992;

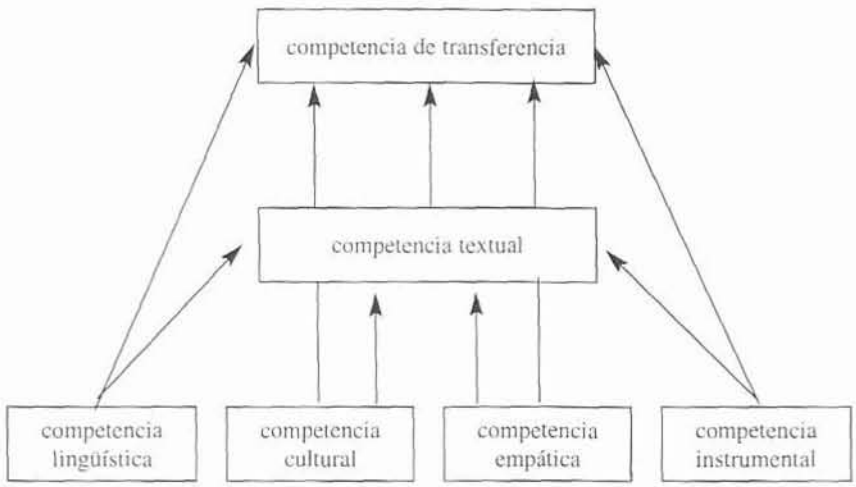
Neubert, 2000; Schäffner, 2000; etc.) y todas las definiciones propuestas tienen en común algunos aspectos:

- en todas se distinguen varias subcompetencias;
- todas incluyen determinadas subcompetencias: por ejemplo, la lingüística, la cultural y la traslatoria – o de transferencia – aparecen en
- todas las definiciones y constituyen, en cierto modo, el denominador común de todas ellas;
- todas incluyen, además, otras subcompetencias que, según cada autor, son también relevantes para la traducción.

Sin perder de vista cada una de esas definiciones, pero inspirándonos principalmente en el modelo propuesto por PACTE (2000), consideramos que las subcompetencias más significativas de la competencia traductora son las siguientes:

1. La competencia lingüística, es decir, el conocimiento de la estructura de las lenguas de trabajo.
2. La competencia textual, es decir, la capacidad de comprender el texto en su totalidad y de analizar todos los factores que lo conforman.
3. La competencia cultural, es decir, la capacidad de captar la dimensión semiótica de la lengua y de analizar los marcadores culturales que aparecen en el texto.
4. La competencia instrumental, es decir, la capacidad de manejar de manera conveniente las fuentes de documentación adecuadas y de saber hallar la información que se necesita allí donde se encuentre.
5. La competencia empática, es decir, una serie de facultades cognitivas (memoria, atención, creatividad, razonamiento lógico y deductivo, análisis y síntesis) y de actitudes psicológicas (curiosidad intelectual, espíritu crítico, rigor, etc.) que facilitan el proceso traductor y optimizan sus resultados.
6. La competencia de transferencia, que es la competencia central, la que integra todas las demás. Se trata de la capacidad de recorrer el proceso de transferencia, desde el texto original a la lengua de llegada, teniendo en cuenta la finalidad de la traducción y las características del destinatario.

Desde nuestro punto de vista, la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras para traductores ha de caracterizarse por el desarrollo de las cinco primeras competencias descritas, que envuelven y hacen posible la competencia de transferencia, considerada como el núcleo de la competencia traductora. Así pues, nuestra propuesta se plasma de la siguiente manera:



Una vez definidas las características, es posible abordar los objetivos, que no serán otros que desarrollar cada una de las subcompetencias descritas:

1. Desarrollar la competencia lingüística. En combinación con los métodos y enfoques más adecuados, resulta especialmente interesante abordar el estudio de la lengua extranjera desde una perspectiva contrastiva, tomando como referencia la primera lengua del alumno y las características específicas de cada una de las lenguas extranjeras objeto de estudio. Esta perspectiva nos permite sistematizar las dificultades más usuales en el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera para evitar errores e interferencias a nivel léxico, morfosintáctico y textual. Algunas de las cuestiones que más se prestan al tratamiento contrastivo son las convenciones de escritura, los nombres propios de personas, instituciones y organizaciones, los cargos oficiales, las cifras y las fechas, los compuestos ad hoc que no aparecen en el diccionario (especialmente frecuentes en alemán, por ejemplo), etc., así como el análisis de los diferentes tipos textuales (narrativo, descriptivo, argumentativo, operativo, etc.) y de los géneros textuales.

2. Desarrollar la competencia textual. Principalmente mediante el desarrollo de estrategias de lectura adecuadas y la aplicación de un análisis textual significativo para la traducción.

El modelo textual en que nos basamos está inspirado en Nord (1991) y Hatim y Mason (1995), y ha de dar cuenta de tres aspectos fundamentales:

- el análisis de los factores extratextuales o contextuales, es decir, de la dimensión pragmática y semiótica del texto;

- el análisis de los factores intratextuales, con especial atención a la cohesión, la progresión temática y la coherencia textual;
- el análisis de los problemas de traducción, para que el alumno aprenda a localizarlos y diagnosticarlos y para que reflexione sobre las estrategias que debería poner en juego para solucionarlos.

Modelo de análisis textual para la traducción

1. LOS FACTORES CONTEXTUALES
   a) La dimensión pragmática
      - emisor: - información general sobre el emisor: biografía significativa, ideología, etc.
        - idiolecto
        - dialecto: zona geográfica, grupo social, época
      - receptor: - receptor del texto original
        - receptor del texto de llegada (definido a través del encargo de traducción)
      - información específica sobre el texto:
        - tipo de texto, función, finalidad, lugar, tiempo, etc.
        - registro: - campo o tema
          - modo: escrito para ser leído, para ser escuchado, etc.
          - tenor: formal, informal, espontáneo, no espontáneo, etc.
        - intenciones comunicativas
        - implicaturas e inferencias
   b) La dimensión semiótica
      - género
      - connotaciones
      - referencias y alusiones, etc.

2. LOS FACTORES INTRATEXTUALES
   - Análisis del texto en su globalidad:
     - cohesión y progresión temática
     - coherencia conceptual

3. LOS PROBLEMAS DE TRADUCCIÓN
   - Localizar y diagnosticar los problemas de traducción
   - Analizar su origen
   - Reflexionar sobre las estrategias para solucionarlos

3. Desarrollar la competencia cultural. Para que el alumno sea capaz de captar las referencias culturales del texto y aprenda a reflexionar sobre los problemas que esas referencias generan para el traductor.

Para desarrollar esta competencia conviene tener en cuenta tres aspectos:
- la conveniencia de tratar la lengua en su globalidad en clave semiótica, y de trabajar los dos aspectos –la lengua y la cultura– de forma conjunta: el análisis de las estructuras lingüísticas desde esta perspectiva permitirá reflexionar sobre los contenidos culturales que se expresan a través de ellas;
- la conveniencia de tratar la lengua y la cultura de forma contrastiva, tomando como referencia la primera lengua del alumno;
- la conveniencia de localizar e interpretar las marcas culturales del texto, es decir, los aspectos especialmente connotados, como pueden ser las alusiones, las referencias o el fenómeno de la intertextualidad.

4. Desarrollar la competencia instrumental. Para que el alumno aprenda a utilizar las fuentes bibliográficas de forma adecuada, lo que significa familiarizarlo tanto con el uso de enciclopedias y diccionarios como con el de las nuevas tecnologías. En este sentido pueden resultar de gran utilidad los principios metodológicos del enfoque por tareas (Nunan, 1989; y otros teóricos de la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras), para organizar proyectos de recogida de información dentro y fuera del aula: buscar y recopilar textos paralelos; elaborar dossiers con fuentes de documentación y clasificar esas fuentes (por ejemplo, revistas especializadas, catálogos, contactos con empresas, etc.).

5. Desarrollar la competencia empática. Para que el alumno se acostumbre a desplegar esa serie de facultades cognitivas a las que hacíamos referencia más arriba, y sea capaz de adoptar una actitud empática con respecto al texto, lo cual le ayudará a llevar a cabo el proceso traductor. Para que esto sea posible es necesario llevar al aula la idea de "aprender a aprender" –propuesta desde los enfoques comunicativos de la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras, concretamente desde el enfoque del autoaprendizaje–, para que el alumno tome conciencia de esas operaciones cognitivas que intervienen en las diferentes fases del proceso traductor. El abanico de tareas que pueden contribuir al desarrollo de esta competencia es muy amplio: desde tareas o ejercicios para desarrollar la memoria operativa en la lectura de textos, hasta ejercicios para analizar el fenómeno de las inferencias o el de la representación semántica de los contenidos textuales, que dan pie a reflexionar sobre la estrecha relación existente entre la lengua y los contenidos culturales representados a través de ella (la representación semántica de un mismo concepto en una y otra lengua no siempre coinciden); o ejercicios para desarrollar la creatividad, utilizando por ejemplo la idea de pensamiento lateral (estudiado por De Bono); o ejercicios para fomentar la capacidad de asociación del alumno, etc.

Como se ha visto, la competencia textual ocupa un lugar central en nuestra línea de investigación, por lo que nos interesa especialmente estudiar al detalle los procesos de su adquisición. Para ello pretendemos establecer un corpus de textos que abarque diferentes tipologías y géneros textuales y que nos permita llevar a cabo un análisis textual relevante para la traducción. Nuestro objetivo final es introducir al alumno en el análisis textual desde el punto de vista de la traducción. Aprovechando pues ese corpus y su análisis, tenemos la intención de crear material didáctico en soporte digital que pueda actuar como complemento de las clases presenciales, y que podría ir acompañado de un sistema de tutorías gracias al cual el profesor tendría la posibilidad de orientar y supervisar el trabajo del alumno. Este material se presentaría en un CD Rom interactivo, concebido como un recurso didáctico que permite el autoaprendizaje y, por lo tanto, fomenta en el alumno la conciencia de la responsabilidad del propio aprendizaje, le permite controlar el ritmo y los contenidos y, en definitiva, lo convierte en el conductor de su progreso en el estudio.

Proyecto

La producción del CD Rom, para cuya elaboración hemos solicitado la financiación del gobierno autónomo de Cataluña, requiere una investigación previa de carácter interdisciplinario en los campos de la traducción, la lingüística, la didáctica y la informática. Desde estas cuatro perspectivas habrán de definirse los objetivos y los contenidos concretos del producto. La duración prevista para el proyecto es de un año, y habría de realizarse en cuatro fases:

1. Identificación de las necesidades del estudiante en las cuatro lenguas de trabajo (alemán, inglés, italiano y portugués) y clasificación de los errores más comunes.
2. Elaboración del material didáctico a partir de textos auténticos y definición de las posibilidades que ofrece el soporte informático para la manipulación del material recogido.
3. Elaboración de ejercicios para la explotación de los textos y creación de un sistema de autoevaluación digital, independiente de la evaluación tutorizada por el profesor. En esta fase sería necesario asimismo verificar la idoneidad de los ejercicios y la transparencia de las consignas con un grupo de alumnos piloto.
4. Elaboración de un producto final que pueda ser comercializado, para que tengan acceso a él el mayor número posible de docentes y estudiantes de lenguas extranjeras para traductores.

El objetivo global de este material didáctico sería contribuir al desarrollo de estrategias y técnicas de lectura, enseñar a captar las diferentes propiedades del texto y aplicar modelos de análisis textual adecuados a la traducción. Desde el punto de vista metodológico, nos basaremos en los principios pedagógicos del autoaprendizaje, con la finalidad de dotar al alumno de técnicas de aprendizaje que le permitan moverse con cierta autonomía a través de los ejercicios propuestos y escoger sus propias rutas de aprendizaje en función de sus necesidades e intereses, con el objetivo último de familiarizarlo con la comprensión de textos con ojos y mente de traductor.

Notas

1 Grupo de investigación de la Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona que se ocupa de los procesos de adquisición de la competencia traductora.

2 La que se realiza de la lengua extranjera a la primera lengua (normalmente la materna), que es la especialidad habitual del alumno y la que practicará mayoritariamente en el mundo laboral. En el caso de tener que considerar también la traducción inversa cabría tener en cuenta, sobre todo, la tercera fase del proceso traductor.

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English language instruction for translation students

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Abstract. Translation instructors in universities worldwide are concerned with the linguistic proficiency of their students. Not only must translators or interpreters possess an excellent command of their mother tongue, but they are also required to be fluent in at least two other languages. The purpose of this workshop is to demonstrate that the language instructor must teach English, here used as an example, in a pro-active manner in order to associate the language learning process with the acquisition of culture and general knowledge so necessary for a translator to succeed. Training in pro-active teaching is an integral part of the educational process today. Instructors will be shown how to use of letters, memos, and report writing skills can be used as a practical of teaching grammar, encouraging vocabulary acquisition and improving general business knowledge.

1. Introduction

Teaching on a university level is presently the subject of much discussion; the literature seems agree that university instructors must be trained to adequately "instruct" both amphitheaters of 200 students and classrooms of only 20. Journals such as *College Teaching* are devoted to promoting the best practices of modern day university pedagogy. It is certain that university instructors have, in general, been left in the background when it comes to the actual pedagogical preparation for teaching. Unlike their secondary school colleagues, who have undergone from one to two years of training in educational psychology, evaluation and assessment techniques, as well as methodology seminars and internships in the field, university instructors most often enter the classroom armed only with their degree/s and are literally left to their own devices. Many rely on memories of how they themselves were taught; if that instruction was of high caliber, the instructor has a higher chance of success, but this amateur approach to university education is no longer appropriate or efficient.

Among the suggestions made in the literature, pre-service and in-service workshops are frequently encouraged. Workshops are, in general, constructivist in their approach. The participants (in this case, university instructors) may learn, create meaning, and develop understanding through active learning, as would students who participate in a pro-active classroom setting. (Fosnost 1996).

University instructors need to be reminded that they need not only teach subject content, for content in itself can be acquired through close reading by a bright mind. Universities are, more often than not, preparing students to function in the business world rather than a world of research. Employers need employees who are life-long learners. These employees must be able to "solve problems, make informed judgments, distinguish between right and wrong and possess wide ranging knowledge." (A Nation Prepared 1986:20; Keans and Doyle, 1988:9).

The above quotation is particularly appropriate to the study of language for translators as translators must not only "know" another language, but also make decisions about the target language so that the reader or listener, in an ideal sense, cannot distinguish between a translation and the original. The translator must also become responsible for his or her language education once they are working. The goal of the translation language instructor, and I have deliberately added the term translation to language is to aid the student to reduce the gap between his or her own language performance and that of the native speakers of the target language. Language instructors should be encouraged by the comment made by Baker (1998) that humans are remarkably good at language learning.

Language instruction is necessarily governed by rules. But language instructors who over-emphasize rules miss the all important idea concept of appropriateness. For example, "hi" is a standard greeting in English. But "hi" is not an appropriate greeting for an elderly person, or one's professor. Thus, to rules must be added the notion of appropriateness. To rules and appropriateness, must also be added exposure to all forms of the language. As Rambler said, "Offer instruction that helps students learn to see "through the eyes, minds and hearts of others."(Rambler, 1991:45). The other, in the case of language learners for the translation profession, is the client, or the author of the document to be translated. It seems only logical that instructors of English for Translation should relate the language learning experience to their profession. In doing so, not only will the instructor be in tune with the present philosophy of language learning that does not advocate "right" or "wrong" but "appropriate" to the content of the learning situation, but such task-based learning will also encourage the learner to experiment with language and to take risks. Most

teachers agree that people learn to read and write by reading and writing often. The approach taken in the learning activities proposed in this workshop takes into consideration the framework available to the majority of university professors, that is: classroom, overhead projector, t.v., video. Instructors who are "attuned to the students, who invite them to "make connections with their past experiences will find that their learning experience will be more successful." (Clovis, 1997: 38). If our students find their experience rewarding, it is safe to assume, our methodology is on the right track.

2. Lesson plans

The following are lesson plans, and learning activities designed for translation students in order to optimize the acquisition of practical, business oriented English language. Each suggestion is presented in the format used during the workshop; this format can be adapted for use in the instructor's translation class. Due to space limitations only a limited number of exercises from the workshop are presented.

2.1 Letter Writing in an English Class Intended for Translation Students

The purpose of this lesson unit is to initiate translation students in correct letter writing techniques as used in international business.

Method:
- Give class the correct format of a letter. Use Block format.
- Give class English letter writing sample situation.
- Write letter. 7 minutes only
- Give class model to compare with their own writing.
- Assessment guidelines. A letter is correct if it follows: a consistent format, is error-free, and conveys the message.

Situation:

Your Company, Al's Aluminum, ordered 15,000 promotional key rings (Order n6D143 with the company logo in green from Key Rings Universal, a company based in London, England. The order was sent out on May 20th, 2001. The key rings arrived yesterday, but rather than being printed in green, were printed in orange ink, and instead of Al's Aluminum engraved on them had Al's Silver Store on each one. Write to the Claims Department and complain. Use the Attention and Re format. Put yourself in the place of someone who is displeased, but who needs the key rings immediately. Choose one of the following options as a request:

- 100% refund and immediate reprinting of key rings

– Refund on this order and a 50% discount on the re-engraving process; you absolutely needed these key-rings for the conference on May 25th; now that is impossible

Workshop activity:

Design a letter writing situation that would be appropriate for the level of students you presently teach.

Ex: Show the class a picture of a product. Write a letter selling that product. You own a real estate agency. How do you sell your homes? Condos? You work in a travel agency. Write a letter selling the various trips you offer. (See examples)

Writing Sales Letters using Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs you may teach students how to write creatively.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

1. Physical: Food, shelter, warmth
2. Security: Personal and financial
3. Belonging: Identifying with something larger than the self: family, company, nation.
4. Esteem and status: Self-respect and respect from others
5. Goals: Self-actualization—a sense of accomplishment and fulfillment

People will not respond to sales appeals on the fourth and fifth level, for example, unless they feel comfortable about the first three levels.

Divide your class into three groups or six groups so that each group can compare work with another similar group.

Sample Situations:

– Group A will write an unsolicited sales letter advertising a trip to France targetting students.
– Group B will write a sales letter advertising a trip to France targeting swinging singles.
– Group C will write a sales letter advertising a trip to France targeting retired couples.

Write the first paragraph of each of the three letters.

Basic Information to include in the letter.

– Student Letter: 10 day train trip. Accommodation in one star hotel. Visit to Paris, Nice, San Michel, Rennes, etc. 10 cities in 10 days.
– Swinging Singles Letter: 10 day stay. Rent a car. Accommodation in 3 star hotels, all with pubs and ethnic restaurants. 8 cities in 10 days
– Retired Couples Letter: 10 days stay. Air-conditioned Pullman. 5 star accommodation. 5 cities in 10 days. Health insurance included.

Example: You have just finished your end of the year exams and want to

take a well-earned break before you start working for the summer? We have just the project for you. Take a 10-day train trip around France. See the sights; visit museums, stay in youth hostels, and all of this for 1000 Euros only. Meals included.

2.2 Role Play

The purpose of this exercise is to duplicate a basic business world setting and to introduce basic business terminology and techniques.

Form two companies:
- The Diamond Factory
- Sparkling Jewelers

Have students draw their position from an envelope.
- The Diamond Factory: CEO, V.P. Sales, Secretary, International Consultant, Designers, Buyers etc.
- Sparkling Jewelers: Store Manager, Assistant, Accounts Manager, Sales Manager, Salespersons, and Buyer

Situation: Put yourselves in the following shoes:

The Diamond Factory is a medium size company that imports raw uncut diamonds from countries in Africa without the use of a middleman and, with the aid of extremely creative designers, makes state-of-the-art jewelry available to the public at cut-rate prices.

Sparkling Jewelers is a chain jewelry store of 12 branches all over Europe: in Spain, France, Ireland, Holland, and Portugal. Employees are given stock options as well as commissions on the amount of jewelry they sell. Stores are located in downtown shopping areas and in malls.

Activities:
- Write an ad for The Herald Tribune International Edition which advertises the company
- Prepare a brochure for the company
- Write the company logo
- Design the price signs in Euro, and the national monies.
- Design the company letterhead stationary.

Written Activities:

A. Sparkling Jewelry wrote this letter to the Diamond Factory.
Body of the letter: (Complaint Letter)
Our last shipment (order n 324) had 2 faulty rings. The prongs are loose; the diamonds are imperfect. We had not put the rings on display, and thus the customer was not affected. We are not happy,

however. We would like the rings replaced at your cost. Thank you for your cooperation.

Include the following in your answer to Sparkling Jewelry

- We pride ourselves in the quality of our products.
- Your buyer personally chose these pieces as well as all the other 256 rings she purchased.
- We will exchange the rings. Send them DHL as soon as possible.

B. Diamond Factory Employee Meeting

The Employee Association at Diamond Factory is unhappy. Diamond Factory has made a 55% profit this fiscal year and has not yet given any raises to the employees. Moreover, the V.P. has announced that as of June 25, 2001, all employees will have to work overtime hours on Saturdays to prepare for their Milan, Italy opening. The employees are used to being paid time and a half; as of June, overtime will only be paid 50% the hourly salary. Send an agenda to the staff and call for a meeting. Decide on the time, place, and the order of the New Business.

C. Sparkling Jewelry needs a new Personnel Manager.

Write an ad for a personnel manager. Requirements are a university degree in Human Resource Management, 3-4 years experience, computer literacy, and communication skills.

Organize a search committee and review the applications you received. Choose one and send the person an offer. Offer a yearly salary of $43,000 with 2 weeks paid vacation plus full medical and dental benefits.

D. The Diamond Factory offers a raise to the personnel

As the President of the company, write a memo to the personnel announcing a 24% raise effective June 1, 2001. Explain that the raise is being given due to the profits earned this year. Congratulate the staff and employees; show good will.

2.3 Effective Class Discussion Techniques

The purpose of this unit plan is to introduce translation students to the internationally accepted method of critical discussion; meetings worldwide take place using this format.

Method: Teach the critical thinking method of discussion

1. Define the problem
2. Analyze the problem
3. Determine criteria for a workable solution.
4. Brainstorm solutions.

5. Discuss the solutions
6. Reach a conclusion or compromise

Sample lesson plan:

Problem of the day: What measures can the university community take to make our university the top university in this country?

Step One: Move the furniture so as to make a comfortable circle to work in. (2 min.)

Step Two: Elect a leader. (2 min.)

Step Three: Elect 2 secretaries. (2 min.)

Step Four: Leader reviews the steps in the reflective thinking process. (2 min.)

Step Five: Begin the discussion process.

- Definition of problem. 5 minutes
- Analysis of problem. 5 minutes
- Where does it come from? How long has it existed? What are the aspects, characteristics?
- Criteria for solution. 3 minutes
- Is there a cost? Financial or otherwise? Who must be involved? Are there time limitations?
- Brainstorm solutions. 5 minutes
- Listen to everyone's ideas for a solution to the problem. Make sure that everyone takes notes on everyone else's suggestions.
- Discuss the solutions. 6 minutes
- Eliminate solutions which are unrealistic and do not comply to the criteria. Put solutions in categories: short-term, long-term.
- Come to a compromise. 3 minutes
- Shake hands and say goodbye. 1 minute.

Workshop activity: Cut down the process by at least half and simulate the following in groups.

Problems of the day: Choose one and discuss. Be ready to report back to the group.

1. What measures can workshop organizers take to make their sessions more effective?
2. What measures can conference organizers take to encourage participants to meet more people?

2.4 Communicative Exercises in Discussion for Students of English

This exercise taken from the ERIC Digest of June 1993 aims at improving students' listening skills.

Eavesdropping: Instructions to students. Listen to a conversation in a public place and be prepared to answer some general questions about what was said:

- Who was talking?
- About how old were they?
- Where were they when you eavesdropped?
- What were they talking about?
- What did they say?
- Did they become aware that you were listening to them?

Workshop Activity: Divide into groups of three people. Two people discuss how their trip to Porto was. The third person takes brief notes as the others speak according to the questions above and reports back to the main group.

2.5 Literature Discussion

The purpose of this exercise if to encourage students to speak before they write: a process which is similar to the natural language learning process.

Instructions to students: Look at the list of characteristics below.

Hard headed, soft-hearted, patient, honest, sincere, compromising, appealing, open-minded, close-minded, etc.

Using the play, "The Death of a Salesman" as your basis, how do these characteristics apply and to what degree to each of the characters?

Students will write their analysis only after they have expressed themselves orally.

Conclusion

It is certain that students planning to enter the translation field today must be trained to use the English language creatively. The exercises above are only a small example of what a university instructor can create in order to make his or her sessions more beneficial and practical for the student translator of English.

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The place of grammar (syntax and verbal government) within a self-training interpreting course. Pilot manual "the Grammar of Interpretation"

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Abstract. Training interpreters for the 21st century poses many practical problems both for teaching institutions and future interpreters themselves. For any student it is a matter of developing all the necessary skills, it is a matter of hard work, and indeed, it is a matter of discipline. Discipline implies a lot of self-training outside the laboratory, and designing specific training in order to overcome specific problems. One of the fundamental aims of any language learning, in any of its applied aspects, is grammar: either Morphology or Syntax. Interpreting from and into both Russian and German presents an extra difficulty because of the differences between Grammar systems.

1. Introduction

Training interpreters for the 21st century, who are well educated, well informed linguists with a narrow specialisation, poses many practical problems both for teaching institutions and future interpreters themselves.

For the teaching institution it is a matter of designing programmes and finding an adequate balance between theoretical knowledge and the practical skills to be offered to the students. For any student it is a matter of developing all the necessary skills, hard work, establishing priorities, and indeed, discipline. Discipline implies a lot of self-training outside the laboratory, the ability to listen to oneself critically but impartially, finding difficulties and problems, and designing specific training in order to overcome these problems.

One of the fundamental aspects of any language learning in any of its applied aspects is grammar, either Morphology or Syntax. With regard to European languages, interpreting from Russian and German into other European languages presents an extra difficulty because of differences, for example between Spanish and Russian or German and English Grammar systems, and broadly speaking, between their syntactical systems.

The syntax of a Russian sentence is a minefield, which the interpreter must hope to cross unscathed: "As you start a sentence you are taking a leap in the dark, you are mortgaging your grammatical future. Great nimbleness is called for to guide the mind through this syntactical maze"[1].

2. A pilot manual

As a professional Russian Grammar teacher with extensive experience of working as an interpreter and translator, I have designed a pilot manual for an interpreter's self-training course, based on specific grammar exercises aimed at improving interpreting skills or, less broadly speaking, those skills that any interpreter working from Russian has to develop.

Figure 1. List of exercises by their aim, input-output and language combination

Aim	Possible exercises	Input, output language combination	
1. Warming up exercises (written, aural and oral)	• Translation, shadowing in L2, L1, listening	Texts, tapes, radio • L1; L2	Written, Oral • L2; L1
2. Two way Vocabulary activation exercises	• Two way vocabulary dictation	Audio • L2; L1	Oral • L1; L2
3. Building vocabulary on synonimical and anto-nymical level (chains and rows)	• "Net" exercise	**Written • L1; L2**	**Written • L1; L2**
4. Training on numbers, names, acronyms	• Dictations	Aural • L2; L1	Oral • L1; L2
5. Training paraphrasing skills 1	• Key-words paraphrasing exercises	Written • L2	Oral • L1
6. Training paraphrasing skills 2	• Finish unfinished sentences exercises	Written • L2; L1	Oral • L2; L1
7. Training paraphrasing skills 3	• *Taboo* key-words exercise	Written • L2; L1	Oral • L2; L1
8. Training predicting skills 1	• Count Monte-Cristo ("scissors") exercise combined with Sight Interpretation)	Written • L2; L1	Oral • L1; L2
9. Training predicting skills 2	• Clozing	**Written • L2; L1**	**Written, Oral • L2; L1**
10. Training split attention skills	• Shadowing with texts (scripts) • Working with two texts	Written Aural • L1; L2	Written, Oral • L1; L2
11. Training SI interpreting skills 1	• *Frozen* translation	**Aural, written • L2**	**Written • L1**
12. Training SI interpreting skills 2	• *Frozen* interpretation a) from printed text - up – down - down – up b) from audio tape	**Written Aural • L2**	**Oral • L1**
13. PRACTICE of SI	SI + self-recording	Aural • L2	Oral • L1
14. ANALYSIS	(de)brieting		

"While the translator can calmly rearrange the components of a sentence, since the interpreter must start without knowing where the speaker's syntax may take him, he should exercise maximum restraint before jumping in. He needs to attempt to 'see ahead' and plan out the sentence insofar as possible"[2].

Before I present the **Model Unit** for discussion, I would like to summarise the wide range of exercises typically used for training interpreters, and present them in the form of tables grouped by their aim, their input and output, and the possible language combination in order to illustrate the importance of the placing of exercises aimed specifically at syntactical training. (See: Figure 1).

The exercises written in bold (3, 9, 11, 12) are aimed at overcoming syntactical problems between languages: L2-L1 (L2 being, for example, Russian or German, and L1, English.)

2.1 Clozing Exercise

Traditionally, Clozing implies a printed text where every tenth word is taken out. By this I mean a preposition, an article, a noun, a verb, an adverb or an adjective, regardless of its function within the sentence. The task is to reconstruct the whole text. This kind of "mutilated" text has been used mainly as an Aptitude Test for MA or PG courses in Interpreting and Translating in many schools.

For teaching purposes it is advisable to take out not only every tenth word, but *any* word or even part of the word (especially prefixes and endings), that is considered "predictable" and suitable for the main purpose of the exercise: namely to develop anticipating skills.

Sample 1 Traditional Clozing (testing)
Sample 2 Clozing B1 (training)

These "clozingly mutilated" texts have as their primary aim a very important grammatical syntactical task: to train in the student the immediate response to such powerful indicators like Russian prefixes and prepositions: in other words there is a direct dependence between certain prefixes and certain prepositions. These exercises are aimed at students' self and home training, and should be provided with keys or solutions at the end of the Manual.

2.2 *Frozen* Translation and *Frozen* Interpretation

Frozen Translation and *Frozen* Interpretation is another powerful tool for training conference interpreters on a syntactical level.

The big advantage of *Frozen* forms of training is that the student has one

very important factor less to worry about, this being *time pressure*, while all the remaining difficulties stay unchanged. As far as I understand the value of these two exercises, they provide what is needed for a trainee working from word order "flexible" languages with highly developed preposition-prefix-ending dependence and verbal government, into less "flexible" languages.

Firstly, why *Frozen*? And secondly, how do these two exercises differ? I've already answered the first question: for me *Frozen* means that there is no *time pressure*, the exercise can be performed as a slow motion movie. The main difference between *Frozen* Translation and Interpretation lies in the form of their output: the first is done in a written form, the second in oral. Here I remind my students that all the oral exercises have to be recorded and the tape should be played back for self-(de)briefing.

Sample 3: *Frozen* Translation (top to bottom).

Sample 4: *Frozen* Translation (bottom to top) + Editing

Sample 5: *Frozen* Interpretation 1 (Sight Interpretation)

Sample 6: Delayed *Frozen* Interpretation

Sample 7: *Frozen* Interpretation 2 (using tape recorders and the pause button)

2.3 The model unit

So, after this detailed description of *Clozingly* "mutilated" and *Frozen* exercises, I would like to present to you my vision of the **Model Unit.**

The **Model Unit** within the same topic contains:

1. a number of small but condensed introductory texts, relevant to the topic, with the specific vocabulary organised as *synonymical* and *antonymical chains* and *rows (see Sample 8: "Net" exercise)*;
2. "mutilated" texts for *Clozing* exercises aimed at developing forecasting/anticipating skills;
3. samples of Russian texts to be **re-written** by trainees in the same language, e.g. Russian, using "English" syntax: Subject-Verb-Object;
4. small but syntactically complex texts for *Reformulating* aimed at syntactical training, e.g. with *delayed* object and insertions[iii];
5. larger texts *Clozingly* "mutilated" aimed at prepositions and conjunctions;
6. verbal government training and drills on a syntagmatic level;
7. texts aimed at syntactical training, taking into account the length of the *unit of meaning and its "borders"*; when the task is a) just to mark the borders of UofM and b) to work with short or medium size UofM

performing **Delayed** *Frozen* Interpretation/Translation retaining the previous unit in the short-term memory;

8. specially redesigned texts –broken by units of meaning– for the so-called *Frozen* interpretation and translation, especially useful for the training of conference interpreters.

3. Conclusions

Training professional interpreters for the 21st century poses many practical problems. One of the major problems for syntactically "*distant*" languages, like Russian-English, is the necessity for specific training aimed at "syntactical" differences between languages. This is due to Russian's highly developed prefix-ending-preposition system, accompanied by the supposedly "*free*" word order. Practical exercises like *Clozing*, "*clozingly mutilated*" texts in the source language (e.g Russian) can help to improve a trainee's immediate response to such powerful indicators, like prefixes and prepositions, while performing those exercises from Russian into Russian.

Exercises like *Frozen* Interpretation/Translation can become one of the major tools for an interpreter's self-training. They are easily self-"*designable*" and can be used both in the written and oral form. They can also be used to train or to teach how to solve syntactical problems on a Unit of Meaning level (*short, medium and large units of meaning*) setting aside only one difficulty: the time pressure. Short-term memory is also trained and the trainee undergoes an almost full-*flavoured* experience.

Notes

[1] John Glemet, quoted in David **Gerver**, *Empirical Studies of SI: A Review and a Model*, in: Translation: Applications and Research, ed. Richard W.Brislin, NY: Gardner Press, 1976: 168 - *a very accurate and fair description indeed.*

[2] Lynn **Visson**, *From Russian into English: An Introduction to Simultaneous Interpretation*, Second Edition, Focus Publishing, R.Pullins and Company, Newburyport MA, 1999: 89

[3] Russian word order is generally described as fairly free and English word order as fixed. Russian syntax, however, is governed by a set of rules which allow for considerable variation depending on the emphasis, emotion, tone, and style of the speaker. English fixed word order has less possibilities for the kinds of inversion allowed by Russian case endings, for Russian often begins

a sentence with a complement, verb, or object, revealing the subject only several words –or from the interpreter's point of view, minutes– later.

Case forms also erect syntactic hurdles. How is the interpreter to handle a sentence which begins with a dative, accusative or prepositional rather than a nominative subject? (Lynn **Visson**, *From Russian into English: An Introduction to Simultaneous Interpretation*, Second Edition, Focus Publishing, R.Pullins and Company, Newburyport MA, 1999: 90)

SAMPLES

Sample 1 (Testing: every tenth word is taken out):
"*TRADITIONAL*" CLOZING A: 1/10
Just Say "No" to the Single Currency
DOMINIC CUMMINGS, 29 British anti-euro activist
By J.F.O. McALLISTER London

As a child, he lived three years in Poland. _____ (**He**) has worked in Russia and has a Russian girlfriend. _____ (**His**) favourite European city? Naples. ("It's beautiful, chaotic, no tourists.") _____ (**But**) Dominic Cummings, natural born European, spends most waking hours _____ (**trying**) to keep Britain from joining the euro.

He's good at _____ (**it**), too. The tiny lobby group Business for Sterling, of _____ (**which**) he is campaign director, has repeatedly derailed Labour's fearsome _____ (**public**) relations machine in its efforts to make euro membership _____ (**look**) desirable and inevitable. Polls show that two-thirds of British _____ (**voters**) now want to retain the pound.

Of course, Cummings _____ (**has**) had rich soil to cultivate.

Sample 2
"*PREPOSITIONAL*" CLOZING
Just Say "No" to the Single Currency DOMINIC CUMMINGS, 29
British anti-euro activist *By J.F.O. McALLISTER London*

As a child, he lived three years —(**in**)— Poland. **He** has worked in Russia and has a Russian girlfriend. **His** favourite European city? Naples. ("It's beautiful, chaotic, no tourists.") **But** Dominic Cummings, natural born European, spends most waking hours **trying** —(**to**)— keep Britain —(**from**)— joining the euro.

He's good at **it**, too. The tiny lobby group Business for Sterling, —(**of**)— **which** he is campaign director, has repeatedly derailed Labour's fearsome **public** relations machine —(**in**)— its efforts to make euro membership **look** desirable and inevitable. Polls show that two-thirds —(**of**)— British **voters** now want to retain the pound.

Of course, Cummings **has** had rich soil —(**to**)— cultivate...

Sample 3 *FROZEN* TRANSLATION 1 (top to bottom)	
In the coming information age, access to documents, broadly defined, will be done electronically, just by travelling across a network that people now call an information highway. I'm quite happy this will happen. I could be wrong about how quickly.	*Instructions:* *The source text is given to the trainee already divided into units of meaning. Each UofM is disclosed, one line at a time. The task is then to write down the translation of each UofM in the free space provided on the right hand side, next to each UofM. The main limitation: the trainee can't change anything already written, but can take as much time as is needed in order to think about the best way of dealing with those structures.*

Sample 4 *FROZEN* TRANSLATION 2 (bottom to top) + Editing	
Instead of using keys to enter your house, the Wallet PC identifies that you're allowed to go into a certain door and it happens electronically. Instead of having tickets to the theatre, your Wallet PC will digitall prove that you paid. When you want to board a plane, instead of showing your tickets to 29 people, you just use this.	*Instructions:* *The source text is given to the trainee already divided into UofM. Each UofM is disclosed one line at a time from the bottom to the top (while still covering the remaining part of the source text.) Each UofM is "translated" using "initial forms", ie infinitives, nominative, etc., in the free space provided on the right hand side. The main aim of this training is to edit the text, searching for best strategies to link separate units of meaning.*

Sample 5 *FROZEN* Interpretation 1a (Sight Interpretation) First of all,	
what do people mean when they use the term "euthanasia". The term was originally used to indicate that death was easy and painless. But in later times it was translated by most people as "mercy killing" and this has sparked a major controversy in the medical and legal world internationally and locally, of course.	*Instructions:* *The source text is given to the trainee already divided into UofM. Each UofM is disclosed one line at a time. The task is then to record the interpretation on tape.*

Sample 6 Delayed *Frozen* Interpretation	
Does everyone understand the term "euthanasia" in the same way, or are there perhaps different interpretations of it? It is a bit of a technical term, so let me explain that we distinguish four different forms of euthanasia. We talk about "voluntary", "involuntary", "active" and "passive" euthanasia.	*Instructions:* *The source text is given to the trainee already divided into units of meaning. Each UofM is disclosed one line at a time. The task is then for the trainee to retain in his/her short-term memory the previous UofM. The interpretation begins only when next UofM is disclosed. The exercise is recorded on tape.*

Sample 7 *Frozen* Interpretation 2 First of all,	
what do people mean when they use the term "euthanasia". The term was originally used to indicate that death was easy and painless. But in later times it was translated by most people as "mercy killing" and this has sparked a major controversy in the medical and legal world internationally and locally, of course.	*Instructions:* *The source text is given to the trainee recorded on tape, already divided into units of meaning, leaving pauses between them. The task is then to record the interpretation onto cassette. In the case when the trainee works on his/her own, the source text can be divided into UofM using the pause button.*

Sample 8
"*NET*" exercise
Source text: ***If there is a lack of clear focus, it is because of these mandates...***

word	synonym	antonym
If	Should it be the case Where it is proven that In the event that	Although Despite the fact
there is	there exists a situation prevails a situation has come about	none exists there is an absence of no
a lack of	insufficient inadequate a dearth of not enough less than a desirable amount of	too much an excess of a plethora an abundance of
clear	precise well-defined obvious visible	vague imprecise woolly lacking clarity
focus	concentration on essentials attention to detail goal-oriented targeting of effort	dissipation of effort wide range of preoccupations dissipated lacking concentration
because of	due to the result of a consequence of derives from	independently of despite of unrelated to bearing no relationship with
these mandates	flows from demands missions obligations terms of reference tasks	

Instructions: *From the given source text the trainee should find synonyms and antonyms for almost every word and present the "net" as given above.*

The evaluation of e-learning language services: context and evidence for Welsh

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Abstract. E-learning is rapidly growing as a preferred and efficient way of providing education and training in language services for people in employment. Whether it is by the Internet, Intranet, or computer-based training, the delivery of e-learning has increased significantly over the past three years. But what do we know about this innovative approach to learning? Is e-learning effective? The literature is limited in answering all our questions about e-learning at present. Indeed, although there are a few significant findings, the current research base for evaluating e-learning is inadequate. Due to the high curriculum development cost of implementing an e-learning programme, it is important to continue to elicit answers. The evidence emerging from the case of providing e-learning Welsh language services is reported and provides ten key findings of an evaluation of the experiences so far. First it describes the context for the development, next it considers approaches to evaluation of such an innovation and finally reports on practical experiences.

E-Learning and the e-Economy

The term e-Economy, or the 'new economy', has come to describe the transformation of economic activities that goes hand in hand with the Information Society. The impact of digital technologies is providing opportunities for economic growth through the exploitation of new activities as well as from the increased productivity of existing activities. Digital technologies, in brief, make the accessing, processing, storage and the retrieval of information increasingly cheaper and easier. In Europe in 2000, the European Commission launched the eEurope initiative as a response to the realisation that digital technologies are the key factor for growth and employment in order to accelerate (EC, 2000). This initiative aims to accelerate the uptake of digital technologies across Europe and ensure that all Europeans have the necessary skills to use them. The initiative includes a number of action lines that include: achieving faster and cheaper Internet access, accelerating e-commerce, risk capital for high- technology SMEs,

participation for people with disabilities. It also seeks to promote the widespread introduction of innovation in education with actions directed at a virtual community, and partnership in the area of multimedia educational tools, learning technologies, content and services.

This stress on innovation and the application of information and communications technologies for vocational education to meet the changes in the work environment accompanying the e-Economy is a core requirement of a range of EU Community Initiatives. Under the EU ADAPT programme, for example, innovation in education and training directed at improving the performance of SMEs, has central importance in the operation of this programme along with the impact of ICT on the workforce. An ADAPT project undertaken at the University of Wales, Lampeter over the last three years set out to shed light on the impact of technological change on SME firms involved in subtitling, the media sector and their supply chains in Wales. This had the broad aims of assisting the development of learning transfer and ICT skills and examined ways in which e-learning could help provide solutions to performance needs.

E-Learning, e-education, or online learning refer to the way people communicate and learn electronically which has only recently emerged as a key source of competitive advantage in the Information Society. Interactive distance learning, intranet-based training, web-based training, online learning - each appear as different names, for different types of learning technologies, with different capabilities. However, the distinctions and capabilities that once separated these categories are blurred by advances in technology. Though there are particular differences between them, for instance in bandwidth, user interface, or interactivity, they share a common strategy to deliver learning to clients at dispersed locations. Moreover, these online learning platforms have begun to converge around common technology standards and a delivery infrastructure - the Internet.

E-learning as a medium of delivery for education and training has quickly gained a strong band of proponents and the reasons for this are not at all hard to discover. The medium presents many possibilities for educationalists: enhanced access, more flexible learning, extending the range of influence as well as deepening the penetration for learning, among them. Moreover, since we are in an era when the number of students must inevitably increase in relation to the number of teachers, e-learning offers extraordinary opportunities to redress the balance, without a sacrifice in the quality of teaching. For human resource managers with a keen financial interest in the delivery of development programmes, the medium offers cost-effectiveness, standardisation, flexibility and scalability. Equally important for the corporate

sector, is the ability to precisely track the record and performance of each and every registered learner through a learner management system. Although still an emerging field, it offers many benefits that are radically different from a conventional classroom-based learning environment and can get real results for students. The learning benefits of e-learning are summarised in Figure 1, which is developed and derived from an analysis by Block (1999).

The Benefits of e-learning

- Accessible from any site with the right equipment.
- Cost-effectiveness.
- Personalisation.
- Learner centred learning.
- Contemporary.
- Scalable structure.
- Interactivity.
- Uniformity of content.
- Content updated rapidly.
- Blindness of the learning engagement.
- Measurement of programme performance.
- Just-in Time Learning.

Figure 1. The Learning Benefits of e-learning, developed from Block (1999).

Terminology for online learning

Terms such as e-learning, technology-based learning and Web-based learning are defined and used differently by different organisations and user groups. Likewise, the term on-line learning has a certain degree of elasticity in its meaning. Fryer (1997) has proposed categorising Web-based training into three types: (a) The Desk top tutor; (b) the Online Class; and (c) the Ultra Interactive model. However, this typography and the application of terms is not universally accepted. In the eyes of some people Web-based training might only apply to the first category. The second category would also be known as on-line learning and the third the Virtual Classroom. In a review of literature on the tutor support of on-line learning, Whitlock (2000) makes the point that a suitable term to cover all three types has yet to emerge. He applies the umbrella term e-learning to cover all three types. The term e-learning thus applies both to the provision of learning through computer-based processes and multi-media.

Evaluation Challenges in E-Learning

Evaluation is a process that professionals do all the time and in every discipline - comparing the actual and real, with the predicted or promised. It is a process of judging that is applied to activities, initiatives, people, programmes and results. The basic reason for doing this is to determine the effectiveness, or the efficiency, or the appropriateness of a particular course of action. The intention is to highlight good or bad practice, detect errors and correct mistakes, assess risk, enable optimum investment to be achieved and also allow individuals and organisations to learn.

A very widely adopted and structured approach for the evaluation of a training programme is the Four - Level evaluation model developed by Kirkpatrick (1994). This model has formed the basis of several other evaluation approaches (Roffe, 1999). It is fundamentally a hierarchical model in which:

- Level 1 addresses the reaction of the learner to the training programme;
- Level 2 assesses how much people learned as a result of participating in the programme;
- Level 3 determines the extent to which people apply the training in their work;
- Level 4 assesses the business impact of the training usually in the form of Return on Investment (ROI).

At Levels 3 and 4, measuring performance on the job is difficult because, in practice, many factors can affect performance and the transfer of learning. These can include: (a) personal factors, such as motivation, ability and attention; (b) instructional factors, such as course design and trainer's ability; or (c) organisational factors, such as climate, timing, management, learner support, etc. At Level 4, whereas the costs of training can be established, the benefits are subjective, difficult to quantify and express in monetary terms. Moreover, the benefits will often accrue over a period of time. Indeed the cost of undertaking a full evaluation may end up greater than the design and delivery of the programme.

Contemporary Evaluation Issues for E-Learning.

The creation of an e-learning programme is commonly done by means of a project development process. A process that moves through the following classic phases: specification, development and then the assessment of outcomes. Thus, one focus for evaluation might be the innovation process itself, or another focus might be the particular approach to teaching and

learning effected by e-learning. However, all the different approaches to e-learning from asynchronous, through computer mediated tutoring, to a synchronous student-student interaction application mean that it is not a discreetly definable process. Rather there are a number of strategies that are applied and these particular approaches to teaching and learning can be evaluated.

The design for the learning approach and content can be based on behaviourist, information processing, cognitive, humanistic or constructivist principles. Since, e-learning does not imply a particular learning process informed by a single learning theory. The learning may involve the acquiring of information, skills or competencies that might be assessed by processes requiring recall, analysis, synthesis, creative behaviours or hypotheses. Thus, an evaluation approach can only assess particular applications of e-learning, rather than provide a general application.

Driving forces on the evaluation of e-learning at Lampeter.

The principles and processes for evaluating e-learning are the same as for conventional learning. Similar methods to collect data when evaluating e-learning programs, with the exception of direct observation. There are many different ways for assessing e-learning and the ultimate choice will depend on the values of the organisation, the goals of the project and the necessities to provide information for various audiences. One approach dealing with four broad areas for the investigation of e-learning have been proposed by EPIC (2000) in a study of taking training online.

- The four broad areas are:
- the **numbers of learners** going through the programme;
- the **efficient** use of resources;
- the **effectiveness** of the results achieved;
- the **return on the investment**.

Numbers of Learners

This area of evaluation and analysis deals with the numbers of students who have expressed an interest, registered, progressed and completed the programme. To a degree it addresses certain marketing issues. How far has the coverage extended towards the target population? What is the geographical distribution: regional, national, international? How many enquiries have there been? How many course registrations? How many have gained the qualification?, etc.

Efficiency

E-learning ought to provide clients with major efficiencies over alternative methods in both time and cost. A learner management system will yield information on how long it takes a learner to complete the e-learning course that can then be compared with progress and completion on conventional courses. There are also time savings to be gained from travel to a classroom, a factor that can be reduced by stand-alone e-learning provision. The costs associated with the programme fall into many categories including: curriculum design and evaluation, online tutors, technical support, administration, promotional costs, and the costs borne by students - that include salaries, benefits, etc. There are other costs related to the marketing and promotion of the programme and IT infrastructure that might be met by central services of an organisation. A contrast with conventional classroom delivery will typically show a shift away, with savings from delivery but additional expense in design and learner support infrastructure. Key questions here might include the following. What are the full costs of the e-learning development? What are the comparable costs for conventional learning for a similar cohort? What are the on-going costs of learner support? What are the most sensitive financial factors in e-learning delivery? etc.

Effectiveness

This category relates more directly to the Four Level Evaluation, although the aggregation together may infer that each of the levels is equally accessible for evaluation, whereas it is commonly accepted that difficulties of evaluation tend to increase with the Level. At Level One, the reactions of participants are important since it is believed that the more positive the reaction the more likely transfer will arise to the job. The reaction Level can be assessed through several measures that relate to the online learning environment. These methods include: chat, email or on-line questionnaires. The on-line delivery and return of questionnaires has advantages in that the responses can be analysed automatically through a linked spreadsheet programme. Key questions on effectiveness might include the following. What is the overall satisfaction of the learners with the programme? What change is there in the knowledge, skills or attitude of participants? What changes are there in on-the-job behaviour? etc.

Return on Investment

In Return on Investment (ROI), the financial impact of the e-learning in terms of business results is assessed against the investment of the programme. To determine the ROI, first aggregate all the direct and

financial costs that have been created by the e-learning programme. Next, assign a financial value to the business improvements that have been made over a twelve month period. Thus ROI = (Benefits / Costs) x 100 %.

Certain e-learning project developments are justified on cost savings alone where the fully loaded cost of the traditional learning is compared to the cost of e-learning. The difficulty in the process is to estimate the actual change in business measures linked directly to the e-learning program. Key questions for determining ROI might be as follows. What processes are necessary to fully implement ROI? How important is the programme to the strategic objectives of the organisation? How important is the e-learning programme to the business impact of the organisation? Etc.

Lampeter background statistics

Since the launch of the Web course in June 1999 there have been 947 course registrations. The language credit programme attracted 640 of this total number, with a programme on the environment drawing 231 of the remainder. Completion certificates have been presented for the completion of 133 credits and progression to Level 2/3 has been made by 6 students. The visits to the specific site at Lampeter in 2001 are as follows: in January, 13,214; in February, 11,055; in March, 12,144. The international spread of visits can be judged from a listing of the visits to the site in May 2001: USA, UK, Ireland, Finland, Spain, Norway, Canada, Germany, New Zealand, Austria, Belgium, Italy, Japan, Portugal, Mexico, Argentina, Lithuania, Australia, Greece, Brazil, France, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Holland, Pakistan, Hong Kong, Sweden.

Key Findings for Welsh Language Services:

1. Different students engage on e-learning

The background of the students who enrol on the e-learning programme are significantly different from those on full-time, mainstream courses. In age terms, the large majority are aged over 45 years and these students derive from professional backgrounds and with a substantial prior-learning history from their professional subject base. The written skills of e-learners are stronger than for conventional students. However, in comparison with a group of e-learners who arrived to study the programme, their verbal skills are not as strong as those who follow a full-time course on campus.

2. Progression rates and participation vary

The ability to progress on the programme at the pace of the student means that some students can complete in 2 months, although the average is 9

months. Some students 'lurk' with no response from them in terms of chat sessions, etc. but may submit their coursework for assessment. An opportunity for face-to-face meetings has been introduced and this has proved popular, even with international students who are enthusiastic about participating in a short complementary study programme.

3. Anonymity Preference

Many students prefer the anonymity offered by e-learning. Managers do not wish their fallibility and learning difficulties exposed either to people who know them or to people who work for them. Thus the availability of participation through e-learning offers them a new route for professional and personal development.

4. The value of online evaluation

For firms, the assessment in corporate universities is straightforward, in comparing the cost of previous traditional provision with that through e-learning. For micro SMEs, determination of an ROI and comparison of benefits is much more difficult since no provision existed beforehand. The cost of a full evaluation of a programme can in certain circumstances, such as innovative transnational work, exceed the development and delivery costs. The ability to collect evaluation data on-line not only markedly reduces costs but also provides real time data on the progress of a scheme.

5. Resource shift

For the provider, the development and operation of the pilot e-learning programme means a shift in the resource equation. A shift away from delivery and into content development and learner support. This is similar to that of Open and Distance Learning provision. However, a different emphasis exists in the composition of the support team for e-learning, with the necessity to include technology support as a part of the operational team. This raises the initial and ongoing core costs for delivery, but is compensated by the benefits in curriculum adaptability of the medium, and the scalability of the learning product.

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The site that we are reporting on can be explored at: http://www.e-addysg.com.

3.2 language for special purposes

La traduction scientifique et technique: ses particularités et sa didactique

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Resumé: Depuis une vingtaine d'années, se fondant sur des critères de contenu, de rédaction ou de cible, nombre de spécialistes tentent de définir en quoi consiste la traduction de textes techniques et scientifiques. Les auteurs essaieront de reprendre quelques traits marquants de ces analyses tout en soulignant les dénominateurs communs entre cette discipline et la traduction générale. Afin de dégager des objectifs pédagogiques, ils proposent d'analyser les étapes de la démarche traduisante dans ce domaine et d'identifier des compétences à développer chez l'apprenant. Ils passeront ensuite à l'exposé de leur programme pédagogique et à son analyse critique.

Scientific and Technical Translation - Features and teaching methodology
Abstract: Specialists in translation analysis have put forward various definitions of scientific and technical ltranslation. These have been based on a number of criteria such as content, writing or target group. The purpose of the authors is to highlight some key features of these analyses while suggesting that both technical and general translation do in fact have some common denominators. With a view to establishing teaching objectives, the authors will then examine the various stages of the translating process and identify the various skills to be developed. Finally, the authors' pedagogical programme will be submitted to critical analysis.

Chargés, depuis quelques années, de former des étudiants à la traduction de textes techniques de l'anglais en français nous souhaiterions vous entretenir de notre expérience pédagogique dans ce domaine.

Après une première démarche très empirique, héritée de nos collègues et de nos maîtres, nous avons souhaité prendre un peu plus de recul par rapport à notre travail et développer une pédagogie assortie d'objectifs bien précis que nous aimerions vous exposer.

1. Nous nous sommes tout d'abord interrogés sur la nature des textes qualifiés de techniques afin d'en dégager les particularités.

2. Nous avons ensuite tenté de détailler la démarche requise pour aborder la traduction de ces textes techniques.
3. Forts de cette analyse, nous nous sommes ensuite attachés à définir des objectifs pédagogiques, une méthode, le contenu du cours ainsi qu'une méthode d'évaluation.
4. Enfin, soucieux de parfaire notre démarche, nous aimerions soumettre notre expérience à votre critique et pouvoir bénéficier de vos conseils et commentaires avisés.

1. La première question que nous nous sommes posée est la suivante : comment définir un texte technique ?

S'il est vrai que les textes techniques se présentent sous des formes très diverses, du rapport scientifique à certaines notices publicitaires, en passant par les modes d'emploi ou les manuels, il n'en demeure pas moins qu'ils présentent tous des caractéristiques communes : tous sont écrits dans une langue de spécialité.

Qu'entend-t-on exactement par langue de spécialité ?
Pour Kocourek (1991 : 42) :

> *La langue de spécialité est une variété de langue, à dominante cognitive, dont les textes, cumulatifs, d'émotivité, de subjectivité et de métaphoricité contrôlées, et délimités de manière externe, ont pour but de signifier et de communiquer, au sein d'une collectivité restreinte, le contenu thématique, raisonné et circonstancié, et dont les ressources, qui sous-tendent ces textes sur tous les plans linguistiques, sont marquées par des caractères graphiques, par des tendances syntaxiques et, surtout, par un ensemble rapidement renouvelable des unités lexicales qui requièrent, et reçoivent dans les textes, une précision sémantique métalinguistique.*

Kocourek (1991: 41) précise par ailleurs que la langue de spécialité :

> *[...] vise l'idéal de l'intellectualisation, c'est-à-dire la précision sémantique, la systématisation conceptuelle, la neutralité émotive, l'économie formelle et sémantique ; elle a donc tendance à définir ses unités lexicales, à contrôler la polysémie et l'homonymie, à supprimer les synonymes, à simplifier et à mieux délimiter les moyens syntaxiques, à neutraliser ou à contenir l'émotivité, la subjectivité. [...] Par contraste avec la langue usuelle et avec le langage symbolique, la langue de spécialité a un lexique très étendu, ce qui lui permet de saisir le monde cognitif de la spécialité dans sa complexité et dans son intégralité [...] .*

Toutefois, même s'il la qualifie de *«[...] sous-langue, une variété, un style de langue tout entière »*, Kocourek reconnaît que la langue de spécialité *«[...]a la plupart des ressources en commun avec la langue usuelle[...]»* (1991 :40).

Barbara Folkart (1981:205-206) est plus explicite encore. La langue de spécialité, écrit-elle :

> *n'est qu'une manifestation parmi d'autres de la langue commune». Et même si elle « privilégie certains schémas syntaxiques, le passif, par exemple, ou l'emploi de l'indéfini 'one' en anglais technique, [...] ses structures [...] n'en font pas moins partie intégrante de celle-ci.»*

Ainsi, si la plupart des auteurs font apparaître certaines particularités de la langue de spécialité, ils s'accordent , nous semble-t-il, pour reconnaître implicitement que les similitudes avec la langue générale l'emportent sur les différences.

En quoi le texte technique se différencie-t-il alors du texte général ?

Sur le plan du contenu, le texte spécialisé se singularise par les notions auxquelles il a recours, notions que le lecteur non averti aura du mal à appréhender. Comme le dit si bien Christine Durieux (1988 : 71) *«On s'aperçoit immédiatement qu'il est possible de ne pas comprendre d'emblée un énoncé dont à priori on a l'impression de connaître tous les mots qui le composent et la syntaxe selon laquelle ils s'agencent.»* Souvent, ce ne sont pas les mots que l'on ne comprend pas, mais plutôt les réalités auxquelles ils renvoient.

Sur le plan de la forme, les textes techniques sont les vecteurs d'un lexique et d'une phraséologie spécialisés. Ils se caractérisent par un langage parfois ésotérique (les terminologies propres au domaine abordé) et par des tournures particulières, une phraséologie spécifique. Cette langue vise la précision sémantique, la systématisation conceptuelle, la neutralité émotive .

Pour Barbara Folkart, (1981 : 207-208) la fonction de la langue technique est *«[...] avant tout et presque exclusivement de conceptualiser la réalité extra linguistique - le référent qui constitue son objet »*. La langue technique, poursuit-elle, *«[...] tend à établir un rapport bi-univoque entre le mot et son référent»*. Elle favorise la bi-univocité, *«l'idéal d'un terme par concept et un concept par terme»*.

2. Notre deuxième question concerne le modus operandi de la traduction technique : comment procéder ?

Au risque de dire une évidence, il nous semble que la traduction d'un texte technique est (et reste) avant tout un exercice de traduction. La démarche fondamentale reste la même que pour les textes généraux. Les bases de cet exercice (de même d'ailleurs que les formations linguistiques générales) devront donc déjà être parfaitement maîtrisées avant que l'on aborde la traduction technique.

Comme pour tous les autres textes, la démarche traduisante s'appuiera sur la théorie du sens professée par l'école de Paris, représentée par D. Seleskovitch, M. Lederer, Jean Delisle, K. Déjean et Marino Garcia-Landa entre autres (Marino Garcia-Land (1981 : 113)), une théorie qui semble faire l'unanimité: *«l'objet de la traduction[...] est le sens véhiculé par le texte et non la langue utilisée qui permet de l'exprimer» Durieux (1988: 9).*

Le traducteur doit se distancier par rapport à la langue de départ et rendre le sens dans la langue d'arrivée sous une forme aussi spontanée que possible en évitant toutes les interférences entre les deux langues.

Cette démarche s'articule en plusieurs étapes: la lecture (qui est une démarche sémasiologique: partir du mot pour en extraire le sens), la compréhension du message et la ré-expression (qui est une démarche onomasiologique : partir de l'idée pour en trouver le mot ou l'expression).

Il ne fait de doute pour personne que la compréhension du message précède la restitution de son sens. On l'a suffisamment dit : on ne traduit pas pour comprendre mais on comprend pour traduire. C'est sans doute là que la démarche du traducteur technique diffère quelque peu de celle du traducteur général. Selon la nature du texte et son degré de difficulté (mais aussi selon les connaissances du traducteur) l'effort de compréhension pourra présenter des différences considérables. En plus de l'analyse formelle et logique du texte que requiert toute traduction, le traducteur devra effectuer un certain nombre de recherches documentaires et terminologiques indispensables. C'est cette recherche qui, à notre sens, différencie le mieux la traduction technique.

Ici plus qu'ailleurs, le traducteur devra se garder de tout transcodage mot à mot ou phrase par phrase. Il doit dégager le sens du texte dans sa globalité. Les étudiants devront lutter contre la tendance qu'ils ont trop souvent à atomiser le texte, à le réduire à une succession de mots techniques dont ils se contentent d'aligner les traductions.

Par ailleurs, l'emploi du terme juste est un impératif auquel le traducteur devra se soumettre. L'abus de périphrases à défaut du terme propre nuit à la compréhension du spécialiste. Il devra donc maîtriser la terminologie et la phraséologie du domaine concerné.

Il devra également pouvoir reconnaître l'emploi d'un terme technique dans un sens plus général. Il devra aussi s'habituer au mélange de registres techniques et non-techniques et être conscient qu'il n'y a pas, comme l'écrit Christine Durieux (1988 : 68 et 94) *«de cloison étanche entre les différents domaines des sciences et des techniques»*, et que différents domaines peuvent très bien être traités dans un même texte.

Enfin, la formulation et le style ne pourront être négligé. Comme l'écrit notre collègue Christian Balliu (1994:18), la traduction scientifique ne pourra se résumer *«à un problème de compréhension et de simple transcodage linguistique:la dimension stylistique existe manifestement.»* Les publications scientifiques ne constituent en aucun cas le *«degré zéro de connotation»* (2000 :15).

3. Notre troisième question traite des compétences et des savoirs à développer chez nos apprentis traducteurs. A quels objectifs ce cours doit-il répondre ?

Un cours de traduction spécialisée doit-il avoir pour objectif final, comme l'affirme Mareschal (1988 :264), *«la production d'un texte de qualité dans le domaine de spécialisation choisi»* ? Oui, pour autant que l'accent soit mis, en priorité, sur l'acquisition d'une méthode de travail applicable à tous les textes techniques, qui permettra d'appréhender les concepts et la langue du domaine dont relève le texte à traduire .

Un aspect de l'objectif du cours qui nous paraît essentiel est d'aider les étudiants à acquérir l'autonomie qui leur sera nécessaire dans la vie professionnelle en matière d'acquisition des notions, de la terminologie et de la phraséologie. Il faut développer leur faculté d'appliquer, de manière autonome et avec confiance, une méthode de travail pour produire des traductions de qualité professionnelle.

Autonomie et confiance sont d'autant plus nécessaires, que les étudiants n'ayant que des connaissances limitées dans le domaine technique ont tendance, indique Barbara Folkart (1981: 215) *«à voir dans le texte technique quelque chose qui est destiné aux seuls initiés et qui est, partant, ' intangible'.»* C'est là une attitude qu'il faut combattre.

En quoi consiste la méthode de travail préconisée ?

La méthode que nous préconisons reprend, dans les grandes lignes, les principes exposés dans *La traduction raisonnée* de Jean Delisle (1993 :84), à savoir :

- L'étudiant commence d'abord par «mettre le texte en situation»: il recueille le plus d'informations possible sur le texte en tant que moyen de communication.

- Il procède à la lecture exploratoire; il lit le texte en faisant l'inventaire des traits caractéristiques, des notions clés et des difficultés de compréhension et de traduction qu'il présente.

- Il adopte à cette fin une démarche sémasiologique, c'est à dire du terme à la notion. Il procède à la recherche terminologique et documentaire en appliquant ce que nous avons appelé le principe de l'entonnoir: l'étudiant part des sources les plus générales pour aborder, en finale, les sources les plus spécialisées.

Christine Durieux (1988 :46) recommande de se limiter *«aux recherches nécessaires mais suffisantes pour effectuer la traduction.»* L'étudiant *«doit faire toutes les recherches nécessaires jusqu'à ce qu'il ait la certitude de bien comprendre le texte original et qu'il se sente prêt à en effectuer la traduction, mais il doit s'arrêter dès lors que ses recherches sont suffisantes.» «Le traducteur doit toujours veiller à se faire une idée précise du phénomène étudié sans se perdre dans des exposés qu'il aura du mal à appréhender, quitte à prendre le risque de n'acquérir ainsi que des connaissances sommaires et superficielles »*, poursuit-elle (1988 :67).

- Fort de ses recherches, le traducteur appréhende le sens de l'énoncé et débouche sur la saisie de la dynamique du texte. Il procède à une lecture *orientée* ou *critique* du texte de départ.

- Le sens du texte de départ étant bien assimilé, il passe au transfert en langue d'arrivée et écrit un premier jet. Le traducteur exprime le sens original en respectant l'usage de la langue d'arrivée.

- Il passe ensuite à la relecture finale .

L'enseignement de la traduction technique doit-il se calquer sur les conditions du monde professionnel ?

Ce n'est pas notre avis! Les objectifs d'un cours de traduction technique et ceux de l'environnement professionnel sont totalement distincts.

En effet, les bureaux ou services de traduction n'ont aucun objectif de formation. Ils ne s'intéressent qu'au résultat final. Ils ne jugeront que la qualité finale d'une traduction. Ils n'auront pas à s'interroger sur l'origine des lacunes décelées ni à remplir une mission de formateur.

La tâche de l'enseignant est tout autre. Il ne peut se contenter d'accepter ou de refuser un travail ; il doit amener tous les étudiants à développer les compétences requises pour arriver à effectuer correctement le travail. Il mettra donc l'accent sur tous les aspects de la méthode, vérifiant, au passage, la pertinence des recherches et la mise en œuvre de l'analyse critique.

Loin de nous toutefois l'idée qu'il faille dissocier la pratique pédagogique de la réalité professionnelle. S'il nous incombe de sensibiliser les étudiants aux problèmes socio-professionnels de la traduction, ce qui nous importe le plus, c'est de les aider à adopter une méthode de travail fiable qu'ils pourront appliquer dans toutes les circonstances.

C'est la raison pour laquelle nous n'abordons pas ce cours comme de la traduction en professionnels.

Notre démarche constitue plutôt une approche intermédiaire entre la traduction en simulation et celle en professionnel. Notre approche s'inspire de cette dynamique qui caractérise si bien le projet TRADUTECH de Daniel Gouadec et Hugo Marquant, pour motiver nos étudiants tout en restant dans un cadre exclusivement pédagogique.

Comme le recommande Christine Durieux (1988 :17), nous avons choisi de travailler sur de nouveaux textes dans lesquels nous-mêmes, les enseignants , rencontrons des difficultés afin de mieux pouvoir cerner celles des étudiants.

Organisation du cours

En début d'année, les étudiants reçoivent l'ensemble des textes dont certains extraits seront traduits. Ils reçoivent une courte bibliographie sur le domaine abordé ainsi qu'une sélection d'adresses de sites Internet et de glossaires spécialisés en ligne.

Les étudiants sont répartis en petits groupes de 4 à 6 personnes et préparent les traductions ensemble, en respectant la méthode de travail préconisée.

Pour stimuler leur participation active aux cours, malgré leur cursus trop chargé, et pour les obliger à ne sauter aucune étape, nous procédons à une évaluation continue de leur travail.

Les leçons s'enchaînent de la manière suivante:

- une leçon consacrée à la recherche en bibliothèque,
- une leçon en petits groupes pour la mise en commun des recherches et la production de traductions collectives,
- une séance de discussion sur les passages difficiles,
- un test individuel,
- une séance d'analyse des résultats des tests.

Sur quel type de textes avons-nous travaillé ?

Soucieux de délimiter un domaine de spécialité, nous avons choisi de consacrer ce cours aux télécommunications. Au sein de ce vaste domaine, nous avons essentiellement abordé les sous-domaines que sont les réseaux de télécommunications filaires et cellulaires.

L'objectif était de travailler sur un thème d'actualité pour susciter l'intérêt et la motivation, mais aussi sur un sujet en constante évolution qui requiert une actualisation permanente.

Le sous-domaine choisi n'est évidemment pas l'objet de notre étude. Il ne sert que d'exemple, d'exercice pour acquérir un savoir faire reproductible.

L'axe de progression que nous avons choisi repose sur la difficulté et l'abstraction des sujets des textes abordés. Nous passons du plus concret au plus abstrait.

En effet, nous travaillons sur une compilation d'articles qui tous permettent aux étudiants de se faire une idée de plus en plus précise du domaines choisi. Nous partons d'articles donnant un aperçu, une vue générale du sujet , pour ensuite aborder des points plus spécifiques et de plus en plus complexes ou abstraits (modulation, commutations, différents types de signaux, le rayonnement électromagnétique, etc.).

En quoi consistait exactement l'évaluation ?

Lors de l'exposé du programme de travail et de la méthode d'évaluation en début d'année, nous avons expliqué aux étudiants qu'ils seraient testés

d'une part sur leurs recherches documentaires et terminologiques, et d'autre part sur la traduction des textes à traduire.

Lors des tests, nous les avons interrogés sur la terminologie, sur le sens du texte et nous leur avons soumis un nouveau texte à traduire fort proche mais néanmoins distinct de celui qu'ils avaient à préparer.

4. Dressons maintenant le bilan de cette expérience. Quels en sont les points positifs et les points négatifs ?

L'avantage évident de notre approche pédagogique, c'est la participation et le travail des étudiants pendant toute l'année. Ce système ne leur permet plus de sécher les cours ou de rester passif.

L'autre avantage, c'est l'assimilation par tous les étudiants de la méthode préconisée. Grâce aux interrogations portant sur des passages à traduire, mais aussi sur la logique du texte et le sens des notions abordées, les étudiants ont bien compris qu'ils ne pouvaient faire l'impasse sur aucune étape de la préparation du travail!

En terme de travail fourni par les étudiants, le bilan est donc très positif. Toutefois, l'objectif final n'est pas toujours atteint : la qualité de certaines traductions des textes similaires au texte d'exercice laisse encore trop souvent à désirer.

De plus, malgré les travaux de recherche et l'analyse minutieuse des traductions produites par les étudiants, le sceau du professionnel n'est jamais venu cautionner la traduction finale, ce qui nous est malgré tout apparu comme une certaine faiblesse de notre approche. Pour donner une plus grande crédibilité à notre travail, nous allons faire appel à des spécialistes des télécommunications (domaine dont relèvent les textes) à divers moments de l'année universitaire : sous forme de conférences, ils feront une présentation théorique de la matière, ils participeront à des séances de questions-réponses et collaboreront à la relecture du travail final!

Par ailleurs, dans un souci de formalisation terminologique, toutes les recherches terminologiques réalisées par les différents groupes seront intégrées dans une base de données MultiTerm (TRADOS) consultable sur le site Intranet de l'institut. Un pas de plus, nous l'espérons, vers plus d'efficacité et de professionnalisme!

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Problemes posés par la traduction spécialisée, le langage scientifique, français ↔ vietnamien, deux langues aux antipodes l'une de l'autre

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Resumé: La traduction spécialisée présuppose qu'il existe une langue spécialisée, comme dans le cas du langage scientifique. Pour pouvoir bien traduire les textes spécialisés, ou pour bien les enseigner en langue étrangère, le traducteur ou l'interprète et l'enseignant devront être formés au niveau linguistique. Beaucoup d'études réalisées sur le français de spécialité, particulièrement sur le français scientifique, sont faites sur du français standard, le français de la métropole. Les recherches ont été menées par des non-spécialistes des disciplines scientifiques telles que les mathématiques, la chimie, la physique et d'autres spécialités encore. Les enseignants vietnamiens de français général, langue étrangère, dispensent le français aux scientifiques vietnamiens. Ce sont aussi des non-spécialistes de la langue spécialisée. D'un côté, les enseignants vietnamiens de français sont formés pour enseigner cette langue aux spécialistes scientifiques afin de leur apprendre à communiquer dans des buts scientifiques en français. De l'autre, les spécialistes scientifiques, connaissant bien leur domaine de spécialité dans leur langue maternelle, doivent apprendre, au début de leur apprentissage, des structures grammaticales de la langue étrangère, le français, qui n'ont apparemment, pas de liens avec leur spécialité. Le même problème se pose pour les traducteurs des textes scientifiques. Notre objectif est donc de faire une analyse contrastive succincte, du point de vue linguistique, de la nature du langage scientifique dans les deux langues, le français et le vietnamien. Cela englobe les difficultés propres à la traduction spécialisée, tant au niveau de l'origine différente de chaque langue qu'au niveau des particularités de la langue scientifique .

Abstract. French ↔ Vietnamese Scientific Language: Difficulties Brought About By Technical Translation In/Between Dissimilar Languages.
Specialized translation presupposes the existence of an academic genre such as scientific language. In so doing, the translator and/or the interpreter as well as the teacher should be trained at the non academic

or subject area level, to teach texts for specific aims in foreign languages. Many studies conducted in French for specific purposes, particularly in scientific French were conveyed in standard language, "le français de la métropole". Likewise, research has been carried out by non-subject specialists, namely in mathematics, chemistry, and physics, among others. Vietnamese teachers teach French as a foreign language to Vietnamese subject specialists who are also non-experts in scientific French. Accordingly, these teachers are trained to teach French to Vietnamese subjects specialists, so that they may communicate about their subject in French. In addition, the subject area students, also experts in their field in their mother tongue, have to acquire the syntactic and lexical structures of the target language. These have apparently nothing to do with their field of expertise. The same problem has been raised for the translators of texts for specific purposes. The aim of this paper is, therefore, to provide a short contrastive analysis approach of the nature of the subject matter both in French and in Vietnamese. It covers difficulties not only in the translation of scientific texts but also those related to two dissimilar languages arising from their origin and from specific subject area issues.

Introduction

Traduire, c'est Faire que ce qui était énoncé dans une langue le soit dans une autre, en tendant à l'équivalence sémantique et expressive des deux énoncés. (Petit Robert,1969), c'est-à-dire faire passer (cet énoncé ou un texte) d'une langue dans une autre. (Lexis, 1992). L'activité traduisante semble naturelle et facile à première vue. Néanmoins, elle est complexe lorsqu'il s'agit de deux langues aux antipodes l'une de l'autre comme c'est le cas du français et du vietnamien aux origines difficilement comparables. Elle l'est, d'autant plus que le langage scientifique et technique est considéré comme une langue spécifique à l'intérieur même de chaque langue. Certes, la traduction spécialisée présuppose qu'il existe une langue spécialisée, comme dans le cas du langage scientifique. Quelle est la nature de la langue technique et de la science : question fondamentale pour le traducteur. L'objectif de cette étude est de faire une analyse contrastive succincte de la nature du langage scientifique dans les deux langues, afin de déceler quels genres de difficultés linguistiques pose la traduction spécialisée, en français et en vietnamien.

Les résumés de thèses de doctorat et articles réalisés par les scientifiques vietnamiens au cours de ces dernières années publiés dans les Bulletins de communication entre les **Instituts Nationaux Polytechniques de France et du Vietnam** (1997-2001) serviront de corpus d'analyse, bilingue, français ↔ vietnamien.

1. Le vietnamien et ses particularités

Le français et le vietnamien ont des structures morphosyntaxiques totalement opposées. Cela tient, bien sûr, à leurs origines très différentes : l'une est indo-européenne et l'autre de la même famille que le chinois, dont elle a subi en outre, pour des raisons historiques, d'importantes influences. Le vietnamien est une langue très simple quant à ses structures grammaticales, si on la compare au français, langue à morphologie flexionnelle. Le vietnamien utilise l'alphabet latin additionné de quelques lettres supplémentaires ou modifiées, ou bien les différents accents sur les voyelles grâce à l'initiative du père français Alexandre de Rhodes au XVIIè siècle, avec l'arrivée des marchands portugais et des missionnaires catholiques. Cette écriture a remplacé l'ancienne, modelée sur celle du chinois qu'on appelait le Hán-Viet (sino-vietnamien).[1]

Nous pouvons synthétiser les traits essentiels du vietnamien dans le tableau ci-dessous :

Les mots vietnamiens sont invariables	
Les noms, les adjectifs et les verbes:	- sont *invariables*: ni genre, ni nombre
Les verbes:	- n'indiquent dans leurs formes: ni le présent, ni le passé, ni le futur, ni oppositions de personnes
La solution pour résoudre tous ces problèmes est: **la lexicalisation**.	- additionner des termes accessoires (postverbes, préverbes; classificateurs, etc.) avant ou après l'élément principal.
La phrase simple est constituée de: (Phu Phong Nguyen, 1992)	- **un syntagme nominal** [. ***Le nom*** est modifié par les modifiants nominaux (numéral, classificateur, démonstratif)] - **un syntagme verbal:** . ***Le verbe*** a des modifiants spécifiques [(le temps, l'aspect, le mode = préverbes et postverbes)]; le noyau est un verbe entouré de modifiants verbaux et de noms compléments.
La grande majorité des syllabes:	- des morphèmes - une proportion très importantes de morphèmes a le statut de *mot* : ô (parapluie)
Les syllabes: une mauvaise prononciation des tons peut entraîner une mauvaise compréhension du message[2].	- revêtues des six différents tons mélodiques la, lá, là, la?, lã, la. crier, feuille, repasser, exténué, plat(e), étrange

Tableau 1 : Les traits essentiels de la structure morphosyntaxique du vietnamien.

Outre ces particularités, il existe quelques caractéristiques propres à la langue vietnamienne que le traducteur doit maîtriser. La première concerne *l'ordre selon le temps, le moment de l'action*[3]. Phan Khoi (1954 :141) cite cet

exemple pour illustrer cette idée. *Un chasseur est sur le chemin du retour. Un homme lui demande :*

(1) « D'où venez-vous ?»

En français, il répondra :

« Je reviens de la chasse ».

En vietnamien, littéralement:

« Tôi trở về từ sự đi săn. » (Je – revenir – de la chasse).

Toutefois, la traduction littérale n'est pas du tout conforme à la norme de la langue vietnamienne. En fait, il faudrait le traduire: *Tôi đi săn về* . En rencontrant cet homme, le chasseur, qu'était-il en train de faire? Il était sur le chemin du retour. Mais avant de revenir, le locuteur dit ce qu'il avait fait avant: *đi săn* (chasser). En français, l'action principale pour le chasseur est ce qu'il fait au moment où on lui demande, et le fait de *chasser* se passe après. En vietnamien, on donne la priorité selon l'ordre du temps des différentes actions. Aussi, la chasse s'est passée avant l'action du retour *Tôi* (moi) *đi săn* (chasser) trở về (revenir). Il en est de même pour cet autre exemple:

(2) Couchez-vous dès que vous avez envie de dormir, *Hãy đi ngủ liền khi buồn ngủ,*

ne parlez que lorsqu'il le faut. *chỉ nên nói lúc nào thấy cần thấy đáng nói.*

La traduction ci-contre n'est pas appropriée selon le principe « suivre l'ordre du temps ». C'est pourquoi, la traduction 2' est plus correcte :

(2') Buồn ngủ thì đi ngủ ngay; *si vous avez envie de dormir, couchez-vous ;*

khi nào đáng nói hãy nói. *lorsqu'il le faut, parlez.*

L'exemple ci-dessous illustre, en partie, cette particularité :

(3) Nous faisons actuellement une étude théorique et expérimentale, (...).

Hiện nay chúng tôi triển khai việc nghiên cứu lý thuyết và thực nghiệm (...).

L'idée essentielle est de préciser le temps en premier lieu avant de décrire les activités de recherche, d'où la présence des déictiques temporels en tête de phrases. En français, peu importe s'ils sont en tête ou au milieu de phrases.

Une autre particularité qui n'existe qu'en vietnamien c'est «selon le sentiment (négatif – positif) du locuteur envers quelqu'un, quelque chose» dans la tournure passive. En français, la forme passive se contruit avec l'auxiliaire *être* + participe passé. En vietnamien, elle peut être exprimée de deux manières avec deux préverbes *được, bị*. Pour le verbe *être récompensé*, le préverbe *được*, est utilisé, dénotant un événement heureux: *được thưởng*, Pour le verbe *être décapité*, en revanche, *bị*, dénotant un événement malheureux, le

précède: *bị chặt đầu*. L'expression des deux préverbes peut expliciter les sentiments négatifs ou positifs du locuteur selon l'événement.

(4) Je suis invité.Tôi **bị** mời.

(5) J'ai été giflé.Tôi **được** tát.

Dans les exemples (4) et (5), du point de vue sémantique, on observe que l'emploi de l'auxiliaire passif avec le verbe principal est antonymique. Le locuteur vietnamien a le choix d'utiliser l'un des deux auxiliaires. Cependant, si le locuteur, dans l'exemple (4) n'aime pas aller à l'invitation car il peut être fatigué, alors, il va dire : *Tôi **bị** mời*. Aussi, le traducteur doit rendre cette réponse en français : *Hélas, je suis invité*. Il en est de même pour *être giflé*: le locuteur considère qu'*être giflé* est un honneur, un événement heureux pour lui. Alors, il dira *Tôi **được** tát* . (Je suis heureux d'être giflé.) .

2. Traduction scientifique et technique

Comme le définit Kocourek dans son précieux ouvrage "La langue française de la technique et de la science" (1991: 206) : *La traduction est une activité linguistique par excellence, à la fois ponctuelle (on ne traduit que le texte donné) et globale (en traduisant, on a recours à tous les plans de la langue). Elle a divers usages: communicatif, cognitif (Wilss, 1988), comparatif (Kocourek, 1988[a]), culturel, didactologique, celui d'implantation de l'aménagement terminologique, celui du témoin de la langue de l'auteur et du traducteur; et donc un rôle critique et vérificatif.*

En effet, l'activité traduisante englobe tous les usages indispensables pour réussir ce travail complexe. La langue scientifique et technique exige le rôle fondamental de la fonction cognitive des textes spécialisés. Une de ses caractéristiques fondamentales est la richesse du vocabulaire spécialisé doté d'une multitude de termes scientifiques et techniques que le domaine lexical à lui seul peut constituer d'autres sous-catégories de diverses spécialités. Aussi, la difficulté majeure du traducteur technique est d'avoir des connaissances dans un domaine précis (maths appliquées, physique, chimie, informatique, etc.) dans la langue source et la langue cible.

Le vietnamien, instaurée depuis 1919, n'a cessé d'évoluer, notamment dans le domaine scientifique et technique. Dans le domaine des sciences exactes, il possède les termes équivalents :

(6) Amélioration du rendement de l'ensemble **turbine** – générateur à vitesse variable. Modélisation des pertes et validations

Cải thiện (amélioration) hiệu xuất (rendement) **tổ hợp** (ensemble) **tuốc bin**– máy phát (générateur) **với** (avec) tốc độ(vitesse) thay đổi (variable). Mô hình hóa (modélisation) các (les) tổn thất (pertes) **và (et)** đánh giá , (évaluation) hiệu hóa(efficacité)

La juxtaposition est l'un des procédés syntaxiques principaux pour former les mots nouveaux vietnamiens. Par exemple: Cải (changer) + thiện (meilleur) = améliorer ; máy (machine) + phát (émettre) = générateur. La terminologie scientifique du vietnamien comporte jusqu'à 90% de mots sino-vietnamiens selon un linguiste vietnamien[4]. D'autre part, il existe beaucoup de termes que nous gardons intégralement, mais ils doivent être conformes à la morphologie et à l'orthographe des mots vietnamiens : turbine / tuốc bin, sous-gradient / dưới građieng, oxyde de carbone / oxýt các bon. Nous les empruntons à la langue française.

Afin de satisfaire les besoins de la traduction technoscientifique, l'étape de *la détermination des éléments linguistiques pertinents du texte source (il s'agit surtout, mais non uniquement, du contenu cognitif, véhiculé, entre autres, par les termes)* (Kocourek, 1991 : 207) est l'étape clé. La réussite de la traduction spécialisée tient au bon choix des termes techniques équivalents dans le domaine concerné de la langue cible. Le titre en français ici a été traduit presque du terme-à-terme en vietnamien c'est-à-dire traduire selon le processus du *système de correspondances préalablement établi entre* L_1 *et* L_2 (Garnier, 1985 : 97). C'est ce que Gouadec désigne par *la Mise en place des concordants terminologiques* (1998 : 182), une des phases indispensables dans la traduction. Le domaine du lexique spécialisé est donc considéré comme une des premières spécificités essentielles dans les textes scientifiques et techniques.

3. Caractéristiques sommaires du langage scientifique et problèmes de la traduction spécialisée français ↔ vietnamien

3.1 Le langage symbolique

La langue savante et technoscientifique est caractérisée en second lieu par le langage symbolique, éléments non linguistiques. Il constitue un des systèmes sémiotiques de spécialité, distinct des autres systèmes sémiotiques.[5] Pour la traduction du langage symbolique, le problème ne se pose pas. Les formules doivent être respectées, et reprises telles quelles.

$u^{k+1} = u^k = \lambda_k$	$u^{k+1} = u^k = \lambda^k$
où $g^k \in h(u^k)$ et $\lambda^k > 0$	ở đây $g^k \in h(u^k)$ và $\lambda^k > 0$
Dans R^2, $h(u) = \|u1\|-4\|u2\|$	Trong R^2 $h(u) = \|u1\|-4\|u2\|$

(7)

En vietnamien, on traduit *où* et *dans* littéralement par *ở đây, trong* car en fait ces mots appartiennent au langage courant. D'autres symboles comme

« +, -, ×, :, ∈, =, > » qui appartiennent au langage des mathématiques, sont universels et par conséquent sont les mêmes à l'écrit dans toutes les langues : seule leur oralisation diffère. Les formules ci-dessus sont composées de *lettres* : u, k, l, h, de *chiffres* : 1, 2 ; de *symboles spéciaux* : ∈, +, -, |. Les symboles spéciaux caractérisent particulièrement les textes spécialisés et sont très riches. Ce sont les unités lexicales dites non linguistiques que Kocourek appelle *unités brachygraphiques* (du grec *brakhus*, élément court). Elles restent, par conséquent, inchangées. La traduction du langage symbolique en français ou en vietnamien ne présente aucun problème.

3.2 Le contenu savant des textes spécialisés

Les textes reflètent la complexité du contenu très spécialisé. La substance du discours scientifique est principalement de transmettre les thèmes cognitifs tels que la description des phénomènes, des expérimentations et les définitions intégrantes aux sciences d'observation. Kocourek les désigne par *les phénomènes cognitifs clés du texte savant*. Il est évident que le traducteur ne peut traduire le contenu scientifique s'il n'a aucune connaissance dans le domaine concerné.

(8) Chaque état de gélification est identifié par une variable 3 calculée dans le cadre de l'approximation de l'arbre de Cayley.
Les paramètres RMN observés ainsi que les grandeurs macroscopiques mesurées sont fonction de cette variable. (...)

3.3 La neutralité émotive : l'utilisation des pronoms et verbes d'auteur - verbes d'activités expérimentales et le présent de l'indicatif à valeur atemporelle

Le langage scientifique dénote totalement *la neutralité émotive* pour laisser la place au contenu spécialisé qu'utilise la fonction cognitive.

(9) Nous proposons donc dans ce papier une méthode variationnelle (...).
Chúng tôi đề nghị trong bài báo này việc sử dụng phương pháp biến phân (...).

Dans *chúng tôi* - *chúng* indique une quantité de personnes (ou d'animaux) – et *tôi* : moi (l'ensemble de moi), et il est l'équivalent de *nous* français, pronom sujet de modestie. Pour exprimer le *nous* inclusif, *chúng ta* (l'ensemble de vous et moi) ou *ta* elliptique est utilisé.

(10) Nous montrons que, dans ce cas particulier, nous pouvons obtenir des gains énergétiques de près de 5% de l'énergie électrique utile.
Trong trường hợp đặc biệt này, **chúng ta** đã tăng được năng suất gần 5% so với điện năng cần

(11) C'est pourquoi, on doit réaliser, dans tous les cas, une étude précise basée sur des données réalistes.

Vì vậy, trong mọi trường hợp, **người ta** phải thực hiện nghiên cứu chính xác trên cơ sở số

En français comme en vietnamien *nous / chúng ta, on / ta, ng-ê̂i ta* (littéralement : les gens) représentent les pronoms de modestie : *les pronoms d'auteur* (Kocourek, 1991 :83). L'effacement complet de l'auteur est flagrant dans les textes scientifiques et techniques afin de laisser la place au contenu spécialisé proprement dit. Le même phénomène se produit dans les textes des sciences humaines, les sciences du langage par exemple :

(12) Comme **nous** l'avons vu en 4.2., toute grammaire présuppose un lexique (...).

Như **ta** đã thấy ở mục 4.2, mỗi ngữ pháp tiền giả định một bộ từ vựng (...)[1]. (...)[6].

Parfois leur emploi semble arbitraire :

(13) Nous[a] ne sommes pas seule à nous[b] poser le problème puisque Marie-José Béguelin, de son côté, va nous[c] parler (...)[7].

En principe, le *nous* entraîne le pluriel (masculin ou féminin). Le *nous* **a** et **b** ici, cependant, se réfère à Elisete Almeida au singulier; par conséquent, *seul* prend un **e** à «seul». En revanche, en vietnamien, toutes les catégories grammaticales étant invariables, il est difficile de percevoir, à l'écrit, si l'auteur est un homme ou une femme (sauf s'il se désigne) excepté qu'il doit y être ajouté le terme *bản thân* signifiant *soi-même*. S'il est précédé de *chúng tôi*, la traduction serait *nous-même(s)*.

(14) Không phải chỉ **bản thân chúng tôi** (nous-même) mới đặt vấn đề này bởi vì này bởi vì Bà Marie José Béguelin sẽ nói cho **chúng ta** (tous inclusif) về (...).[8]

Les *nous* **a** et **b** se réfèrent à l'auteur proprement dit, le *nous* de modestie, pronoms d'auteur alors que *nous* **c** indique le pronom inclusif. En vietnamien, la traduction des différents *nous* est *chúng ta* ou *chúng tôi*. Le sens lexical et grammatical sont exactement similaires en français ou en vietnamien – inclusif ou exclusif – selon le contexte. Aussi, un Français devra savoir interpréter et traduire les différents sens de *nous* français en vietnamien.

D'après l'analyse de la présence de *on* et de *nous* dans les différents corpus des textes scientifiques et techniques, *on* valant *nous* englobe le sujet énonciateur et ceux des collègues travaillant dans le même domaine que lui,

le laboratoire (Nguyen, 1995 : 95). L'utilisation des pronoms d'auteur, le *moi* énonciateur joue, le plus souvent, son rôle primordial dans les corpus. Néanmoins, comme l'a souligné Loffler-Laurian, dans son article (1980 :137), *Les pronoms « nous » et « on » lui servent de masque. Je* ne peut s'employer seul dans les textes scientifiques même si l'énonciateur est l'auteur des textes, l'auteur du travail. La présence de *on* et *nous* est justifiée par l'inacceptabilité de désigner soi-même dans un discours expositif du langage spécialisé (Nguyen, 1995).

D'après nos lectures des textes écrits en sciences du langage, l'usage des marques du sujet d'énonciation, de l'auteur par *je, j'* paraît s'utiliser plus facilement, nous semble-t-il, mais reste rare, cependant[9]. Loffer-Laurian (1980) apporte un éclairage intéressant sur ce phénomène. Il existe une grande différence entre un chercheur en sciences humaines (chercheur isolé) et au chercheur en sciences exactes concernant leur contexte de travail de recherche (chercheurs en équipe, polycéphales).

« Il faut, nous semble-t-il, se référer à la réalité du travail du chercheur scientifique, au «contexte» dans lequel il vit: le laboratoire. Alors qu'en sciences humaines, le chercheur isolé, travaillant seul en bibliothèque ou chez lui, est concevable, cela est impensable en sciences exactes où, actuellement, la moindre expérience requiert un matériel sophistiqué, donc une installation collective, donc des personnes pour en prendre soin et éventuellement préparer les instruments des expériences. Celles-ci sont, la plupart du temps, conçues en équipe, et les signataires sont généralement «polycéphales». (Loffer-Laurian, 1980 :135-157).

(15) Au point de vue théorique, nous **établissons**, pour la turbine et pour le générateur, un modèle paramétrique des pertes en fonction de la vitesse et de la puissance demandée.

Về mặt lý thuyết, trong tuốc bin và máy phát, chúng tôi **thiết lập** một mô hình xác định thông số của tổn thất theo tốc độ và công suất yêu cầu.

C'est pourquoi, on **doit réaliser**, (...) une étude précise basée sur des données réalistes.

Vì vậy, trong mọi trường hợp, người ta **phải thực hiện** nghiên cứu chính xác trên cơ sở số liệu thực tế.

Les pronoms sujets de modestie vont de pair avec les « verbes d'activités expérimentales» au présent de l'indicatif: les verbes comme *proposer, signaler, illustrer, démontrer, conclure, remarquer, noter, etc.* Ils expriment

toutes les activités expérimentales (avec les instruments des expériences) réalisées par les chercheurs dans le domaine des sciences. Le contenu spécifique des textes a choisi le présent de l'indicatif, à valeur atemporelle ou déontique pour transmettre les phénomènes cognitifs clés du texte savant. En effet, cet usage particulier du processus du *non-temps* concerne *les énoncés mathématiques et métaphysiques*[10].

Les pronoms, les verbes d'auteur et leur emploi au présent de l'indicatif sont les paramètres linguistiques étroitement liés pour personnifier les textes de spécialité.

3.4 La contribution des différentes tournures à l'impersonnalité des textes ou à la neutralité émotive chez l'auteur scientifique

Il existe aussi d'autres moyens d'expression pour renforcer le caractère impersonnel et la neutralité émotive chez l'auteur dans les textes.

(16) Depuis les deux dernières décennies, les applications de l'électronique de puissance **se propagent** progressivement dans plusieurs domaines.

Từ hai chục năm nay , việc áp dụng điện tử công suất khá **phổ biến** trong nhiều lĩnh vực kỹ thuật.

La construction pronominale en général et dite passive[11] dans la grammaire du vietnamien n'a pas, pour ainsi dire, de construction équivalente. En effet :

(17)Pour avoir plus de détails, le lecteur **pourra se reporter** à un article intitulé (...).

Để thêm chi tiết bạn đọc **có thể tham khảo** liệu (...).

En revanche, la tournure passive en français et en vietnamien est plus ou moins similaire :

(18) Dans la dernière partie, le code de calcul **est appliqué** aux écoulements (...)

Trong phần chót, chương trình **được áp dụng** cho dòng chất lưu (...)

(19) Théorème 4.1 : Supposons que l'ensemble des maxima de h, H*, **est borné**.

Định lý : 4.1 : Giả sử rằng tập các điểm cực đại H* của h là **bị chặn**.

La construction passive est formulée, en vietnamien, nous l'avons dit, par l'ajout, soit de *được* pour un événement positif, heureux, soit de *bị* pour un événement malheureux, suivi du verbe au passif. Notons que l'auxiliaire *être* n'est pas du tout traduit en vietnamien et a pour verbe équivalent *là*, verbe

copule qui n'a rien à voir avec la tournure passive. Dans les deux langues, la majorité des tournures passives dites *non achevées*[12] n'ont pas de compléments d'agent exprimés. Ce n'est pas un hasard. L'objectif du phénomène est d'appuyer le caractère impersonnel du texte et de laisser la place aux choses comme si elles agissent elles-mêmes. Les constructions passives et les constructions pronominales dites passives sont les deux principales *variantes de l'élimination de toute mention explicite de l'auteur.* (Kocourek, 1991 : 84).

4. Difficultés de la traduction spécialisée

Le plus grand obstacle dans la traduction spécialisée est la présence écrasante des classes lexicales nominales, *la classe la plus privilégiée dans le lexique des textes technoscientifiques* (Kocourek, 1991 : 92) qui exige de la part du traducteur une bonne maîtrise des deux langues. Les caractéristiques du langage spécialisé présentées sont similaires dans les deux langues. Le vietnamien possède les ressources syntaxiques équivalentes à celles du français et peut donc interpréter les spécificités du langage scientifique. Par rapport au français et au vietnamien, langues naturelles, la langue de spécialité représente une sous-langue. Le besoin de la traduction spécialisée est fondamental pour l'avenir de notre pays dans le Nouveau Millenium.

Notes

[1] Dô Thê D.,Lê Thanh T. (1994) *Le vietnamien sans peine, Assimil,* in Introduction, Méthode quotidienne, , pp. 493, 494, France.

[2] Lo-Cicero, M.- H. *Traduction des Fables de La Fontaine en vietnamien : Problèmes de cohérence et de cohésions textuelles,* Communication présentée au Colloque International: Référence discursive dans les langues (romanes et slaves), Université Marie Curie-Sklodowski, Lublin, 24 – 30 septembre 2000.

[3] Phan, K., (1954) *Viet Ngu Nghien cuu (Etude de la langue vietnamienne),* NXB Da Nang, Viet Nam, édité en 1997.

[4] Dô Thê, D. , Lê Thanh, T. (1994) *Le vietnamien sans peine, Assimil,* in Introduction, *Méthode quotidienne,* France, p. 493.

[5] Kocourek, R. (1991) *La langue française de la technique et de la science,* Brandstetter Verlag, Wiesbaden, p.40.

[6] Lyons, J. (1968) *Grammaire et Lexique, Analyse et synthèse in Linguistique générale,* Introduction à la linguistique théorique, (traduit par Françoise Dubois-Charlier, David Robinson, Librairie Larousse, Paris.

Ngu phap va bo tư vưng(1997)Phân tích và tổ , traduit par Vuong Huu Le, Nha Xuat ban Giao Duc.

[7] Almeida, E. in *Introduction, La Féminisation des noms de métiers, fonctions, titres et occupations en portugais et en français: approche contrastive*, 1999, Jornadas Romanísticas, Universidade da Madeira, Departamento de Estudos Romanísticos.

[8] Nous nous proposons la traduction.

[9] Nous avons trouvé 22 occurrences de « Je » dans la partie « Préliminaires » dans « *Une histoire de discours de la revue « Le français dans le monde », 1962-1981* de Sophie Moirand, Hachette, Paris, 1988.

[10] Maillard, M., (1990-1991) *Cours de DEA*, Université Grenoble 3,.

[11] Riegel, M., et al., (1994) *Grammaire méthodique du français*, PUF, Linguistique nouvelle, Paris, p.258.

[12] Terme de Kocourek (1991).

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Translating patent applications as an introduction to specialized translation - a case study

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Abstract. Patents translation is considered a highly demanding task, and not without reason. The subjects are usually extremely specialized, combining technical or scientific and legal perspectives. The language is complex, requiring detailed analysis of intra- and inter-sentence relations. There are various rigorous constraints. Extreme accuracy is required. In addition patents involve considerable financial considerations and responsibilities. Nevertheless or perhaps for these very reasons I consider that patent translation provides an ideal approach to teaching the translation of special texts, since they provide opportunities for students to practise many of the situations that arise in the work of the professional translator. Furthermore patent translation requires systematic acquisition of knowledge in the background technology and terminology. It also provides possibilities for practising the different roles of the translator as well as for interaction with the patent agent/inventor. Other advantages are that patents use many stereotyped phrases, for which it is fairly easy to find models. This characteristic also makes it possible to introduce the use of translation memory tools and illustrate their usefulness and applications, for example for team translation. Patent translation is one of the fields in which knowledge of the source language is arguably more important than fluency of style in the target language, thus helping to explode the myth that translators should only translate into their mother tongue or language of habitual use and providing food for thought on the subject of quality in translation. Finally, successful completion of a demanding project helps to increase students' motivation and self-confidence.

1. Introduction

This paper is a response to the issue raised by the present conference, i.e. "the problem of preparing people to work in the real world of the professional linguist, a multi-faceted environment in which an ever wider variety of language, translation and interpreting skills are required". I discuss the

translation of patents, or more specifically patent applications, as one domain in that environment. My intention not to talk about how to translate patent applications, but about how to prepare students to work in the real world of the professional translator, in which translating patent applications is one possible task. My purpose here is to demonstrate how students can be taught to act professionally within the framework of a real translation assignment and, at the same time, how the gap between theory and practice can be bridged by showing students the relevance of certain theoretical considerations to their work.

2. Why patent applications?

As an introduction to professional work in the field of specialized translation, patent applications may seem to many the wrong place to start. In the spectrum of translation tasks, patents are usually placed at the more "difficult" end. The subject matter is usually of a highly specialized technical nature, and at the same time the language of patents is legal language with all its complexity of structure. Furthermore, both the original and the translated patent application are subject to very rigorous constraints of absolute explicitness, unambiguity and accuracy. The burden of responsibility involved in translating patent applications is also heavy in financial terms, as an inaccurate or incomplete translation may lead to time-consuming and expensive delays in the application process.

Notwithstanding the above objections, and stressing that the translation tasks discussed here are real tasks for a real client with a real need, there are several reasons why I would argue that this demanding task can serve as both a feasible and a useful introduction to the professional world of specialized translation work, while at the same time helping students to relate theory to practice.

Translating patent applications is an excellent demonstration of translation as a knowledge-based, rule-governed decision-making process, because:

1. It stresses the role of knowledge in making decisions. Students realize that they cannot translate or even understand the text in their own language without linking it to reality. With "easier" texts one may be tempted to translate the words without thinking about the reality, because the content of such texts may be (or at least seem) "too" familiar to us. For example, it is often only when a text is translated that the author notices illogical or ambiguous expressions, which strike the translator because he or she is less familiar with the world of the writer.

2. It underlines the role of norms. Patent language is highly conventional but also breaks many of the generally accepted communicative "norms", provoking discussion of rules, norms and conventions and their hierarchical nature ("language so ugly its cute").

Thus theory and practice meet in performing the task of translating patent applications. Successful performance of the challenging task has the added advantage of strengthening the translator's self-image. (Translator's comment: "If I can tackle this, I can tackle anything.")

2.1 Knowledge

Different kinds of knowledge are needed to translate a patent application successfully. These are:

– knowledge of the world (of patents)
– knowledge of the text type and linguistic features of patents
– domain knowledge

in that order. Knowledge of the subject matter of a patent and the languages involved is not enough – and in fact, without knowledge of the world of patents and their linguistic features, might result in a totally inadequate translation! (**Note** that I am not talking about knowledge of technical or scientific language. What is generally described as technical or scientific language usually means the language of a specific genre such as instructions or scientific articles. There are innumerable specialized languages for special purposes, and although patentable inventions are by definition technical in character, the subject matter may vary from something as simple as a garden swing to something as complex as the multistage pulp production process with all the sophisticated equipment and processes involved that our source text dealt with.)

2.2 Norms and their hierarchical nature

For a discussion of norms, see e.g. Hermans (1999: 72-90). According to Susanne Göpferisch (1998: 222-225), patent applications are amongst the most strongly conventionalized text genres. Form, content and language are determined not only by convention but also by legislation, both national and international. Failure to adhere to the rules may lead to non-acceptance of the patent, or at least to expensive delay in the acceptance process

Thus there are other kinds of norms to consider in translating patent applications than purely linguistic ones. How then are we to prioritize the relevant norms? Komissarov (1993: 63-75) gives equivalence, genre and style, linguistic usage, pragmatic function, and convention as normative requirements for translation, but goes on to say that "the norm for equivalence

in translation is not an invariable parameter. It calls for the highest possible correspondence between the contents of original and translation, but only within the limits compatible with other normative requirements that guarantee a translation's adequacy." (idem, 71), and "In the same way the normative requirements for an adequate translation are relevant only for certain types of text and **certain conditions governing the activity of translation**." (idem, 71, my emphasis). In order to prioritize norms we need to know the conditions governing the translation of patent applications and their quality.

2.3 Environment

The booklet 'An Introduction to Patents in Europe' describes a patent as "a state monopoly lasting for a period of generally up to 20 years, which is granted to an inventor in exchange for a full disclosure of the invention in a printed publication" (idem, 7). In fact a patent protects an invention from exploitation by others, and "can be a major asset in today's fiercely competitive marketplace." (idem, 7). Filing for a foreign patent generally presupposes translation of the patent application. When filing for a Europatent, the patent is only valid in those countries into whose official language it has been translated.

In her Master's thesis (1992), Riitta Nykänen has listed factors governing quality in patents as follows:

2.3.1 Function: "Primarily it is formulated according to legal requirements for the purposes of examination and with the aim of obtaining patent protection, but it must also be written in such a way that another specialist – not a layman – can understand the invention and utilize it with permission." (Nykänen, 37). This means that the invention must be described explicitly and unambiguously and thus it is highly technical expert to expert communication.

2.3.2 Duration of interest: The translation of a patent application is intended to have a long life - 20 years if not contested, 3-10 years if contested. This should be reflected in the quality of the translation (idem 84).

2.3.3 Scope of interest: The users of the translation include the examining authority, the foreign patent agent, later manufacturers of similar products, potential licensees etc., and after expiry of patent, the audience may be even wider. Both the duration and scope of interest of the patent application translation presuppose high quality, as the success of the application in another country may depend on the translation almost entirely. Nykänen finds it difficult to understand that in spite of this, for example the Finnish Patent Law "makes no reference to the quality, standard or adequacy of translation, or – for that matter – to the competence of the translator." (idem 69).

2.3.4 Operational factors steering the patent application translation process mentioned by Nykänen (idem. 85-89) include cost, accessibility of extra-linguistic expertise and time, all of which, as she points out, are usually better arranged in patent translation than in many other typical translation environments. Legislation, rules, and codes are of course also among the operational factors.

2.4 Role of legislation and convention

As Göpferisch points out (1998: 222), the form, content and language of patents are regulated not only by convention but also by laws, rules and codes. The macrostructure of the patent application text is fairly uniform, independent of language:

2.4.1 Form and content of patent applications: adapted from Göpferisch (1998: 223)

- Brief and factual title
- Description of the invention
- Background information
- Description of the prior art and possible deficiencies
- Problems to be solved
- Solution to the problems, characteristics of the invention with the advantages
- Other embodiments
- One or more examples with reference to figures
- Patent claims
- Figures
- Abstract

2.4.2 The language of patents also has certain features in common. These are conventional features determined basically by the function of patent applications, and they give rise to certain of the special characteristics of patent language and they include

Register:

The text of patent applications is legally regulated therefore has features of legal language while at the same time describing technical inventions explicitly and unambiguously for another expert. Thus the register is both legal (frequency of stereotyped formulae – often archaic "known in the prior art, "known to a person skilled in the art", "a device characterized in that...") and technical (frequency of technical terms).

Semantic features:

Quoting from Gopferisch (1998: 223), "semantically underdetermined nouns", such as "means", "device", "arrangement", qualified in more detail by relative clauses and participial phrases describing their technical execution, are characteristically used in patent applications to avoid limiting the scope of protection of the patent.

Syntactic features:

Both the legal nature of the documents concerned and the above constraints on describing inventions lead to sentence structures that are often long and complicated.

Knowledge of the above conditions governing the activity of translating patent applications and reflection on norms provides students with a basis on which to make translational decisions.

3. The case: translating a patent application from Finnish into English:

The customer is a major Finnish forest industry company. The project involves translating a patent application describing a method of producing pulp for a grade of paper with certain properties that would overcome disadvantages of previous methods. The team set up to execute the project comprises the present author, who is a trainer and practising translator with experience of both translating and revising patent application translations and the students (6) have completed basic courses in translation theory, methodology and practice, but have no experience of translating specialized (technical) texts.

3.1 Problems to be solved: knowledge

- How to gain enough knowledge of the world of patents to succeed in the task
- How to gain enough knowledge of the special field in question to understand the invention
- How to gain knowledge of the linguistic features of both legal and technical aspects of language to produce an acceptable translation

Sources of knowledge of the world of patents:

It is possible in the case of translating patent applications to arrange ideal conditions, since filing for a patent is a process that has to be planned far ahead (about 15 months). In our case excellent cooperation with the requester of the translation, the patent agent of the forest industry company concerned, was one factor contributing to the success of the project. He had previously

held a seminar for students on patents, in which he stressed the importance and of patents and their translations as competitive assets for his company and the financial responsibility involved. The company is constantly developing products and processes to produce better paper more economically and in more environment-friendly ways, as this helps to sell more paper. The seminar provided answers to the following questions:

- Why are patents filed?
- What is the patent filing process?
- Why are translations needed?
- Why are patent translations needed by this particular company?
- What conditions must the patent applications translations fulfill (the translator's responsibility)?
- Where to find background knowledge (websites etc.)?

In response to a subsequent questionnaire the patent agent specified in more detail what he considered to be the most important quality requirements for patent application translations, quality depending, of course, on the function of the translations.

- The invention and claims (scope of protection) should be translated so that they will be understood correctly by the examining authorities. This requires understanding of technical background and knowledge of terminology.
- The translations should be accepted by the search or examination authorities without corrections (i.e. "right first time").
- The translations are needed according to a strict schedule and so delays cannot be tolerated ("on-time delivery".

Sources of domain knowledge

The forest industry, including pulp and paper manufacture, paper and board and their properties, is a well-documented domain, and thus a wide variety of information sources are available. Sources used in this case for acquiring knowledge of the domain included presentations of the company and its field of business, study of company brochures, annual reports and other published material. These sources were supplemented by the study of textbook texts and trade journal texts on the relevant aspects of pulp and papermaking and by reference to specialized dictionaries, databases and the information services of research institutions such as the Finnish Pulp and Paper Research Institute. A visit to the company's production facilities would have been possible but was not arranged in this case.

Sources of textual and linguistic knowledge

It proved easy to find reference material on which to model the translation's textual and linguistic features. The patents referred to in the

patent application were easily retrieved via the website of the Finnish Board of Patents and Trademarks, which provides a patent search service and international links. Terminology could be verified against the reference patents. Syntactic problems were mainly due to structural differences between Finnish and English as discussed below.

3. 2 Translation process:

The aim of the project was to gain experience of professional translation by working in the same way as a team of professional translators would, while making allowances for the learning process (reflection). The reflection required for learning was implemented by discussion during class sessions and by the writing of a final report based on a questionnaire. The translation process included the following stages, which are described below:

- Making the offer
- Allocation of tasks and drawing up the timetable
- Materials research and compilation of terminology
- Production of the first version
- Revision, and production of the final version

In our case the offer was based on previous decisions about rates based on character count (a standard page of 1560 characters). The students estimated the number of pages, decided how much time would be needed to complete each stage – in theory and in practice (allowing time for learning). The delivery date was fixed (two weeks before the translated document was needed by the company for submitting to the examining authorities). The project took a total of 10 weeks during which the team met four times in the classroom.

All the groups compiled provisional terminology lists with sources and then compared notes in class. Blanks could be left at this stage to be filled in later during the translation process as knowledge is acquired from various sources. At the next stage each group decided what further material would be needed, where it could be obtained and finally what points might eventually require consultation with the client. (It proved that recourse to the client was only necessary on two points where the original text had been erroneous or ambiguous). Each group was allocated about seven pages of the 20 page long patent application. All groups made a rough translation of the abstract first, referring to the source text where clarification was necessary and terminology was harmonized as far as possible at this stage. This order of procedure had the advantage of ensuring that each group went through the whole text carefully. It also demonstrated that translation is not necessarily a linear process but more like a looping process, in which knowledge is built up gradually.

Once the first version of the translated pages had been completed the two members of each group cross-checked each others' texts and in some cases were able to offer solutions. A classroom session was held to discuss difficulties that had been encountered and to exchange ideas for solving problems. The difficulties encountered were most often attributable to the general features of patent language such as the need to use "underdeterminate" nouns qualified by relative clauses and phrases (see above, 2.4). Whereas in other types of text the more specific term would probably be preferred, in patents the opposite is the case. Complex sentence structures with a multiplicity of embedded clauses and phrases also belong to this category.

There were also language-specific linguistic difficulties due to such factors as:

- Word order. In Finnish the word order is fairly free and case endings often signal the correct relations between words, e.g. relatives and their antecedents. In English other ways of maintaining cohesion have to be found without breaking up sentences (e.g. repetition, participial phrases: "said device being...").
- Articles. The use of the article is very important in patents, especially in the claims, the indefinite article being used at the first mention of an item and thereafter the definite article. The wrong use of an article may cause misinterpretation of a claim. Finnish does not use articles but case endings, and therefore great care is needed.
- Polysemy may lead to unnecessary restriction of meaning (e.g. one word in Finnish can mean comprise, consist of, include).
- At this stage any remaining inconsistencies of terminology and phraseology were ironed out. Students were asked to keep a log book of their observations and report on them after completion of the project.

Finally the group's revised each others' sections of the texts for consistency of terminology and phraseology, accuracy and completeness. The supervisor of the project checked the final version for linguistic correctness.

3.3 Delivery

The translated application was delivered to customer by the deadline. In this case no translator's notes were necessary, as all problems had been solved before submission of the final version.

3.4. Feedback

The client acknowledged that patent application translation had been received on time and that no changes had been found necessary.

3.5 Reporting

Students were expected to submit a report on the project and answer a questionnaire, the results of which I shall present in my conclusions.

4. Conclusions

4.1. Students' reactions:

The results of a questionnaire completed by the students after the project showed that, beforehand their attitudes to technical translation had been either neutral or negative – they had considered it dull, difficult, or frightening. All the students felt that their attitudes had changed from 'a bit more positive' to 'radically better'. Criticism and self-criticism were mainly directed at the need for better organization and project management. The following points were considered to be the most important things learned during the project:

- Technical texts are not incomprehensible!
- The time needed for translation should not be underestimated.
- Initial research and terminology work is essential for understanding and translating.
- Success in handling a real-life assignment is rewarding as it affords an opportunity to share in the professional experience
- There is never only one solution to a translation problem but many (stressing the effectiveness of teamwork).

All students felt that their motivation was improved by knowing that the project was a real assignment and all considered that their self-confidence had increased, at least a little.

4.2 Advantages

The experience of the project showed that students with no prior knowledge of specialized translation could acquire sufficient knowledge to perform the challenging translation task of translating a patent application successfully. As understanding of the source text with its complex structures is more important in translating patent applications than fluency of the target text, this is arguably one area that native speakers of the source language are better equipped to deal with than native speakers of the target language. As the project involved an authentic assignment the importance of professional ethics - reliability and punctuality – was highlighted. The students had the opportunity to practise teamwork and experience its advantages. At the same time the project encouraged reflection on theoretical aspects of translation such as the role of knowledge and norms in translational decision-making.

The project therefore helped to build the translators' self-knowledge and self-image.

4.3 Implications

Patents are becoming increasingly important as competitive assets in global business, and high quality translations are needed for the foreign patent filing. Students trained to deal with such tasks will be well prepared to enter the real world of professional translation.

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Traduction publicitaire médico-pharmaceutique et métaphores conceptuelles

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Résumé. La traduction de la publicité médico-pharmaceutique s'inscrit dans un cadre réglementaire strict définissant les caractéristiques des allégations relatives aux produits, ceci dans un but de protection du public. Le skopos (ou objectif) de la traduction de ce type de publicité est donc étroitement circonscrit et laisse peu de place à l'adaptation. Ainsi, dans le cas des publicités destinées aux professionnels de la santé, la rhétorique de l'image publicitaire semble faire davantage appel à la logique qu'à l'affectivité, contrairement à la publicité non médicale grand public. En effet, il est imposé de présenter le plus objectivement possible les données médicales, pharmaceutiques et pharmacologiques et de mentionner tant les avantages que les inconvénients. Toutefois, le pôle affectif est également largement exploité : les données médicales sont accompagnées d'icones et de texte s'appuyant fortement sur des métaphores conceptuelles qui renvoient à des représentations cognitives relevant de la vision collective de la maladie et de la santé, de la douleur, du rôle du professionnel de la santé, du bonheur, etc. Le lien entre le pôle logique et le pôle affectif est établi par l'exploitation de la polysémie, en langue commune, de mots ayant par ailleurs un statut de terme au sein du domaine biomédical et renvoyant à des concepts pharmacologiques bien précis. Pour être en mesure de prendre des décisions éclairées, le traducteur devra donc compléter ses compétences traductionnelles et sa connaissance des principes fondamentaux de médecine par celle des métaphores conceptuelles sous-jacentes au domaine.

Abstract. With the goal of protecting the public, medico-pharmaceutical advertising is subjected to stringent regulations that define the limits of product claims. The skopos, or objective, of the translation of such documents is therefore tightly circumscribed and leaves little room for adaptation. In contrast to non-medical advertising, the rhetoric of advertisements designed for health professionals seems to draw more on logic than on emotions or affect. Advertising for health professionals must, as objectively as possible, present medical, pharmaceutical and pharmacological data, and indicate pros and cons. The affective aspect is nonetheless extensively exploited as medical data are presented with icons and text referring to

conceptual metaphors. These metaphors evoke cognitive representations related to collective views of disease and health, pain, role of health professionals, happiness, etc. The link between the logical and the affective aspects of advertising is established by the polysemy of certain medical terms that also carry a precise pharmacological meaning. In order to provide an adequate translation, the translator must supplement his or her translation skills and medical knowledge with an understanding of the conceptual metaphors of the field.

Introduction

Les publicités pharmaceutiques constituent une part importante des documents auxquels le traducteur médical aura affaire au cours de sa carrière. Toutefois, en raison de son objet même, le médicament, elles se démarquent des autres types d'activités promotionnelles. En effet, étant donné les enjeux de santé publique sous-jacents à l'utilisation de tout moyen thérapeutique, elles sont soumises, en Amérique du Nord comme en Europe, à des réglementations strictes qui visent à assurer l'objectivité de l'information transmise et qui varient selon les pays. Ainsi, aux États-Unis, la publicité portant sur les médicaments d'ordonnance est autorisée auprès du grand public, alors qu'elle est interdite au Canada et en Europe (Santé Canada, 2001). Les publicités pharmaceutiques au Canada revêtent un intérêt particulier du point de vue de la traduction. En effet, de part le statut de bilinguisme propre à ce pays, elles paraissent en anglais et en français, dans des revues de langue anglaise ou de langue française. Ce ne sont cependant pas des textes bilingues. La traduction s'effectue dans presque tous les cas de l'anglais vers le français. En effet, contrairement aux publicités grand public de toutes natures qui sont de plus en plus rédigées directement en français (Quillard et Pons-Ridler, 1996:45), l'activité traductionnelle est ici fondamentale.

Le présent travail s'est concentré sur les publicités adressées uniquement aux professionnels de la santé. Le cadre réglementaire, qui définit la structure de ces publicités ainsi que le *skopos* de la traduction, sera rapidement présenté. Le corpus est constitué d'une cinquantaine de publicités publiées en 1999 et en 2000 dans des revues pharmaceutiques et médicales canadiennes de langue anglaise ou française (Canadian Family Physician, Le clinicien, Québec Pharmacie, Le médecin du Québec,). La période a volontairement été limitée, afin de rester en situation de synchronie. L'observation a porté sur les indices permettant de comprendre comment le pôle affectif de l'argumentation publicitaire était traité, plus particulièrement sous l'angle des

cadres cognitifs et des métaphores conceptuelles évoquées (Lakoff, 1993:202-251). Des termes techniques polysémiques faisant le lien entre le pôle logique et le pôle affectif de la rhétorique publicitaire pharmaceutique, et les particularités traductionnelles qui y sont attachées, seront présentés.

Cadre réglementaire et structure de la publicité pharmaceutique au Canada

La publicité pharmaceutique est soumise à une réglementation émanant du Programme des produits thérapeutiques (PPT) de Santé Canada (2000). Le PPT délègue à deux organismes indépendants le soin d'examiner et d'approuver les publicités: les Normes canadiennes de publicité (NCP) (2000) traitent le matériel publicitaire sur les médicaments en vente libre à l'intention du grand public, tandis que le Conseil consultatif de publicité pharmaceutique (CCPP)[1] examine les publicités sur les médicaments prescrits sur ordonnance s'adressant aux professionnels de la santé (Chepesiuk, 2001).

Selon le CCPP, les publicités sont certes destinées à convaincre le médecin de prescrire le médicament, mais de manière rationnelle, et doivent donc informer le professionnel de la santé avec le plus d'objectivité possible, de manière à ce qu'il puisse faire un choix éclairé[2]. Le traducteur doit être au fait des contraintes imposées, car «les textes français et anglais doivent être soumis si le matériel est produit dans les deux langues» (CCPP, 2000), ce qui est presque toujours le cas. Contrairement à bon nombre de publicités traduites de l'anglais vers le français au Canada (Quillard, 1998:137-155), aucun remodelage lié à un processus d'adaptation culturelle n'est observé.

Le texte publicitaire

Le texte se compose essentiellement d'informations sur le médicament, notamment le nom du ou des principes actifs (Dénomination commune internationale), le nom de marque, le nom du fabricant et son logo, ainsi que les symboles attestant que la publicité a été approuvée par le CCPP. «Le texte publicitaire doit fournir suffisamment de renseignements pour permettre l'évaluation des risques et avantages du produit.» (CCPP, 2000): ainsi, en plus de la posologie, des indications, contre-indications et effets indésirables (CCPP, 2000), les propriétés essentielles d'un médicament sont reprises dans l'*allégation thérapeutique* (*therapeutic claim*), c'est-à-dire dans une «affirmation quant à l'efficacité ou à l'innocuité d'un produit pharmaceutique utilisé aux fins proposées» (CCPP, 2000). Il n'est pas permis de faire allusion à une supériorité ou à un statut spécial de l'entreprise. Notamment, on ne peut avoir recours ni à certains termes ou à certaines affirmations de manière

absolue[3], ni au superlatif (p. ex. le moins toxique, le plus efficace), non plus qu'à une présentation alarmiste. La conséquence est que, contrairement aux publicités non médicales des magazines grand public publiés en Amérique du Nord (Quillard, 1998:137-155), le publicitaire reste en retrait. La réglementation limitant le recours à l'invite directe d'achat, l'acte illocutionaire primaire[4], de type directif, tend à passer au second plan devant l'acte secondaire, de type constatif. Celui-ci n'est jamais uniquement informatif, car les contraintes tendent à renforcer les composantes descriptives ou attributives. Cas tout à fait particulier, l'acte se fait de manière positive (par la mise en relief des propriétés thérapeutiques), mais aussi de manière négative (par la mention des effets indésirables du produit). Le renforcement fait appel à la logique plutôt qu'à l'affectivité, puisque le texte fait appel à des notions techniques familières au destinataire (médecin ou professionnel de la santé). Par exemple, on mentionnera la dose administrée (en soulignant qu'elle est moins élevée que celle du médicament concurrent, ou que la prise, monoquotidienne, est avantageuse par rapport à une prise biquotidienne), ou l'on présentera des données chiffrées relatives à des propriétés pharmacologiques du produit (demi-vie, volume de distribution). Le pôle affectif n'est toutefois pas absent, car l'acte informatif, véhiculé essentiellement par le texte, cohabite généralement avec l'acte de type assertif («le consommateur heureux») qui, lui, est surtout véhiculé par les slogans et les images.

L'image et le slogan

L'acte de type assertif met en jeu les préoccupations du destinataire, soit directement par l'évocation des avantages du produit pour le médecin prescripteur à l'égard de son propre succès professionnel, soit indirectement par l'évocation des bénéfices du traitement pour le patient. C'est à ce niveau que les métaphores conceptuelles et les cadres cognitifs relatifs à l'image de la médecine dans la société et aux attentes des présumés utilisateurs des médicaments interviennent. Différentes tendances quant au choix des illustrations se dégagent. L'image peut référer au produit lui-même, au médecin ou au patient. Rares sont les illustrations qui ont une composante symbolique quasi-nulle et qui présentent froidement une performance technique du médicament, lié par exemple à un mode de libération particulier (Chronovera, de Searle). Dans ce type de publicité, le pôle affectif est restreint. La plupart du temps, l'image a une fonction symbolique plus ou moins marquée. L'affect du destinataire est déjà interpellé lorsque l'image représente un médecin affirmant sa satisfaction quant au produit, puisque la publicité fait appel à sa conscience professionnelle : «Pour mes patients, une guérison et un confort améliorés. Pour moi, [...], la facilité d'emploi et un rendement éprouvé en clinique» (Allevyn, de Smith-Nephew). La fonction

métaphorique de l'image devient prédominante dans le cas de médicaments soulageant une affection qui handicape le patient au quotidien (traitement de l'asthme : Oxeze Turbuhaler, d'AstraZeneca; Singulair, de Merck Frosst) ou qui représente une menace potentielle (antihypertenseur : Zocor, de Merck Frosst; Atacand, d'AstraZeneca). L'image représente souvent des personnages en pleine possession de leurs moyens et actifs, (femme en planche à voile [Oxeze] ou à bicyclette [Singulair]), ou dans une situation idyllique (homme se reposant dans son jardin [Zocor], couples en vacances [Atacand]), heureux, parce que soulagés ou guéris. Un slogan peut renforcer l'argumentation: («Les patients qui prennent Oxeze en font plus»). Ces publicités évoquent des cadres cognitifs représentatifs du bonheur tel qu'il est envisagé dans la société occidentale : ainsi, la femme en planche à voile peut-elle s'adonner à ses loisirs préférés puisque les méfaits de l'asthme ne limite plus ses activités, «l'âge d'or» peut profiter de la plage ou du jardin sans arrières-pensées puisque l'hypertension est maîtrisée. Ces cadres cognitifs renvoient aux fonctions hédonistes du corps de la société occidentale actuelle, par contraste avec le corps-outil qui prévalait au début du siècle (Goulet, 1987:113)[5]. Enfin, certaines images véhiculent un contenu symbolique accru : ainsi, un tireur à l'arc avec une flèche enflammée symbolise la précision d'action du médicament (régulateur d'acidité : Pantoloc, de Solvay Pharma), mais évoque aussi la métaphore du combat fortement représentée dans la médecine moderne (Forget, 2001:670-674), dans laquelle chercheurs, médecins et soignants s'unissent pour *déclarer la guerre à la maladie, éradiquer les germes, etc.* Cette métaphore du combat est parfois étendue à celle de l'exploit sportif, avec un transfert du médecin combattant au patient triomphant. Ainsi, la publicité mettant en scène un jeune joueur de base-ball lançant sa balle et visiblement vainqueur de sa maladie (traitement de l'otite moyenne aiguë [OMA], Zithromax, de Pfizer) évoque le mythe du héros triomphant de l'adversité, le slogan appuyant sans conteste l'évocation («Cinq prises et l'OMA est éliminée»).

Le terme polysémique à connotation symbolique: questions de traduction

L'évocation de métaphores conceptuelles telles que «La médecine est un combat», «La médecine est une enquête» (Vandaele, 2000:393-404), ou encore «Le patient est un héros» permet au publicitaire de faire intervenir le pôle affectif de l'argumentation. L'image est pour cela certes fondamentale, mais le texte peut renforcer l'effet produit par celle-ci. En effet, certains termes, utilisés pour décrire de propriétés médicamenteuses, s'y prêtent particulièrement bien et favorisent une articulation médecine-marketing efficace : un mot peut être un terme de la médecine, mais, connotant certains des cadres cognitifs évoqués plus haut, il se situe également dans la dynamique de la commercialisation. Cette dérivation, qui se situe au niveau

lexical, est renforcée par la cohérence de différents discours (Forget, 2001:670-674). Deux mots sont particulièrement intéressants à cet égard : *interaction* et *power* pour les versions anglaises, traduits respectivement par *interaction* et *puissance/pouvoir/force* dans les versions françaises.

Le terme *interaction* est un cas assez simple. À titre d'exemple, la publicité de l'antidépresseur Celexa (de Crystaal) joue sur *drug interaction* (*interaction médicamenteuse*), qui a trait aux «modifications des effets d'un médicament par l'administration antérieure ou simultanée d'un autre» (Berkow et al., 1994:2504). L'image, qui représente une femme jouant avec un enfant ou un couple d'amoureux, est accompagnée du texte suivant : «This is the only kind of interaction your depressed patient needs. Celexa [...] a low potential for drug interaction.» pour la version anglaise, et «Le seul type d'interaction souhaitable pour vos patients déprimés. [...] Celexa, [...] au faible risque d'interactions médicamenteuses», pour la version française.

Il est intéressant de remarquer que la signification du terme *interaction* au sens d'interaction médicamenteuse dérive d'une extension métaphorique du sens en langue commune («Action réciproque. *Interaction sociale.*» [Rey-Debove, 2000]) et que celle-ci se situe parfaitement dans le cadre de la conceptualisation des molécules (ici médicamenteuses) en tant qu'entité animée, laquelle se retrouve dans les deux langues (Vandaele, 2000:393-404). L'image, qui montre deux personnages engagés dans une relation visiblement heureuse, permet d'activer simultanément la métaphore du bonheur dans la société, dans sa dimension qui repose sur les bienfaits découlant des relations affectives, ainsi que la métaphore conceptuelle «Les molécules sont des personnages», laquelle se manifeste couramment dans la phraséologie en usage des textes médicaux (Vandaele, 2000:393-404). Le médecin ou le scientifique, qu'il soit anglophone ou francophone, aura accès à ces deux représentations cognitives sans difficultés, ce qui assure l'efficacité de l'annonce. De plus, les aires sémantiques en anglais et en français de *interaction* étant semblables, il n'y a aucune difficulté pour passer d'une langue à l'autre.

Le cas de *power* est plus complexe. Ce mot apparaît dans de nombreuses publicités, il est accompagné d'images l'illustrant de différentes manières, sa traduction variant également. D'emblée, *power*[6] pose problème : les contextes indiquent clairement que le terme technique qui aurait dû être utilisé est *potency*[7], traduit par *puissance* ou *puissance d'action* en français (Rouleau, 1993:268-274), qui réfère à un paramètre d'efficacité pharmacologique et qui est toujours en usage dans les textes spécialisés, contrairement à *power* (Hardman et al., 1996:47). Dans la publicité de Vioxx (Merck Frosst), *power* est clairement utilisé au sens pharmacologique de *potency* : «Power. Relieves

pain and inflammation. Once-daily VIOXX™ has power comparable to high-dose nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) – ibuprofen (2400 mg daily) and diclofenac (150 mg daily)». Aucune des publicités référant au concept de puissance d'action d'un médicament n'utilise le terme *potency* : il est fort possible que la connotation sexuelle du mot soit la raison de ce rejet et de son remplacement par *power*. Par ailleurs, en langue commune, *power* est le terme le plus général pour exprimer la capacité d'exercer un effort en vue d'un résultat (champ sémantique : «power, force, energy, strength, might, puissance»). Il peut également s'appliquer à une capacité d'action (champ sémantique : «power, faculty, function»), ainsi qu'à une capacité à diriger ou à gouverner (champ sémantique : «power, authority, jurisdiction, control, command, sway, dominion») (Webster's Universal Dictionary and Thesaurus, 1993). Ces différentes acceptions peuvent se rendre en français par *puissance*, *force*, *pouvoir*, solutions effectivement retenues dans les traductions en français (Tableau 1).

Médicament (Fabricant)	Slogan	Description de l'image accompagnant l'annonce
Avapro (Bristol-Myers Squibb)	Une *puissance* prouvée	Un triangle sur ciel noir étoilé, portant les inscriptions : puissance, action précise, simplicité.
Diovan (Novartis)	La *puissance* intérieure	Un moine tibétain méditatif.
Cozaar-Hyzaar (Merck Frosst)	La *puissance* en toute quiétude.	Un rameur sur un lac d'eau calme.
Vioxx (Merck Frosst)	Précision. *Puissance*. Liberté.	Personnages libres de danser.
Zocor (Merck Frosst)	Le *pouvoir*, preuves à l'appui.	Un homme âgé et souriant en train de lire dans son jardin.
Atacand (AstraZeneca)	Sa liaison fait sa *force*.	Personnes âgées souriantes faisant du surf au bord de la mer.

Tableau 1 : Slogan et description de l'image apparaissant dans différentes publicités de médicaments parues en 1999-2000 dans des revues médicales ou pharmaceutiques au Canada.

On remarquera que certaines images ne correspondent à aucune des acceptions de *power*, le publicitaire ayant choisi de d'illustrer d'autres composantes de l'argumentation : c'est le cas de Vioxx, de Zocor et d'Atacand, pour lesquels on a préféré activer les cadres cognitifs évoquant le bien-être du patient. Par contre, les images accompagnant les publicités d'Avapro, de Diovan et de Cozaar-Hyzaar ont un contenu symbolique en rapport avec le terme : le triangle sur fond étoilé évoque un symbole de divinité dans le cas du premier, le moine tibétain, une capacité spirituelle hors de la norme pour le second, et le rameur, une force physique sereine pour le troisième. Ici encore, il s'agit de métaphores activant des aspects positifs de

power ou de *puissance*, auxquels le destinataire peut d'identifier sans difficultés. La connotation négative qui aurait pu être évoquée par *pouvoir* reste secondaire puisque l'image évoque plutôt une métaphore du bonheur (Zocor). *Force* n'est pas non plus renforcé par l'image, mais sa connotation reste positive, bien qu'en retrait. L'évocation du mythe du héros ou de la puissance spirituelle, procédé par ailleurs abondamment utilisé en publicité[8], va au-delà de l'imagerie des valeurs sociales dominantes, puisque ces images font appel à des valeurs transcendantales de paix, d'harmonie et de spiritualité qui se substituent à l'évocation brute de l'efficacité du médicament. Le pôle affectif de la publicité s'en trouve renforcé, le «détournement» du principe pharmacologique initial (*potency -> power*) affaiblissant le pôle logique de l'argumentation. Il est clair qu'une telle situation est très délicate pour le traducteur, puisqu'il doit, dans un premier temps, comprendre ce détournement, identifier le concept pharmacologique réellement évoqué à l'aide des contextes, et prendre en compte la signification symbolique de la publicité. Il convient de remarquer que le choix de *puissance* résoud convenablement le problème, puisque le terme n'a pas la connotation problématique de l'anglais *potency*.

Conclusion

Les publicités pharmaceutiques au Canada sont généralement soumises à une traduction de l'anglais vers le français. Sous l'angle de la rhétorique, les procédés mis en œuvre, en raison des contraintes de réglementation, visent à renforcer l'argumentation logique. Toutefois, le pôle affectif est également fortement sollicité, notamment grâce à l'image et à l'utilisation astucieuse de la polysémie de certains termes référant à des concepts pharmacologiques illustrés de manière métaphorique. Cette stratégie renforce l'activation de cadres cognitifs qui sont connus du destinataire et qui relèvent d'une conception générale occidentale du bien-être, du bonheur, de la lutte contre la maladie, et de la médecine. Il est remarquable que les métaphores conceptuelles sous-jacentes à ces cadres cognitifs soient suffisamment semblables dans les deux langues pour que les campagnes publicitaires restent cohérentes sans que d'important procédés d'adaptation soient mis à contribution, comme c'est habituellement le cas (Quillard, 1999:39-53). À ce titre, il serait particulièrement intéressant d'examiner les publicités réalisées en Europe pour des médicaments comparables. En tout état de cause, le traducteur doit être attentif à des éléments particulièrement importants : non seulement doit-il connaître les principes scientifiques évoqués et la terminologie en usage, mais il doit également tenir compte des contraintes réglementaires qui lui sont imposées tout en étant capable d'analyser et de comprendre les métaphores conceptuelles sous-jacentes au domaine.

Notes

[1] En anglais, Pharmaceutical Advertising Advisory Board (PAAB).

[2] L'objectif est d'atteindre «le juste équilibre en publicité pharmaceutique», c'est-à-dire de «présenter de l'information équilibrée sur les caractéristiques du médicament (par exemple les indications et le s limites d'utilisation), sur les allégations d'innocuité et d'efficacité ainsi que les allégations positives et négatives», afin d'améliorer «la qualité de la publicité pharmaceutique et [...] la sécurité des patients par une utilisation rationnelle des médicaments». «Le juste équilibre permet de faire en sorte que la publicité persuade rationnellement les professionnels de la santé d'utiliser le produit, en ayant pesé les avantages et les risques et en étant bien informés.» (Chepesiuk, 2000)

[3] «2.6 Aucun SPP ne doit affirmer ou sous-entendre en termes absolus, ni dans le texte ni dans les citations, qu'un produit est «sûr», «idéal», «non toxique», «d'efficacité garantie» ou «uniformément bien toléré», qu'il «peut être administré aux enfants» ou qu'il exerce «une action ou un effet entièrement prévisible» [...] 2.6.3 Voici quelques exemples de mots qui ne peuvent être utilisés dans un sens absolu ou sans aucune réserve : «éviter», «supprimer», «guérir», «éliminer».» (CCPP, 2000)

[4] Selon Nicole Everaert-Desmedt, la publicité réalise un acte illocutionnaire complexe qui se divise en un acte primaire, de type directif sur le plan pragmatique, c'est-à-dire l'invite à l'achat («Je vous conseille d'acheter le produit X»), et en un acte secondaire, de type constatif (descriptif : «J'affirme que le produit X a telle qualité», attributif : «J'affirme que telle qualité s'applique au produit X», informatif : «J'affirme que le produit X existe» ou assertif : «Le produit X est utilisé par tel heureux consommateur») (Everaert-Desmedt, 1984:142).

[5] En effet, dans les publicités pharmaceutiques du début du siècle, «on est loin de la promotion hédoniste, de cette valorisation du corps comme possibilité de jouissance, que nous donnera la publicité-séduction à partir du milieu du xxe siècle et qui envahira les médias jusqu'à constituer une véritable métaphore des sociétés occidentales.»

[6] «Power: An inherent property or effect (adrenalin ... has the power of constricting blood vessels – Morris Fishbein)» (Meriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary – Medical, 1994).

[7] «Potency : the quality or state of being potent: as **a :** chemical or medicinal strength or efficacy (a drug's *potency*) **b :** the ability to copulate – usually used of the male **c :** initial inherent capacity for development of a particular kind (cells with a *potency* for eye formation)». (Meriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary – Medical, 1994). «Although often related to the dose of a drug required to produce an effect, potency is more properly related to the concentration of the drug in plasma to approximate more closely the situation in isolated systems *in vitro* and to avoid the complicating factors of

pharmacokinetic variables.» (Hardman et al., 1996:47). «On dit qu'un médicament est plus puissant qu'un autre si une plus petite dose du médicament est nécessaire pour produire le même effet» (Rouleau, 1993:273).

[8] «... cet ensemble de représentations que nous offre la publicité, tout à la fois oniriques, culturelles, idéologiques, utopiques, idéales..., s'inscrit dans un vaste ensemble qui tourne autour du principe d'*espérance*. Car ces images-représentations sont, les unes et les autres, *promesses* en même temps qu'*aspirations*.» (Sauvageot, 1987:183)

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3.3 terminology studies

Terminographic definition and concept representation[1]

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Abstract: One of the objectives of the research project OncoTerm (PB98-1342) is to facilitate the translation of medical texts within the domain of Oncology by elaborating a bilingual terminological database, based on the information extracted from specialized texts as well as medical dictionaries. Medical concepts are organized in categories represented by templates, which are systematically applied to all category members. The definitional information within each term entry is thus totally coherent with the information regarding other terms within the same conceptual category. This is conducive towards the specification of a language of terminographic definition, which is concise, consistent and applicable not only to the domain of oncology, but also extensive to other medical domains and other languages.

1. Introduction

One of the principal tasks of terminology management is the representation of the conceptual structure of domains of specialized knowledge. In the research project ONCOTERM (PB98-1342) we are in the process of elaborating a bilingual terminological database of the specialized domain of Oncology, based on the information extracted from a corpus of scientific texts as well as the entries in medical dictionaries. In our database, the terminographic definitions play an important role, since they are conceived as the natural language translation of the conceptual structure of the domain. However, in order for this to be so, they must be coherent in regards to both their micro- and macrostructure. Such coherence can only be the result of a previous analysis of textual data.

One source of information that we have used to specify interconnections between specialized medical concepts is that encoded in dictionaries. In our opinion, the information in dictionaries constitutes a lexical-conceptual network that is in direct relation with the knowledge expressed. The analysis of dictionary entries shows how terms are structured in chains such as the following:

(1) {particle beam radiation therapy}@→{external radiation therapy}@ →{radiation therapy}@ →{treatment}@ →{event}@→{ALL}

Such lexical chains reveal knowledge parameters, which are specified in the differentiating features of interrelated terms (Meijs and Vossen 1992: 144-145).

The conceptual organization of our termbase is derived from such information, which we are using to extend the Mikrokosmos Ontology, an already existing knowledge resource, developed by the Computing Research Laboratory of the University of New Mexico. We use the conceptual information in this ontology, which is considered non-language-specific, as the means to link terms in different languages. In the Mikrokosmos approach, an ontology is conceived as a language-neutral body of knowledge about the world. It constitutes a repository of primitive symbols used in meaning representation, which are interconnected by means of a rich system of semantic and discourse-pragmatic relations defined among the concepts (Mahesh and Nirenburg 1995: 1).

2. Conceptual Organization

The organization of concepts is an activity that should be carried out systematically, and have a theoretical base, something that has not always been the case in Terminology. One way of structuring conceptual information is evidently to formulate an *ad hoc* list of conceptual domains and subdomains, and then to assign terminological units to the categories considered most suitable. However, this type of *top-down* processing, which has often been used in the elaboration of thesauri and databases, is entirely dependent on the intuition of a particular group of lexicographers/ terminologists. Alternatively, one can use an exclusively bottom-up approach and work upwards to arrive at a list of conceptual categories by starting from available data in texts and dictionary entries,. Our approach entails a combination of the two methods. We have used as the starting point for our bilingual database an unstructured list of 2,500 cancer-related terms in English and Spanish. The top-concepts were arrived at through the analysis of definitions as well as through calculations of frequency in the corpus of specialized texts that we have elaborated. The texts belonging to our corpus encode the following communicative contexts:

) Communicative contexts represented in the OncoTerm corpus

SENDER	⇨	RECEIVERS
SPECIALIST	⇨	Medical Students
	⇨	Health Professionals
	⇨	Specialists
	⇨	Oncologists

In this way, we have managed to identify eight conceptual categories, the majority of which are applicable to other medical domains (Faber 1999: 99; Faber y Mairal 1999):

(3) Conceptual Categories

n DIAGNOSTIC_PROCEDURE	n TUMOR	n INSTRUMENT	nD
n BODY_PART	n TREATMENT	n SPECIALIST	n MEDICAL_INSTITU

We have integrated these categories in the Mikrokosmos Ontology at the concept node MEDICAL-SERVE. Initially, we thought that *symptom*, *risk factor* and *side effect* could also be separate categories in the ontology. However, on observing that ASBESTOS, SMOKING and SUNLIGHT (*risk factors*) or COUGH and FATIGUE (*symptoms*) were already included in the ontology at more primary levels, we decided that this information would be better represented in the form of relations. For example, SYMPTOM-OF and its inverse, HAS-SYMPTOM:

(4) Conceptual relations

	CONCEPTUAL RELATION ⇓	
COUGH	SYMPTOM-OF	LUNG CANCER
LUNG CANCER	HAS-SYMPTOM	COUGH
SMOKING	RISK-FACTOR-OF	LUNG_CANCER
LUNG_CANCER	HAS-RISK-FACTOR	SMOKING

Our assertion is that the internal structure of each category and the knowledge parameters upon which such a structure is based should be explicit in the descriptions of its member concepts. As shall be seen, the nuclear part of the definition of each concept is indicative of the category to which it belongs, as well as its level of specificity.

2.1. Terminographic definition and conceptual structure: TREATMENT

According to Bejoint (1997: 19-20) definitions have never been given due importance in Terminology. In many termbases, definitions are simply inserted in a cut-and-paste fashion from other dictionaries, termbases or knowledge resources, without taking into consideration either their internal or external coherence. However, definitions are mini-knowledge representations, and accordingly, the organization of information encoded in definitions should be structured both with regard to its perceptual salience well as to the definitions of other related concepts within the same category.

For example, within the domain of ONCOLOGY, TREATMENT, is one of the top concepts. Its immediate subordinate concepts are RADIATION THERAPY, CHEMOTHERAPY, SURGICAL PROCEDURE, and BIOLOGICAL THERAPY. The position of RADIATION THERAPY in the domain is evident in the fact that the nucleus of its definition in different dictionaries is *treatment*:

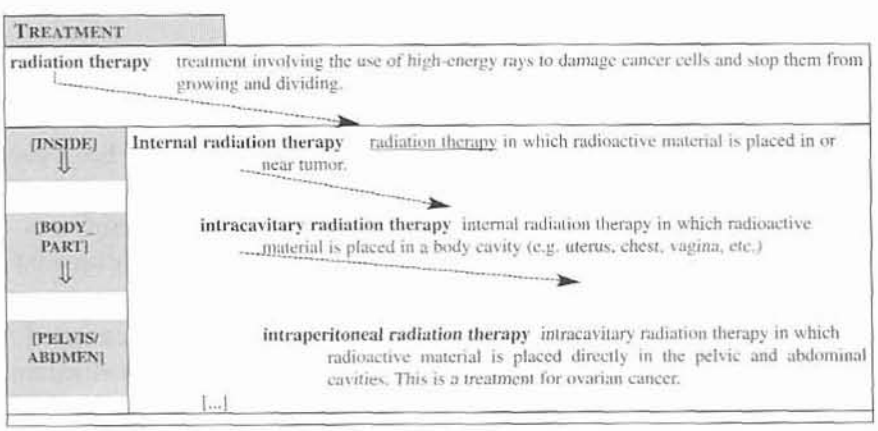
(5) Radiation therapy definitions

RADIOTHERAPY/RADIATION THERAPY	
HarperCollins Medical Dictionary	the **treatment** of disease by any radioactive substance or radiant energy.
The Cancer Dictionary	the use of high-energy penetrating rays or subatomic particles to **treat** or control disease.
Stedman's Concise Medical Dictionary	**treatment** with x-rays or radionuclides.
On-line Medical Dictionary (www.graylab.ac.uk/omd)	**treatment** with high energy radiation from X-rays or other sources of radiation

Although these dictionaries differ as to the type and quantity of information in their definitions of the same concept, they all coincide in designating *radiation therapy* as a kind of TREATMENT. If we wish to elaborate an adequate definition, it is not viable to merely copy one of these definitions in our termbase. Rather, it is necessary to consider the knowledge parameters that define the conceptual category, and use this information as a blueprint for all of the definitions of its member concepts.

In this respect, it is important to emphasize that definitions are not just given information, but are constructions in which the knowledge parameters specified confer different types of focus on an entire domain, as is evident in the following representation of *radiation therapy*:

(6) Radiation therapy: Definitional hierarchy



[OUTSIDE] ⇩	**External radiation therapy** radiation therapy in which the high-energy rays used to treat the cancer patient come from a machine, located at some distance from the body.
[BEAM_ TRAJECTORY]	**stereotactic radiation therapy** (external) radiation therapy in which a number of precisely aimed beams of ionizing radiation coming from different directions meet at a specific point, delivering the radiation treatment to that spot.
[BEAM_ TYPE]	**particle beam therapy** (external) radiation therapy in which high energy radiation is delivered to tumor cells through the use of fast-moving subatomic particles (protons and neutrons). [....]

In (6) we can see a partial representation of the subdomain of RADIATION THERAPY. The outside column shows the type of conceptual information represented in the differentiating information of the concepts. Rather than copying definitions from other sources, we have elaborated the definitions ourselves and extracted the differentiating information by means of corpus analysis, in which concordances are grouped to show different conceptual distinctions.

(7) Radiation therapy concordances

RADIATION_THERAPY	
RADIATION_SOURCE_LOCATION	
1	516-520, 1981. Bagshaw MA: External radiation therapy of carcinoma of prosta
2	r near the tumor. Also called internal radiation therapy or implant radiation
	INTERNAL_RADIATION_THERAPY
3	] 4. Laser therapy or interstitial radiation therapy for endobronchial
4	ntimeters thick: 1. Intracavitary radiation therapy. In most instances, 6,
	EXTERNAL_RADIATION_THERAPY **BEAM_TRAJECTORY**
5	c radiosurgery and stereotactic radiation therapy. stereotaxis (
	BEAM_TYPE
6	il and intraoperative electron beam radiation therapy on the outcome of pati
7	radiosensitizers, or particle-beam radiation therapy. [14-17] 4. Isotre
8	to chemotherapy.[7-9] Fast neutron beam radiation therapy or accelerated hyper
9	ltileaf collimator.[25] Proton-beam radiation therapy is also under investig
10	al with mixed-beam (neutron/photon) radiation therapy, compared to standard
	RADIATION_BEAM_TARGET **BODY_PART**
11	m the NWTS-3 demonstrate that abdominal radiation therapy does not provide sig
12	metastases are identified, whole brain radiation therapy (30 gray in 2 gray f
13	s incorporating chemotherapy plus chest radiation therapy are listed below. Th
14	pts to lower the dose of craniospinal radiation therapy to 2,340 cGy have resu
15	tive chest wall and regional lymph node radiation therapy are undergoing reass
16	Jett JR, McGinnis WL, et al.: Thoracic radiation therapy alone compared wit
	FIELD_COVERAGE
17	of whole pelvis versus small-field radiation therapy for carcinoma of prost
18	us 2 months of ABVD plus extended-field radiation therapy is being conducted b
19	arbell NJ, Silver B, et al.: Wide-field radiation therapy with or without ch

	RADIATIN ADMINISTRATION DOSAGE
20	ged remissions. The need for low-dose radiation therapy is under study.[1] The
21	pse after initial wide-field, high-dose radiation therapy have a good prognosi
22	using accelerated superfractionated radiation therapy for advanced squamous
23	e.[6,11-18] 3. Novel fractionation radiation therapy clinical trials are un
24	[evaluation: 1. Hyperfractionated radiation therapy to improve tumor contr
	INTENSITY
25	ned 5-fluorouracil and supervoltage radiation therapy of locally unresectabl
26	years' experience with megavoltage radiation therapy. Cancer 37(6): 2605-26
27	ectron-beam irradiation or orthovoltage radiation therapy may be used to pal

Although the radiation therapy concordances in (7) are not exhaustive, they offer a template on the basis of which the rest of the subdomain can be modeled. Among other things, they inform us that *external radiation therapy*, as the default value for the domain, has a greater variety of conceptual distinctions than internal radiation therapy. The types of internal radiation therapy that appear in the corpus are *intracavitary radiation therapy* and *interstitial radiation therapy*. In contrast, *external radiation therapy* shows conceptual distinctions such as the kind of radiation used, the trajectory of the beam, the part of the body targeted, the extension of the targeted area, as well as the dose and intensity of the radiation. As can be seen, the corpus data is in consonance with the definitional hierarchy for radiation therapy proposed in (6).

The corpus data also shows the existence of other secondary conceptual distinctions, which are related to the status of radiation as an EVENT. These distinctions are related to contextual factors such as when the radiation is delivered in combination with other treatments (*preoperative radiation therapy, postoperative radiation therapy*), or its function according to the phase of the illness (*curative radiation therapy, palliative radiation therapy*).

2.2. Category templates

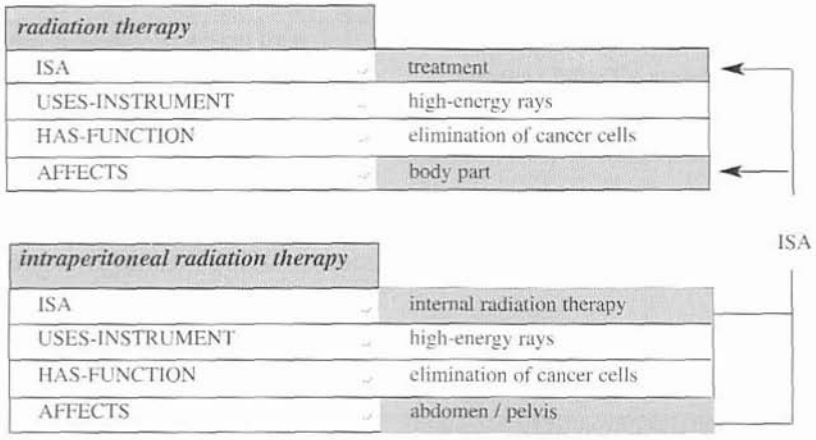
The internal structure of each conceptual category is represented by a set of conceptual relations, which acts as a model of the category in question. The template for TREATMENT would be the following:

Category template: Treatment

CONCEPTUAL CATEGORY	CONCEPTUAL RELATION
TREATMENT	IS-A
	USES-INSTRUMENT
	HAS-FUNCTION
	HAS-LOCATION

If this basic template is projected onto *radiation therapy*, the values generated for the relations are in direct correspondence to the information in the definitions of the terms. In a similar way, the template is also valid for subordinate terms such as *intraperitoneal radiation therapy*. When the template is applied, more specific values are generated. Inheritance is thus evident at various levels.

(9) Category template: intraperitoneal radiation therapy



Each conceptual category thus has a prototypical template of conceptual relations, which can be used to format the definition of terms. The definitions are the natural language translation of the conceptual relations.

3. Conceptual categories and the verbal lexicon

Terminological studies normally focus on concepts, which in most cases are linguistically represented by nominal forms. However, both in the comprehension and structure of specialized discourse, verbs play an important role. This is due to the fact that a considerable part of our knowledge is composed of EVENTS and STATES, many of which are linguistically represented by verbs[i]. For a true understanding of specialized texts, this type of processual knowledge cannot be ignored.

Both specialized and general communication use the same inventory of verbs, though in specialized communication the arguments are generally terms. Another important difference is that in general language discourse these verbs can be highly polysemic, while in specialized communication

their meaning is restricted. This restriction of meaning is also extensive to the semantic characteristics of their arguments.

For example, *respond* is a verb that frequently appears in our corpus in reference to the category of TREATMENT . It can have the following meanings in general language discourse:

(9) Respond: general language meanings

RESPOND	
Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture	1 to say or write (something) in reply
	2 to do something in answer.
	3 to get better as a result of a treatment.

However, in specialized medical discourse, three meanings are reduced to one:

(11) Respond: restrictions

RESPOND (meaning in specialized discourse)	to get better as a result of a treatment.

In both kinds of texts, the verb imposes structure on the discourse since it determines the number of arguments in each proposition, as well as their semantic characteristics and function. However, what is invariably overlooked is the fact that predicates in specialized texts are also instrumental in the analysis of conceptual structure. Verbs can be related to the conceptual categories that characterize the arguments they normally appear with in medical texts. In such cases, we have even found that verbs can trigger entire hierarchies of concepts and provide useful information in the structure of conceptual categories.

The following selection of concordances show that that *respond* as a predicate is monosemic in medical texts and is indicative of TREATMENT:

(12) Respond: Concordances

RESPOND	
1	r estrogen and progesterone receptors respond best to progestin therapy. Among
2	aid that stage I and stage II cancers respond equally well to radiation or sur
3	onal cell cancer of the urethra may respond favorably to the same chemothera
7	of evidence: 3iiiDi] For patients who respond to neoadjuvant chemotherapy, loc
8	w transplantation, some patients will respond to interferon alfa.6 Infusions
9	onding patients who relapse usually respond to retreatment with interferon a
10	after relapse. The primary group may respond to high-dose chemotherapy and au
11	atonin may affect the way tumor cells respond to chemotherapy and radiation th
13	nd secondary refractory patients who do respond to induction chemotherapy, but
14	esponse rate of 20% in those who do not respond to standard progesterone therapy
15	topenia or hemolytic anemia who fail to respond to alkylating agents and pre
16	resected or metastatic tumors failed to respond to chemotherapeutic agents f
17	r other mechanical problems expected to respond to antineoplastic therapy
18	Tamoxifen: Some patients (18%) will respond to tamoxifen (20 milligrams
19	bHCG and AFP. Certain of these tumors respond to platinum-based combination ch
21	" tumor resection. Low-grade tumors may respond to various chemotherapeutic re
22	ow and serious infections that do not respond to antibiotics.20 Prophylactic o
23	on: Patients whose disease does not respond to combined radiation therapy an
24	effective.1,3,4 Patients who do not respond to a cisplatin-based combination
25	nodal relapse. Patients who do not respond to induction chemotherapy (about
27	indolent lymphoma; half of patients respond to a four-dose treatment program
28	TIC – to treat painful conditions that respond to nerve blocks (e.g., celia
30	emotherapy at the time of CNS relapse respond to second-line chemotherapy.13
31	the patients treated. Patients who respond usually demonstrate improvement
32	with metastatic disease at diagnosis respond well to the therapy given to pat
33	is continued; if the tumor did not respond, an alternative regimen is used.
34	th newly diagnosed medulloblastoma will respond, at least partially, to chemot
36	dermal tumors and pineoblastomas will respond, at least partially, to chemothe
37	and vincristine.1 If the tumor fails to respond, it may be a benign lesion.
38	and reticulocyte counts usually do not respond. The effect of GM-CSF treatment

The concordances show that in the specialized texts of our corpus, *respond* has two arguments, each one representative of a specific conceptual category:

(13) Basic proposition

First Argument	Predicate	Second Argument
(condition)Affected	RESPOND	(treatment)Effector

Furthermore, if we analyze the concordances for *respond* in (12), the terms that fill the argument slots can be organized in hierarchies, which activate different areas of the ontology. In this sense, the information extracted from our corpus is thus one of the sources for the conceptual structure of the domain. In (14) concordance data has been arranged to make explicit the conceptual category of TREATMENT:

(14) Treatment hierarchies based on corpus data

First Argument	Predicate	Second Argument
	RESPOND	
DISEASE		TREATMENT
painful codition		retreatment
CANCER		second treatment
small cell lung cancer [IS-A]		four-dose treatment
TUMOR		THERAPY
tumor cells [PART—OF]		initial therapy
metastatic tumor [IS-A]		***chemotherapy***
unresectable tumor [IS-A]		neoadjuvant chemotherapy
small cell carcinoma [IS-A]		high-dose chemotherapy
myeloma [IS-A]		induction chemotherapy
medulloblastoma [IS-A]		anticancer drug
epenymona [IS-A]		chemotherapeutic agent
pinelblastoma [IS-A]		alkylating agent
lymphoma [IS-A]		platinum-based combination
PATIENT		cisplatin-based combination
cancer patine [IS-A]		Cyclophosfamide
		radiation therapy
		combined radiation therapy
		biological therapy
		GM-CSF treatment
		Interferon
		Interferon alfa 6

4. Conclusions

To structure the domain of ONCOLOGY, we have used both dictionaries and specialized texts to arrive at an inventory of conceptual categories as well as templates that characterize the definitions of the concepts within the category. Although these templates are flexible enough to permit the manipulation of ideas, they also have constraints. This necessarily means a well-defined system of attributes, entities and relations. In our opinion, terminographic definitions are the vehicle for specifying such a system of constraints, based on a system of templates. Each template is anchored to a well-designed

conceptual ontology by means of which terms are related to each other on the basis of an underlying model of the world. As Nirenburg and Raskin (in press) so accurately point out, only then is it possible to justify the postulation of a certain number of theoretical concepts, a set of roles and features, and a prescribed range of values.

Notes

[1] This research was carried out within the framework of ONCOTERM (PB98-1342), funded by the Spanish Ministry of Education.

[2] As part of another research project, we designed a semantic network, which reflected the underlying conceptual meaning of the verbal lexicon. Our objective was to study the potential that this type of lexical structure has for knowledge representation. Accordingly, we analyzed and classified approximately 8,000 verb in English and Spanish, structuring them onomasiologically in hierarchical lexical domains according to the premises of the Functional-Lexematic Model (Faber and Mairal 1998, 1999). The structure of these lexical domains is implicit in the definitions of their members, a definitional stem based on the *Decomposition Principle* of Mel'cuk (1988).

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Nothing is inherently boring - reflections on training translators in terminology

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Abstract. In this paper we look at a problem that must be faced if humanities faculties are to continue to train translators and other languages services providers to deal with specialised language and terminology: the generally inadequate response to the language of science, technology and other specialised areas such as law, economics and government. Although introductory courses are of interest, we would argue that the translators should be trained in how to specialise, and encouraged to make the acquisition of knowledge of any kind an end in itself. This learning process is more likely to lead to the use of good terminology than simply consulting reference books, and it should also include an appreciation of the conventions of text and context in different situations and genres. We shall show how our Master's degree in 'Terminology and Translation' aims to fulfil these requirements.

There is no doubt that *boring* is a word many humanities trained teachers and students will apply to the language of science, technology and other specialised areas such as law, economics and government. Yet, if the truth be told, it is more likely that they are intimidated by the fact that they find it difficult to understand and appreciate the subject matter of the texts. The reason they claim it is boring has more to do with a long-running antagonism between the Arts and Sciences than any inherent quality of the texts.

A search of a large newspaper text (approximately 20 million words) with a concordancer for instances of *bore, bored* and *boring*, in the sense of 'to weary by dullness, tedious repetition, unwelcome attentions etc.' (Webster's: 1994) gave the following results:

- Bore = 32
- Bored = 294
- Boring = 402

Examples of active verb use = 19

These results reflect the semantics of *bore* as follows:

- *To be/become/get/grow/look/feel/seem bored*
  = S Experiencer + (O Phenomenon)

– *To be/become boring*
= Quality of Phenomenon (according to Experiencer)
– *To bore someone*
= S Phenomenon + O Experiencer (rare)
OR
= S Agent + O Experiencer (anti-social!)

If one analyses the concordanced results one can see that, although a sizeable number refer to the *boredom* felt or shown by the Experiencer, the majority refer to the quality of being *boring*. Although it is obviously arguable that some things can be boring for most people, one must also accept that the quality of 'being boring' is essentially in the mind of the Experiencer.

1. Arts v. Sciences

It is quite commonplace to find that those dedicated to the study of the Arts are convinced that they are fascinating to all. Since they are dealing with the expression of the more personal and intimate areas of our humanity – art, music, literature, – they assume that everyone must be interested in what fascinates them. Those dedicated to the study of the Sciences, on the other hand, usually accept their limited appeal to outsiders and perhaps even take pride in studying 'difficult subjects'. Although attitudes have changed a lot since Carl Sagan, David Attenborough and others set out to popularise science, there is still a bigger queue for university places in the humanities than in the sciences, despite the fact that there are more jobs at the end of a degree in engineering than in one in art.

The differences in attitude between the Arts and Sciences were well illustrated during a conference entitled 'Disciplinary Dialogues – the Sciences and the Arts at the end of the Millennium', which took place in Lisbon, 25-27 May 1994. Both the papers presented and the ensuing discussions demonstrated how the practitioners of the Arts felt secure in a sense of superiority, and there was little attempt to work constructively with the Sciences. The representatives of the Sciences, on the other hand, were genuinely interested in the way the sciences can move towards or learn from the Arts. The general lesson learnt by the discerning was that both sides could learn from each other.

Nowadays, we frequently hear about the need for inter-disciplinarity, yet few people know how to work towards such an objective. The emphasis on specialisation in the recent past has left most people feeling that it is a major effort to keep up with one's own discipline, let alone one from a different

academic area. We somehow have to work towards giving value to those who opt for the wider view, even if this means less depth in a narrow specialisation.

2. Translation and Literary Texts

Ever since literary theory realised that a translation was an alternative interpretation of the original text, a favourite occupation of academics in modern language departments has been that of analysing and criticising literary translation, although actually doing a literary translation is less frequently seen as a necessary objective. The result is that literary translation is considered to be the most difficult form of translation because of the complex cultural, psychological and aesthetic factors involved, - at least in the modern language departments, and thus by the people who tend to have the monopoly on teaching translators.

Yet, despite all the criticism focussed on literary translation, many people feel quite happy doing literary translation and defend their right to produce their own version of the original. The theory itself defends such an attitude. The best result of this is that students translating literature into their own language will find they learn a lot about being creative in their own language. A fact less frequently mentioned is that, although the result rarely approaches excellence, students of translation often have fewer lexical, syntactic and text organisation problems translating modern literary texts than other types of text.

3. Translation Training and the Non-literary text

Translating specialized language is often thoroughly under-estimated by translator trainers who come from the Humanities. There is a tendency to believe that 'you just have to find the right words/terms, and the rest is easy'. Students are encouraged to use specialised dictionaries, consult an expert, and use EURODICAUTOM, but that is far as it goes. The feeling is that no one can seriously expect a humanities trained translator to be interested in tribology or oscilloscopes, but provided they get their terms right, the translation will take care of itself.

The result is that specialised translation done by Humanities-educated translators often produces ridicule and despair from its consumers. The reasons for this are various. Specialised dictionaries, databases and even 'experts' are not always infallible. First of all, terms are not as static and fixed as those involved in normalisation would have us believe, and often vary

according to the register, or level of communication, and from specialist to specialist. Besides this, the use of apparently more general language words as specialised language items can lead the unsuspecting translator to choose the wrong synonym or metaphor (see Temmermann, 2000) or the wrong collocation of words appearing in these contexts (see Palumbo in this volume).

The other important – and also thoroughly underestimated – factor is the difference in acceptability of style and register in different cultures. For example, an ex-student of mine was once asked to translate some doctors' reports on their interviews with patients from English to Portuguese, for a book used for teaching purposes. The original English interviews reflected the doctors' personal relationship with their patients, gave the patients' names, referred to possible family problems, and were written rather informally. She was expected to change the information so that the personal approach was omitted, and reference to the patient's symptoms and illness were referred to in clinical detail using formal medical terminology.

Although most books on translating now refer to the need to produce a translation which performs the same function in the TL as the original did in the SL, not that much research has been done on what constitutes this 'same function' in the many translation situations with which the translator is faced. When the different problems of terminology and textual conventions are ignored, or solved incompetently, the customer blames it on the badly trained – or untrained – translators, probably rightly. The next time a translation is needed the customer opts for the solution of giving it to a subject specialist, in the hope that s/he will at least get the terminology right, even if the 'style' is not fantastic. High-level scientific, technical, and legal texts are often given to specialists, rather than to trained translators for this reason. For example, the Gulbenkian Foundation usually employs university teaching staff to translate its academic publications.

4. Attitudes, the resultant problems and 'solutions'

Among one of the major teaching problems is that many teachers of translation are not primarily professional translators. Those institutions that advertise their staff as being 'professional translators' should be realistic as to the actual balance the individual establishes between the two professions, and to which they feel the most allegiance. The professional translator who teaches and is also a subject specialist is even rarer, as such a person is usually far too busy translating to find time to teach. The truth is that many teachers of translation are language teachers whose real ambition is to teach literature,

history, culture, linguistics or whatever. Such people often despise (are afraid of?) non-humanistic subjects and communicate this attitude to their students.

It is a commonplace to hear people say that engineers, doctors, and other specialists do not know how to write well. Such people will themselves admit that style is not their problem, since their objective is to convey the facts as clearly and simply as possible. The fact that some specialists actually do write well, and that others do not manage to be factual clearly, is beside the point. For either side to take refuge in such arguments is not a solution on one level, and for translation teachers and translators to use them as an excuse for not doing a good job is not acceptable at another. Training students with a wide variety of 'scientific', 'economic', 'legal', and 'technical' texts, however conscientiously done, is only a partial solution.

Few problems have no solution, and there are ways in which humanities teachers can use the strengths of an academic training that emphasises acquiring, synthesising and organizing ideas to advantage. Information nowadays is readily available, but it needs to be turned into knowledge. Introductory courses to economics, law and other subjects have their value, but they remain only introductions to these subjects and not specialisations. On the other hand, it is manifestly impossible to provide information on every subject a future translator may have to face in the future. We therefore believe that the most sensible objective is to train students 'how to specialise'. For this, teachers can and should admit openly that they are not experts in special subjects and they can allow the student to know more than they do on any special subject. Their objective should be to develop strategies that encourage the students to explore any subject in depth and, when necessary, enlist help from colleagues, acquaintances and friends who are specialists. This is not so difficult as one might expect, providing that it is done tactfully and sensibly.

The perceived generally poor quality of written language in all areas is another problem that needs to be addressed. Whether it is any worse than it was in the past, or whether it is simply more obvious now that, with the advent of the word-processor, more and more people have ventured to express their thoughts in print, is something that would merit investigation. However, there is increasing support for the proposal that more attention should be paid in schools and universities to training in the use of language in every field of knowledge. The dynamics that led to the interest in Technical Communication as a discipline could also lead to improvements in other genres.

Translation curricula, and the teachers that implement them, should be encouraged to provide students with serious training in how to write good original texts in their mother tongue, and then, as their command of the other

language(s) improves, to produce original as well as translations in their other languages. There is plenty of scope for disciplines like Creative Writing, Technical Writing and others that could be developed with other types of texts. The future of the translator as a language services provider offering a much wider range of skills than previously contemplated, including revising or re-writing originals, makes such a development imperative. Only in this way can students be trained to have that fascination with making language explain and express things that is the mark of a good writer, translator, interpreter, or reviser.

A further problem that needs to be addressed is that of making work done in the area of specialised language the subject of research. There is a generalised notion in modern language faculties that literature, culture and linguistics are the only areas in which serious research can be done, and translation research tends to be carried out under the auspices of one of these areas. If communication studies grow any further in scope, no doubt translation will play its part here too.

It is well to remember, however, that there is a growing interest in the study of non-literary language and texts and there is no reason why translator trainers should not engage in research specific to these areas. There is a lot of research in genre analysis, (See: Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Halliday & Martin, 1993; Wright, Sue Ellen & Leland D.Wright, 1993; Martin & Veel, 1998; Trosborg, 2000; and others) contrastive rhetoric (see: Connor, 1996; Beeby, 1996; Hoey, 2000; Myers, 1999; and others), and the analysis of specialised corpora for various aspects of terminology, linguistics, texts, and knowledge engineering (See: Biber, D. 1995; Biber, D., S. Conrad, & R. Reppen, 1998; Wright, Sue-Ellen & Gerhard Budin, 1997 & 2001; Pearson, 1998; Charlet et al, 1999, and Bourigault et al., 2001). This is only a small selection of the bibliography available, but it all adds up to exciting new areas of research that may only seem tangential to the interests of more conservative academic institutions, but which are essential for producing effective communication in the world today.

5. A specific teaching solution

Teaching students how to transform information into knowledge is an essential aim of any educational process and not just for translation students. At a post-graduate level this can be organised in a way that goes further than the general solutions proposed in the previous section. At the Faculdade de Letras da Universidade do Porto (FLUP) we have made some attempts to explore the possibilities in this direction. These efforts were prompted by

several factors, amongst which was the understanding among colleagues and students that our present undergraduate curriculum is insufficient as a qualification for translators. After several attempts at undergraduate level to overcome the lack of any discipline in specialised language, we decided to develop a programme at post-graduate level.

For this we sought the advice and opinions of members of our faculty translator's association and other ex-students, who all stressed the need for something related to the real world of translation work. We received encouragement from students from a former Master's in 'Translation Studies' who had turned away from the more literary programme towards linguistic analysis and terminology research. We also noticed that there was plenty of room for serious terminology work, particularly when we attempted to establish interdisciplinary relationships. Subject specialists are far more conscious of the problems of terminology than are teachers of modern language courses. And the objectives go far beyond Languages for Special Purposes.

The result of much discussion was the following Master's programme in 'Terminology and Translation' (2000 – 2002):

1st Semester
– Semantics and Syntax
– Translation Theory and the non-literary text
– Introduction to Information Technology applied to Translation
– Lexicology and Terminology

2nd Semester
– Translation and the non-literary text
– Terminography
– Introduction to Special Subjects: Engineering, Geography and History
– Project work in one of the Special Subjects

The general objective of the curricular part of the programme was to train students to produce terminology work with the help of experts, but within the context of translation work. For this, certain specific objectives were set, including a terminological database, specialised corpora, and a report on the process and problems involved. The second stage in specialization will be Master's dissertations on the theory and practice of terminology, the non-literary text and translation, in-depth analysis of the Special Subjects and the development of databases. Our hope is that this course will lead to serious work for its graduates as terminologists and as specialist translators.

The special subjects that have been used for training this year are from the area of Engineering – Composites, Instrumentation, Statistics and Quality, Tribology and Machine Elements, Fatigue and Fracture of Engineering Materials; Geography - Demography and Environment; and History - 'Vinho Verde', the Wool Industry, and Romanic castles. For this we have had the cooperation and goodwill of specialists in these areas.

There is no doubt that terminology projects must be multi-disciplinary and, preferably multi-lingual. This means that an ideal situation will require cooperation, not only between different departments or faculties in a particular university, but also between universities in different countries. Whenever possible, international organisations and industrial and commercial partners should also be involved. Our Master's degree in Terminology and Translation will function on a bi-annual basis, but we hope that the lessons will also be used to create post-graduate diplomas in specialised translation and lead to master's and doctoral dissertations in the related areas.

6. Endnote

Never has so much information been so easily available to so many, and we must learn how to turn it into knowledge and use it. For this we must explain the semantics of *boring* to our students and teach them that whereas translating 'blind', without knowledge and well-researched terminology IS BORING, translating with access to knowledge is not. Why? Because no real knowledge is boring.

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Webterm - terminology from academic theses for the web community

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Abstract. At the Department of Modern Languages of the University of Applied Sciences Cologne, the WebTerm Project has started in November 2000 aiming to consolidate the content of about 100 terminological theses databases (MultiTerm) and transfer it to a web-based application which allows internet users to have access to these type of terminological data. The papers describes the structure and the content of the terminological theses produced at our University, the methodological and technical approach as well as the (preliminary) results of the WebTerm Project.

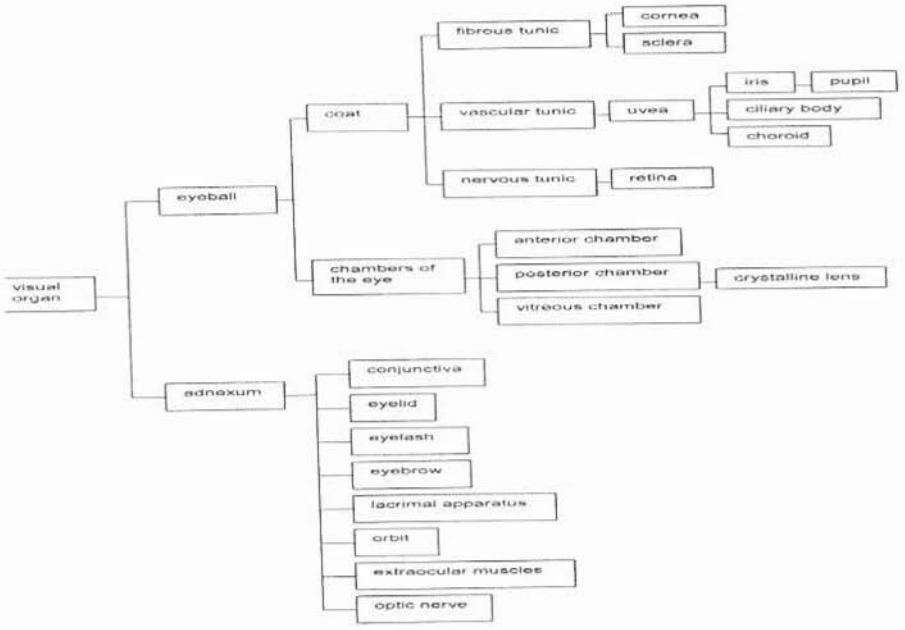
In recent years, a growing number of theses and dissertations in the field of terminology have been written at university departments for translation and interpretation. The tremendous effort students have invested in elaborating (concept-oriented) mostly bilingual terminological collections of a limited domain remained largely ignored because no one outside the respective university knows about these existing collections. And if an interested user outside the respective university is informed about the existence of domain-related terminological collections, it sometimes turns out to be quite difficult to have access because the theses are only available in one paper copy and many university departments are not equipped and allowed to disseminate and "sell" the information. But more and more terminological theses are produced by using terminology management software; therefore the terminological data the user is interested in is also available in electronic form which allows an easier and more efficient way for dissemination and (re-)use.

At the Department of Modern Languages of the University of Applied Sciences Cologne, more than 100 terminological diploma theses have been elaborated over the last 8 years. These theses normally contains the following parts:

- an introduction to the subject field
- a description and discussion of terminological working methods, results and problems
- a concept system for the domain (bilingual or two systems)

- a collection of concept-oriented terminological entries (usually bilingual with all terms, grammatical information, definitions, context examples, sources and notes)
- a domain-related bibliography (sources used)

Sample pages with (part of) the concept system from a printed thesis can be seen in Figure 1, and sample pages with a terminological entry in Figure 2. Since 1995, a terminology management system (Trados MultiTerm) has been used for elaborating the terminological data for the theses. The position of each concept in the concept system is maintained by a indexed field containing the notation (position number). Since 1997, all source references of the terminologial work are stored in bibliographical entries in the same MultiTerm database, and since 1999 the subject fields and domains of the theses are classified using the Lenoch-Code-Classification of the EU Commission. MultiTerm export definitions and routines are provided to the students for generating parts of the printed version of the thesis, especially for the terminological entries, the bibliography and the alphabetical bilingual indices with reference to the notation. See Figures. 3 & 4.



(Figure 1: Sample pages with (part of) the concept system from a printed thesis)

Stand: 29.02.2000 - 16:12:47
Fachgebiet: Medizin
Lenoch-Code: *#ME*: O
Autor: So-Heong Park
Notation: 1.1.1.1.2.1.1.1

D: **Pupille** *<f.>*
Quelle: ***Jäckle-Kirchhoff.1995***
Definition: das kreisrunde, dunkel erscheinende Sehloch in der Regenbogenhaut (etwas exzentrisch nach unten-nasal), von den Irismuskeln je nach physiologischem Bedürfnis (Akkommodation) in der Größe verändert (ϕ 1,5 bis 8 mm)
Quelle: ***Jäckle-Kirchhoff.1995***
Kontext: Das zentrale Loch der Iris, die Pupille, ist die Blende des optischen Systems.
Quelle: ***Grehn.1998***

D: **Sehloch** *<n.> <Synonym>*
Quelle: ***Wahrig.1996***
Kontext: In der Mitte der Iris befindet sich eine rundliche Öffnung, das Sehloch oder die Pupille.
Quelle: ***Kaden.1993***

E: **pupil** *<sub>*
Quelle: ***Millodot.1997***
Definition: Aperture within the iris, normally circular, through which light penetrates into the eye.
Quelle: ***Millodot.1997***
Kontext: The central opening, the pupil, is derived from the Greek pupa, a small doll-like figure that was reflected from the center of the eye when one looked at someone's eyes.
Quelle: ***Stein.1987***

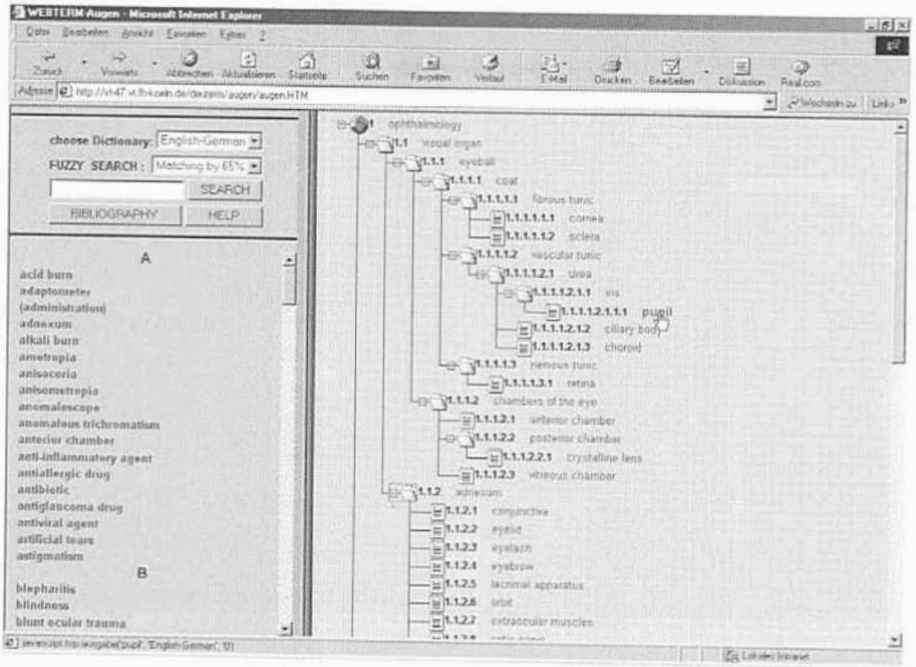
(Figure 2: Sample pages with a terminological entry from a printed thesis)

(Figure 3: Terminological entry in MultiTerm)

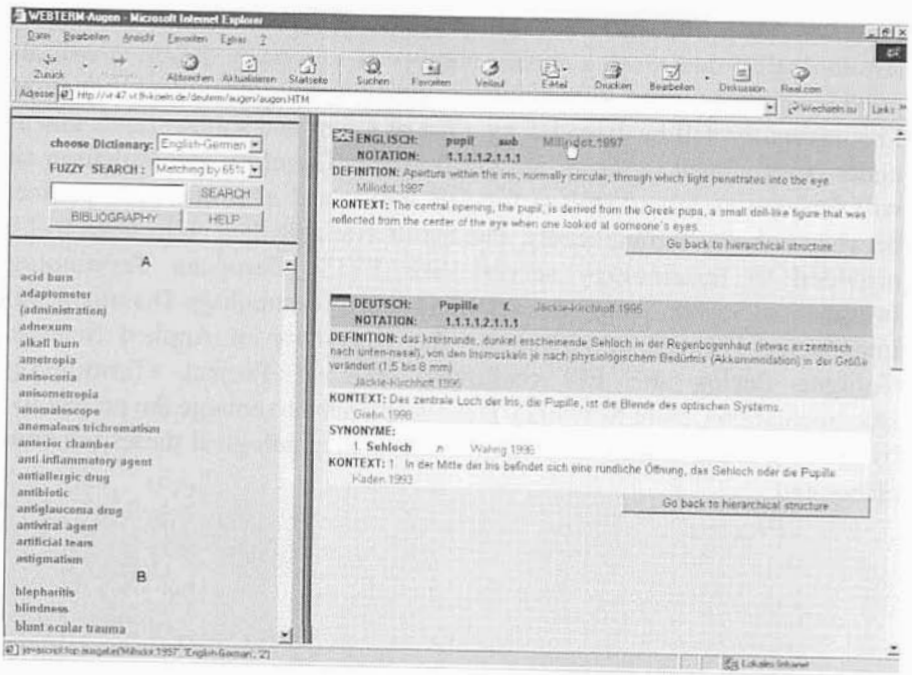
(Figure 4: Bibliographical entry in MultiTerm)

In November 2000, the WebTerm Project started at the Department of Modern Languages of the University of Applied Sciences Cologne, aiming to consolidate the content of about 100 terminological theses databases and transfer it to a web-based application that allows internet users to have access to this type of terminological data. This application-oriented research project is co-financed by the German Ministry for Research and Technology for a period of 18 months.

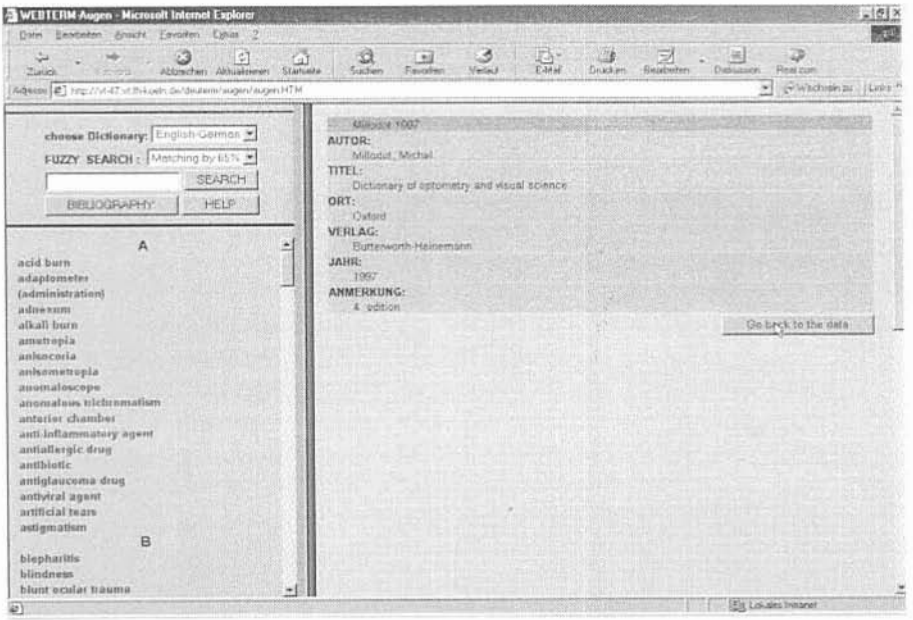
At the current status of the project, the consolidation work on the theses database is almost complete; so far it has comprised the correction of databases errors, the testing and completion of hyperlinks between terminological entries and hyperlinks to bibliographical entries, the completion of missing bibliographical sources and Lenoch-Codes for subject field classification, and the consolidation and unification of the data categories and their content. After tests with the Trados Muwa software (MultiTerm Web Access), software with its own web interface is under development, allowing one not only to present the terminological and bibliographical entries but also to display an user-expandable view of the concept system, generated from the notation field of the MultiTerm database. A prototype of this web application running under Microsoft's Internet Explorer 5.0 is being tested; the automatic conversion routines from the MultiTerm database to the web application have already been implemented.



(Figure 5: Web interface: concept system)



(Figure 6: Web interface: terminological entry)



(Figure 7: Web interface: bibliographical entry)

When finalized, the WebTerm Project will not only allow access to terminological data from a certain number of university theses, it will also provide an inventory of existing and accessible terminology data collections. This inventory will be extended by a list of topics and subject fields that are under development in theses not yet finished. Therefore, the WebTerm site will function as a marketplace for new topics and a co-operation platform between industry and university. The list of available data collections will be provided to terminology servers like ETIS (European Terminology Information Server) using the TeDIF format (Terminology Documentation Interchange Format) developed by the University of Applied Sciences, Cologne during the EU co-funded TDCnet Project (Terminology Documentation Centre Network). It is also planned to enlarge the project idea by creating a network of universities, where terminological theses are being elaborated.

3.4 contrastive analysis

Algumas particularidades do Francês e sua tradução em Português

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Resumo. O trabalho de tradução insere-se na abordagem ***contrastiva*** *de duas línguas e só é possível porque as operações enunciativas profundas são sensivelmente idênticas de uma língua para outra, a despeito, por vezes espectacular, das formas de superfície. É verdade que pode haver diferenças consideráveis duma língua para outra, por exemplo, na gramaticalização das formas de cortesia, como há também enormes divergências entre os comportamentos de cortesia de cultura para cultura. Embora haja princípios universais que regem as formas de cortesia, nomeadamente o apagar de si próprio e a valorização máxima do destinatário. Linguisticamente falando, utilizar um* **vous** *de cortesia, que consiste em conferir ao indivíduo singular mais importância, ao designá-lo através dum morfema plural, ou então dirigir-se ao mesmo indivíduo servindo-se dum morfema de terceira pessoa que faz aumentar a distância entre os interlocutores, corresponde, de facto, pelo menos na aparência, a diferentes tipos de operação, mas, no fundo, em ambos os casos, trata-se de conferir ao destinatário uma certa importância que seria descabida na conversação familiar. Sabemos todos que, para se obter uma boa tradução, é necessário, por um lado, algum distanciamento e, por outro, um certo equilíbrio entre a fidelidade ao texto de partida e um trabalho de adaptação por parte do texto de chegada, de maneira que este possa reflectir, simultaneamente, a compreensão do sentido e os vários efeitos que o original desperta. Em suma, numa tradução devemos exigir o maior respeito pelo sentido da frase, da sua articulação e do seu ritmo pondo de lado os acréscimos e a ornamentação inútil.*

Abstract. Translating is embedded within the ***contrastive*** *analysis approach between two languages. It is only feasible because the illocutionary acts seem somehow identical from one language to another despite their infrequently striking surface features. Considerable differences are actually noticeable from language to language, for instance with regards to the grammar of courtesy. In the same fashion, there are huge differences in manners from one culture to another, though there are universal principles guiding courtesy, such as putting the addressee in the foreground against an addresser shifted*

> *into the background. Within the perspective of linguistics, using a courtesy vous – aimed at attributing more importance to a singular individual either by means of a plural morpheme or even by a third person morpheme – corresponds, at least at first sight, to different types of illocutionary acts. However, and in both cases, the addressee is given a relevance that might appear inappropriate in a familiar conversation. It is common knowledge that, in order to obtain a good translation, it is necessary to both distance it from and maintain fidelity to the source text. This should be done so that it simultaneously reflects the understanding of its meaning potential and the other multiple effects of the text. To sum up, one should require full respect for the meaning of the sentence, its articulation and its rhythm, and set aside superfluous and useless ornamentation.*

Para além da singularidade que a distingue das outras línguas, toda a língua é múltipla. Toda ela comporta particularismos locais, regionais ou nacionais que fazem com que, de região para região, embora conserve a sua identidade, reflicta a cultura dos que a falam. Por outro lado, uma língua pode ser abordada sob diversos ângulos: a fonologia, o léxico, a morfologia, a sintaxe, as especificidades pragmáticas, os particularismos locais, a maneira como é ensinada, o modo como é traduzida, etc.

Nestas circunstâncias, julgamos que o trabalho de tradução se insere na abordagem *contrastiva* de duas línguas. É precisamente porque os mecanismos profundos são comuns a todas as línguas, pese embora a sua superficial diversidade, que a actividade de tradução é possível e que podemos transpor duma língua para outra uma mensagem, sem trair nem a originalidade nem a finalidade. Um tradutor não poderá triunfar se não se elevar ao nível da «gramática interna» de que fala H. Adamczewski [1990, 5].

É assim que o *vouvoiement* do francês e o *iloiement* do português, ao oporem-se ambos ao *tutoiement* de intimidade, visam o mesmo fim: valorizar a pessoa que temos à nossa frente. É por isso que um tradutor não hesita em traduzir o *vous* de cortesia do francês pela terceira pessoa do português.

Mas se a tradução da cortesia pode colocar problemas de língua para língua, sabemos todos que o genérico, relacionado, de certa maneira, com ela, utiliza diferentes pessoas consoante os idiomas. Assim é que se fala do *vous* ou do *on générique* em francês ou dos *nós genérico* em português.

Verifica-se, então, que há factores, sobretudo de ordem cultural e civilizacional, que ao influenciarem as regras de cortesia, interferem no funcionamento habitual dos clíticos e dos pronomes, fazendo, por vezes, equivaler o singular onde estaríamos à espera do plural e vice-versa.

Neste nosso trabalho, vamos preocupar-nos, numa primeira parte, não com o desempenho normal do *vous*, que todos sabemos ser ambíguo a nível do sistema da língua francesa, uma vez que tanto pode aplicar-se a um alocutário plural – de acordo com a sua função inicial oriunda do latim – como a um alocutário singular, quando queremos dirigir-nos cortesmente a alguém, mas, sim, com os problemas que ele coloca ao tradutor português, a ponto de o fazer cometer desvios ao texto de partida que comprometem, definitivamente, o sentido desse mesmo texto.

Numa segunda parte, abordaremos o caso dum conector pessoal original, uma espécie de *joker* do sistema deíctico francês, cuja referência depende sempre do contexto ou da situação e que faz com que o tradutor enfrente enormes problemas de interpretação e de tradução numa língua como o português, em que não existe nenhum morfema comparável a *on*.

Mas se, com frequência, o texto de chegada é mais preciso e rigoroso do que o texto de partida, não é menos raro que o tradutor cometa erros de interpretação, como teremos ocasião de observar.

1. Tradução do pessoal *vous*

De entre os índices pessoais do francês, há um que coloca problemas particulares aos tradutores portugueses. É o pessoal alocutivo ***vous***.

1.1. Passagem indevida do alocutário ao delocutário

À semelhança do francês, o português possui um ***vous*** – o ***vós*** herdado do latim – mas este morfema está, hoje, em pleno declínio, sendo substituído, na maioria das vezes, pelo seu equivalente alocutório de terceira pessoa ***você/vocês***. Daí resultam, para os tradutores, frequentes confusões entre a segunda e a terceira pessoa do plural, como podemos constatar através dum extracto de *La Chute* de Albert Camus[1] e de *A Queda*, na respectiva tradução portuguesa[2]:

(1)*Alors, insensiblement, je passe, dans mon discours, du «je» au «nous». Quand j'arrive au «voilà ce que nous sommes», le tour est joué, je peux* ***leur*** *dire leurs vérités. (...)* ***Vous voyez*** *l'avantage, j'en suis sûr. Plus je m'accuse et plus j'ai le droit de* ***vous*** *juger. Mieux, je* ***vous*** *provoque à* ***vous*** *juger* ***vous-même*** *(...). Ch. 146. Æ Então, insensivelmente, passo, no meu discurso, do «eu» ao «nós». Quando chego ao «eis o que nós somos», a coisa está feita, posso dizer-****lhes*** *as verdades. (...)* ***Está a ver*** *a vantagem, tenho a certeza. Quanto mais me acuso mais tenho o direito de julgá-****los****. Melhor, obrigo-****os a eles próprios*** *se julgarem (...). Q. 209-210.*

Esta tradução comporta um duplo erro: um sobre a pessoa, outro sobre o número. O tradutor parece não ter visto que o juiz-penitente, após ter visado os ausentes (Je peux **leur** dire *leurs* vérités Æ posso dizer-**lhes** *as* verdades), visa o alocutário singular, isto é, o advogado que tem à sua frente: *Je* ***vous*** *provoque à* ***vous*** *juger* ***vous-même***.

É verdade que o ***vous*** é ambíguo, já que tanto pode ser utilizado com referência a uma colectividade como em relação a um indivíduo a quem eu me dirijo de forma cortês. Todavia, para que não houvesse ambiguidade sobre o alcance de ***vous***, neste contexto, o autor acrescentou ao último deles o adjectivo indefinido ***même***, cujo singular elimina a possibilidade duma interpretação colectiva de ***vous***. Assim, a tradução portuguesa mais adaptada a uma conversa entre dois advogados seria, seguramente: *Quanto mais me acuso mais tenho o direito de julgá-***lo***. Melhor, obrigo-***o a si próprio*** a julgar-se (...)*. Naturalmente que, tratando-se dum único alocutário, escolhemos a terceira pessoa de cortesia, no singular.

Ora, o que faz o tradutor? Utiliza uma terceira pessoa do plural que exclui, neste caso, todo o uso alocutório: *Quanto mais me acuso mais tenho o direito de julgá-***los***. Melhor, obrigo-***os a eles próprios*** *se julgarem (...)*. Se retraduzirmos o texto em francês, obteremos: *Plus je m'accuse, plus j'ai le droit de* ***les*** *juger. Mieux, je* ***les*** *oblige à se juger* ***eux-mêmes***.

Como se pode constatar, o contrasenso é enorme, e é todo o alcance moral da obra que fica, assim, posto em causa. Com efeito, *La Chute* visa agir, para além do alocutário interno, sobre cada leitor individual, leitor esse, que deve sentir-se *pessoalmente interpelado*. É evidente que, ao desviar a acusação de Clamence para os ausentes, o tradutor passa, completamente, ao lado do objectivo visado.

1.2. Passagem normal do alocutário ao elocutário plural nos enunciados genéricos: um problema intercultural

Em francês, há um emprego muito particular de ***vous***, nos enunciados genéricos, onde este, ainda que alocutário, designa a pessoa em geral, tomado como testemunha privilegiada e representante simbólico da condição humana:

> (2)*On ne* ***vous*** *pardonne* ***votre*** *bonheur et* ***vos*** *succès que si* ***vous*** *consentez généreusement à les partager. Ch. 85.* → *Não* ***nos*** *perdoam a* ***nossa*** *felicidade, nem os* ***nossos*** *êxitos senão no caso de consentirmos generosamente em reparti-los. Q. 124.*

Poderíamos parafrasear, assim, o texto francês: ***Un homme*** *ne pardonne à* ***un autre homme*** *son bonheur et ses succès que si celui-ci consent généreusement à les partager*. Trata-se, portanto, duma verdade moral que diz

respeito ao homem em geral. Essa verdade pode ser tratada nas três pessoas: na terceira, como na nossa paráfrase; na segunda, como no enunciado de Camus e, finalmente, na primeira do plural, como na tradução portuguesa. Normalmente, a língua portuguesa prefere tratar as máximas utilizando um equivalente de ***nous*** e não um equivalente de ***vous***. Quando se trata de falar do homem em geral, como estamos todos implicados, parece perfeitamente natural que se recorra a um ***nós*** *consensual*. Em contrapartida, para um português, é muito estranha a utilização dum equivalente de **vous** – que pertence à *deixis de rupture* e que é, estritamente, centrada no alocutário – para englobar uma verdade generalizada que diga respeito a toda a gente, ***eu*** incluído. A cultura portuguesa tem dificuldade em projectar o ***eu*** sobre ***outrem***. Essa projecção do *ego* sobre o *alter ego*, tão característico da cultura e da língua francesa, aparece, com toda a clareza, nesta declaração de Clamence:

> (3)*Si j'avais pu* **me** *suicider et voir ensuite leur tête, alors, oui, le jeu en eût valu la chandelle (...). Mais* **vous vous** *tuez et qu'importe qu'ils* **vous** *croient ou non:* **vous n'êtes** *pas là pour recueillir leur étonnement et leur contrition (...). Ch. 80.* → *Se eu pudesse suicidar-***me** *e ver em seguida a cara deles, então, sim, valeria a pena (...). Mas* **uma pessoa** *mata-***se** *e que importa que* **eles** *a acreditem ou não? Não esta***mos** *presentes para recolher o seu espanto ou a sua contrição (...). Q. 117.*

Dizer a alguém ***Vous vous*** *tuez* (***Você*** *mata-***se**), para falar do suicídio em geral, é *impensável* na cultura portuguesa. É tanto ou mais verdadeiro que, no contexto supracitado, o locutor começou por falar do seu próprio suicídio, ou, se quiserem, das suas veleidades suicidárias. Assim, podemos imaginar que quando ele diz ***vous***, pense, primeiramente, em si próprio. Em suma, o seu ***moi*** *projecta-se* sobre o ***vous*** do outro. E isso pressupõe o seguinte raciocínio: *ce que je dis de moi est automatiquement vrai de vous, et si c'est vrai de nous deux, c'est vrai de tous les hommes.*

Tal universalização da verdade individual encerra algo que choca o português. Essa é a razão por que a lógica da tradução se afasta, bastante, daquela que se observa no texto francês: essa lógica não passa do ***je*** ao ***vous***, mas do ***eu*** ao ***nós***, transitando através da mediação de alguém indefinido, ***uma pessoa***, que, neste contexto, podemos reaproximar do indefinido ***a gente***, que vai assegurar a transição com ***nous***. Aliás, pode comutar-se ***uma pessoa*** *mata-***se** (à letra: **une personne se** tue) com ***a gente*** *mata-***se** (**on se** tue).

A passagem traduzida situa-se em plena *deíxis consensual* – ***estamos*** *na mesma alhada* → ***nous sommes*** *tous dans le même bain* – ao passo que o texto original supõe uma *deíxis de ruptura* onde perpassa alguma

agressividade, como se verifica em ***Vous vous*** *tuez*. Isto é o mesmo que dizer: *Vous qui m'écoutez, vous pouvez, vous aussi, être un jour tenté par le suicide*. Esta frase tipo chicote, destinada a despertar o alocutário do seu sono feliz, não possui equivalência na versão portuguesa, que é muito menos violenta a nível da sua formulação. Trata-se, já o dissemos, dum fenómeno intercultural. Logo, não se pode dizer que a tradução seja fraca e que edulcore o texto. Pura e simplesmente, é impossível, em português, neste tipo de contexto, utilizar um ***vós*** ou qualquer um dos seus equivalentes.

Quanto ao sucesso do ***vous*** *générique*, em francês, como explicá-lo? Dum ponto de vista, estritamente, linguístico – e sem ter em atenção eventuais diferenças de mentalidade – parece claro que o sucesso do ***vous*** *générique* está ligado ao do ***on*** *générique* e que, inversamente, a sua ausência, em português, poderá estar relacionada com a inexistência dum **«on»**, no sistema lusófono. De facto, há línguas com **«on»** e línguas sem **«on»**.

No enunciado genérico, ainda que ***vous*** seja correlativo de ***on***, nem por isso deixa de ser o morfema do alocutário. No sistema português, o uso do ***nós*** *genérico* também reforça os laços interlocutivos. Mas, contrariamente ao ***vous*** *générique*, que solicita a aprovação do alocutário, o ***nós*** *genérico* considera essa aprovação como um dado adquirido.

Bastante mais ambíguo do que o ***vous***, é o ***on*** indefinido, uma vez que ele pode ser substituto de todas as pessoas, isto é, apresentar um funcionamento elocutório, alocutório ou delocutório, e isto, tanto no singular como no plural, no específico como no genérico.

2. Tradução do pessoal *on*

Face a esse morfema polissémico, o tradutor português é obrigado a propor uma interpretação e a traduzir ***on*** – que, já vimos, não tem verdadeiro equivalente em português – quer por um sintagma nominal preciso, que tem que ser coerente com o resto do contexto, quer por um índice pessoal que pode ser, consoante o caso: ***eu, tu, você, ele, ela, nós, vós, vocês, eles, elas***, sem esquecer os *índices zero*, os *indefinidos* e o ***se*** *reflexivo*. Isto significa que o texto de chegada é, necessariamente, mais preciso e mais límpido do que o texto original, que terá que ser absolutamente decantado.

2.1. Casos em que a tradução do *on* pode ser questionada

2.1.1. *On* é traduzido por *todos*

Quando o ***on*** é *genérico*, é, necessariamente, inclusivo do enunciador. Em contrapartida, quando ele é específico, pode ou não incluir o enunciador. O

problema que se coloca , então, ao tradutor é de saber se há ou não inclusão. Tudo depende do contexto, e até dum largo contexto.

Por exemplo, no contexto que se segue, sabemos que o ***on*** é *inclusivo*, uma vez que ele designa toda a população de Orão, da qual faz parte o doutor Rieux, narrador de *La Peste*[3] → *A Peste*[4]. É, pois, o vasto contexto do romance que nos impõe esta interpretação, ao passo que no quadro do enunciado, tomado isoladamente, não há nenhum indício que marque o alcance exacto de ***on***:

(4) *Mais à mesure que les jours passaient, **on** se mit à craindre que ce malheur n'eût véritablement pas de fin (...). P. 201.* → *Porém, à medida que os dias passavam, **todos** começaram a recear que esta desgraça não tivesse realmente fim (...). P. 241.*

Neste caso, o tradutor cometeu um contrasenso, visto que a 3ª pessoa do plural, precedida de ***todos***, exclui, necessariamente, o enunciador. Se quisermos conservar o quantificador ***todos***, temos que fazê-lo seguir de ***nós***, o que impõe a concordância do verbo na 1ª pessoa do plural: ***todos nós*** *começámos a recear (...).*

2.1.2. *On* é traduzido por um delocutivo plural de referência indefinida

No exemplo que vamos analisar, referente ao mundo antigo, constatamos que ***on*** é delocutivo e que o tradutor não se enganou nessa interpretação; no entanto, achamos que o equivalente de ***on*** por ele escolhido pode prestar-se a confusão:

(5) *Et le docteur Rieux, (...), pensait à ces bûchers dont parle Lucrèce et que les Athéniens frappés par la maladie élevaient devant la mer. On y portait les morts durant la nuit, mais la place manquait et les vivants se battaient à coups de torches (...). P. 43.* → *E o doutor Rieux, (...), pensava nessas fogueiras de que fala Lucrécio e que os atenienses atacados pela doença faziam subir à beira do mar. Levavam para lá os mortos durante a noite, mas o sítio era pequeno e os vivos batiam-se a golpes de archote (...). P. 52.*

Uma vez que se trata de *atenienses*, o plural *levavam*, utilizado sem sujeito explícito, poderia, muito bem, reportar-se a este sintagma nominal. Todavia, o texto original não diz, *Ils y portaient les morts (les Athéniens)*, mas, sim, ***On*** *y portait les morts* (não se sabe quem). Assim, concluímos que o único equivalente aceitável de ***on***, em tal contexto, deveria ter sido ***se***, na voz média: *Levava-**se** para lá os mortos.*

2.1.3. *On* é especificado, com ou sem razão, por um sintagma nominal definido

No exemplo (6), o tradutor detectou, com justeza, o carácter elocutório de ***on***, só é pena que o tenha substituído por um *sintagma nominal* que, quanto a nós, não é, de facto, o indicado:

(6) *C'est à partir de ce moment que les carnets de Tarrou commencent à parler avec un peu de détails de cette fièvre inconnue dont* ***on*** *s'inquiétait déjà dans le public. P. 33.* → *É a partir deste momento que os cadernos de Tarrou começam a falar com alguns pormenores dessa febre desconhecida com que* ***o público*** *já se inquietava. P. 40.*

Não é possível traduzir, à letra, o texto francês: **já se inquietava no público*, mas teria sido possível – e desta vez sem ambiguidade – utilizar um plural indefinido: *já* ***se inquietavam*** *no público*. Essa teria sido a melhor solução. Quanto à construção escolhida, não é satisfatória, uma vez que ela promove ao estatuto de sujeito (***o público*** *já se inquietava*) um simples circunstante do texto francês (*dans le public*). Dá a sensação que é todo o público que se inquieta, ao passo que no texto original só uma parte do público está implicada.

Porém, se a opção por um sintagma nominal é infeliz neste contexto, há casos em que ele é bem escolhido e até ajuda a «dezambiguizar» o texto francês, como acontece neste exemplo:

(7) *Mais les habitants de ces quartiers menacèrent aussitôt de les déserter (...) si bien qu'****on*** *fut obligé de détourner les fumées (...). P. 165.* → *Mas os habitantes desses bairros ameaçaram imediatamente desertar (...) de modo que* ***as autoridades*** *foram obrigadas a afastar o fumo (...). P. 197.*

Gramaticalmente falando, ***on*** *fut obligé* é ambíguo, uma vez que nada indica se ***on*** é *inclusivo* ou *exclusivo* do enunciador. Em contrapartida, do ponto de vista pragmático, temos dificuldade em aceitar que o narrador tenha podido participar nesta operação técnica, que era, manifestamente, da competência da administração. Ora, isso foi muito bem entendido pelo tradutor que, ao traduzir ***on*** pelo sintagma nominal ***as autoridades***, retirou ao texto francês toda e qualquer ambiguidade. A esse nível, podemos dizer que o texto português suplanta o original, pois apresenta maior limpidez.

Contudo, essa melhoria pode ainda ser mais acentuada, no extracto de *La Peste* que a seguir propomos:

(8) *Les hommes tendaient leurs bras, deux louches plongeaient dans deux*

*marmites et en sortaient pour atterrir dans deux gamelles. La voiture se remettait en marche. **On** recommençait à la tente suivante. P. 219. → Os homens estendiam os braços, duas conchas mergulhavam nas panelas e saíam delas para encherem as duas marmitas. O carro prosseguia na sua marcha e **a cena** recomeçava na tenda seguinte. P. 263.*

Há que reconhecer, com honestidade, que o texto francês não está muito bem escrito e contém algumas marcas de negligência, tanto a nível lexical como a nível gramatical. Se a visão das duas conchas que mergulham constitui um grande plano interessante, em contrapartida, a expressão *pour atterrir dans deux gamelles* é, francamente, pouco própria e pouco coerente com a imagem dum mergulho no líquido. Gramaticalmente, o último enunciado não satisfaz, dado que ***on*** poderia incluir o enunciador, que, como vemos, é, manifestamente, exterior à cena. É, assim, com toda a propriedade, que o tradutor escolhe a expressão, *a cena*, para levantar a ambiguidade de ***on***. Se fizermos a reescrita da passagem de Camus a partir do texto português verificaremos, nitidamente, que há progressos relativamente ao texto original: *Les hommes tendaient **les** bras, deux louches plongeaient dans deux marmites et en sortaient pour **remplir** deux gamelles. La voiture se remettait en marche. **La scène** recommençait à la tente suivante.* (*P.* 219).

Constatámos, assim, através de alguns exemplos, que as duas línguas utilizam meios diferentes para exprimir tanto a cortesia como o genérico; e como a deíxis implícita tem, em português, um rendimento muito mais elevado do que em francês, podemos encontrar um grande número de anáforas zero, tanto a nível do sujeito como do objecto. Para além disso, como o verbo é utilizado, mais do que em francês, na forma não-marcada do delocutivo – devido à terceira pessoa de cortesia – resultam daí muitos predicados, gramaticalmente, flutuantes, que fazem lembrar os predicados de certas línguas asiáticas, como o japonês ou o coreano, cujo estatuto enunciativo é calculado, essencialmente, a partir do jogo de perguntas-respostas e dos dados situacionais. O que não impede que o português não esteja nos antípodas dessas línguas, com um sistema verbal que é, sem dúvida, um dos mais complexos do domínio românico.

Destaque-se ainda a dificuldade e a riqueza que é para qualquer tradutor trabalhar dois sistemas em simultâneo numa vasta óptica de gramática textual. Na verdade, ele vai ter que confrontar-se com um mundo diferente do seu e «vestir a pele» de outra pessoa para poder interpretar, correctamente, determinados enunciados. Mas esse confronto é também enriquecedor, na medida em que ele aprofundará, não apenas o conhecimento da língua de partida, mas, também, alguns aspectos da sua própria língua que, por estar tão próxima, tende a escapar-lhe.

Assim, e segundo M. Vilela (1994:17), na sequência de S. Jerónimo: «O bom tradutor é o que traduz como *orator* e não o que traduz como *interpres*: é o que sabe captar para a sua própria língua o "sentido" original do texto, traduzindo as ideias e não as palavras (*res uellim, non uerba consideres*), recuperando a eloquência, adaptando o texto e as formas à índole da própria língua». Tratando-se da obra literária, ser bom tradutor implica estar atento à musicalidade da frase ou do verso, à poesia, à teatralidade ou não do texto de partida, para poder transmitir ao texto de chegada toda essa carga emotiva. Com efeito, toda a obra literária a traduzir carreia, para além da sua qualidade estética, uma enorme diversidade de experiências, de preocupações ideológicas e culturais, de questões sem resposta, em suma, do mistério da existência.

Notas

[1] Camus, A. (1956), *La Chute*. Paris, Gallimard.

[2] Camus, A. (1963), *A Queda*. Lisboa, Ed. Livros do Brasil.

[3] Camus, A. (1947), *La Peste*. Paris, Gallimard.

[4] Camus, A. (1964), *A Peste*. Lisboa, Ed. Livros do Brasil.

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Discourse pattern awareness - improving results in training simultaneous interpreters

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Abstract: In simultaneous interpreting, the original text must be converted into the target language following the norms of this language at all levels. The interpreter needs to master the lexical, syntactic, and stylistic differences of the languages at work as well as the discourse pattern that underlies the lecture. In an attempt to improve the quality of the target-language text, this paper advocates the need to raise the interpreters-to-be awareness of the diversity of text patterns and discourse genres and of language-specific and cultural characteristics of textual organization.

Interpreting programs ought to aim at the best performance of their students in real life experience. The training should focus on the specificity of discursive features, interference in textual planning during simultaneous interpreting and cultural inferences related to text reformulation. Issues for discussion and awareness-raising during the training program include: the extent to which interpreters resort to text reformulation, evidence of culture-distinct discourse patterns and the intended audience's reaction to inadequate transposition of text patterns.

The considerations presented in the paper are exploratory in nature.

1. Introduction

Recent studies have explored the characteristic features of both oral and written discourse in different languages in an attempt to describe how each language, or maybe group of languages, shapes its own communicative process. Kaplan (1966) contributed considerably to this perspective by stirring early on the discussion on language-specific composing procedures. Though there has been much disagreement since then, it is generally believed that in displaying differences in text patterns and in communicative rapports with audiences, languages reflect the diversity of their nature as well as that of their people.

One instance in which, undoubtedly, language-specific discursive features can be found, and in which such specificity may even interfere in the actual

act of communicating, is simultaneous interpretation. During simultaneous interpretation two languages are in direct contact and the characteristics inherent to each may provoke interference, with immediate consequences for the interpreter as well as for the ultimate audience of the text. The interpreter must transpose the source language text into adequate target language and form, conforming to the features of such language at all levels, including not only lexical, morphological, and syntactic, but also discourse features. The interpreter's translation can only be considered appropriate if it also complies with the specific target language rhetorical patterns. And much of current research has pointed to the fact that the full message of the speaker also depends on discourse characteristics of texts.

In an attempt to improve the quality of the target-language text in simultaneous interpreting, I will advocate for the need to raise the awareness of interpreters-in-training about the diversity of text patterns and discourse genres, language-specific and cultural characteristics of textual organization and rhetorical styles. As interpreter trainers, we need to help these future professionals build a corpus of linguistic and rhetorical devices to which they can resort during their modeling of the TL text.

2. The central concern: re-structuring the source text

2. 1. Preliminary considerations

If one assumes that rendering a text into another language is not merely transposing it into the words of the target language, one must also emphasize that an interpreter should be sensitive to the differences in syntactic structures and pragmatic features of the languages involved in the interpreting job. Furthermore, in re-structuring the source language text during simultaneous interpreting it is essential to reproduce, as far as possible, the typical rhetorical patterns of the target language.

Studies investigating differences in discourse patterns and rhetorical processes that underlie texts of different language or cultural backgrounds have not, yet, devised complete models of the distinctions involved. In fact, not all language-combinations have been analyzed and, even for those that have been, the findings are still preliminary. Therefore, it is still premature to hope that we can share with our trainees a thorough set of principles or approaches to follow in transposing rhetorical structures. It is a challenge that teachers in interpreter-training programs must face – but as long as we raise the interpreting-students' sensitiveness to such dissimilarities, they will be prepared to devise their own intuitive adaptive mechanisms.

Many research issues can be raised at this point:

- To what extent does the interpreter transfer or transform the text structure during interpreting? Can it be done? Should it be? Need it be?
- If the interpreter mimics the rhetorical pattern of the SL in the TL, is there interference in the actual meaning / intention of the author? Interference in the clarity of ideas of the text?
- In assessing the quality of an interpreting job, to what extent is the overall appraisal based on the adequacy of text structure?
- Does the interpreter introduce modifications in topic structure / focus / emphasis (*given v. new* information)?
- Is it feasible to restructure the text during the simultaneity of conference interpreting?
- How close / far does the interpreter need to be in relation to the original source text (*time lag*) to resort to make modifications in rhetorical structure?
- If such research issues are addressed, what pedagogical implications for training conference interpreters will be engendered?

It is not our intention, in the scope of this presentation, to address all these research issues. In fact, a lifetime would probably not be enough to come up with adequate answers.

2. 2. Evidence for the need for text re-structuring in Simultaneous Interpreting

In discussing text structures in translation, Hatim and Mason state that:

> "In general terms, however, relatively little is known about the differences in the ways text structures develop in different languages. Further research in contrastive text structure is called for in order to determine the constraints on structural modifications in translation between particular language pairs" (Hatim and Mason, 1990: 173).

Since rhetorical mechanisms can be language-specific, they possibly interfere in the act of communicating. Dillinger (1989:10), in listing the factors that affect accuracy in interpreting, includes contextual clues and redundancy of information – both of which can be linked to relevant points in rhetorical frameworks.

Like all language users, interpreters work with aspects of morpho-syntactic form and lexical elements. These basic language features in themselves pose transference problems , which we shall not go into here, and

rhetorical functions interplay to direct the text towards its contextual and pragmatic aims.

Candlin and Saedi (1982, apud Hatim and Mason) say "the linear progression of elements within a text may obscure the non-linear interrelationship of rhetorical functions". Interpreters must be able to work beyond this linearity, use certain rhetorical signals to guess at the overall discourse relations that underlie the mere juxtaposition of words. "The purpose of text structure is to serve a rhetorical purpose and, in striving to achieve equivalence, the translator seeks first and foremost to relay that purpose, making modifications accordingly." (Hatim and Mason, 1990:186) In written translation, Hatim and Mason point out, instances of flaws in the translation may be the result of one's inability to identify rhetorical purposes or overall discourse patterns in the progression of the text (Hatim and Mason, 1990: 175) and inefficiency in rendering into the TL language an equivalent rhetorical structure with the features that the TL supports.

How much more prone to these flaws are interpreters? As it is impossible to return to a text that has been processed, interpreters must deal with the constraints of simultaneity in determining textual relationships and the rhetorical aims of the complete text. Both translators and interpreters need to be concerned with ways in which to relay the rhetorical purpose of the producer of the source language text. Perceiving the plan of composition of sequences and of entire texts is an essential part of the task of translators. But they have the text in its entirety in front of them as they work at it. They are allowed to move to and fro, pause and interact with the words and structures. Interpreters, on the other hand, must find their solutions on the spot. In this respect, additional knowledge of the typical rhetorical patterns and discourse styles of the languages involved in their work can help them predict pattern continuity and avoid discourse flaws or inadequacies in the TL text.

In the context of simultaneous interpreting we have a triangular communications scene – from speaker to interpreter and from interpreter to public. On one side of the communicating triangle, specific cultural and rhetorical patterns add extra density to the overall profile of the SL text; on the other side, a different discourse style and other cultural traits are expected in the TL text. Matching the two is the responsibility and challenge of the interpreter.

3. The Portuguese-English simultaneous interpreters challenge

Let us assume with Kaplan, that 'linguistic logic is a cultural artifact' (1990). It may be derived from this claim that each language will have its own logic. It follows then that transferring ideas from one language to another will

be dependent on the set of linguistic and rhetorical traits that are culturally bound. Oliveira (1999), in her contrastive study of English-L1 and EFL university-level students, states that as 'the first language influences learners' language, students tend to apply the logic of the first language in EFL writing, not simply because of language transfer, but rather, because of the transfer of socio-cultural conventions.' We would argue that interpreters, regardless of whether they are translating into an A or B-language, will tend to apply the logic of the SL to the TL, sometimes inadequately, and transfer socio-cultural conventions typical of the speaker's background into the listeners' language. As simultaneous interpreting requires immediate 'on-line' processing it is not always easy to avoid such inaccuracies. If, however, interpreters are trained to be on the lookout for characteristic rhetorical patterns, the instances of pragmatic or discourse deviations of the TL can be reduced.

3.1 Features of Portuguese and English

By drawing on my experience in training simultaneous interpreters using Portuguese as the SL and English as the TL, a few considerations can be drawn to exemplify the issues raised. The rhetorical patterns of lectures or speeches made in English tend to differ significantly from those in Portuguese.

Portuguese can be characterized by a more elaborate style, in contrast with the focused objectivity and straightforwardness of English — specially American-English — professional texts. (Naturally, we are referring to text features in very generic terms. Exceptions brought about by personal styles or certain genre-specific traits cannot be considered within the scope of these preliminary observations.) In Portuguese, specifically, scientific or academic texts are expected to be wordy, syntactically complex, sophisticated in lexical choice, and rich in embedded structures.

Many Portuguese-English contrastive studies have confirmed, by means of counts and statistical analysis that:

- English essays are longer, with more sentences and T-units. Portuguese texts are shorter, with fewer sentences and T-units, which means that the textual units they contain are longer (Lux and Grabe, 1991, reporting on the findings of Dantas-Whitney and Grabe, 1989).
- The textual style of English essays is reduced, with simpler and more independent textual units. In Portuguese, the essays present a more elaborated style characterized by longer and more complex sentences, where the ratio of subordinate clauses in relation to coordinate clauses is higher than in English. (Oliveira, 1997b, analyzing the writing of Brazilian and American college students).

- Some of the differences found between Portuguese and English text styles may be associated with cultural aspects. Written Brazilian Portuguese is traditionally a more formal and elaborate code that tends to avoid features of orality or informality in writing (Pinto, 1986:27).
- In Brazilian schools and universities the distance between oral and written modes are enforced and good writing is sometimes understood as 'complicated' writing. The rhetoric of the educated people has always been one of elaboration. Whereas in the American context, conciseness and objectivity are stressed, a fact that in itself justifies the frequency of simple sentences in the corpus analyzed (Oliveira, 1999, a study that includes academic articles in a selected field).
- Brazilian Portuguese texts contain significantly longer sentences and English texts are built with more sentences. English texts include more independent sentences and clauses, while Brazilian Portuguese texts group more clauses, with a larger mix of coordination and subordination (Saliés, 1997, contrasting institutional expository texts produced by oil companies).

Brazilian Portuguese texts are not characteristically produced in reduced style — the logic of the language and the inherent socio-cultural rhetorical traditions converge to produce elaborate and dense text styles. Two historical facts support this expectation. The first argument is based on the claim that Brazilian culture is said to have been dominated by oral tradition and, consequently, written discourse must mark a strong contrast with the oral language. Another factor that may explain the elaborateness of Brazilian rhetorical pattern is accounted for by the numerical dominance of under-educated citizens. Thus, at least until the first decades of the 20th century, as Garcia points out in his much adopted 'manual' on writing in Brazilian Portuguese, the rhetoric expected of educated people was that which contained long and syntactically complex discourse structures (Garcia, 1996:105). Oliveira (1997b) comments that students feel they are expected to produce intricate, 'elaborate' writing, because such a style is characteristically considered by teachers and the intellectual community as 'good writing'. Consequently, professionals in their careers not only follow the model taught in school, but also sometimes apply it in exaggerated terms. In fact, certain areas – the humanities and the social sciences, especially — are known for their wordiness and sophistication in lexical and syntactic structures as well as in discourse patterns. Many Brazilian discourse communities – the academic environment especially – value elaborate discourse structures and complexity of language forms as a sign of higher intellectual standing. It is often noticed in speeches, conferences, academic lectures and scientific

papers, that Brazilian authors overuse digressive segments of text, insert parenthetical information in the middle of arguments or listings, add descriptive or explicative appositives that highlight details. The general effect is the interruption of linearity, or sequencing of ideas to produce a complex hierarchical structure of information.

Further evidence of contrasts in English and Portuguese can be derived from the conclusions drawn from studies that compared English and Spanish texts. Many of the assertions made for Spanish can also be made for Portuguese. Reid (1990) and Montaño-Harmon (1991) in their studies found that Spanish more frequently used coordination and subordination – often in the same sentence; 'additive' or 'explicative' coordinating structures were often juxtaposed. Sentences were organized with extensive hierarchically embedded clauses. Both of these Spanish-language researchers detected the process of adding information or ideas at the end of sentences or to the topic sentence, a mechanism that generates more elaborate discourse patterns.

Many details of rhetorical structures can be derived from the contrastive studies of Portuguese, or Spanish, and English. The list below gives just some of the specific findings of the studies I have mentioned (Oliveira 1977a,b, 1999; Saliés, 1977):

- English writers use significantly more simple sentences and finite clauses;
- Portuguese writers use significantly more subordinate clauses, expanding the sentence structure to the right;
- Portuguese uses significantly more complex sentences (subordination and coordination in the same sentence);
- English tends to a reduced style, with more independent units (main clauses);
- Sentence length is longer for Portuguese than for English;
- Specific morpho-syntactic aspects of Portuguese (verbal and nominal inflections, morphological marks for gender and number, subject-verb agreement in all persons, sentence structure which allows for subject omission) (Saliés, 97:154) are mechanisms that elucidate the relation between arguments and predicates and eliminate ambiguity. Because of these features, Portuguese creates special conditions for the production and comprehension of long sentences that combine many strings of phrases and clauses without hampering on-line processing. On the other hand, the absence of some of these morphological markers in English, as well as the fact that it is basically a modifier-modified language, may lead writers into the construction of shorter sentences that require less effort for on-line processing.
- The fact that Portuguese makes extensive use of subordination rather

than coordination as compared to English plays an important role in cross-cultural complexity level variation in written discourse styles.

4. Contributions to the training of Portuguese-English interpreters

If we are convinced that English text patterns are different from those of Portuguese and have seen that formal studies confirm this, we should be prepared to coach Portuguese-English interpreters to be aware of these differences and to take advantage of this knowledge in reformulating the SL text. If the SL text is Portuguese – with longer, more complex structures — students interpreting into English should be reminded to cut down sentences and avoid the overuse of dependent clauses. It can be suggested that during the interpreter-training sessions, students should attempt to parse the extremely long sentences into slightly shorter chunks. In this way, digression, parenthetical comments and anecdotes can be set into complete information sets of their own. Obviously, this is not an easy task. The Brazilian speaker who often digresses and embeds subordinate clause after subordinate clause follows a mental processing that resembles Kaplan's zigzag doodles in his famous 1966 article. *Apparently*, the speaker knows what he is doing and what he is getting at. The interpreter does not. The interpreter is doomed to follow the speaker, whether or not the road is winding. But this winding track is a 'cultural bump' for the Anglo-Saxon audience, as it conflicts with expected text organization patterns. (Archer, 1990: 174)

Interpreters-in-training are aware of these difficulties – though not always of what causes them. Some comments often repeated about the major difficulties found in interpreting from Portuguese into English are: 'speakers seem too long-winded', 'I have to increase the distance from the speaker's utterance to be able to understand and reformulate', 'the sophisticated and circumvoluted vocabulary used by Brazilian speakers and how to shrink the text', 'phrases that lead to nowhere and are lost, with the insertion of anecdotes or quotations of friends', 'wordiness, abstractions to impress the audience and unlinked ideas'.

The interpreter's main drawback is not being able to resort to an analysis of the entire text before actually performing the task. The interpreter may 'guess' – intuitively – what the discourse pattern or the rhetorical structure is going to be by using the clues the speaker leaves as he/she goes along. If the text is adequately built, the rhetorical purpose is known, yet if it will, ultimately, live up to the expectation of the interpreter or the audience — especially of those who do not resort to simultaneous interpreting — cannot be assured.

Some of the basic procedures for reformulating patterns that can be highlighted during training sessions include: reordering of phrases, modification of syntactical functions, transposing clause elements, expanding or contracting sentence parts, adapting linking devices, altering connectives, turning ellipsis in the SL explicit or utilizing ellipsis in the TL, including visible cohesive elements, subdividing complex syntactical structures into smaller units (an attempt to simplify the text to aim at clarity), using reinforcing techniques (repeating a previously mentioned phrase), explicitating ideas (adding clarity), and using summary, topic resuming, or syntactical parsing. Digressions can be mitigated by adding comments like 'an example is', 'a story that illustrates this'. Brazilian speakers often deviate from the main focus of the talk to add details of not-so-often related ideas or anecdotes and Portuguese-English interpreters have a hard time rendering the text into English.

It may be objected that in real professional life, interpreters often have to work with source texts that are far from being well constructed. Indeed, this is quite frequently the case. But, in order to be able to identify deviations, one has to have a clear idea of some norm. It is obvious that poor textual constructions will hinder the interpreter's own understanding of the purpose or goal of the speaker, the point that he/she is trying to make. The difficulties encountered by the interpreter in decoding the source text, will also be barriers to be overcome in encoding the text into the TL. To conclude that a text is poorly constructed, the interpreter must have a notion of the conventions to which a text is expected to conform, and it is only if the interpreter actually intervenes that the target version will be rid of the design shortcomings found in the source text.

The kind of text interpreters frequently face are formal, with influence from oral language (prepared in written form, sometimes partly read, partly deviating from written script) or outlined in written from and delivered as 'spontaneous' talk. Language 'oralized' from written form maintains characteristics of formal, written language but incorporates inherent features of oral language. In the dimensions of planned discourse (Keenan, 1977), lectures and conferences are structured on forethought and frequently on fore-writing previous to delivery. Yet, as speakers move away from pre-planned material or text, they make use of "scripted" language. In such situations, the mingling of features of more formal texts (more complex language and rhetorical structures) with those of more informal texts (higher counts of digressions, interruptions and interaction with the audience) imposes on the interpreter another order of difficulties. During the on-line processing of simultaneous interpreting, the emphasis is primarily on bottom-up processing strategies. Thus, divergences at the lexical and syntactic levels or in cohesive

markers at the surface level are easier to cope with. But some top-down processing is also required in order to reformulate rhetorical patterns, adapt cohesion links at the discourse level, and match functional purposes with discourse styles.

Another issue that must be referred to is the assessment of the quality of the interpreter's performance and how rhetorical issues interfere with the appraisal of the overall job. Moser (1996) in his study of expectations of users of conference interpretation, collected responses to specific questions on the rhetorical aspect of interpretation as well as spontaneous statements made by the interviewees on the topic. The issues of 'clarity of expression', 'use of complete sentences' and 'filling in gaps' were used to assess rhetorical aspects of the interpreter's text. Moser's subjects replied that these three factors relating to rhetorical skills were indeed indicative of irritation over the interpretation and were valued as important for an overall appraisal of quality in interpretation. Interestingly enough, 'satisfaction over a well-delivered speech is not, however, just a matter of interpretation. Interviewees were also asked if they thought interpreters are often blamed for the poor rhetorical quality of a speaker's presentation. [...] Some responded that it is possible to differentiate between weaknesses due to speakers and those attributable to interpreters.' (Moser, 1996:172)

5. Concluding remarks

In general terms, however, relatively little is known about the differences in the ways text structures develop in different languages or the interplay of both written and oral text features in lectures or conferences. Further research in such areas is called for in order to explain the determinants of processing during interpreting and to define 'the constraints on structural modification in translation between particular language pairs'. (Hatim and Mason, 1990: 173).

The considerations presented in this paper are exploratory in nature. The author's personal experience as teacher-trainer, in a university interpreter's training program using English and Portuguese as source and target languages, is used as support for the ideas discussed.

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4. building bridges - the academic world and society

Contacts between universities and the EU translation services - sucesses and failures

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The views presented are those of the author and not necessarily those of the European Commission.

Abstract. This paper describes some of the contacts between academia and the translation services of the European institutions - especially that of the European Commission - and explains which have been successful, and which less so. It also draws attention to some gaps in translator training.
1. Direct contacts: a story of missed opportunities? Every translator is the product of a university - but there is little academic follow-up to check if their training was appropriate to the world of work. Universities make little effort to exploit alumni/ae for teaching purposes. Some examples are given of existing practice to encourage contacts.
2. Conjecture versus research: academics seem oblivious to the fact that the EU institutions provide a pool of approx. 4000 in-house and freelance translators for investigation of topics such as translators' qualifications and working methods.
3. Misguided criticism of our translations by academics. Their comments are often based on misunderstandings of the situation in the EU institutions, and sometimes even assume that original texts are translations.
4. Gaps in translator training
Before recruitment - Students should be taught:
- how to write in the target language
- how to recognise and reproduce different registers and defend their choices
- how to ask the right questions and defend their right to ask
- how to interact with clients
After recruitment - Universities could develop training modules for practising translators, to correct some bad habits, to reinforce the other skills needed and to encourage further contacts.

1. Introduction

When I applied to speak at this conference, I had a fairly innocuous plan. I was going to be polite about academics and translation studies scholars. I

was going to say diplomatic things about ways of bridging the gap between academe and the reality of translation. And I shall do that, in the second part of my talk.

But I also want to say some things that are not so polite. If there is a gap between academe and translators, it is partly due to the hostility that some academics direct at us - especially at translators in the EU institutions.

I'd like to quote some articles published in the British national press in April this year. In the first, published in *The Guardian*, a widely read and generally pro-European British daily, a research professor at Copenhagen Business School accused my colleagues of being "ineffective":

> "Countries applying for EU membership have probably assumed that their languages will have the same rights as other official languages. This is most unlikely, since the present interpretation and translation services are ineffective and will be even more unworkable when new states join the EU." (Phillipson 2001).

Dr Phillipson has got his facts wrong. The countries applying for EU membership will have exactly the same language rights as the present Member States. He could have checked this by reading the Treaty on European Union or the information we have put on our website (http://europa.eu.int/comm/translation). Instead, when challenged, he admitted that he had no first-hand knowledge of our operation but had based his article on secondary sources: articles in scholarly journals, conference proceedings etc.

In an article printed in the same newspaper the next day, Juliane House, professor of applied linguistics at Hamburg University, went even further and claimed that we are not only "ineffective", but part of a powerful conspiracy:

> "The language policy in the European Union is both ineffective and hypocritical, and its ideas of linguistic equality and multilingualism are costly and cumbersome illusions. Why have these illusions been kept up for so long? First, because the French [...] cannot accept the decline of their own linguistic power. Second, because the politically correct ideologies of some sociolinguists constantly fuel opposition against the idea of English as a European lingua franca. And third, because powerful translators' lobbies fight for their raison d'être." (House 2001)

Professor House concludes that: "the use of English as a lingua franca would be infinitely better". (House 2001)

This is the sort of argument we expect to hear from penny-pinching British politicians, not from hitherto respected linguists. Translation will always be necessary in the European Union, because a policy of "English-only" would be undemocratic. The European Union is about communication with ordinary people, not just politicians and bureaucrats. To communicate with ordinary people, we need to speak their language.

According to these two authors, translation is not only superfluous, but those of us who attempt to explain why the European Union must produce documents in many languages are just part of a conspiracy. What is it, I wonder, that drives these academics to treat us honest translation folk with such hostility?

2. Reasons for the gap

Translators have to get used to being criticised. Maybe "coping with criticism" should be included in the curricula of translator training courses! One way of coping is to try to analyse the motivation of the critics. For example, in an attempt to come to terms with this sort of criticism we might - perhaps quite wrongly - assume that it is based on one of three motivations:

1. fear
2. contempt
3. envy.

I'll go through these briefly, as we perceive them, and invite you to comment.

2. 1. Fear

Why should academics be afraid of practitioners? Could it be because they are afraid we will spoil their theories? Rather like the biologists in *The Water Babies*, the Victorian children's story by Charles Kingsley. The story tells how a little boy, who has been forced to work as a chimney sweep, is transformed into a "water-baby": a species of human creature that can live under water, like a fish, in a beautiful, clean, underwater world where he swims around doing good works. The author tells us that water-babies do in fact exist, but that biologists won't admit it, because it doesn't fit in with their theories about the sustainability of human life under water:

> "And this is why they say that no one has ever yet seen a water-baby. For my part, I believe that the [biologists] get dozens of them when they are out dredging: but they say nothing about them, and throw them overboard again, for fear of spoiling their theories." (Kingsley 1994:105)

A bit far-fetched, you may think. But let me give an example of a recent translation theorist's view that displays the same kind of fear. In his book *Translation and Language*, Peter Fawcett describes some research on translation strategies which shows that experienced professional translators use different strategies from those employed by students and trainees. He writes:

> "This research would suggest that trainee translators and experienced translators behave rather differently. What is not yet known is how they get from one to the other. One way of finding out might be to pursue Brian Harris's proposal (1992) to go even further back down the translation chain and explore what he calls natural translation, which is translation done in daily life by bilingual children with no training as translators." (Fawcett 1997:143).

No. If you want to find out how translators get from being trainees to being experienced, the answer is not to look at bilingual children. The answer is to study professional translators themselves. Yet this obvious solution is not even suggested. Why? What stops theorists from studying professional translators? Could it be fear that they will spoil their theories, maybe? Or could it be the next attitude ... contempt?

2. 2. Contempt

It would be natural for academics to feel contempt for practising translators. Most of us are their former students, after all. Students - those irritating people who demand to be taught something, and who get in the way of academic research and publications and trips to conferences like this one. We understand entirely. That is the way we feel about our clients and the texts they ask us to translate.

Seriously, though, there is some evidence of contempt, at least for non-literary translators. George Steiner speaks of the "division running through the history and practice of translation" distinguishing between "the translation of common matter - private, commercial, clerical, ephemeral - and the re-creative transfer from one literary, philosophic or religious text to another" (Steiner, 1992:264). The material most professional translators deal with is not in Steiner's "literary, philosophic or religious" category, but it is not "private, commercial, clerical or ephemeral" either. What we deal with is "legal, technical and political", but they don't seem to feature at all in his list. If they did, I suspect they would be classed as "common matter".

Before you dismiss the contempt scenario as paranoia, ask yourself how you would react if a respected colleague told you they were going to give up academic research or teaching and become a full-time translator. Would your first reaction be "what a waste"? This is a reaction I have seen occasionally. For example, when Finland joined the European Union and we were recruiting Finnish translators, we received several anguished comments from university professors complaining that we were luring budding scholars away from translation studies research - by recruiting them as translators! Surely, though: the best way to study translation is to do it.

2. 3. Envy

Another possible attitude - we are clutching at straws here - is envy. Good translators are well paid, not just in the European institutions, but in localisation companies and in the freelance world too. Top freelances have an enviable freedom to choose their clients and work wherever they want (in the garden or on the beach if they feel like it!) - and we staff translators, who don't have that freedom, do at least have job security. So however galling this may be, the people who train translators should stop projecting an image of translators starving in garrets, having to compete with machines, scraping a living... Of course, incompetent translators will suffer in this way, but good translators won't. The job has its miseries and humiliations, but poverty is not one of them.

3. Bridging the gap

So after this brief tour of reasons why academics might prefer to avoid translators, let's move on to the more positive part of my paper, in which I shall outline some ways in which the European Union institutions try to narrow the gap between academe and the translation profession.

3. 1. Direct contacts

The first and best way to narrow the gap is by direct contacts, and some opportunities are being missed here. Every translator is the product of a university, and almost every one maintains informal contacts with their *alma mater*. But there are very few formal contacts. There never seems to be any formal follow-up, to see if a student's academic training was appropriate to the world of work. Professional translators are rarely invited to give feedback to their former teachers; it is even more rare for them to be invited to teach students occasionally.

3.1.1. Existing practice to encourage contacts:

- Opportunities for practical training in the EU translation services for students: We have various schemes whereby students and recent graduates can work with us on paid traineeships and unpaid placements. The most complete information is given on the European Parliament's website (http://www.europarl.eu.int/stages/default_en.htm), but the Commission and all EU institutions have similar openings for work experience.

- Lectures and talks by translators: Some experienced translators have arranged to help on translation courses in universities near to Brussels and Luxembourg. Further afield, the European Commission's Translation Service has small field stations (*Antennes*) in the following cities, and the translators there are happy to visit universities and speak to students:

Athens, Berlin, Copenhagen, Helsinki, Lisbon, Madrid, Milan, Stockholm, Vienna.

The contact details are on our website http://europa.eu.int/comm/translation.

- "Visiting translator scheme" allowing practising EU translators to teach at universities: The European Commission has instituted a scheme, which was originally suggested by a Finnish university, whereby universities can invite an experienced EU translator to spend 6 weeks in the university teaching and receiving training. So far the following host universities have been involved:

Year	Host university	Translator's mother tongue
1997	Tampere, Finland	German
1998	Tampere, Finland	German
1999	Helsinki, Finland	French
2000	Helsinki, Finland	English
2001	Tarragona, Spain	English
2001	Prague, Czech Rep.	English
2001	Madrid, Spain	French
2001	Thessaloniki, Greece	French

- We not only **give** lectures, but we listen to them. We arrange frequent lectures for in-house staff, and we invite academic specialists from all over Europe to speak to translators. Since 1999 we have had an annual "Theory meets Practice" lecture series; we invite two academics to give lectures and we take them on a guided tour of our services so they can find out about the reality. The details are on our website http://europa.eu.int/comm/translation/ theory.

- A new and promising area of contact is the design and production of short, purpose-built courses for experienced professional translators in

universities. For example, in October this year the University of Surrey, in the UK, is laying on a special one-week course in editing for 15 English translators from the Commission. The course was designed with our input and to meet our specific needs.

3. 2. Conjecture versus research

To the detached observer of translation studies, such as myself, it is strange to see how much anguished academic debate is still based on conjecture rather than observation. The European institutions provide an ideal pool of guinea pigs or research subjects for such observations. Between them, the EU institutions have about 2000 in-house translators, and we have access to another 2000 freelance translators. So instead of arguing about whether professional translators need to have translation diplomas, why not just conduct some research into the university backgrounds of practising translators? If, like Peter Fawcett, whom I mentioned earlier, you want to find out how translators evolve from being trainees to being experienced, just come and ask us! There are many areas where we need help, and the research findings would be of great interest to us, especially in the area of working methods (comparing voice input with typing, studying revision and quality control techniques, comparing the production speed of post-editing machine translation with human translation, comparing practice in the EU institutions and localisation companies, and so on).

3.2.1. Existing research:

In the 70s and 80s there were occasional projects on working with machine translation, but the results were inconclusive and there have been no recent studies to speak of. Large-scale studies would be particularly interesting and easy to set up in the EU institutions, although we would naturally prefer it if they did not disrupt normal production, which is always our main priority. But often we are too close to the trees to be able to see the wood - and that is where research can help us!

3. 3. Misguided criticism

It sometimes seems that the main area of academic "contact" with the EU translation services is criticism of our translations by academics. Sometimes criticisms are based on misunderstandings of the situation in the EU institutions.

Existing cases:

The most common error is assuming that a badly written English text is a

translation. This is very rarely the case. It is much more likely to be an original, written by a non-native speaker. All our translators are native speakers. Our translations may not be perfect, but they are never ungrammatical.

A related mistake is blaming translators for Eurospeak and corruption of their mother tongue. In fact the worst crimes against language are perpetrated by politicians and journalists producing their own amateur off-the-cuff translations, heavily influenced by English or French. By contrast, translators see themselves as guardians of their native language and try to resist interference. An expert study has demonstrated this in the case of Danish (Karker 1997). Sometimes the politicians' Anglicisms and Gallicisms do creep into the language: the Gallicism "democratic deficit" has caught on in English, and several European languages have started to use calques of the English word "governance".

3. 4. Gaps in translator training

In my department at the European Commission there are over 200 translators, trained in nearly all the Member States of the EU. I make it a habit to ask them if their university training was relevant and if there were things they wish they had been taught. None of them complains about lack of training in computer applications and translation tools, because that is provided in-house anyway. Instead, they sometimes say they wish they had been given special tuition in the skills listed below.

Gaps in training before recruitment:

- how to write in the target language (their mother tongue)
- how to recognise and reproduce different registers and defend their choices
- how to ask the right questions and defend their right to ask
- how to interact with clients (need for "people skills" as well as text skills).

These are partly confidence-building and assertiveness skills.

Gaps in training after recruitment:

To us professionals, it seems unrealistic to expect students in their early twenties to be effective immediately as translators. It takes several years to acquire the necessary foreign language skills, writing skills and world knowledge.

That is why I suggest that universities could perhaps develop post-experience training modules for practising translators, to correct some bad habits and to reinforce the other skills needed. The English editing course at

Surrey University, which I mentioned earlier, in one example. Another beneficial effect of such courses would naturally be to encourage communication between universities and the translation profession. We're all in the business of communication, so let's find ways to communicate with each other.

Finally, I'd like to put in a shameless plug for a new book that will tell you all you need to know about the EU translation services: "Translating for the European Union Institutions" by Emma Wagner, Svend Bech and Jesús M. Martínez, soon to be published in the St Jerome series "Translation Practices Explained".

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Intercultural translation in Australia

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Abstract. This paper will deal with intercultural exchange between the speakers of Aboriginal languages and other Australians. This exchange has been limited by the significant cultural differences that exist. The difficulty of the exchange is increased by the existence of many Aboriginal Languages and the dominance of the English language. The challenge for Language professionals in Australia is to provide translation and interpretation services that effectively mediate across this cultural and linguistic divide. Over the past 200 years there has been a dramatic reduction in the number of Aboriginal languages spoken in Australia and many Aboriginal groups have experienced significant loss of cultural knowledge. Many of the Aboriginal groups who continue to speak their language live in an oral culture, which deepens the cultural divide in many situations. Three current initiatives that attempt to bridge this cultural gap will be examined. They are translation training, community education and the Government Aboriginal language interpreter service. Several examples of cultural difference and their impact on translation will be given from the Kunwinjku (Gunwinggu) language spoken in the Northern Territory. The question of cultural difference impacts at every point of the cultural interchange in Australia. The final section considers some implications for translators.

1. Historical background

In 1788 European colonists from England invaded the Australian continent. This was the beginning of the domination of life in Australia by English language and culture. Prior to that occupation, and from 'time immemorial' Australia was populated by hundreds of different groups of nomadic hunting and food gathering people. Over the following 213 years there has been a significant loss of Aboriginal languages. It has been estimated that in 1788 there were "200 distinct languages" (Dixon 1980:1). The results of a survey published in 1990 estimated there were only 90 languages still alive and that only 20 are in a "relatively healthy state" (Schmidt 1990:1). Many Aboriginal leaders refer to themselves as members of separate nations rather than as separate tribes or speakers of separate

languages. While Aboriginal people have much in common there are significant differences between these groups who speak different languages.

Australia is a relatively sparsely populated country with the major popular centres on the coast. The major urban centres stretch from Brisbane in the south east of Queensland to Adelaide in the southeast corner of Australia. It is in the southern and eastern parts of the country where there has been the greatest loss of Aboriginal languages. Today Aboriginal languages are spoken in the central, northern and western parts of the continent and it is in these areas that speakers of the 20 strong languages identified by Schmidt (1990) are to be found. There are 12 of these that are spoken in the Northern Territory. This location of languages is not a coincidence as the settlement of Australia started in the southeast and spread north and west.

2. The Question of Language

A feature of the Aboriginal language situation is that the different language groups are relatively small with speakers of each language numbered in the hundreds or the thousands, rather than millions. This contrasts with the situation of many other languages throughout the world. Two contributing factors to this are distance and social organization. A feature of Aboriginal life is its organization into relatively small groups scattered across the continent. It is understandable that individual Aborigines did not traverse the continent as the only method of travel was by walking. A comparison of maps of the continents of Australia and Europe indicates similar physical areas. The Australian continent would stretch from North Africa and Turkey to Scotland and Scandinavia.

The importance of Aboriginal languages in the Territory is heightened by the fact that Aboriginal people are approximately a quarter of the Territory's population (46277 in the 1996 Census),' whereas in most of the States the proportion of Aboriginal people is just a few percent. The Census reports in both 1986 and 1991 indicate that an Aboriginal language is spoken in over 70% of Aboriginal households (approximately 30000 people) in the Territory. In 1996 this figure was 61%. The proportion of households where an Aboriginal language was spoken in rural areas was much higher, being 91% in 1986, 87% in 1991 and 81% in 1996. For some of the statistical local areas, the Australian Bureau of Statistics records figures exceeding 95% of households using an Aboriginal language (e.g. Daly, East Arnhem, Groote Eylandt, Tennant Creek balance, Tanami, Petermann).

It is the existence of many Aboriginal languages spoken by relatively small groups of people, many of whom do not have a good command of

English, that creates a major cultural divide in the remoter parts of Australia. The inherited dominance of English is accentuated by Australia's relative isolation from the rest of the world. This has created a monolingual and monocultural mindset in much of 'white Australia'. Since the end of the Second World War the nature of Australian society has dramatically changed. Significant levels of migration from Europe at first, and then more recently from the Middle East, Africa and Asia have created a multilingual and multicultural environment. In fifty years Australia welcomed "five and half million migrants and refugees" (Bolkus 1996:538). Approximately one quarter of Australia's population was born overseas (ABS 2000:2). However, this has not significantly changed the monolingual and monocultural mindset in a country where English is the national language.

In a review article on interpreting and translating in Australia Ozolins (1991: 177-190) provided a broader context for understanding the limited attention given to interpreting and translating in language policy in Australia. He indicated:

- Interpreting and translating are often mentioned as important areas but seem to remain outside the mainstream of language policy formation.
- The development of interpreting and translating in Australia has been closely connected to the post-war immigration program.
- The field of interpreting in Australia grew up with no reference at all to the major overseas development - that of the European style conference interpreting, which has grown rapidly since World War II.
- Interpreting and translating has not been well understood by policy-making bodies or even by other language professionals, and thus has had to struggle to establish a presence even within the relatively small field of language policy in Australia.
- In 1989 the Australian Government published its "National Agenda for a Multicultural Australia" and the chapter on language and communication did not even mention interpreting and translating.

3. Theoretical approaches

In his introduction to *Rethinking Translation* Venuti (1992:13) refers to translation as "cross-cultural exchange". In the same context he refers to the global dominance of English in the post-war period, which is the situation in Australia. There are many training programs designed to help people communicate across the cultural barrier. There has been a focus on 'cross cultural communication' and training in recent years with attention given to cultural differences and the need for those on each side of the cultural divide to better understand those on the other side. However, these training courses are invariably given in English.

Some of the translation done in Australia has been greatly influenced by the work of Eugene Nida and what is called the 'dynamic equivalent' approach to translating. This approach (see Nida and Taber 1969:3-9) introduced new attitudes:

- Each language has its own genius.
- To communicate effectively one must respect the genius of each language.
- Anything that can be said in one language can be said in another, unless the form is an essential element of the message.
- To preserve the content of the message the form must be changed.
- The translator must attempt to reproduce the meaning of a passage as understood by the writer.

Katan (1999:123) describes the approach of Nida and Taber as one that depends on "the idea of decoding the source text language, analyzing it, and then reformulating the same message in other words". Katan (1999:34-36) seeks to raise awareness of the importance of the cultural factor in translation and presents the translator as a cultural mediator[1]. In his discussion Katan is influenced by the frames approach that has characterized more recent translation work and sees an appreciation of the frames approach to communication as crucial to the work of the cultural mediator. The translator must understand the cultural frames of the language into which the translation is being made. For Katan (199:125) the mediator must be able "to understand and create frames. The mediator will be able to understand the frames of interpretation in the source culture and will be able to produce a text which would create a similar set of interpretation frames to be accessed in the target reader's mind." The result of the new approach to translation as mediation is that the translation is a new creation. In his discussion Katan refers to the work of Bell (1999:161) who said that "a translated text is a new creation which derives from careful reading; a reconstruction rather than a copy".

This criticism of Nida ignores the fact he worked in the disciplines of anthropology and linguistics in the United States. Nida may not have used the word 'frame' but he would have been heavily influenced by the 'etic-emic' distinction made by American linguists that refers to the same reality. An 'etic' understanding is that of the outsider which contrasts with the 'emic' understanding of the insider. Katan's requirement that the translator be able to carefully read the cultural frames does not appear to be greatly different from the insistence in the American linguistic tradition, (of which Nida was a part) that the 'emic' perspective is crucial for the translator. This tradition is seen in the words of Pike (1967:37), "The etic viewpoint studies behaviour as from outside of a particular system, and as an essential initial approach to an alien system. The emic viewpoint results from studying behaviour as from inside

the system. (I coined the words *etic* and *emic* from the words *phonetic* and *phonemic*, following the conventional linguistic usage of these latter terms)". The suggestion that Nida's approach to translation lead to a 'copy' translation is unfair as it ignores Nida's recognition of the creativity of the translator.

> "The translator's task is essentially a difficult and often a thankless one. He is severely criticised if he makes a mistake, but only faintly praised when he succeeds ... the task itself has its own rewards, for successful translating involves one of the most complex intellectual challenges known to mankind." (Nida 1964:155).

4. Crossing the cultural divide

4.1. The Certificate in Translating - a practical and relevant approach

Bible translation into Aboriginal languages has been occurring since at least the 1840s. Currently there are translation programs in 13 languages. Agencies involved include the Bible Society who the author works for as a part time consultant, the Summer Institute of Linguistics, and various church agencies such as the Anglican, Uniting, Lutheran, Catholic, Baptist and other churches.

In the past, the translation was generally done by non-Aborigines who learnt the language and worked with native speakers who acted as advisers or translation assistants. That practice has ceased. Now it is a requirement that the translator be a native speaker of the language into which the translation is being done. There is still a role for the non-native speaker, primarily in assisting understanding of the biblical world and culture and of the English language from which the translation is being done.

Generally the languages of the translations are in remote locations in the centre, north and northwest parts of the country. The period of contact with white society is much shorter, education standards are lower - there are few students at University from these communities. The challenge for the Christian agencies and churches has been how to equip Aboriginal translators to carry out this task. There are two areas of significant difference: I have already mentioned the relatively low levels of education. The other area of difference is that in most of these communities the languages are primarily oral languages.

The Summer Institute of Linguistics in Darwin has developed the Certificate In Translating. The purpose of the course is to give practical

training to native speaker translators to improve their translation skills. The course focuses on basic linguistics, cross cultural issues and translation principles. The Course has been accredited by the Northern Territory Employment and Training Authority. Part of the course philosophy is that learning by Aboriginal people can be enhanced through practical exercises and teamwork in recognition of the preference for group over individual work.

4.2. Community Education in North East Arnhem Land

The Aboriginal Resource and Development Services Incorporated (ARDS 1994) are heavily involved in community education in Arnhem Land in the Northern Territory. They were invited by community leaders in northeast Arnhem Land to help them better understand Australian society and how it operates. Their work has identified a significant communication gap. The community workers use the local languages, and translation is an essential part of their work. Their initial focus has been on legal, economic and political issues. In essence they are involved in comparative analysis of the cultural domains of the worlds of the two languages and in a study of semantic contrasts (see Trudgeon 2000).

An example of the nature of their work is seen in the discussion[2] of the meaning of one word 'contract'. The Northern Territory Government encourages Aboriginal communities to tender for public works contracts to provide employment and income for communities. The construction and maintenance of roads in Arnhem Land is an example. The proper administration of contracts was an important issue so a workshop for leaders was conducted. One leader commented that contracts are 'when you white fellas give us money'. Others agreed. The comment focused on the income aspect of contracts but gave no information about responsibilities and obligations. A concern of the government was the completion of contract work in good time and to an acceptable standard. The limited understanding of the legal and financial background of the operation of contracts in Australian society was an important factor in some communities not carrying out their contract work effectively.

A number of factors contributed to this misunderstanding. The relatively low formal educational standards of community leaders is one. However these were generally leaders with length experience as Community Councilors and who officials thought had a good understanding of English. It should be noted that this is a judgement made by officials who generally did not speak any of the local languages. It is an assumption based on hearing the

community leaders speak English. The officials may have assumed a 'yes' meant agreement when it may only have meant that the Aboriginal people had heard what had been said. However anyone who has learnt a second language will be aware of the reality that being able to speak the language does not guarantee full understanding of the language, particularly if the learner's focus has been limited to a few semantic domains. The situation is complicated by the fact that the Aboriginal leaders understood the concept of contract but they did not apply this understanding to the English word 'contract'.

Aboriginal societies are divided into two moieties: Yirridja and Duwa (Dua). In northeast Arnhem Land responsibility for conducting ceremonies are organised between the two moieties. One moiety will have managerial responsibility for a particular ceremony and will commission the other moiety to do the detailed work of preparation. Members of the two moieties agree on the work to be done, both as to timing and to quality, with sanctions to be applied when the performance does not meet the agreed standards. In effect this is a system of contract law but it is one used by the Aboriginal leaders in the Yolngu ceremonial domain, which they see as very different from the commercial world of contracts entered into by Community Councils.

The problem was one of not understanding the ramifications of all that the Government officials meant when they used the word contract. It is also true that most of the officials did not appreciate all the legal and financial implications of the word and that the assumptions of English speaking Australians differed significantly from those of the Yolngu community leaders they were working with.

The ARDS Community Education program utilizes workshops for community discussion. Within these workshops the respective semantic domains of the two languages is discussed. The objective is two fold: first to better understand the Yolngu perspective; and then to explain the non-Aboriginal perspective in a way that can be understood by the Yolngu people.

4.3 A Government Interpreter Service

The Australian Government with cooperation from State and Territory Governments has provided interpreting services in major European and Asian languages and many minority languages as well. Australia has also developed a system to assess and accredit interpreters and translators through the National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters (NAATI). The authority has operated for 20 years and in 1997 "had 32,800 candidates on its files who have sought accreditation through testing, courses or overseas

qualifications" (NAATI 1997:2). The current figure is 38500 candidates[iii]. There has been great reluctance to extend the provision of such services to meet the needs of Aboriginal Australians who continue to speak their own languages. The official response to speakers of Aboriginal languages is that they should learn English. Many are doing this, but in the NT some have not learnt English and others are progressing slowly. The Government census returns indicate that 30% of those who speak an Aboriginal language have a low ability English and may not be greatly interested in improving their English.

In April 2000 joint action by the Commonwealth and Territory Governments supported the establishment of a service in the Territory Office of Aboriginal Development. The service has operated successfully for 12 months. The immediate demands of establishing and maintaining a service has led to less emphasis on training which is generally provided through short intensive courses in communities where the languages are spoken.

5. Some Kunwinjku examples

The examples are from stories told by Kunwinjku artists to explain their paintings. In the oral tradition of the Kunwinjku people the story tradition is an important process for conveying cultural knowledge to the next generation. The examples illustrate the need for the translator in Nida's terms to know the emic perspective or in Katan's terms to understand the cultural frames.

I consider two examples that demonstrate how the context of the story provides cultural information that is important for understanding a simple sentence:

In the first from the Minaliwo and Nabinkuluwa story the sentence *Benerey beneyoy* occurs many times. Its literal meaning is 'they were going, they were sleeping'. The first word *benerey* refers to a man and his wife as they moved around the country hunting. The second word *beneyoy* refers to them stopping and camping. A more explicit translation would be 'they were traveling across the country hunting and collecting food. At night they would stop and camp sleeping together.

In the second from the Nawaran story the sentence *benemarnebebmeng nawaran djang kahyo* has the literal meaning 'they came to where the Nawaran site was located. The implicit cultural information is that the site is located where there are large numbers of Nawaran a big python. A culturally explicit translation would state: They came to the Nawaran python site, where there were large numbers of this snake.

6. Implications

I have sought to emphasise the significant cultural divide between Aboriginal and other Australians. This cultural divide is greater than that between the languages of different groups of Aboriginal Australians or between different European languages. A contributor to an on-line symposium (see Pym 2000) pointed out that a similar divide exists between Arabic and English. Moustafa Gabr defined a translator as an accurate bilingual speaker who understands both cultures. He referred to academic orientalists who though proficient in Arabic failed to grasp the meaning of most cultural references in the texts of the Egyptian Nobel Prize winner Naguib Mahfouz (Pym 2000:251-2).

I have mentioned Venuti's (1992) reference to the global domination of English. The process of globalisation in the past decade is intensifying that dominance, and all the signs are, that this dominance will continue. The problems faced by my Australian Aboriginal friends is similar to the problems referred to by Moustafa Gabr. There are many other locations where similar problems are faced. In the training of translators it is essential that adequate focus is given to cultural difference.

The challenge for translators is twofold. First the translator must understand the cultures of both languages as Nida, Katan and Gabr have emphasised in different ways. The second is to make English speakers more aware of the intercultural divide, to make them more aware of cultural frames and to help them understand the emic viewpoint.

Notes

[1] Language Australia provides resources for language teachers in Australian schools and universities. In recent publications they describe the role of the language teacher as a cultural mediator (see Liddicoat et al 2000 and Lo Bianco et al 1999).

[2] Personal communication – Mr Richard Trudgeon, Aboriginal Resosurce and Development Services, Darwin, Australia.

[3] Personal communication – Ms Sherrill Bell, Executive Director, National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters, Canberra, Australia.

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Intercultural information for professional communicators, translators, and interpreters in a globalising market (an Australian point of view)

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Abstract. This updates strategy papers, drawing on previous successful experiences in Australia: how to mend cultural barriers/prejudices, developing skills to the specific needs of clients. Our overriding concern was the lack of consultation, co-ordination, dissemination of previous successful attempts, and a need to educate providers for NESB (Non-English speaking background) communities. Proper funding/research/follow-up programmes are essential for the success of any initiative, with mainstream providers - communicators, translators and interpreters - often unaware of the problem and adopting tokenistic attitudes.

In Australia, the hurdles faced by overseas-born people are lack of communication and active participation; they should be heard first if we want to give them any message. Then once the target audience is set, one has to define what is to be emphasized. The best-translated message is lost on people due to small particulars pertaining to race, creed, cultural background, or regional differences in the country of origin.

1. Introduction

The purpose of this presentation is to update previous strategy papers on multicultural communication, within a very multiethnic environment (such as Australia) in a globalising market. Drawing on previous Australian experiences, we will try to show how one has to mend cultural barriers/ prejudices and develop skills to address specific needs of clients.

The overriding concern was the common lack of consultation, co-ordination, and dissemination of previous attempts, and a strong need to educate service providers and the communities, as a whole, for the very

specific needs of NESB communities in this ever-changing era of global intercultural communication. Proper funding/research/follow-up programmes are essential for the success of any initiative in this area. Mainstream providers - communicators, translators and interpreters - are often unaware of the problem and adopt tokenistic attitudes, or merely try to avoid it.

In Australia, the major hurdles faced by overseas-born people are lack of communication and lack of active participation in the community at large. They have to be heard first if we want to give them any message. Only then, once the target audience is set, can one define what is to be emphasized to reach a basic message that can be safely transferred into various cultures and languages without the normal implications of translation loss.

The best-translated message is quite often lost on people. This is due to small particulars related to race, creed, cultural background, or regional differences in the country of origin. Sometimes it may fail, merely because it is so generalist and jargoistic that in order to achieve a basic linguistic standard, it is merely localised to the elite instead of reaching out to the most disadvantaged minorities/majorities who are often the real target of the message in the first instance.

We have spent endless and sometimes fruitless days in meetings to find a common wording acceptable to all levels of Greek speakers for an Australian Government Department major project. Only after that, were we able to proceed to the next stage of pre-production of the final governmental message.

Some common ideas and attitudes of western society, that none of us would ever dispute, (such as government-sponsored child care) can be irrevocably in opposition to the beliefs or mores of certain communities. No matter how multicultural, multilingual, or aware one may be, there is no replacement for a fully researched exercise, face to face or polled, with those communities. The English version to be translated/communicated has to be concise, non-jargoistic, non-jingoistic, and in Plain English to be properly transmitted in each community language.

It sounds hard, but it has been done and it is good fun.

2. Case Study

Knowing the difficulties faced by the almost 200 different ethnic and linguistic communities in Australia, we opted for thorough and widespread

dissemination of information, in order to establish channels of communication capable of reducing language barriers and cultural differences. Almost 30% (thirty per cent) of the Australian population is overseas-born, with a fifth speaking LOTE (a language other than English) at home. There are vast pockets of the population, mainly most recent arrivals (under family reunion, humanitarian, or refugee programmes) that speak no English at all, and are at a loss in a very different cultural and linguistic environment.

Although we can explain the different socio-cultural backgrounds, political organization, and lack of welfare-based societies it is hard to aim at such a varied group and expect to reap rewarding results when one is talking about child-care, a non-existent and alien notion in many countries.

We moved on, limited by budgetary constraints, to establish how many community languages would become targeted. Immediately after this, we researched their ethnic networks, organizations and individuals, who if not totally representative, at least were capable of bridging the gap with their group members. This lengthy part of the project was aimed at increasing, through thorough research, our subject-specific project input.

For the project to be successful not only in the number of written/audiovisual mediums or for the languages covered, we had to strive to get as much effective coverage as possible through ethnic organizations, welfare groups, lobbies, and all sorts of ethnic media, because ultimately they would define and decide the fate of such a mega project. After months of personal contacts, follow-ups, etc., we thought we had cobbled together enough to achieve a long-term result as only the best-prepared campaigns can.

From a *seller's point of view*, we had meetings with all the departmental people who would, at some stage, be involved or linked with the project, brainstorming them on what they thought was appropriate from their favoured positions to spread the Government's point of view. This was followed by an update of the information to be transmitted into the community, setting up immediate targets for all the next steps of the project, again limited by budgetary constraints and the enormous size of Australia.

How far could we go? Should we aim at only major metropolitan areas, cities at state level, or deep country level? After that decision, we had to target which languages would go into what areas, before we could organise a team of translators and proofreaders, capable of delivering the final product within relatively tight deadlines for printing and production.

We collected and analysed myriad statistical and formal data to identify the needs of each NESB group, creating patterns of client profiles, data collection mechanisms for future exercises, and level of knowledge within each group, of the departmental functions. All the while, we kept communicating with other government departments and agencies on a regular basis for interaction within their boundaries, finding out that, although in place, numerous EEO (Equal Employment Opportunities) recommendations had never been fully implemented, monitored or established, and there was, therefore, a lack of statistical data to help us define our target groups. We had to rely on vague National Guidelines for Collection of Ethnicity Data, to try to understand the high disparity of participation rates of NESB people and English speaking ones.

The work had hardly begun and it looked as if we had been doing it for most of our lives. Only then did we start the countless meetings with ethnic workers, media, and local individuals. This had to be done in stages, since people were physically located hundreds or thousand of miles away. We discussed *ad nauseam* the various meanings, tonalities, and shades of many a word, when they were rendered into one of the selected 18 community languages, whether they had the most appropriate tone or were less prone to offend the sensibilities of older generations. We took into consideration the various levels of register in languages as complex and alien to us as Greek or the Persian Farsi, so that we could pass on the message in a culturally appropriate form, be politically correct and succeed in being well received and understood.

We had by this time defined what were the high need groups in terms of date of arrival in the country, lack or level of English skills, different cultural/welfare background, age, immigration status (i.e. refugee, family reunion, professionally qualified immigrants, qualified but not recognised professional people, unemployed, unemployable, etc.). In the end, we got support together with constructive and strong opinions from the members of the community that made such a project possible.

We were still collating data before defining what languages we would select and were already obtaining totally different results to what were perceived as the real needs of the community, from urban to country, from capital cities to small towns. We had to keep revising the number of leaflets, languages, and other mediums in accordance with our budget. It was a nightmare, since never before had anyone attempted such a large-scale communication exercise in so many languages for so many people.

Once we had defined the major 20 languages[1], we had to decide which additional ones could be included, and choose between Armenian, Singhalese, Khmer, Thai, Russian, Hungarian, and Maltese.

Then we moved on to a media blitz in order to get maximum exposure and coverage, whilst setting assessment values for the campaign, making sure all possible feedback would be treated and analysed with constant follow-ups. Translation/interpreting and communicating had suddenly acquired new dimensions unbeknown to all of us.

As Steven Pinker said just a couple of years ago: "Of all the language behaviours that the human brain is capable, translating and interpreting must be the most demanding"[2].

Here we were being confronted with problems that no training, formal or otherwise, had prepared us for. There were no books to consult, no other colleagues who had experienced what nobody had ever done, and no professional association capable of giving us guidance.

The support came from all sides. Community groups, local municipalities, ethnic groups and individuals were enthused by the novel approach taken, and wondered why no one had never done anything similar before to achieve cultural acceptance of the alien child care concept we were dealing with.

We smiled, hoping for a pat on the back. Instead, we got admonished because our campaign started at [Australian] State level, had moved on to become a Federal issue covering most States and Territories, thus usurping the fief of the Federal Planners in Canberra... although they had no such plans and no projects were being undertaken or even considered.

The widespread process of research and consultation that appeared extensive and time-consuming was actually vital for the exploration of all the avenues of information. They were essential if we were to properly gauge community feelings and misconceptions, produce material that was both culturally and grammatically 'user-friendly', and lay the foundations for subsequent productions.

The levels of consultation were so warmly received and acclaimed within the NESB community that we were inundated with letters of support and praise. The entire credibility of the government department (at rock bottom before this project) was restored to certain heights. New commitments that raised the expectations of the normally cynical communities, led to interdepartmental collaboration seldom observed before.

The pamphlets ended up being distributed at a national level in all States and Territories, according to the concentration of specific ethnic groups, and in tandem with information agencies, resource centres, ethnic groups representatives and even consulates.

In the end, after all the praise that was lavished, and even after the project got nominated for the final of the "Yearly Media Ethnic Awards", the bureaucrats killed the cat, cutting all funding for future follow-up projects.

I became a much richer person in cultural terms, capable of understanding very different cultures and linguistic backgrounds in areas where before I could not even suspect cultural bias or ignorance existed. Ever since then I have been following a similar approach to any and every intercultural information project that I can lay my hands on, and believe me, it can be done in all areas of information from Internet localisation projects to mere translations aimed at far and distant countries sharing a common linguistic background.

Umberto Eco once said that:

> "Translators are the major artisans for cultural and information transference, and the only ones capable of stopping the supremacy of the English language responsible for more than a century advance in the North American economy".

Now, for example, we hear that Portugal is reversing a centuries-old tradition of colonising the world and is being colonised from as far away as the Ukraine, Moldova, Brazil and the ex-colonies of Africa. Soon the Portuguese, too, will have to learn how to cope with this influx of people from such diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds, targeting them with information and support. The Portuguese themselves have found a similar situation in the not-so-distant countries of France, Luxembourg, Germany and Switzerland over the past 50 years.

It is therefore up to us, professional communicators in the trade of mastery of language, to help all government agencies and departments convey their messages in a culturally and linguistically acceptable manner. Let us only hope that we are able artisans for such cultural and information transference, and that we can help to preserve all languages and cultures in this age of global standardisation, and always be capable of following the example of those Portuguese navigators of yore who faced Brave New Worlds never before visited.... Such as Australia.

Notes

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CHINESE	*ARABIC*	*SPANISH*	*VIETNAMESE*	*PORTUGUESE*
ITALIAN	*GREEK*	*POLISH*	*CROATIAN*	*TURKISH*
TAGALOG (FILIPINO)	*HINDI*	*MACEDONIAN*	*KOREAN*	*BAHASA INDONESIA*
TONGAN	*FARSI (AFGHAN/PERSIAN)*	*FIJIAN*	*LAO*	*SAMOAN*

2 *Pinker, Steven (1998) in Language International, vol. 10.6*

Avaliações da qualidade na tradução

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Abstract. The issue of Quality Assessment in Translation is significant for translators, clients and targets of a translated text, in which real and ideal models are interlinked through a discourse whereby evaluators consider themselves qualified to "speak about", since they know, or think they know, the assessment rules. The main problem lies in the foreseen intentions of the text, in the proofreaders that analyse the final product and in assumptions of a more or less fluent interpretation of the texts, which is normally entrusted to the professionals that work in the technical area of the translated text or to the traditional client managers. Translated texts are thus subject to a kind of normalisation that makes them uniform and uncharacteristic, or suffer from significant changes produced by the alleged intentions of the final client. Literature on Assessment of Translation Quality has centred on the appreciation of texts as pedagogic exercises, but there is the need for new, more practical, principles for translation within companies that work at a more technical and professional level. It is thus crucial to have a quick and simple method of conceptual and/or terminological confirmation that will allow a final product of quality, recognized as such by all participants, that will provide credibility to this sector and that will increasingly allow clients/readers of translated texts to trust the products they receive.

Resumo. A questão da Avaliação de Qualidade na Tradução é importante para Tradutores, receptores e destinatários da Tradução, na qual realidade e modelo ideal se interligam através de um discurso em que um sujeito avaliador se considera qualificado para "falar acerca de", na medida em que domina, ou julga dominar, as normas de avaliação. O problema reside nas intenções previstas do texto, nos revisores que analisam o produto final executado pelos tradutores e nos pressupostos de uma leitura mais ou menos fluida dos textos normalmente confiada a profissionais da área técnica a que pertence o texto traduzido ou aos tradicionais gestores de cliente. Os textos traduzidos sofrem assim uma espécie de normalização que os uniformiza e descaracteriza ou sofrem alterações significativas motivadas pelas alegadas intenções do cliente final. A literatura sobre a Avaliação da Qualidade na Tradução, centrada na apreciação de textos enquanto exercícios pedagógicos, necessita de novos princípios para a tradução no contexto das empresas e com objectivos de

utilização prática a nível técnico-profissional. É essencial um método expedito e simples de confirmação conceptual e/ou terminológica que permita a execução de um produto final de qualidade, reconhecido enquanto tal por todos os participantes, que confira credibilidade a este sector e permita aos receptores/destinatários finais do texto traduzido confiarem cada vez mais nos seus produtos.

1. Introdução

Há cada vez mais pessoas a utilizarem os textos produzidos pelos tradutores e mais profissionais que fazem da tradução a sua primeira e principal ocupação, tendo-se passado do estatuto de tradutor como ocupação temporária e a tempo parcial, para uma situação em que o tradutor trabalha a tempo inteiro, sozinho ou em colaboração com outros tradutores, em projectos de grande dimensão. No entanto, e apesar do interesse crescente demonstrado pelos Estudos de Tradução, os esforços para produzir teorias e aplicações práticas sobre *avaliação de qualidade* na tradução continuam a ser ignorados pelos diversos profissionais e empresas portugueses da tradução.

Aparentemente, a associação à estafada expressão *tradutore, traditore*, actua como um estigma que isola os tradutores e que faz com outros considerem que os tradutores trabalham sem grande fundamentação e estão sujeitos às propostas de alteração sugeridas por quem se considera conhecedor do tema tratado. Os próprios intérpretes desta actividade fomentam estas atitudes, porque assumem uma posição inatacável a partir da qual não aceitam restrições ou recomendações, e outras vezes remetem-se a um silêncio comprometido, quase reconhecimento de erros cometidos. Outras vezes, tudo admitem em termos de rectificações e de sugestões de alteração, fazendo com que as suas opções e posição aparentem ser frágeis. Por tudo isso, é de estranhar que o desenvolvimento de iniciativas de âmbito internacional, como a certificação ISO 9002 (2000) aplicável a empresas de tradução, ou nacional, como a DIN 2345 (1998) do Instituto de Normalização Alemão, para projectos de tradução na Alemanha, sejam algo ignoradas e pouco aproveitadas em Portugal.

Actualmente, o maior volume de textos traduzidos enquadra-se nas designadas áreas técnicas e esse facto deveria servir para reforçar a noção de que é indispensável a criação de sistemas de avaliação da qualidade. A criação de tais sistemas poderia ser extremamente útil para que tradutores, utilizadores e destinatários da tradução utilizassem a mesma linguagem e, sobretudo, se servissem dos mesmos conceitos, permitindo uma base de avaliação idêntica e reconhecida por todos, dentro e fora da tradução.

Uma peritagem que determine com rigor os valores do objecto avaliado torna-o válido e garante aos respectivos utilizadores a confiança necessária ao uso que dele fazem. Para qualquer consumidor, e não apenas da tradução, a avaliação de qualidade representa a garantia de que o produto recebido respeita critérios e cumpre requisitos determinados. Por motivos acrescidos, representa um factor importante para todos os clientes que na posição de intermediários não são destinatários finais de determinado produto. Sobretudo porque, e como acontece na tradução, estes clientes pretendem textos traduzidos que os destinatários finais reconheçam como adequados aos seus objectivos de leitura ou de utilização. Além disso, a peritagem de qualidade pode, e deve, representar para os tradutores o reconhecimento e a credibilidade há muito adiados para a actividade que exercem.

2. Modelos Académicos de Avaliação

Os modelos de avaliação académica da qualidade na tradução têm-se revelado inadequados a uma aplicação prática porque se mostram incapazes de determinar a natureza da qualidade, mas também porque negligenciam alguns requisitos inerentes aos diversos tipos de avaliação (Lauscher 2000: 150). Verifica-se que assim é porque muitos desses modelos se concentram na avaliação para fins comparativos ao nível pedagógico do ensino da tradução ou das línguas estrangeiras, ou para fins comparativos de análise literária. Segundo a descrição de Maier (2000: 137-145) de todo este processo, *qualidade* implica medição e, muito frequentemente, juízos de valor, sendo medida em termos comparativos e servindo para determinar o grau em que a versão ostenta o mesmo valor que o texto original. Deste modo, a *qualidade na tradução*, especialmente na área académica, tem sido implicitamente associada aos conceitos de *avaliação* e de *comparação*, nunca sendo definida isoladamente, nem deixando de ter, sempre presente, a figura do original (*Ibid.*: 140-1)). House (1981) ou Thelen (1995) são outros casos de literatura sobre a avaliação da qualidade na área académica. Apesar de ser necessário estipular regras para a avaliação e para a definição do conceito de qualidade para efeitos académicos, seria indispensável e extremamente importante contemplar com mais atenção o âmbito da tradução técnica, não só por causa do enorme volume de traduções e de transacções económicas que esta área representa, mas sobretudo porque talvez seja um campo em que se poderão apurar alguns critérios mais objectivos de análise e de apreciação valorativa.

3. A Qualidade dos Objectos Avaliados

Qualidade, numa definição simplista, é a propriedade ou condição natural de um objecto que serve para o distinguir de outros objectos. Mas a qualidade

a que nos referimos, neste âmbito, ainda que associada ao conceito de valor distintivo que identifica um objecto *per se*, distinguindo-o de outros, qualifica também a sua existência numa escala de apreciação individual e particular. Ou seja, qualidade é, por um lado, a condição natural de um objecto em função dos elementos de ordem primária que o integram – elementos objectivos e inerentes ao próprio objecto –, mas também a composição e a conjugação dos elementos de ordem secundária que o constituem – isto é, os juízos de valor externos formulados acerca do objecto e, portanto, eminentemente subjectivos. Qualquer análise ao objecto tem de subdividir e ao mesmo tempo agrupar, em termos de apreciação final, aspectos objectivos e aspectos subjectivos.

Mas se avaliar é pronunciarmo-nos sobre um objecto, articulando e contrastando uma ideia ou representação daquilo que ele deveria ser com o conjunto de factos que consideramos dizerem respeito a essa realidade, é necessária uma grelha de referência perante a qual se deve colocar o objecto a analisar para se poder falar acerca da realidade que o compõe. Em função dessa grelha passará a ser possível medir o objecto, por comparação com uma grandeza da mesma espécie, que lhe pode servir como padrão ou unidade de referência. Além disso, a compreensão e a percepção das exigências e limites do objecto a avaliar só poderão ser devidamente analisadas por um, ou mais, sujeitos avaliadores, que devem determinar os alvos objectivos a analisar, que devem construir ou ter na sua posse os sistemas de referência e de interpretação, e que têm de utilizar instrumentos adequados à apreciação do objecto da análise. O conjunto de elementos envolvidos no procedimento de avaliação assenta, pois, num triângulo composto por sujeito avaliador, objecto a avaliar e modelo ideal de contraste.

3.1 O Sujeito Avaliador na Avaliação da Qualidade

O sujeito avaliador tem constituído um problema devido à multiplicidade de intervenientes que actuam nesta área e que, além de não terem um discurso uniforme sobre a tradução, se julgam "conhecedores", por uma série de motivos:

- Porque o texto se situa na sua área de intervenção técnica;
- Porque consideram que a adaptação aos propósitos intencionados é legítima;
- Porque julgam que têm um melhor conhecimento das intenções do Cliente;
- Porque, enquanto Clientes, entendem determinar as características globais de elaboração do texto e o seu resultado final.

Todas estas diferentes perspectivas, somadas à experiência e ao conhecimento real que o avaliador tem do tema e do texto, influenciam a

forma como o objecto da tradução é avaliado, permitindo que os sujeitos avaliadores alterem ou julguem conforme entendem os textos traduzidos.

No que diz respeito aos diversos intervenientes envolvidos no processo efectivo de execução de uma tradução é preciso definir as competências básicas de cada um, para que os modelos de actuação e os papéis atribuídos possam ser devidamente desempenhados. Mas os vários modelos de intervenção aplicáveis têm também de ser adaptáveis às realidades das empresas, dos profissionais de tradução e dos projectos específicos de tradução. Nesta nossa posição de observadores deste drama, ou comédia, consoante a nossa própria perspectiva e experiência pessoal da área, assumimos a posição de espectadores que, através de um televisor e comodamente sentados na nossa sala de estar, vemos as duas personagens principais: o tradutor – actor em palco – e o cliente da Tradução – espectador sentado num camarote que observa atentamente o que se passa no palco. Contudo, há outros intervenientes que assumem por vezes a categoria de actores ou observadores interventivos. Por exemplo, os angariadores do trabalho de tradução remetem-se pontualmente à posição de meros intermediários, podendo ser comparados aos vendedores de bilhetes colocados à porta deste teatro. Mas muitas vezes assumem um papel interventivo, encarnando a figura de encenadores e até de produtores, e assumindo-se como coordenadores de todo o trabalho em palco.

Por seu turno, os revisores do texto traduzido, peças essenciais ao trabalho final sobre o texto, talvez pudessem servir de "ponto", aquela pessoa que nas representações teatrais lê a peça em voz baixa para auxiliar os actores e lhes fornece indicações indispensáveis quando eles se esquecem das respectivas falas. Mas, por vezes, assumem atitudes vanguardistas saltando para o palco e desempenhando o papel reservado aos actores. Quanto aos gestores de cliente ou de produto, enquanto contactos essenciais junto do cliente poderiam ser os "arrumadores" de uma sala sem lugares marcados, até porque conhecem bem os cantos da casa e poderiam colocar cada espectador no melhor sítio. Só que muitas vezes distribuem os clientes de uma forma desastrada, gerindo a sua colocação em função de preferências pessoais. O pior é quando assumem, também eles, o papel de actores, interferindo e emitindo pareceres acerca de tudo e nada!

Ainda que não exista, e talvez nem deva existir um modelo único de actuação, seria muito conveniente que todos conhecessem a respectiva posição e tivessem uma formação adequada ao papel a desempenhar. Sendo a selecção do tradutor um dos primeiros passos de todo este processo, seria desejável ter um Tradutor qualificado para traduzir o texto. Mas quem é seleccionado para fazer esse trabalho? Quem são os Tradutores qualificados?

Quais são as qualificações necessárias ao desenvolvimento desse trabalho? Qual foi a formação adquirida que permitiu ao Tradutor considerar-se competente para a execução do projecto em causa? A formação ministrada pelas escolas de tradução não pretende ser definitiva e está longe de ter cristalizado, tendo sofrido, em particular ao longo das duas últimas décadas em Portugal, remodelações sucessivas que pretendem agilizá-la e torná-la mais capaz. A realidade demonstra que os Tradutores formados por escolas de tradução têm em Portugal, tal como em outros países, e como muitos outros profissionais após a conclusão da respectiva formação, de ser postos à prova. Necessitam de investir numa formação especializada que lhes permita a aquisição de qualificações e conhecimentos necessários ao cumprimento de tarefas cada vez mais difíceis, mas necessitam sobretudo do trabalho prático complementar ao que lhes deverá ter sido dado a conhecer nas escolas. Em Portugal é necessário ainda criar entidades reguladoras das exigências da formação ministrada e outras entidades que superintendam e regulamentem o exercício profissional da actividade translatória, para que as inúmeras empresas de tradução e tradutores possam ser devida e continuamente examinados e "reciclados".

Voltando ao processo de tradução... Verifica-se que os tradutores, se completamente isolados, sem terem um "ponto", ou sem terem uma orientação precisa das tarefas a desempenhar, dificilmente cumprem uma actuação perfeita. Nos casos em que estão sós, os tradutores até julgam poder actuar sem os intermediários que filtram as informações fornecidas pelo cliente e as respostas necessárias à execução do seu trabalho. Mas sem a acção do revisor, seja ele um técnico ou simplesmente alguém que procede à leitura do texto acabado, haverá problemas. A acção do revisor é essencial e tem sido devidamente comprovada, conforme se constata pelo exemplo citado para a Finlândia por McAlester (1992: 296). Contudo, o papel do revisor não pode, nem deve, sobrepor-se ao do próprio Tradutor, sob pena de o irresponsabilizar ou descredibilizar. Tem de ser complementar a esse mesmo trabalho! A modificação avulsa do texto, ou a alteração deliberada de aspectos ou de estruturas com as quais "não se concorda" e que se entende refutar, não pode acontecer de uma maneira fortuita, não ponderada e sem fundamentos racionais. O revisor é importantíssimo, mas tem de se valer dos conhecimentos e da documentação adequados, de preferência idênticos ou complementares aos utilizados pelo tradutor, para poder executar com sabedoria a sua tarefa.

Quanto ao angariador de tradução, enquanto coordenador geral das actividades, gestor de determinado cliente, ou apenas intermediário entre cliente e tradutor, tem de se consciencializar que é fundamental dar a conhecer ao tradutor e ao revisor o que lhe foi transmitido pelo cliente. Ao

regular o trabalho a executar por tradutor e revisor para o cliente, o angariador da tradução deve saber o que representam essas indicações, para que os profissionais encarregados da execução do projecto o possam fazer nas melhores condições. Constata-se, no entanto, que estas afirmações continuam a ser algo desprezadas pela grande maioria dos intervenientes nesta área de actividade. Por um lado, porque aparentemente temem a diluição do respectivo poder se, enquanto "donos da informação", a facultarem a outros, por outro lado, talvez nunca se tenham apercebido ou não tenham tomado consciência de que estas indicações são fundamentais para o êxito da peça.

3.2. Objecto Analisado e Modelo Ideal na Avaliação de Qualidade

No que diz respeito ao segundo ângulo do nosso triângulo – o objecto a analisar – ou seja, o texto traduzido, é de salientar que ele existe enquanto interpretação de cada interveniente. Assim sendo, é objecto da análise crítica e da reformulação de cada leitor, e é também passível de ser diferentemente interpretado e avaliado pelo sujeito avaliador que se pronuncia sobre ele. Por tudo isto, o juízo de valor emitido sobre a apreciação da qualidade de um texto para ser autorizado e rigoroso deve ter como ponto de partida um factor de comparação ideal, em função do qual o sujeito avaliador indique graus de aproximação que estabeleçam uma graduação e, como tal, uma classificação de maior ou menor qualidade em relação ao texto traduzido. Ao longo de muitos anos, o contraste estabelecido serviu-se da comparação com o texto original, como se este fosse o factor de comparação perfeito, e baseou-se em modelos sustentados na equivalência e na relação entre texto original e texto traduzido. Abordagens como as de Katharina Reiss, Juliane House e Van den Broeck são consideradas paradigmáticas dessas noções de equivalência contextual, linguística e factual.

Mas a noção de objecto a avaliar e o conceito de modelo de contraste ideal têm sido, muito frequentemente, confundidos resultando em incongruências de interpretação e validação dos dados. É de realçar que para a grande maioria dos leitores do texto final traduzido este género de apreciação, baseada no texto original, tem pouca ou até nenhuma importância. Com efeito, as eventuais marcas pertinentes do texto na LP não são habitualmente reconhecidas por um leitor que apenas lê o texto na LC. A estranheza provocada por marcas do original só acontece se eventuais erros de ordem interpretativa, ou morfossintáctica na LC se tornarem demasiado evidentes, chamando a atenção para pormenores que, de outro modo, seriam menosprezados. Neste âmbito de apreciação, o texto vale por si próprio e a audiência de chegada desempenha um papel determinante na sua avaliação, pelo que o elemento de comparação ideal não existe de uma forma declarada, sendo a função final do texto, conforme determinada pelo cliente e aplicada,

ou não, por tradutor e revisor, o factor crucial para a estratégia de tradução a seguir e para a posterior avaliação desse mesmo texto. Na continuidade da analogia estabelecida com a peça de teatro vista através da televisão, o objecto a avaliar é a própria representação da peça, tal como ela surge aos olhos do telespectador.

4. A importância da Percepção Externa

Importa, portanto, essa perspectiva externa do trabalho de tradução, a visão do Cliente que assiste ao espectáculo comodamente sentado no seu camarote, e que encara o texto traduzido como um produto de consumo acabado. A perspectiva do tradutor, e de quem dá seguimento à execução do projecto, é muito diferente e engloba aspectos complementares, mas inerentes a todo o processo de tradução. Nomeadamente, a percepção do que era pretendido pelo Cliente, a investigação necessária para a tradução, a tradução efectiva de palavras, expressões, ou registos, o processamento de texto, a entrega do texto traduzido ao Cliente e a facturação do trabalho efectuado.

A confiança que o leitor deposita no texto, enquanto representação ou reprodução do original (Robinson 1997: 8), é o factor determinante para a avaliação do objecto. O importante é a precisão ou eficácia do texto traduzido, a sua fluência e naturalidade na LC, a sua exactidão relativamente aos objectivos específicos para os quais terá sido concebido. Este facto poderá resultar numa certa uniformização e descaracterização de uma grande variedade de textos, sujeitos a alterações significativas, motivadas e solicitadas pelos clientes, e em que a adaptação ao estilo do cliente, ou ao que serão as expectativas deste para o utilizador final, se revelam cruciais. Aliás, as críticas apontadas a este modelo centram-se nessa observação de que o texto traduzido só pode ser classificado como uma "adaptação" ou como um "novo texto" e não como uma tradução (*Ibid.*: 9). Mas é importante realçar que os adeptos e praticantes desta teoria funcional têm conseguido aplicá-la com alguma consistência, sobretudo no âmbito da tradução técnica, permitindo-lhe assumir uma relevância e um reconhecimento significativos, até porque nesta área a validade legal da personalidade do autor é frequentemente considerada pouco importante. De facto, verifica-se aqui um certo desrespeito pela noção de que a criação ou re-criação intelectual está sujeita a protecção legal e de que o direito exclusivo à utilização, aproveitamento ou exploração económica (Barros 1984: 18-19) do texto original cabe ao respectivo autor.

5. Incongruências na Comparação com um Modelo Ideal

Apesar de tudo isso, no modelo ideal para a tradução, um dos aspectos mais curiosos e peculiares do exercício de avaliação é o cordão umbilical entre texto traduzido e texto original que faz com que o texto traduzido seja obrigado a corresponder às metas estabelecidas para o texto original. A peculiaridade desta situação advém, em parte, das características autorais e legais que impõem ao texto traduzido marcas próprias e únicas, mas que deveriam ser revistas em função das condicionantes e necessidades da situação de chegada que impedem a aplicação e a cópia das mesmas condições de partida. A viabilidade de tal comparação seria até ilegítima se não se tomasse em consideração que, apesar de tudo, o texto traduzido representa o original não enquanto figura retirada de um molde, e portanto sujeita a comparação total e ilimitada com inúmeras outras figuras idênticas, mas enquanto texto escrito para representar o original numa outra língua e numa outra cultura. Individuais e únicos, cada um deles tem validade *per se*, mas não deixam de estar sujeitos a uma análise comparativa próxima, da mesma maneira que a peça escrita, enquanto ponto de partida, serve aos actores, encenadores, etc., para produzirem uma representação em palco das falas, cenas e particularidades do que é solicitado ou interpretado a partir de um argumento.

Daí que, apesar de o modelo de comparação ideal na tradução, sobretudo na área técnica, poder, e talvez dever, comportar entre os parâmetros da sua grelha de contraste o texto original, não se pode basear inteiramente nele. O texto original não pode determinar os elementos constituintes da grelha relativa ao TC, dadas as inúmeras condicionantes e transformações sofridas por este. Os critérios de avaliação na grelha do modelo ideal têm de existir como constituintes de um molde em torno do TC e das respectivas opções. Para Brunette (2000: 174-180) os critérios desse modelo ideal de avaliação devem ser:

- A lógica do TC, em termos da respectiva coerência e coesão de formulação;
- O objectivo do TC, tendo em conta que a intenção do autor e o efeito sobre o leitor devem corresponder ao objectivo intencionado;
- O contexto do TC, que deve abarcar a audiência alvo da tradução, o autor, a altura e o local em que a tradução será usada, o tipo de texto, a situação socio-linguística e as circunstâncias ideológicas que rodeiam a tradução;
- As normas linguísticas da LC, que implicam toda a atenção a problemas sintácticos, erros de ordem gramatical, erros ortográficos, erros de pontuação e de inadequação da terminologia.

6. Conclusão

Importa, portanto, realçar que é indispensável delinear desde o início um modelo específico para cada texto a traduzir. Um modelo assente:

- Numa apreciação e descrição completas do contexto da situação de tradução;
- Na intenção comunicativa do autor do texto original, mas sobretudo na respectiva adequação à audiência de chegada;
- No estatuto do tema do TP na cultura de chegada;
- Na organização e faseamento do processo específico de tradução;
- E na organização do processo de tradução, em termos do tempo dedicado à sua produção (Lauscher 2000: 160-1).

A tentativa de elaborar quadros completos e abrangentes para categorias ou tipologias de texto mais genéricas poderá produzir modelos inadequados, cuja aplicação prática conterá sempre falhas, motivadas por generalizações influenciadas por imponderáveis próprios de cada texto e de cada situação específica de tradução.

O conhecimento da audiência que receberá o texto traduzido; a clarificação das intenções para que o TC permita a comunicação com o receptor, da mesma maneira que o terá conseguido fazer o texto original, se assim for desejado; a definição de objectivos, em termos não só do estilo da tradução, mas também do nível de leitura - são respostas que o tradutor, o revisor e o angariador de tradução têm de ter em mente. Além disso, têm de complementar esses aspectos com medidas internas de supervisão do trabalho efectuado, e que assegurem que os níveis pretendidos foram alcançados.

Se a determinação inicial de outras qualidades do produto, nomeadamente as suas qualidades primárias, como o tempo de entrega do texto traduzido ou o respectivo custo, forem encaradas como requisitos cujo cumprimento é indispensável, torna-se mais fácil controlar o processo e determinar os elementos de avaliação a aplicar também a essas características. Mas é conveniente não esquecer que aos aspectos claramente objectivos têm de se acrescentar as exigências igualmente rigorosas de verificação dos elementos subjectivos de um projecto de tradução. Por esse motivo, um modelo específico de avaliação da qualidade deve constituir uma estrutura coerente e interligada em que se anote a verificação dos requisitos estabelecidos e se proceda à comprovação de que os resultados atingidos corresponderam ao que foi inicialmente determinado.

A partir da nossa posição de telespectadores poderemos sentir-nos então mais confiantes no valor de todos os intervenientes nesta peça e poderemos acreditar verdadeiramente na tradução e nos profissionais que nela

desempenharam os papéis que lhes estavam atribuídos. Poderemos então dizer, tal como Sophia de Mello Breyner Andresen a propósito da sua tradução de *Hamlet*, de William Shakespeare (Pinho 1998b: 145):

> "Sou partidária de traduções fidelíssimas, mas onde a fidelidade inclui a exigência do próprio poema. E, no caso de *Hamlet*, é preciso dizer o que lá está, mas dizê-lo em termos de teatro. O que obriga a uma estreita tensão entre o significado e o espaço, o peso e a voz de cada palavra.
>
> É evidente que a tradução vive entre o possível e o impossível e por isso nada é mais vulnerável e exposto. É um trabalho que só podemos empreender aceitando à partida uma certa margem de impossibilidade. Um trabalho que nunca estará pronto, pois sempre haverá algo que apetece refazer. (...)
>
> Tentei, tanto quanto possível, traduzir rente ao texto, ser fiel à riqueza e à densidade de cada frase e encontrar uma linguagem que seja a do teatro.
>
> Este último ponto parece-me fundamental, não só por se tratar de uma obra teatral e por Shakespeare ser um homem do teatro, mas também porque para ele o mundo era um palco onde ele sempre quis criar a «peça dentro da peça»."

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