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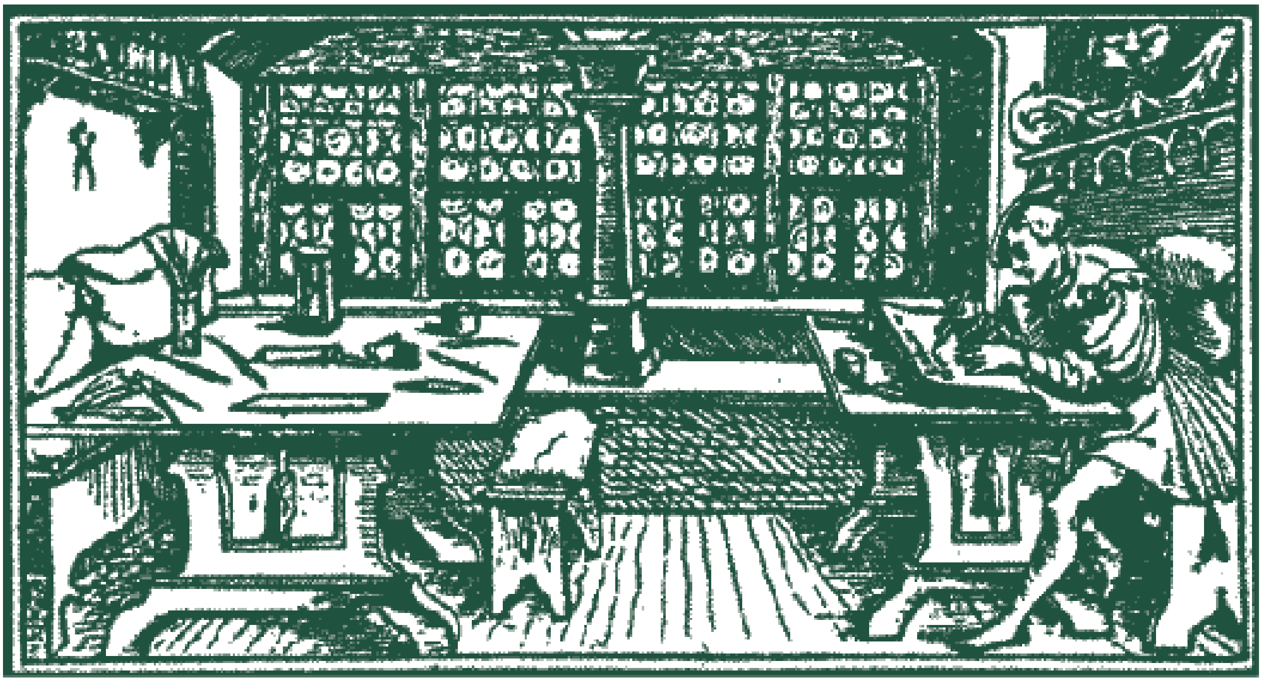

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SECTION II: TRANSLATION MARKET

SECTION III: TRANSLATION METHODOLOGY

FOREWORD

The focus of this special issue of *Studia Universitatis Babes-Bolyai, series: Philologia* entitled ‘Translator Training for the Global Market’ is to elicit trends in translation training compatible with market requirements. Our intention is to unite the expertise gained by academics and professionals engaged in translation training and practice throughout Europe and to present an overview of relevant issues for comprehensive coverage of the subject area.

The volume comprises three sections, namely (I) translator training, (II) translation market and (III) translation methodology, and includes studies conducted by contributors from Germany, Hungary, Spain, the U.K and Romania.

Mid-Bologna higher education changes coupled with the expansion of the European translation market make for ample investigative ground. Thus, contributors tackle issues related to quality assurance in training, vocational vs. academic higher education requirements (or impositions), professional competence development, market trends, language-based problem elicitation (for French, Spanish, Italian and Romanian), IT and subtitling methodology.

This volume is equally useful for academics, trainees and practising professionals worldwide. The inter-national, pan-European dimension is accounted for, with special emphasis laid on the Romanian translation context and the Romanian language in pair with other European languages. Consequently, for the Romanian context, where translation and interpreting studies are only now settling in, the value of this issue is paramount.

Anca Greere
The Editor

STUDIA UNIVERSITATIS BABEŞ-BOLYAI, PHILOLOGIA, LIII, 3, 2008

TRANSCULTURAL RELATING – AN EXAMPLE OF PROJECT-ORIENTED TRANSLATOR EDUCATION

DON KIRALY[*]

ABSTRACT. Authentic projects in translation practice classes can lead to unexpected findings and the emergence of interesting perspectives on trans-cultural relationships.

Key words: project-oriented translator education, transcultural awareness

When I began to apply social-constructivist concepts to the teaching of translation skills over a decade ago, my initial interest was in learning theory per se and the possibilities for using authentic project work as a means to foment the inter-personal development of translator competence. I was also interested in the constraints of the market and the need I perceived of ensuring that students would leave the hallowed halls (and too often the ivory tower) of the university with a sense of professional values as well as translation competence per se. Since then, I have accompanied my students through a wide range of authentic projects from tourist texts on Chile, Cuba and the Gambia to an academic monograph on psychoanalysis and witchcraft, and from a coffee table book on the history and economy of a region of Germany to websites covering administrative procedures and course offerings for a number of German universities.

For many semesters, as we tackled and completed project after project, our focus remained rather narrowly focused on mainstream German source texts and the creation of mainstream target texts, essentially intended for educated speakers of British or American English. We rarely strayed out into the economically and culturally peripheral regions of the Anglophone world. But in the summer semester of 2005, a project came our way that changed the way that my students looked at German –> English translation.

Shortly before that semester began, I happened to be speaking with my colleague Dr. Signe Rüttgers, who had recently spent considerable time on leave in India, making a documentary film narrated in German about the beliefs, rituals and artwork of the Warlis, a tribe of some 300,000 people living in the Thane District of Maharastra in India. As we talked about some of the projects my students and I had completed, she asked if we might be interested in subtitling her film and perhaps also translating some Warli legends she had rendered into German. Those stories had been collected by a Warli artist in two modes; he had written them

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down in English and had also made his own paintings depicting them using the Warlis' distinctive white-on brown color scheme and iconistic figures.

We first undertook the subtitling project, which involved both learning about the conventions and strategies of subtitling and mastering the technical skills involved in using subtitling software. Of course we also had to pursue research into the social, cultural and linguistic world of the Warlis in order to better understand their rituals and customs and even identify implements, animals and foods that are part and parcel of their everyday routines. It quickly became apparent that the process we were involved in entailed cultural and cognitive gymnastics that were new to us. We were all used to traveling the comfortable translation road back and forth between the familiar worlds of Germany on the one hand and the US or the UK on the other. Now we were confronted with a new, non-English world to interpret—from German into English. While appearing prominently on maps of the world where English is spoken as an official language, India is also home to a large number of peoples who very rarely learn any variety of English – the Warlis among them. And so we found ourselves adding a new dimension to Signe Rüttger's documentary mission as we learned about the enchanted but also endangered cultural world of the Warlis. We became accessories to the "**trans**cultural re**lating** of their story, in fact almost unwittingly making what we eventually came to see as a minuscule yet potentially powerful contribution to saving their world by helping to share its myths, its special relationship to nature, and an understanding of its artwork to English speakers—both in India and elsewhere. This new dimension took us far beyond our previous—essentially commercial—interest in translation as a service to be bought and sold, to be performed adequately, accurately and in a timely manner to meet the material needs of clients and customers in Frankfurt, London or New York.

The subtitling project itself did not take us far from our mainstream translational road well traveled. The film we subtitled had been made by my German colleague and the running commentary in German was a manicured script she wrote that was recorded by a professional actor. High German was the language of our source text and standard British English was the variety in which we created our subtitles. But when we began to translate the illustrated book of legends that Signe had passed on to us, we also looked at the original ‘English’ texts written down by the Warli artist Madhukar Rambhau Vadu. The following is the beginning of the first legend written down by the artist in his ideosyncratic (and self-taught) variety of English:

Story of the Rainbow

> So many years ago rain was raining heavily for the twelve months. The rain was not stopping it was continuously raining day and night. Then whole world was going sinking under the water and whole mankind, wild animals and domestic animals and insects and the birds they can't live comfortably. Because day by day the thundery were flashing brightly and very power fully. The mankind and cattels insects diying with the falling heavy rain and sky thundery day after day. So every body can't come out from their's living man can't come out from his homes. Animals can't come out from their holes, cracks and under the stones. Also birds can't fly out from the trees, reason that clouds were making laudly thunder claping wind is blowing rapidly and thundery also flashing very brightly and powerfully in the sky. So every things were frightened to this dangerous position. So it was very difficult wandering anywhere to the anythings. So all mankind creatures were going famishing without the goods.
>
> [Collected and *trans-related* into English by the Warli artist Madhukar Rambhau Vadu]

Whereas, from the perspective of mainstream educated English (British, American or Indian for that matter), Vadu’s text is flush with ‘errors’ related to cohesion, coherence, non-idiomatic usage, spelling and syntax, it still manages to convey information and a message through the alien medium of English that Signe in turn was able to *trans-relate* into German. Of course, she was able (and perhaps obligated) to draw on additional information gleaned through discussions with the artist and other Warlis, as well as various paintings depicting the legend, in creating a coherent German text that I believe would stand up to rigorous translational scrutiny. Her *trans-relation* of the passage in question reads as follows:

> Vor langer, langer Zeit fiel auf der Erde Tag und Nacht starker Regen, der nicht enden wollte. Ein ganzes Jahr lang regnete es ohne Unterbrechung, so dass die Welt in den Fluten zu versinken drohte. Menschen und Tiere ertranken, während schwere Gewitter den Himmel durchzuckten. Kein Ort war sicher, denn entweder wurde er überschwemmt oder der starke Sturm blies die flüchtenden Menschen und Tiere von den Bergen und von den Bäumen. Da alle Felder unter Wasser standen und auch nicht mehr gejagt werden konnte, brach eine große Hungersnot aus ... (Rüttgers, 2003, p. 1)

One of the first consciousness-raising activities I had my students engage in preparation for translating the legends was to have them analyze the texts and determine which was the original and which was the translation. The judgement of the group was unanimous: the coherent, cohesive and idiomatic German text was seen as the original and the non-standard and apparently faulty English of Vadu’s text was believed to mark it as a terrible translation. Semesters of classwork involving the translation of innumerable journalistic texts had led them to believe that original texts are well written, while translations are likely to be faulty. It was their surprise at their having mistaken the original for the translation in this case that started a discussion that clearly changed the way in which each of those students perceived the translation process. Wole Soyinka has eloquently expressed the phenomenon we can see here:

> [...] when we borrow an alien language to sculpt or paint in, we must begin by co-opting the entire properties in our matrix of thought and expression. We must stress such a language, stretch it, impact and compact it, fragment and reassemble it with no apology, as required to bear the burden of experiencing and of experiences, be such experiences formulated or not in the conceptual idioms of that language. (Soyinka, Art 107)

This is precisely what Vadu has done. He has used this alien medium of English in an attempt to convey concepts, thoughts and cultural artifacts that are simply not part of any English world. Working with a range of resources, Signe Rüttgers had to attempt to create her own German understanding of the alien Warli world that could then be expressed through the medium of the German language for German readers.

With respect to the “familiar and comfortable road” perspective, my students may well have had the easiest job. And yet, they too, were working to achieve successful communication through an alien medium to the extent that they were translating from German, their mother tongue, into English, a foreign language. They also had to keep in mind that they were translating for readers of World Englishes and not just American and British readers. In fact, at the time of this writing, the text is in the hands of an Indian publisher and plans are to actually publish my students’ English versions of the Warli texts in India.

As an example of what the students were able to do in terms of a professional translation job from German into English, here is the students’ version of this part of the first legend:

> The Story of Indradeva’s Rainbow
>
> A long, long time ago, heavy rains fell upon the earth day and night. It rained without stopping for twelve months and the world was on the verge of being flooded completely. People and animals drowned as menacing thunderstorms lit up the sky. There was no refuge to be found anywhere. The land was flooded and strong winds swept the fleeing people and animals off the mountains and out of the trees. There was a great famine because the fields were covered with water, and hunting had become impossible...

The following painting by Vadu accompanies the legend in the German booklet:

The sample translation included above is emblematic of the fine translation work the students found themselves capable of. In addition, this "transcultural relating" project was extremely satisfying and empowering for all of the students involved. It was the first time for most of them that a feeling emerged that they were fulfilling an important role in inter-cultural communications that went far beyond the mere providing of a language mediation service. They also began to revise their understanding of concepts like “source text” and “target text” as they looked beyond Signe’s ‘German original’ to Vadu’s ‘English original’ to the graphic depictions of Warli life and legends that have been passed down orally and graphically from generation to generation for thousands of years. In fact, as participants in the perpetual retelling of Warli stories, we all acquired new perspectives on the translator's craft, on the diversity of the "English-speaking world" and new respect for the translator’s profession.

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TRANSLATING SPECIALISED TEXTS: AN OVERVIEW OF KEY FACTORS INVOLVED IN TRANSLATOR TRAINING FOR SPECIALISED TRANSLATION

BEVERLY ADAB[*]

ABSTRACT. Translators wishing to work on translating specialised texts are traditionally recommended to spend much time and effort acquiring specialist knowledge of the domain involved, and for some areas of specialised activity, this is clearly essential. For other types of translation-based, domain-specific of communication, however, it is possible to develop a systematic approach to the task which will allow for the production of target texts which are adequate for purpose, in a range of specialised domains, without necessarily having formal qualifications in those areas. For Esselink (2000) translation agencies, and individual clients, would tend to prefer a subject expert who also happens to have competence in one or more languages over a trained translator with a high degree of translation competence, including the ability to deal with specialised translation tasks. The problem, for the would-be translator, is persuading prospective clients that he or she is capable of this. This paper will offer an overview of the principles used to design training intended to teach trainee translators how to use a systematic approach to specialised translation, in order to extend the range of areas in which they can tackle translation, without compromising quality or reliability. This approach will be described within the context of the functionalist approach developed in particular by Reiss and Vermeer (1984), Nord (1991, 1997) inter alia.

Keywords: Specialised translation, functionalist approaches, domain specificity, adequacy, quality, corpora

Introduction

This paper claims that through a process of developing awareness, translators (trainee and practising) can develop a systematic approach to translation of specialised texts, which will facilitate production of a target text that is adequate for purpose, as stipulated in the translation brief. The theoretical framework for this approach is grounded in the functionalist approaches proposed and developed over recent decades, from Reiss and Vermeer (1984) (skopos), to Nord (1991, 1997) (functionalism in translator training), also Honig (1995) and Chesterman (1998).

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The paper will begin with a brief reminder of key tenets of functionalist approaches, followed by consideration of key factors involved in specialised translation, including translation competence, culture-specificity and text type conventions and expertise in the domain. Examples from texts taken from medicine, law and airline regulations will be given to demonstrate these issues, using Nord's four types of potential problem (1997), These will be followed by consideration of basic research and reference sources for specialised translation.

All of this will establish the framework for a systematic approach to the translation of specialised texts, which is used to teach basic survival skills in specialised translation at Aston University.

Functionalist Approaches – Basic Tenets

Functionalist approaches consider translation as a form of deliberate communicative action, for a fixed purpose, to communicate information in a written document to a new group of addressees in a target culture, drawing on Action Theory and the link between intention of the actor, the perception of the object of the action, and the form of communication chosen. The purpose – or *skopos* (Vermeer 1984) - of the target text, together with awareness of the presumed knowledge of the target language addressee (concerning source culture and the subject of the text) will guide the translator in making decisions about how much of the ST to carry over to the TT, whether or not further explicitation will be needed, and how best to achieve this. This principle is equally applicable in any translation situation, regardless of the genre and type of text. Adopting a functionalist approach to translation should lead to production of a functionally adequate text, that is, a text which is fit for the purpose for which it was commissioned (which is detailed in the translation brief provided by the client).

Reiss (1984) sketches a basic taxonomy of text types, in terms of their communicative function (informative, appellative, expressive), arguing that awareness of the primary communicative function of a text will both set up expectations as to its structure and use of language, and act as the basis for translation decisions. For example, if a text is primarily appellative (e.g. advertising) but also contains factual information (e.g. advertisement for a car), then where translation decisions involve resolving a clash of priorities, the primary function will take precedence. Other scholars (Beaugrande and Dressler 1981, Nord 2005) use the label "text type" to denote the genre or type of communicative event (letter, newspaper report, official bulletin, contract….).

Neubert (2000) describes key attributes of a competent translator. These include language and cultural competence, subject, textual and transfer competence, all of which add up to an overall translation competence.

- Language competence for specialised translation will assume basic native speaker fluency in SL and TL (ST interpretation and TL production). We will not discuss this in this paper.

- Cultural competence will integrate awareness of previous key texts on a subject and associated culture-based institutions, as well as familiarity with the relevant body, or bodies, which regulate the domain and the sharing of information within this.
- Subject competence relates to a degree of familiarity with domain-specific concepts, processes and objects, and their interaction with a knowledge structure.
- Textual competence is often overlooked in favour of the other five sub-skills, and yet this is an integral element of any translation task, not least for specialised translation. This is about knowing HOW to organise the WHAT in the written text, to be discussed in our consideration of text type conventions.
- Research skills include the ability to search for useful sources to inform the translation process, and this will be discussed under the subject of Corpora.

For would-be translators of specialised texts, the challenge is to identify the minimum degree of awareness, familiarity and knowledge necessary for adequate understanding and transfer of the message, in the most appropriate forms (cf Neubert and Shreve, 1992: discussion of Standards of Textuality: *acceptability and intentionality*).

Culture-specificity and text type conventions

Communication is a culturally-defined activity, often conventionalised through repeated refinement of practice, in order to achieve maximum clarity and economy, through the application of patterns of text production and use of language which both conform to reader expectations and serve to embed even further these patterns in the collective archive of expectations.

In considering culture-specificity of behaviour, the following definitions may be useful.

> Rice (1993): culture is the “values, attitudes, beliefs, artefacts and other meaningful symbols represented in the pattern of life adopted by people that help them interpret, evaluate and communicate as members of a society”
> Geertz (1973): culture is a “set of control mechanisms for governing behaviour”
> Hofstede (1991): culture is “the collective mental programming of the people in an environment.....conditioned by the same education and life experience”.
> De Mooij (2005:36): culture includes the things that have worked in the past. It includes shared beliefs, attitudes, norms, roles and values […[Culture is to society what memory is to the individual.
> *And*
> (idem:45): Culture is the shared ability to recognise, decode and produce signs and symbols, so culture also is a combination of semiotic habits. Differences in semiotic habits delineate cultures.

Texts are described by Chandler (2002) as a collection of signs, and as "complexes of signs which cohere both internally and within the context in and for which they were produced" by Kress & van Leeuwen (1996, 40-41). Texts are sub-sets of genres, which are exemplars of communicative events in a given culture. The culture-specificity of genres, and their normative effect in terms of conventions, are discussed by Schäffner (2000:212). Schäffner (idem) also notes the need for a translator to "produce the TT as an instance of the genre for the target culture". Culture-specificity in texts is discussed by Nord (1997, 2005), in terms of cultural references to people, places, institutions and intertextual references. This concept also applies in relation to formal conventions for macro-textual features: organisation of informative content or development of an argumentative process. The translator's awareness of how culture shapes text production and content is fundamental to successful target text production:

> The translator is not the sender of the ST message but a text producer in the target culture who adopts somebody else's intention in order to produce a communicative instrument for the target culture or a target culture document of a source culture communication (Nord 2005:13)

For specialised translation, the primary communicative function (cf Reiss 1984) is usually informative, as text producers seek to share information about the specialist domain of activity with others, usually their peers (equivalent level of expert knowledge) but also sometimes with a wider public (for example through semi-specialised reports in the press, on television or radio). Information is delivered through use of correct labels for concepts, objects and processes (terminology and collocations) and this is often perceived as the major, or indeed sole, translation challenge. However, in addition to accurate transfer of informative content and correct use of terminology, the translator will need to understand how the (written) information should be articulated in the target language – because, as Nord notes:

> Being culture-bound communicative signs, both the source and the target text are determined by the communicative situation in which they serve to convey a message (Nord 2005:8)

Texts-in-culture tend, over time, to adopt ever-more standardised or conventionalised ways of presenting the message, otherwise known as text type conventions. These will guide and determine a range of text production criteria, including structure and organisation of macro-textual features (chunks of information), syntax, style, register, use of punctuation, lay-out etc.

Communicating intentions, attitudes, facts

Domain-specific communication often involves particular use of syntactic forms to signal communicative intentions, which can be described using the concept of Speech Acts (Austin 1962, Searle, 1977), for example: *to declare,* *promise, forbid, give or deny permission, or to indicate obligations, possibility, conditional actions, warning, emphasis,* inter alia. In English these may be realised as follows:

- *Declare:* declare, state, affirm, reiterate, emphasise; *promise*: pledge, swear, promise, commit to, future simple (we will do this); *forbid*: is forbidden, cannot be done, will not happen; *give or deny permission*: the service-provider may increase the rental charge, subject to prior notice/ provided that (conditions) the lessor is given advance notice of this intention; the tenant may not alter the current state of decoration of the premises without prior permission of the owner; *obligations*: bills must be paid by the first of the month; tenants are required to give three months notice of intention to terminate the contract; notice shall be given of any changes made to the vehicle; the employee shall give one month's notice of intention to leave the employment.
- *possibility*, the new Act may also encompass regulations on the subject of additional payments for renewal of ….;
- *warning*, if bills are not paid by the due date the tenant will incur additional costs; non-payment of bills will result in prosecution; in cases of non-payment of bills, the tenant will be prosecuted.

Use of correct language forms to convey relevant communicative intentions, or speech acts, is essential to an adequate target text which will have the desired force, impact and message content for the target reader.

Producing an adequate translated text will therefore include consideration not just of terminology and encyclopaedic knowledge, language and conceptual structure, but equally importantly, of text type conventions (style, lay-out, use of language), as deviation from expected forms will impede the smooth flow of message reception and discourage the reader from playing his part (as projected by Grice 1975 in his Principle of Co-operation). Trosborg (1997) also discusses the importance of text type conventions in the production of functionally adequate texts

Domain-specific knowledge

As noted by Bowker and Pearson (2002:28), "Because LSP users have different levels of expertise, there are different levels of LSP communications". Some specialised subjects will be more easily accessible to the translator than others, depending on the complexity of subject knowledge and the intricacy of conceptual interaction. Some apparently densely packed texts (conceptually) may often turn out to be an accumulation of LSP terms linked by LGP words, and knowledge of what the terms refer to will often suffice for an adequate translation. On the other hand, subjects relying on development of complex lines of reasoning (e.g. mathematics, quantum physics) may prove inaccessible even when armed with appropriate terminology, due to conceptual organisation. Bowker and Pearson remind us that, "there is a difference between knowing/learning and subject and knowing/learning the LSP used to discuss that subject" (2000:29). They advocate use of a specialised corpus to develop domain-specific expertise (more of this later).

To be competent to translate texts from some domains, the translator may require a degree of formal training in the subject (e.g. law), since breakdowns in communication may entail serious consequences (financial or diplomatic). For example, culture specificity of the system and its operating principles (e.g a country's legal system) may mean that there is no equivalent TL concept to express an SL principle or process. Documents intended to carry equal status in law in source and target cultures (contracts, patents), will require expert knowledge of the two systems. However, for translation for informative purposes only, and also sometimes for highly formulaic documents attesting to simple information (e.g. birth certificates), careful research (expert corpora) should generate sufficient understanding to enable the translation to be completed successfully.

Domains which may appear to be based on specialised knowledge may in fact be more accessible to a wider public, thanks to mass media communications and a general intention by the media to 'educate' the viewing and reading public, who, as a result, have become more aware of specialist concepts in fields which interest them. National broadsheets often carry quite specialised reports on the environment, telecommunications and IT, the finance industry (shares, loans, credit, investment, banking), cars, health, sport, etc. Readers do not usually consider these as specialised texts but in so far as specialist labels (terms) are required to discuss and understand the domain, there is a degree of domain-specificity. Translators who read widely and regularly in the quality national press will acquire passive awareness of a number of subjects, which can form the basis for further research. Being aware of the degree of subject knowledge that <u>can</u> be assumed to be held by the target language addressee is another key factor, and this can be determined by careful analysis of the translation brief, including the intended source for publication of the TT; consider the difference in reader knowledge between readers of a text to be published, for example, in a specialist journal, and readers of a text on a similar subject, to be accessed via the internet or the weekly press.

For example: the subject of the following extract from an advertisement for broadband, although a specialist domain, is widely familiar to readers of the UK broadsheet, the Independent. Special effects include direct address, rhetorical questions, use of CAPITAL letters, listing of names of other companies. The text type is advertising, the communicative function appellative, and the subject is semi-specialised. This is just one example of how specialised subjects have become 'common-place'.

> Notice how you didn't have to wait for all these words to load? You just turned the page and there they were. Now why aren't web pages that quick?
>
> Thing is – they can be, if you get your broadband (T) from us.
>
> Only VIRGIN Media use fibre optic cable (T) to <u>deliver broadband</u> (C) and it's widely available across the UK.

> You'll find everyone else – BT, TalkTalk, Tiscali, Orange, Sky (intercultural references) – all use copper telephone wire (T) And that's been around for a hundred years.
>
> The truth is, copper wire wasn't designed for the internet.

……

The Independent, 03.02.08

Translation problems in LSP texts

Let us now consider the kinds of problems translators may encounter in attempting to translate a specialised text. To do this, we will use the four categories of translation problem described by Nord (1997), with examples from some extracts from specialised or semi-specialised texts.

1. ***Pragmatic problems*** (culture-specific references such as names of governing bodies, laws and statutes, names given to illnesses or processes);

For medical texts, problems may include,:

Eponymous names for diseases: may be used internationally, or may vary from one language to another, depending on who is held to have been the first to name the disease. These can be checked with experts or on-line reference sources:

> Paget's disease of bone is a common disorder in elderly people. The clinical presentation of Paget's disease is diverse. The diagnosis of Paget's disease is primarily radiological.

(http://cmp.mcqi.com.au/ensignia/home/lms/html/Courses/HTML%20Updates/Pagets%20disease%20of%20bone%2025%20Jan%202008/index.html)

Names of proprietary drugs (using same generic ingredients): these may vary for treatment of same illness, depending on licencing laws in each country:

> Patient coping well the chemotherapy. Abdomen is still slightly distended with ascetic fluid but not uncomfortable on Frusemide 20mg and Spironolactone 100mg daily. Wt is stable 98kg. may require drainage if more symptomatic.
>
> Cycle 2a given see next week for 2b.

(extract from patient notes: 2008)

2. ***Intercultural problems*** (text type conventions, organisation of macro-structural elements, conventions for measurements);

i. ***organisation of information*** *(macro-textual elements): for example,* in contracts, consider the (possibly culture-specific) order of inclusion of information about: definitions of names and terms; the signatories, the obligations and rights of both parties; permission or prohibition and consequences of non-compliance. Also, on birth certificates : name of child; of parents; father's occupation; place, date, time of birth; place registered; name of registrar; may also include indication of religious affiliation. It is important to note the order in which such information 'chunks' are presented in genre exemplars from each culture.

ii. ***realisation of speech acts***: *for example,* contracts, treaties (operative documents) are intended to regulate interaction between the parties signatory to the agreement, formalised in a written document. Conventions exist for recording specific speech acts, which may differ from the way in which language units may be used in LGP (language for general purposes). For adequate TT production it is important to identify not the synactic form used but the underlying illocutionary or perlocutionary force of a speech act.
Communicative intentions can include:

affirmations (A); indicating obligations (O); warning of consequences: (W); promising(P); stating what is allowed (ALL); stating what is not allowed: (NOT); stating what is possible/ likely (Poss)

Examples:

a. extracts**: THE TREATY OF LISBON:**

> Article 8 B 1. The institutions shall, by appropriate means, give (A, O) citizens and representative associations the opportunity to make known and publicly exchange their views in all areas of Union action
>
> 4. Not less than one million citizens who are nationals of a significant number of Member States may (P) take the initiative of inviting the European Commission, within the framework of its powers, to submit any appropriate proposal on matters where citizens consider that a legal act of the Union is required for the purpose of implementing the Treaties.
>
> Article 8 C National Parliaments contribute (A) actively to the good functioning of the Union

(http://eur-lex.europa.eu/JOHtml.do?uri=OJ:C:2007:306:SOM:EN:HTML)

b. extract**: BT CODE OF PRACTICE (accessed online):**

> There are other circumstances when we may (POSS) also send you an interim bill for the calls you have made since your last bill. You must (O) pay any interim bill quickly. If you have not always paid your bills in full or on time, we may also restrict your ability to make outgoing calls until you have brought your payments up to date (W). […]We expect you to pay (O)any deposit before we connect the service. We will tell you (P), in writing, how long we will hold the deposit for (normally one year). As long as you pay your bills in full and on time during this period, we will return the deposit to you (P). If you choose to receive a bill each month, you must (O) pay by direct debit. Business customers will have to (O) pay all charges for the service as often as we tell you at the beginning of your contract.

(http://www.btplc.com/Thegroup/Regulatoryinformation/Codeofpractice/Consumercodeofpractice/ConsumerCodeofPractice.htm)

c. extracts: **RYAN AIR PASSENGER REGULATIONS**:

> All electronic equipment will need to be removed from the item of hand baggage and screened separately. (*not necessity but obligation- polite*)
>
> ….
>
> Passengers should check in no later than 2 hours prior to their scheduled flight departure, to allow sufficient time to check in and to clear security.

Flights cannot wait for passengers delayed at security points. (*implied warning/ perlocutionary effect: If you are late you will not be allowed to board your flight*).

iii. ***measurements: medical reports, patient notes:***

Hb 10 (for 2 units of packed cells),WBC 10.6, Plt500, Ur 4.3, Na 131 Alb 34 Biochem and LFT normal, Mg. 76CEA 60, CA 19-9 19.5.

These can be 'unpacked' through careful consultation of medical databases or with medical experts. Some are abbreviations for SL words: WBC (white blood cells), Plt (platelets) which will have a corresponding abbreviation in the TL. Some are internationally recognised, e.g. symbols used for chemical elements (Na = Sodium). Conventions for measurements of drug doses can be checked in language specific compendia.

3. ***Interlingual*** **problems** (LGP syntax and lexis, sometimes used in special way for LSP; LSP terminology (T), collocations ©);

The patient presented (*LSP use of LGP verb, used intransitively whereas in LSP this is transitive*) with nausea and mediastinal (T) discomfort, despite the Domperidone and Prednisolone (pragmatic). She has lost quite a lot of weight (50kg). Appetite is poor. I have arranged an urgent CT Scan (T) in case these symptoms (T) are due to disease progression (C) but I am delighted to say that in fact the tumour (T) is significantly smaller (C) than it was prior to the radio-chemotherapy (T) with no disease elsewhere. The stent (T) is fully patent (T/C) and there is no organic cause (C/T) to her symptoms. It is possible that she has been very anxious and I have tried to allay her anxiety (C). I have suggested to take the Domperidone regularly and have substituted Prednisolone with Dexamethozone 4mg per day, also increased her Omeprazole to 40mg per day.

4. Text specific problems: this refers to ways in which special effects are created within a specific text (cohesive devices, metaphors, play on words, other stylistic mechanisms for creating impact) – not so commonly found in LSP texts, particularly those where the dominant communicative function is informative, or operative in an instructional sense. There are some very useful studies of text-specific effects in operative texts such as promotional literature and advertisements (Adab, Valdes Rodrigues 2004, De Mooij 2005). Other text-specific effects will include mechanisms for cohesion, which, for LSP texts, may in fact be more a question of genre and text-type specific conventions (intercultural problems).

Research competence - using sources

We have highlighted a few examples of potential problems for translation of specialised texts. How can a translator ensure that these are all dealt with appropriately in TT production ? The answer should be obvious within a functionalist approach: research is needed to determine TL addressee expectations through analysis of a range of reliable TL exemplars of the genre and text type. The questions to ask are: WHERE and HOW to conduct relevant research, and HOW to identify reliable exemplars. We have already noted Bowker and Pearson's recommendation to use specialist corpora (2002). Corpora can be used for different purposes, such as: subject/encyclopaedic knowledge; terminology; text type conventions. The most reliable source of such information will be authentic examples of use in context, generally in a written text, produced by a reliable and authoritative author and published in an expert source, usually collected to form a custom-made corpus.

Corpora: A collection of texts, known as a corpus, must always be carefully planned, to ensure that any information gathered from these texts is both representative and reliable, up to date, accurate and widely used. Prior to collection, the translator needs to determine the time span for production of the texts (depending on the subject); the text type; the subject content and degree of specialisation; length; geographical location and type of source of publication **-** this will also point to addressee profile, including degree of assumed domain specific expertise; and any other relevant criteria.

Corpora can be: monolingual in each language in contact (SL and TL), bi- or multi-lingual, or comprise parallel texts (source and target text pairs, or one source text with a range of target language versions). Parallel texts from reliable translation sources can be useful to check previous translation choices, to be tested against authentic texts in the TL.

Corpora can also consist of comparable texts: of the same text type – for checking text type conventions; or texts on the same subject, of comparable authority on the subject area.

It is very often possible to constitute a reliable corpus from selected internet sources, to complement authentic printed exemplars in each language, as long as careful analysis is undertaken to identify any differences between online and printed text type conventions (eg, insertion of additional information through tables, or hyperlinks).

Such corpora will be important to glean sufficient understanding of the subject and the particular aspect of the subject treated in the ST, as well as for identification of relevant terminology.

Terminology can also be checked in on-line terminological databases, garnered from specialist texts and checked against other texts for frequency of use. For company or institution-based translation, it is important to check whether there is an in-house, or institutional (national or international) standardised terminology for the domain (e.g ISO – International Standards Organisation:
http://www.iso.org/iso/home.htm). Dictionaries tend not to be so reliable as they are not updated as often as usage in some disciplines evolve, although this will of

course depend on the shelf life of knowledge in the discipline (compare IT software evolution on a short term basis with fixed knowledge base over a longer term for horse-racing). There are some very useful on-line terminological databases covering a wide range of domains, easily found by a KWIC (key word in context) search using your preferred search engine.

Developing a systematic approach to specialised translation

At Aston University we have developed an introduction to LSP translation that is offered both to final year undergraduates and MA students in our translation programmes. The training draws on all the considerations discussed above, and consist of a guided introduction to the approach through sample domain-specific topics, followed by individual research on a domain and genre/ text type of the student's choice (by agreement).

Preparation*:* Students are required to undertake reading about culture-specific issues, intercultural and interlingual characteristics of the text type for English, as their mother tongue or current language of habitual use. Seminar work involves analysis of exemplars of the text type, from the domain set for that seminar, working in pairs to identify examples in the texts provided of key characteristics on which they have already made notes and which have been discussed at the start of the seminar.

Raising awareness: For groups of international students (MA), the emphasis will remain on identifying text type conventions and use of language from English texts. For groups working between a given language pair (undergraduates), they will then be asked to undertake a similar analysis of exemplars taken from target language sources, seeking always to establish a comparative and contrastive view. Discussion in seminars includes explanation of individual research, to allow sharing of good practice and useful sources. However, guided reading and sample papers are made available so that all students have a common grounding in each domain.

Assessment**:** To demonstrate their grasp of the challenges of LSP translation, students have to:

a. produce a written project discussing the nature of LSP translation and the challenges involved (giving examples from their corpus/ chosen domain, giving a comparative and contrastive view of similarities and differences between a given language pair (undergraduates) or between English and their mother-tongue (MA and undergraduate).
b. translate an exemplar of their chosen LSP domain/ text type, under exam conditions, using all their notes and project work (undergraduate).

For both groups, projects are accompanied by:

- a corpus or corpora of exemplars of their chosen text type
- comparative and contrastive tables of text type conventions for the two languages studied

- a bi-lingual terminology of key terms
- all sources consulted, printed or online, including reference sources, terminologies, domain-specific sources and expert writings in specialised and general translation (theory and practice).

By adopting this approach, it is possible to sensitise translators, trainees or practising, to the main challenges of LSP translation and to equip them with relevant strategies to deal with these challenges. Developing awareness also includes sensitivity to the limits to the competence of the individual, based however on the degree of domain-specific knowledge required to understand the ST, and on concomitant legal accountability, not on prior training in the subject. Comparable texts in the TL serve as a basis for translation decisions and also for translation quality assessment, by the translator and by the assessor.

Students are often surprised at what can be achieved through a systematic approach, which includes targeted research to support decision-making, and clear guidance in the stages of the process, can produce functionally-adequate target texts for a range of quite challenging specialised texts, working either from mother-tongue into L2 or from L2 into mother-tongue. Of course, directionality is another debate, not to be addressed here (see, for example, Adab 2005; Kelly 2003).

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A FEW CONSIDERATIONS REGARDING THE TEACHING OF L1-INTO-L2 TRANSLATIONS

BOGDAN ALDEA[*]

ABSTRACT. Given the unavoidably limited linguistic and cultural proficiency in a foreign language as compared to one's mastery of mother tongue and culture, and in light of the high standards required of professional translation work, the teaching of L1–L2 translations as part of the university curricula has always been a delicate matter. The present study starts from the premise that, in the environment of a less commonly spoken language, translators are nonetheless required to do precisely this kind of work. Consequently, it seeks to identify those methodological suggestions and approaches likely to improve the quality of L1–L2 translations but not related to the development of linguistic and cultural competences. The paper highlights a number of priorities related to the translation of informative texts (Reiss), such as clarity, concision, stylistic "simplification," cast against the traditional pursuit of equivalence.

Keywords: translation, translation competence, text typology, informative texts, L1-L2 translations.

Argument

There seems to be a general consensus nowadays that quality translation requires the translator to work into his or her mother tongue, except, of course, for those rare cases when the trained translator is also truly bilingual. While translator training programmes currently focus mostly on other matters than the development of language proficiency, language competence, as Neubert put it, remains "a *sine qua non* of translation, and it is more than a commonplace to point out the extreme value of mother tongue knowledge and skill, often grossly underestimated by the translation student; also, alas, by the practitioner and, last but not least, by the commissioner of a translation" (Neubert, 2000: 7). While, theoretically, near-perfect knowledge of both L1 and L2 is required for quality translation work, in practice the mastery of one's mother tongue is nearly always superior to one's proficiency in a foreign language.

This is the reason why, for instance, a major translation service such as that of the European Commission and of the European Parliament distinguishes between L1–L2 and L2–L1 translations and selects its personnel accordingly. Similarly—at

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least in our experience—the great majority of translator training programmes give priority to translations into one's own mother tongue. Furthermore, while proficiency in a foreign language as compared to the mastery of one's own language is a dominant factor in this choice, the issue of cultural competence seems to lead us towards a similar conclusion. According to the same Neubert, "though translators can be said to be interculturally competent, they think and feel predominantly in terms of a particular, their own culture" (Neubert, 2000: 10). Considering the mastery of foreign languages achieved by the vast majority of undergraduate and even postgraduate students, it seems not only logical but also ethical to advise and train them to work only into their own language. At the same time, however, designers of translator training curricula and syllabi, especially those living in countries whose languages could be described as "minor", such as, for instance, the new EU member states, must take into account the inescapable fact that the national market requires a significant volume of translations from the language of the country into a foreign one, at a time when few native speakers of, let's say, English, French, or German are available for the task, locally as well as internationally. The result is that, in the vast majority of cases, such translations fail to meet even the most basic quality requirements, even when they are made by formally trained translators (the fact that the market is filled with language graduates with no systematic training in professional translation is another unfortunate reality which we shall not discuss here).

One possible remedy is, of course, the practice of working in a team, with the translator seconded by a native speaker of the target language who can carry out a revision of the translated text. This, however, does not happen very often, and even when it does, it sometimes involves native speakers of the target language with no systematic training in translation, offering therefore little guarantee for success. Still, at least in our experience, the close cooperation between author and translator, on the one hand, and the Western editor, on the other, eventually made possible such an undertaking.

The question that we need to answer, however, has to do with the manner in which a training programme may help improve the quality of such translations, especially in light of the fact that both at undergraduate and postgraduate level it is simply impossible to bring the students' level of cultural and linguistic competence in a foreign language to a level comparable to their mastery of mother tongue and culture. In other words, we need to determine what skills and techniques should be given priority in the training of translators in order to improve the quality of their work into a foreign language.

One the one hand, in presenting her methodology for translation, Christiane Nord made it very clear that her model for a translation-oriented source text analysis "should be valid for both directions, i.e. translating into as well as out of the translator's native language" (Nord, 1991: 1–2). Indeed, it could be argued that many of the errors present in the translations made by non-native speakers could be eliminated should the translator take the necessary steps, obtain the brief, identify the translation problems in the source-language text and solve them using the proper tools. However, it is our belief that, when working into a foreign language, certain aspects definitely require a special focus.

Strategies for approaching informative texts

First and foremost, translators must never lose sight of the fact that, to quote the same Nord, what "the translator can do, and should do, is to produce a text that is at least likely to be meaningful to target-culture receivers" (Nord, 1997: 32). What happens in actual practice, however, is that translators confronted with the challenge of working into a foreign language revert to what they believe to be a "safety mode," striving for maximum inclusiveness and implicitly for linguistic equivalence. Thus, they eventually come to "dilute" the core message of the source-language text or render it highly ambiguous, buried under a heap of useless or irrelevant linguistic material.

Example. The following press release was posted in English on the official site of the Romanian government (http://www.guv.ro/engleza/presa/afis-doc.php, accessed on 09.17.2007).

"Statement by Prime Minister about the election of the new patriarch of the Romanian Orthodox Church
I am convinced that through the election of Metropolitan Bishop Daniel as Patriarch, the Romanian Orthodox Church can reaffirm once more its important role as moral landmark, landmark of Romanian conscience.
It can affirm more its role in the important social projects it has undertaken over the last years. I am glad that it has thus succeeded a very smooth passage which was necessary with respect to the election of the new patriarch, although I cannot but express a certain disappointment, seeing the attempts which have been made lately to politicize this important moment, in which the entire political milieu ought to get involved to an even lesser extent."

We see that, in this case, the intelligibility and readability of the text were not compromised by grammatical and lexical errors, but rather by the pursuit of a literal and detailed rendering of the original. Structures like "moral landmark, landmark of Romanian conscience," "it has thus succeeded a very smooth passage which was necessary with respect to the election of the new patriarch," and "in which the entire political milieu ought to get involved to an even lesser extent" seem clumsy and out of place. It may have been preferable to speak about the Church as a provider of moral and spiritual guidance, about the PM's happiness with this prompt and uneventful election of the new patriarch, and about his desire to see less political involvement in such as event.

It is here that Grice's *maxim of manner,* which advocates "clarity, lack of ambiguity, brevity, and orderliness" (quoted in Neubert and Shreve, 1992: 82) becomes highly significant. Also relevant in this context is his *maxim of relation*, which "advises us to render the target text in such a way that the reader may disregard irrelevant detail and recognize those elements which belong to the primary ideational structures" (see Neubert and Shreve, 1992: 79). Of course, any formally trained translator knows that, unless otherwise required by the brief, he or she should pursue a functional equivalence between the source-language text and the target-language text, rather than a linguistic equivalence between the two. Translation students must be told, however, that when working into a foreign language the imperatives of clarity and economy of means must be given an importance at least equal to that of functional equivalence. In point of fact, considering the unavoidable loss incurred in the case of L1 to L2 translations, the "safety mode" is not a literal rendering of the source-language text, but a clear, simple, straightforward rendering of its core message. Thus, according to Reiss, "If a topic and its discussion (i.e., its essential substance) are fully represented in a translation, the translation must be considered satisfactory" (Reiss, 2000a: 29).

A significant body of specialized literature is available today in order to persuade translation students of the fact that the loss of certain elements in translation is less of a disaster than the production of a complex, ambiguous, and ultimately unintelligible message. As Nida himself pointed out, "Messages differ primarily in the degree to which content or form is the dominant consideration… in some messages the content is of primary consideration, and in others the form must be given a higher priority" (Nida, 2000: 127). Nida's observations were taken one step further by Reiss, who classified texts as *informative* (used in the communication of content), *expressive* (used in the communication of artistically organized content), and *operative* (used in the communication of content with a persuasive character) (Reiss, 2000b: 163). In what concerns their translation into a language other than the translator's mother tongue, we realize that the expressive (e.g., literary texts) and the operative texts are by far more challenging, requiring, by virtue of their specificity, a recourse to the full expressive capabilities of the target language and a complete understanding of the target culture. As such, unless the translator happens to be perfectly bilingual, such texts should be handled only by native speakers of the target language.

The situation is somewhat different for the category of informative texts. According to the same Reiss, the category would include "press releases and comments, news reports, commercial correspondence, inventories of merchandise, operating instructions, directions for use, patent specifications, treaties, official documents, educational works, non-fiction books of all sorts, essays, treatises, reports, theses, and specialized literature in the humanities, the natural sciences, and other technical fields" (Reiss, 2000a: 27). The list above indicates the fact that the vast majority of texts currently offered for translation into a foreign language on the national market actually fall into the category of informative texts and, we believe, could be translated by source-language translators in the absence of professionals having the target language as their mother tongue. With a proper translation brief, through a recourse to a corpus of parallel texts, to experts, and to terminological databases and glossaries, most of the texts listed above—especially those belonging to varieties (see Reiss, 2000b: 165) having consecrated forms in most cultures and languages—could be satisfactorily translated into the target language even by non-native speakers. Somewhat more challenging and requiring the use of techniques that seemingly run counter to the "fidelity imperative" are the text varieties featured towards the end of Reiss's list, such as the non-fiction books and the specialized literature in the humanities, the natural sciences, and in other fields. While very few texts can be described as purely informative, expressive, or operative, it is with these latter varieties of informative texts that we usually see a marked degree of contamination. The presence of stylistic elements in their structure renders more difficult the task of the translator, especially, we believe, when the translator is not working into his or her mother tongue. These stylistic elements are very often responsible for the eventual lack of clarity and excessive complexity and verbosity of such translations. Discussing this very aspect, Reiss argued that "If, for instance, elements of poetic language are used when content is conveyed (informative type)… the translation ought to strive for an analogously poetic form for those elements. However, if this is not possible in TL without loss of the unity of content and artistic form, then the retention of content is dominant in informative texts and is to be preferred to the maintenance of an artistic form" (Reiss, 2000b: 169).

Even if Reiss obviously does not discuss here the case of L1–L2 translation, her observations are of considerable relevance particularly when it comes to training students for this type of translations. On the one hand, we see that in the translation of informative texts, unity of content should take precedence over all other considerations (unless otherwise required by the translation brief). Second, it could be argued that when working into a language other than their mother tongue, translators—unless truly confident that they are capable of handling stylistic material in the target language—should programmatically seek concision and clarity of message at the expense of style. Our experience of Romanian into English translations—chiefly specialized literature in the humanities and non-fiction books—has shown that more often than not the unacceptable elements in a translation were precisely those that did not belong there in the first place.

Example. Fragment from a statement made by the Romanian Prime Minister and posted on the official site of the Romanian government (http://www.guv.ro/engleza/presa/afis-doc.php, accessed on 11.12.2007, italics ours).

> "It is an ambitious project which we want to start and hope to be able to materialize next year so that all pupils up to high school – we might extend this program for the high school too – to have a computer to help them in the educational process, to *open them new horizons towards knowledge. Since today, computer has become a wonder of technology; it has become a working instrument in all the spheres of social economic activities.* We want to allow them access to internet, communication because we are convinced that this shall represent an important advantage not only in today's educational process but also in their future training. I promise you that we shall make efforts for this program to materialize and thus to help boosting the educational process and the Romanian school."

By and large, we could say that usually the elements that were worst translated may have been easily dispensed with form the very beginning, or replaced by a clearer and simpler paraphrase. In the case of scientific texts, the situation is further worsened by the fact that the Romanian scientific style favours verbose structures and a complex syntax, either by convention or in the belief that a simple, straightforward statement of ideas might somehow be interpreted as a sign of intellectual simplicity. In English, however, the situation is the precise opposite. In point of fact, Neubert and Shreve mentioned that "Source texts may be unclear, ambiguous, verbose, and poorly organized," asking the question whether the translator should or should not correct such failings (Neubert and Shreve, 1992: 83). The answer, obviously, has to do with the priorities set by the translation brief and with the type of text under discussion. For informative texts of the kinds discussed above, and especially when they are translated into a language different from the translator's mother tongue, we believe that clarity and economy of means are advisable if not downright mandatory, and should therefore be the object of distinct sessions in the training of translators.

There is just one caveat which needs to be mentioned here. Speaking of "natural" translations, translations that read easily in the target language, Nida pointed out that some translators "fall into the error of making a relatively straightforward message in the source language sound like a complicated legal document in the receptor language by trying too hard to be completely unambiguous" (Nida, 2000: 138). Indeed, while "explaining out" in the target language a piece of informative material that was rather tortuously or ambiguously expressed in the source language is definitely a recommended strategy, one must not disregard the fact that economy of means is more important for the clarity of a demonstration than a minute and detailed presentation of all of its components.

Cultural adaptation and presuppositions

So far, we have seen that Reiss's classification of texts can be particularly relevant in the special case of L1–L2 translations, potentially eliminating many of the problems facing professionals in the translation of informative texts. Another element that must be taken into account in the particular context of the present study has to do with a different set of translation competences and strategies, namely, the cultural ones. It is a well-known fact that one fundamental requirement for target texts is that they should be culturally functional in the target-language environment. As Nord stated quite clearly, “By means of a comprehensive model of text analysis which takes into account intratextual as well as extratextual factors the translator can establish the ‘function-in-culture’ of a source text. He then compares this with the (prospective) function-in-culture of the target text required by the initiator, identifying and isolating those ST elements which have to be preserved or adapted in translation” (Nord, 1991: 21). Indeed, as the same Nord also pointed out, the constant “adjustment or ‘adaptation’ of the source text to target-culture standards is a procedure that is part of the daily routine of every professional translator” (Nord, 1991: 25). Needless to say, when the translator works into a foreign language, the difficulty of source-language text adaptation to target-culture standards increases considerably, and any successful attempt at such a translation requires not only good knowledge of the target culture, but also a detailed brief and a systematic recourse to parallel texts, or even to an expert which is a native of the target culture.

As the matter of individual cultural competences is relative and implicitly rather elusive, and because the techniques and the tools which must be employed by translators in the process of cultural adaptation have been discussed extensively in the literature (see, for instance, Nord 1991), we shall not examine them in the present study. However, one particular aspect related to this issue has to be highlighted here. On the one hand, we know that, when working into a language other than the translator’s mother tongue, it is more difficult to come up with the right assumptions about the particular and the general target-culture conditions, about the needs, the expectations, and the previous knowledge of the intended target-culture readership. On the other hand—and this is more directly relevant for the purposes of this investigation—the fact that the translator is a native of the source culture can paradoxically complicate his or her analysis of the source-language text, instead of facilitating it. We know that any text originally intended for a source-culture readership (and even texts produced in the source language but with an intended target-language readership!) will unavoidably contain a number of presuppositions. Manifest at an intratextual level, these presuppositions were described by Nord as elements “implicitly assumed by the speaker, who takes it for granted that this will also be the case with the listener” (Nord, 1991: 95). To compensate for them, Nord suggested a recourse to strategies of “expansion” or “reduction” (1991: 98), namely, the inclusion of additional explanatory material needed by the target-language reader or the elimination of information needed by original source-language text recipients but all too familiar to prospective target-language readers.

When it comes to working out of the translator's mother tongue, it is implicitly assumed that the decoding of the source-language text is less of a challenging task, because the translator is the product of the same culture as the intended source-language text receivers. However, additional caution and special attention are required of the translator in the process of source-language text decoding, precisely because of the presence of these presuppositions. When analysing for the purposes of translation a foreign-language text, the translator will more easily identify these presuppositions, for the simple reason that he or she does not share them, being the product of a different culture. The situation is reversed in the case of L1–L2 translation, when the translators belong to the culture of the source-language text and therefore share all the presuppositions of the original author. In this case, translators can be easily lured into a sense of false security, translating the text as it is and failing to even identify the elements in question as translation problems. Special attention should be given to this aspect in the training of future translators in order to eliminate such errors from the translated texts. To give a simple example, language students are systematically told that proper names are not translated. Secure in this knowledge, they fail to see them as a potential problem and leave them as they are whenever they have to translate a text into a foreign language, in total disregard of the fact that the name of an illustrious personality in the source culture could mean little or nothing to a target-language reader. It should be made clear to translation students that they must not only revise the translated text with the eye of a "pure" target-language customer, but also that they must keep the target-language persona present even during the decoding and analysis of the source-language text. Thus, when translating for a US publisher a book on the cultural and political situation in interwar Romania (Petreu, Marta. *An Infamous Past. E. M. Cioran and the Rise of fascism in Romania*. Chicago: Ivan R. Dee, 2005), we made sure that a text originally written for a highly educated Romanian readership could also be accessible—in keeping with the brief provided by the editor—to the average educated American. In close cooperation with the author, hundreds of explanatory elements were inserted in order to compensate for the large number of presuppositions identified by the translator as potentially not shared by the intended target readership. Despite this effort, one of the notes made by the editor on the draft translation was a "Who is he?" written beside the name of Lucian Blaga, one of the greatest Romanian philosophers of all time. This goes to show that one is never cautious enough when it comes to compensating for cultural presuppositions, and that the task becomes all the more difficult when the translator belongs to the same culture as the author of the source-language text.

Another element, also pertaining to situationality—broadly understood as "the location of a text in a discrete sociocultural context in a real time and place" (Neubert and Shreve, 1992: 85)—, is seemingly minor and therefore it is often disregarded by translators who are not native speakers of English but nevertheless translate into that language. The element in question essentially has to do with the place of text reception. While Australian, Canadian, and Irish readers may be tolerant of a translator's choice in favour of one or another variety or English, it would be preferable to discriminate between US and UK spelling and vocabulary when working for one or the other of these language communities. Luckily, the spellcheckers accompanying the word-processing software can help the translators in this respect, but experience shows that unless highlighted during their training, this aspect is often disregarded.

Other intratextual elements

As a general rule, language students, translation students, and even professional translators privilege bilingual dictionaries when it comes to their choice of translation tools. Especially when called upon to translate into a foreign language, this inordinate reliance on bilingual dictionaries can lead to a number of errors, with many words seemingly out of place in the context. Nord herself was critical of dictionaries as a translation tool, pointing out that they imply the existence of "ordinary" equivalents in the target language for the linguistic and/or cultural units present in the source-language text, while nothing could be farther from the truth (Nord, 1991: 25). Few bilingual dictionaries provide the wide range of contexts in which a word can function, and therefore they are usable only if accompanied by a comprehensive explanatory dictionary of the target language. All in all, students must be told that first and foremost they should carefully decide whether the word in question truly needs to be translated or not, keeping in mind that a clear paraphrase rendering the meaning of the original fragment is always preferable to the risk of structuring the text around a word previously unknown to them. Then, they must learn that extra caution is advisable in the use of bilingual dictionaries, and that these should come after monolingual dictionaries, glossaries, terminological databases and even parallel texts when it comes to a hierarchy of translation tools, especially when one is translating from one's own mother tongue (sadly enough, this is the situation in which they are most frequently used, given the obvious limitations one faces when it comes to the vocabulary of a foreign language).

In what concerns sentence structure, translation students should be told that, as we have seen before, simplicity is advisable when working, for instance, from Romanian (L1) into English (L2). As a general rule, English favours shorter, clearer sentences, especially in informative texts. As this is hardly ever the case with similar Romanian texts, students must develop the skill of breaking the message into smaller, less ambiguous units, and of resorting to strategies such as paraphrasing or fronting in order to simplify sentence structure and make the message more clear. While the systematic recourse to simple subject-verb-object in the spirit of the English language may be seen as damaging to the style of the target-language text and leading to a loss of its "literary" qualities, it remains advisable when the translator is not a native speaker of English, in light of the aforementioned priorities identified in the translation of informative texts. Thus, paraphrasing and even intralingual translations can be a valuable exercise for translation students, even when the focus is not exclusively placed on the translation of mother tongue texts into a foreign language.

Conclusions

In conclusion, we can say that—despite the differences between the levels of mother tongue and foreign language proficiency, manifest with most translation students, and despite the possible objections that it is unethical to train people for a task that cannot be carried out at a truly professional level—translation from one's mother tongue and into a foreign language may find a place in the translation students' curriculum.

On the one hand, such exercises are intrinsically valuable, being likely to help develop the future translators' skills when it comes to paraphrasing, reformulation, simplification, and to rendering a clear and unambiguous message. The importance of such strategies is more easily highlighted when one is faced with the challenge of working out of one's mother tongue, and the outcome of such exercises could only be a development of the general translation skills, regardless of the direction in which the translation is being made.

Secondly, we have seen that the national market itself forces translators to work into a foreign language, and therefore the ethical issue of training students for quality professional work becomes one of limiting one's losses. Thus, while no translator training programme could place dominant focus on the development of linguistic and cultural competences in the foreign language with a view to producing perfect bilinguals, some improvement could nevertheless be achieved in L1–L2 translations if clarity and lack of ambiguity are programmatically pursued in the translation of informative texts at the expense of style. Also significant is the additional attention paid to the identification of cultural presuppositions in the source-language text and their handling though a recourse to the strategies of expansion or reduction. Finally, considerable improvement could be achieved if students become more cautious in the use of dictionaries and prefer instead to rephrase the message in a clear fashion, drawing on the resources of their own foreign language vocabulary.

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UNE DIDACTIQUE DE LA CRÉATIVITÉ EN TRADUCTION COMME «*PROBLEM SOLVING ACTIVITY*»

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ABSTRACT. With the help of ethnomethodological conversation analysis we show how students are able to acquire strategies for creative solutions to translation problems in which creativity is demystified and considered as a "problem solving activity" in the sense of Guilford. The key to their problem solving is provided y the results of recent research in cognitive science, that is relevant to the translator and with which they have been familiarized during the course.

Keywords: translation methodology, translation and creativity, cognitivism and translation, Thinking Aloud Protocols et traduction.

L'enseignement de la créativité, constitue-t-il un besoin ?

Pour répondre à cette question nous avons – comme le requiert toute didactique qui se respecte – commencé par une analyse des besoins, en nous basant sur les méthodes en usage dans l'analyse conversationnelle ethnométhodologique (cf. Bălăcescu/Stefanink 2002a, Stefanink 1995, 2000). Placés devant un texte à traduire, nos informateurs avaient pour tâche d'arriver à une version commune d'un texte en langue cible (désormais LC). Ils devaient en quelque sorte «négocier» une version commune. Cette négociation était enregistrée, transcrite et analysée.

Cette analyse a révélé un aspect qui est escamoté dans le travail individuel: les vrais problèmes résident dans la recherche de solutions créatives à des problèmes posés, en premier lieu, par des différences d'ordre culturel. Alors que les problèmes linguistiques pouvaient être résolus par la consultation de dictionnaires ou des connaissances grammaticales, les vrais problèmes apparaissaient lorsqu'il s'agissait de sensibilités culturelles, souvent différentes selon les membres du sous-groupe de traducteurs, encore plus évidentes d'ailleurs lorsque les traductions des différents sous-groupes étaient confrontées en séance plénière. Les solutions créatives différentes étaient dues aux différences dans la structuration des réseaux associatifs à la base de ces solutions créatives. Chez les traducteurs «non avertis», c'est à dire sans une réflexion théorique sur la créativité en traduction, ceci a mené à des condamnations mutuelles qui ont fini par entraver

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toute solution créative pour en rester à une solution plate, proche du dictionnaire, auquel on attribuait une fonction légitimatrice (cf. Stefanink 2000).
Pour ceux qui croiraient encore que cette créativité n'est liée qu'au luxe des traductions littéraires, quantité négligeable pour le traducteur professionnel, nous nous permettons de citer un extrait du dernier mèl que nous avons reçu à propos de nos articles sur la créativité en traduction publiés dans *META*. Il s'agit d'une traductrice libanaise, qui traduit du français et de l'anglais pour l'agence France-Presse de Nicosie et qui a entrepris une thèse de doctorat sous la direction de Henri Awaiss sur la créativité dans les textes médiatiques:

> «Je me permets de vous demander votre avis en ce qui concerne mon avant-projet que je dois présenter en mars prochain, et qui porte justement sur la créativité. Il s'agit de démontrer que la créativité n'est pas le monopole du traducteur littéraire ou poétique; que les textes qui circulent dans les médias, notamment dans la presse écrite, ne sont pas des textes "plats" comme il est commun de dire (et de ce fait faciles à traduire), et que le traducteur qui travaille au sein des médias a recours à différents niveaux de créativité» (Rana Moussaoui, mèl du 28.12.2006).

Il faut donc «avertir» les apprenants traducteurs! C'est à dire qu'il faut leur fournir une approche théorique qui intègre l'aspect créatif et les conséquences qui en découlent pour le didacticien. C'est pourquoi une position comme celle de Gerzymisch-Arbogast/Mudersbach (1998:16) qui reconnaît certes l'importance de l'intuition et de la créativité en traduction, mais l'exclut de ses réflexions «parce qu'elle se situe hors de toute étude systématique» nous paraît inadmissible. Elle conduit notamment nos deux auteurs à une dissection du texte, contraire à toute pratique réelle, afin de trouver LE sens du texte à traduire. Ceci dans le cadre d'un programme de recherches destiné à fournir les bases scientifiques d'un enseignement de la traduction à caractère «scientifique»!

La réticence à traiter de la créativité en traduction vient donc manifestement de l'incapacité dans laquelle se croit le théoricien de saisir le phénomène. Les théoriciens de la créativité en général ne lui sont pas d'un grand secours, puisque, eux aussi, dans leur grande majorité se plaisent à évoquer le caractère insaisissable de la créativité. Pourtant certaines approches semblent offrir au traductologue des pistes de recherche susceptibles de faire reculer les limites du «mystère» et du «hasard». Ce sont, d'une part, une conception de la créativité comme «*problem solving activity*» (Guilford 1975) et, d'autre part, l'approche associationniste de certains cognitivistes comme Mednick 1962, Schank 1985, Lakoff 1987 ou encore Lakoff et Johnson (1980). Ces chercheurs nous montrent, en effet, que la créativité est un phénomène naturel, conditionné par les réseaux associatifs qui structurent notre cerveau et à travers lesquels nous percevons la réalité et, par conséquent, aussi le texte à traduire. Leurs recherches sont confirmées par celle des neurophysiologues qui, eux, nous montrent comment des expériences récurrentes finissent par créer des voies neuronales privilégiées (engrammes) à travers lesquelles sont véhiculées des expériences faisant partie d'une même catégorie, le tout constituant un réseau engrammatique à travers lequel nous filtrons toute nouvelle expérience. Etant donné que les expériences récurrentes varient au gré des cultures, la tâche du traducteur sera de trouver en langue cible (LC) les éléments linguistiques susceptibles de reproduire les associations du texte source sur fond de réseau associatif de la LC.

Le problème est que lorsque les étudiants n'ont pas été formés à résoudre les problèmes de traduction par des solutions créatives, ils abandonnent très vite leurs solutions créatives, à la moindre remise en question par ceux que Douglas Robinson (1995) appelle les «*uncomprehending*». Aussi avons-nous éclairé nos étudiants sur les bases cognitives de la créativité en traduction, dans le but de leur donner le courage de leurs solutions créatives, en leur montrant que leurs solutions créatives étaient légitimées par les recherches de cognitivistes sur la structure et le fonctionnement du cerveau humain. De même nous leur avons enseigné à rendre leurs traductions «*intersubjektiv nachvollziehbar*» (cf. Stefanink 1997), c'est-à-dire intersubjectivement plausibles.

Préparés de la sorte, les étudiants ont été en mesure d'acquérir des comportements traduisants de nature créative – et **c'est sur les comportements (!) qu'un enseignement de la traduction doit agir** avant tout et non pas se contenter de transmettre des «techniques» - qu'ils ont adoptés également pour résoudre les problèmes d'ordre culturel posés ultérieurement dans d'autres textes, comme nous le montrent les exemples de traduction créative suivants.

Le courage de la créativité grâce à la connaissance du processus cognititif

Cet exemple montre comment un groupe d'étudiants, qui a été initié aux résultats des recherches cognitivistes ainsi qu'à leur apport à la traductologie, a trouvé des solutions créatives à des problèmes impossibles à résoudre par la pensée «convergente», d'ordre analytique.

Le corpus «Marianne»

Si la France n'était pas Femme, comment pourrait-on officiellement lui annoncer qu'elle est devenue Veuve, comme l'a fait un matin le nouveau Président de la République?
Imaginons un instant les possibilités de veuvage pour les autres nations.
Sont à éliminer, tout d'abord, tous les pays qui, du fait même de leur sexe, ne sauraient être veuves. Non seulement *veuf* ne fait pas le poids de crêpe, mais il n'engendre pas le même désespoir. Imagine-t-on les Etats-Unis, le Royaume-Uni, le Canada, Le Mexique s'entendre dire qu'ils sont veufs? Voit-on le Pérou veuf? *Rubbish!*, on prend les nations féminines, l'image ne <colle> pas davantage: en annonçant «*L'Allemagne est veuve*» on risque de n'attendrir personne. « *L'U.R.S.S.* est veuve» … ça paraît énorme. La Chine… on n'ose pas y penser. Quant au Royaume-Uni, même en changeant de sexe – je me sens gêné d'émettre cette hypothèse – je ne puis franchement supposer que quelqu'un, même haut placé, puisse annoncer à la Grande-Bretagne qu'elle est Veuve. Miss Britannia est pour le monde entier

une célibataire endurcie qui n’a jamais eu, à notre connaissance, d’autres liaisons que maritimes. Il y a au surplus dans le mot même de *veuve* une tendresse tout à fait étrangère au caractère inflexible et à la nature coriace de notre image de marque. Sans parler du volume de voiles qui s’accorderait mal avec la sobriété du deuil anglican.

(Daninos : Les Nouveaux Carnets du Major Thompson, pp. 16-17)

La difficulté de ce texte, dont l’humour est basé sur les différences de genre grammatical des noms de pays, réside dans le fait que ces différences ne sont pas les mêmes dans d’autres langues et que le traducteur doit compenser ce manque de parallélisme. Elle se présente dès les premiers mots, que nos informateurs ont traduit par : «*Wenn Frankreich nicht Marianne wäre…*» (Si la France n’était pas Marianne….), une solution créative dont nous allons suivre le cheminement, en analysant les comportements qui y ont contribué.

La sensibilité au problème

Dans la conception Guilfordienne de la créativité, comme «*problem solving activity*», une des premières qualités de l’individu créatif est, la sensibilité au problème à résoudre: «***sensitivity to problems***» (Guilford 1975). Dans la tradition herméneutique allemande la créativité est intimement liée au terme de «***Achtsamkeit***», que Gadamer a emprunté à Heidegger et que les chercheurs en créativité comme Brodbeck (1999: 58-67) ont placé au centre de leurs réflexions[1]. Les informateurs de notre Corpus *Marianne* font preuve de cette sensibilité au problème, dont ils prennent conscience dans les termes suivants[2] :

> Das ist ja die entscheidende Stelle: im Deutschen ist das mit dem Geschlecht nicht so (*c’est là le passage décisif: en allemand c’est pas là même chose avec le genre*» (lignes 86-87)

Un élément de la «*Skopostheorie*» : la prise en considération du récepteur du texte

Cette prise de conscience est suivie d’une première proposition de solution, introduire «messieurs» et «mesdames» : *il faut introduire quelque chose : Messieurs, Dames* (92), qui est suivie d’une précision plus détaillée du problème – «*tu peux introduire Messieurs, Dames, mais il faut quelque chose qui établisse un rapport*

[1] „*Achtsamkeit*“ est traduit par „attention“dans les dictionnaires. Mais à la différence de «*Aufmerksamkeit*» que les dictionnaires traduisent également par «attention», *Achtsamkeit* implique la participation de l’être entier. Stolze 2003 parle de la «*Leibhaftigkeit*» (‘corporalité’ rend mal le côté physique palpable auquel fait penser le mot allemand, c’est-à-dire la participation du traducteur avec tout son être), *Aufmerksamkeit* étant réservé pour une attitude liée à l’intellect.

[2] Je traduis les données conversationnelles, la discussion a été menée en allemand. Les chiffres qui suivent les citations, se réfèrent aux lignes du corpus.

avec l'image des pays») (93-94) - avec prise en considération du récepteur en langue cible :

> der deutsche Leser […] muss das mit den Ländern verbinden können und nachvollziehen können, warum das eine Frau ist und das andere keine Frau ist (le lecteur allemand doit pouvoir établir un rapport avec les pays et comprendre pourquoi ça c'est une femme et ça ce n'en est pas une) (97-99)

Suit une longue discussion sur le statut du lecteur potentiel de ce texte, que certains voient comme un «*Durchschnittsleser*» (lecteur moyen) (136), alors que d'autres, plus circonstanciés, se détachent du cliché du lecteur moyen et y voient «*irgendein intellektueller Sack*» (un quelconque intellectuel) (138). C'est cette hypothèse d'un lecteur d'un certain niveau intellectuel, qui suggère d'introduire, en français dans le texte allemand, «*La Grande Nation*», qui est effectivement un cliché phraséologique que les Allemands d'un certain niveau culturel s'accordent pour être représentatif des associations avec la France (avec un soupçon d'ironie amusée dans la voix). Proposition écartée une fois de plus, probablement par manque de cohérence avec l'isotopie de l'antropomorphisation qui traverse le texte.

Un autre élément de la «*Skopostheorie*» : la prise en considération de la typologie des textes

Lorsque l'inf.3 (les inf. 3 et 4 sont moins créatifs que 1 et 2 et sont loin d'avoir assimilé aussi bien que 1 et 2 le contenu de l'input théorique) propose d'expliquer entre parenthèses qu'en français le mot *France*, à la différence de l'allemand *Frankreich* a le genre féminin, l'inf. 1 lui répond

> «du kannst aber nicht in so einem humoristischen Text so was in Klammern schreiben, das wäre gar nicht lustig…» (mais tu ne peux pas, dans un texte humoristique, mettre quelque chose de ce genre entre parenthèses, ce serait pas drôle…) (106-108)

Nihil ex nihilo!

Eduquer à la créativité, c'est faire prendre conscience aux apprenants que la solution créative à laquelle ils sont parvenus n'est pas due à leur imagination vagabonde, qui les aurait amenés à «trahir» le texte, mais à une empathie intime avec le texte que l'herméneute Gadamer a appelée «*Horizontverschmelzung*» (la fusion des horizons), terme que les cognitivistes ont démystifié en nous faisant entrevoir à quel degré notre compréhension d'un texte est effectivement le résultat d'une interaction entre des *processus top down* et des *processus bottom up*, les premiers étant liés à notre vécu et à la structuration engrammatique de notre cerveau qui en résulte et qui conditionne notre compréhension, les seconds faisant partie de ce que Lederer (1994) appelle le «bagage cognitif». Du point de vue du processus *bottom up* la compréhension du texte est une **démarche concentrique, fondée sur les structures isotopiques du texte**. C'est lorsqu'il aura compris cette vérité fondamentale et la relation entre ces processus *bottom up* et *top down* que le traducteur ne se sentira plus comme un traître quand ils s'éloigne des mots (! et pas du sens!) du texte et aura le courage de sa créativité.

Dans notre cas précis il faut faire comprendre à nos traducteurs que s'ils ont choisi Marianne et non pas *la République Française* ou *La grande Nation* – ce qui aurait également été une solution au problème du genre grammatical posé dans ce texte, solutions auxquelles ils ont pensé et qu'ils ont rejetées – c'est que le texte est traversé par une isotopie de l'antropomorphisation qui soumet le processus de compréhension à des contraintes sémantiques. Les supports de cette isotopie sont des mots comme *veuve*, *attendrir,* (on n'attendrit pas une république, qui est quelque chose d'abstrait, mais on attendrit *Marianne*), *tendresse, sexe* (et pas genre grammatical), *caractère,* etc. pour trouver leur point culminant dans *Miss Britannia*.

Lorsque, au cours de leurs débats ils utiliseront, un peu plus tard, le mot «*stimmig*» (cohérent)

- *aber erst mal müssen wir doch prinzipiell das Geschlechtsproblem lösen es muss alles*
  stimmig werden (mais avant tout nous devons résoudre le problème fondamental du genre, il faut que tout soit cohérent) – (160-162)

ils montrent qu'ils sont bien conscients du problème et des critères textuels à observer pour le résoudre. Cette conscience vient de l'input théorique dont ils ont bénéficié tout au long des séances de traduction qui ont précédé la traduction de ce texte; elle réduit à néant toutes les objections de ceux qui prétendent que la théorie ne sert à rien et qu'on ne peut enseigner la créativité, qu'ils considèrent comme quelque chose de mystérieux. Ceci ne veut pas dire qu'on ne peut arriver à cette solution spontanément, sans enseignement théorique, mais c'est ensuite que le problème se pose. Les chercheurs en créativité savent qu'après les phases de préparation, d'incubation et d'illumination vient la phase d'évaluation du produit créatif. Et c'est là que les informateurs flanchent à la moindre esquisse de critique et reprennent leurs billes pour s'en tenir à une stratégie du *playing it safe.* S'ils le font, c'est qu'on ne leur avait pas donné – contrairement aux informateurs du groupe *Marianne* - les «armes» nécessaires pour légitimer leurs solutions créatives, autant face à eux-mêmes que face à autrui. Ils sont «*désarmés*» face à leur créativité, comme le dit explicitement Thiers (2003:362), dans son auto-témoignage.

La méthode : sur le mode du jeu

La conscience de leurs démarches que nos informateurs ont acquise par leur input théorique les amène à utiliser consciemment une stratégie du jeu :

> Dann müssen wir es wie ein Spiel machen: hier Marianne und unten Uncle Sam oder so was (alors il faut faire comme si c'était un jeu: ici Marianne et plus bas Uncle Sam, ou quelque chose comme ça) (146-147)

et, plus bas:

> Wir müssen das Spiel so weiterführen (il faut continuer le jeu comme ça) (171)

et encore:

> Mit der Marianne, mit solchen Sachen, man spielt schon mit den Bildern, die man von diesen Ländern hat (avec Marianne et des choses comme ça, il est vrai qu'on joue avec les images qu'on a de ces pays) (225-226)

là encore, il s'agit d'une des stratégies qui ont fait l'objet de leur input théorique, stratégie recommandée par des chercheurs en créativité, comme de Bono, dont le titre du livre *Lateral Thinking* a été traduit en allemand par *Spielerisches Denken* (= pensée ludique).

Un critère fondamental : la «*Stimmigkeit*»

Et c'est ainsi sur le mode du jeu – les nombreux rires qui viennent interrompre leur discussion en font foi – que nos informateurs trouveront *Germania* pour l'Allemagne, après avoir, là encore, procédé à un choix très conscient par rapport à la solution également envisagée de *la République fédérale d'Allemagne* (179), toujours dans l'optique du critère de la cohérence du texte (*stimmig*). Le monologue dans lequel se lance l'inf.1, emporté par sa créativité, montre comment il est conscient de la cohérence du texte comme élément à prendre en considération, se référant, explicitement, d'une part, à l'existence de *Miss Britannia*, comme élément du processus *bottom up* dans le texte et, d'autre part, à l'élément *Marianne*, introduit par un processus *top down*, conditionné par la présence de *Miss Britannia:*

> Es muss alles stimmig werden. Ja, deswegen wird es gehen mit der Germania, wenn wir hier die Marianne einführen; die ist ja das Gegenstück… Und im Prinzip ist das auch nicht schlecht, weil er führt die Miss Britannia an: Dieselbe Schiene. Super, das haben wir schon mal geklärt. (Tout doit être cohérent. Oui, c'est pourquoi cela va marcher avec la Germania, si on introduit ici Marianne; elle est en fait la contrepartie… Et en principe c'est pas mauvais parce qu'il mentionne Miss Britannia: le même principe. Super, voilà une chose de réglée) (161-168).

Quelle légitimation, par la pratique, du terme Gadamérien (à qui nous attribuons une valeur surtout heuristique) de «*Horizontverschmelzung*» (fusion des horizons) !

N.b.: il faut comprendre «*stimmig*»[3] (cohérent) ici comme un terme introduit par Stolze (1992) dans l'approche herméneutique en traductologie en tant que critère principal à respecter lors d'une traduction. Les étudiants ont été familiarisés avec ce terme au cours de leur préparation; c'est donc en connaissance de cause qu'ils l'utilisent ici comme critère primordial à respecter dans leur traduction.

Un des éléments du jeu : «fluency of thinking»

Un des éléments de ce jeu qui mène à la solution créative est, selon les chercheurs en créativité, la fluidité de la pensée («*fluency of thinking*» Guilford 1975). Le fait que nos informateurs travaillent en groupe favorise évidemment cette fluidité et les amène à plusieurs séances de ***brainstorming*** spontanées au cours desquelles fusent les visualisations le plus saugrenues, mais aussi des solutions finalement adoptées, ainsi ils aboutissent au «*bûcheron canadien*», en élargissant consciemment, leur visualisation de la «*scene*» (au sens Fillmorien du terme) Canada qui leur avait d'abord suggéré l'image de la feuille d'érable.

Un autre élément du jeu: la concrétisation des éléments de la «*scene*» visualisée

L'objet de leur «pensée fluide» est très souvent une concrétisation de certains éléments de la «*scene*» visualisée, ceci dans le but de se rassurer sur la pertinence de la solution trouvée, en lui fournissant des assises dans la réalité en faisant appel à son *world knowledge* (le «bagage cognitif» de Lederer 1994). Ainsi l'informatrice 2 veut absolument donner un visage encore plus concret à la France, déjà concrétisée par *Marianne*, en évoquant les noms de *Catherine Deneuve* (139), *Laetitia Casta* (193). Notons que dans les débats on a également mentionné le nom de *Jeanne d'Arc* (193), qui a été écarté par manque de cohérence avec le reste.

Un modèle de comportement créatif réutilisable

La traduction allemande du texte à laquelle sont parvenus nos informateurs, montre comment ils ont appliqué les principes de la concrétisation antropomorphisante aux autres noms de pays qui posaient les problèmes du même type, respectant ainsi, d'une part, dans un processus *bottom up* cet aspect qui est un

[3] Par "stimmig" il ne faut pas comprendre seulement la cohérence dans le cadre du texte, mais conformément à la «fusion des horizons» Gadamérienne, une cohérence avec soi-même. Le traducteur, qui selon Stolze (2003) «traduit ce qu'il comprend» doit traduire de façon à se sentir intérieurement en accord avec sa traduction. C'est dans cette double compréhension du mot que «*stimmig*» doit fonctionner comme critère d'évaluation.

des éléments constitutifs du tissu textuel et interpellant, d'autre part, leur vécu, dans un processus *top down*, tout en étant conscients du respect qu'ils devaient à la cohérence textuelle et à la fonction du texte dans la bonne tradition d'une *Skopostheorie*, issue de la linguistique du texte :

> Wenn Frankreich nicht Marianne wäre, wie könnte man ihr dann offiziell verkünden – so wie es eines Morgens der neue Präsident der Republik getan hat - dass sie Witwe geworden sei?
> Stellen wir uns einmal die Möglichkeiten der Witwenschaft für die anderen Nationen vor.
> Zunächst gilt es all die Länder auszuschließen, die schon allein auf Grund ihres Geschlechts, keine Witwen sein könnten. Nicht nur dass die Witwerschaft nicht das nicht das gleiche Gewicht an Trauerflor auf die Waage bringt, es ruft auch nicht dieselbe Verzweiflung hervor. Stellen wir uns vor es würde dem amerikanischen Cowboy, dem britischen Gentleman, dem kanadischen Holzfäller oder dem mexikanischen Caballero plötzlich erklärt, er sei Witwer geworden? Oder sieht man etwa Peru als Witwer? Unsinn! Nehmen wir die „weiblichen" Nationen, so passt das Bild auch nicht besser: Verkündete man die deutsche Germania sei Witwe geworden, so würde man wohl kaum jemanden zu Tränen rühren. „Die Sowjet Union ist Witwe", scheint ungeheuer. China…man wagt nicht einmal daran zu denken. Und was schließlich das Vereinigte Königreich angeht, selbst wenn man das Geschlecht veränderte – es ist mir bei dieser Hypothese etwas unbehaglich zumute - so kann ich mir beim besten Willen niemanden vorstellen, nicht einmal aus den oberen Etagen, der Großbritannien verkündete, dass es Witwe geworden sei. Miss Britannia ist für die ganze Welt eine eingefleischte Junggesellin, welche, unsers Wissensh, niemals andere Beziehungen gehabt hat, als jene maritimer Natur. Darüber hinaus gibt es im Wort „Witwe"eine gewisse Zärtlichkeit, die dem unbeugsamen Charakter und der hartnäckiger Natur unseres Image gänzlich fremd ist. Ganz zu schweigen von der Masse an Trauerflor, welche sich schlecht mit der Nüchternheit der anglikanischen Trauer vertrüge.
>
> (Il s'agit de la version à laquelle est parvenue le groupe; nous avons laissé les imperfections telles quelles)

Comme les encadrements dans notre texte le montrent pertinemment, le comportement déterminant qui mène à la solution créative est un **élargissement scénique** de la scène visualisée, qui se concrétise linguistiquement par une **extension syntagmatique**.

Le texte «palais»

Dire que la créativité s'apprend veut dire qu'on peut trouver des **modèles de comportement** réutilisables dans d'autres contextes. C'est ce qui est arrivé, par exemple, lorsque, quelques semaines plus tard, nos informateurs ont eu à traduire le texte suivant:

> L'avouerai-je? (hypocrite interrogation qui retarde un aveu tout prêt): lorsque, après avoir passé la journée à traquer le tigre royal en Assam, je me retire sous la tente face à mon plat de riz et à ma feuille de bétel, il m'arrive dans mon sommeil de faire des rêves de palais. Non pas du Taj Mahal ou – que ma Souveraine me pardonne – de Buckingham Palace, mais de rognons de veau aux morilles à la crème, tel que *me* les prépare la Mère Darsonval dans la vallée du Cousin.
> Honni soit qui rognon pense!… Mes papilles soudain s'émeuvent et je suis capable, le lendemain, d'abandonner mon tigre pour rejoindre un petit coq au vin du pays de la grandeur. Le seul pays de l'univers où l'on dise d'un fromage qu'il est sincère, d'un vin qu'il a de la jambe, et qui trouve tout à fait normal de décerner les quatre étoiles d'un général de corps d'armée à un chef cuisinier.
> (Daninos: Les Nouveaux Carnets du Major Thompson, pp. 6-7)

Une des difficultés du texte était la traduction du jeu de mots basé sur le double sens de «*palais*». Après avoir pris **conscience du problème**, ce qui se manifeste dans des phrases comme «*il faut traduire le double sens, en allemand il n'y a rien*», «*il y a deux mots l'un c'est 'Palast'* (c'est-à-dire palais au sens de château) *et l'autre c'est 'Gaumen'* (palais en tant que partie de la bouche)», ils arrivent à la conclusion suivante: «*il faut trouver quelque chose qui associe en même temps 'Paläste'* (plur. de Palast) *et 'königliches Essen'*(repas royal)». C'est-à-dire que, de même que dans l'exemple précédent, ils arrivent par un enchaînement associatif (le «*chaining*» de Lakoff), à partir de *Gaumen* à un **élargissement de la *scene* visualisée**, puis procèdent à un changement de focalisation (selon le *figure/ground alignment* de Langacker) passant, de la visualisation de l'organe, à ce que l'on mange avec cet organe: *königliches Essen* (repas royal). De nouveau cet élargissement de la *scene* visualisée se traduit linguistiquement par une **extension syntagmatique**.

S'ils arrivent au qualificatif de royal, c'est évidemment, là encore sous l'influence du **contexte isotopique** de la splendeur, c'est-à-dire dans un processus *bottom up*. Une fois l'expansion adjectivale «*royal*» trouvée, nos informateurs exploitent de nouveau, comme dans le corpus «Marianne» systématiquement cette trouvaille et se lancent à nouveau dans un ***brainstorming*** incontrôlé, produisant une série de syntagmes, dans lesquels ils laissent libre cours à leurs associations avec «*royal*»: «*mit königlichem Leben*» (vie royale), «*königliches Essen*» (repas royal), «*königlicher Wohnort*» (logement royal), «*königliche Besitztümer*» (possessions royales), etc., ce qui correspond, une fois de plus, à l'une des stratégies, qui selon les chercheurs en créativité doit mener à une solution créative (*fluency of thinking*).

Ne sont-ce pas là des stratégies qu'on peut enseigner?

Ce qui est frappant et ce qui montre que les attitudes qui mènent à des solutions créatives peuvent faire l'objet d'un enseignement et d'un apprentissage, est le fait qu'à un moment nos informateurs font appel à une expérience didactique antérieure:

> War es das letzte Mal hier oder?…. Das war nämlich auch wieder so was, was man nicht übersetzen konnte, das war irgenwie so… (est-ce que c'était ici, la dernière fois?... parce que là aussi il y avait quelque chose qu'on ne pouvait pas traduire,c'était quelque chose comme…)

Ce qui provoque un autre informateur à formuler la démarche stratégique décisive:

> Ja wahrscheinlich müssen wir das Wort Palast schon irgendwie reinbringen, aber das … Wahrscheinlich in so nem … zusammengesetzten Wort dann mit irgendwas … gaumenfreudigen artigem … (oui probablement qu'il faudra bien qu'on introduise le mot palais d'une façon ou d'une autre, mais probablement dans un … mot composé, avec quelque chose qui fasse partie de la nature des choses qui ont bon goût …)

En parlant de «*mot composé*» ils évoquent un exemple de solution créative mentionné dans le cadre du input théorique que nous leur avons donné dans ce cours. Il s'agit de la traduction des paroles du barde Assurancetourix qui, dans le volume d'*Astérix* intitulé *La rose et le glaive*, réagit furieusement à la nouvelle qu'on a engagé une barde pour faire la classe de musique aux enfants du village, en criant qu' «*une barde ça n'existe pas, sinon ce serait une tranche de lard!*», jouant sur la double sémantique du mot «*barde*». Nous leur avions montré, dans un cours précédent, comment la traductrice allemande, exploitant à merveille les possibilités de la formation des mots composés, caractéristiques du génie de la langue allemande, a trouvé une traduction créative avec «*Bardinnen gibt es nicht, höchstens Bardamen!*», jouant sur le statut linguistique de la première syllabe de *Bardinnen*, associé avec un élément du mot composé *Bardamen*, ce qui lui permet de rester fidèle au principe de la «*Wirkungsgleichheit*» (adéquation de l'effet à produire), cher aux théoriciens du skopos.

On peut donc constater que les apprenants ont non seulement été capables de trouver une solution créative pour un élément problématique du premier texte et d'appliquer ensuite cette solution avec cohérence à l'ensemble du texte, mais qu'ils ont réemprunté les voies de disponibilité créative ainsi créés pour résoudre des problèmes dans le texte numéro 2.

Ajoutons que ces voies créatives on été frayées dans un esprit tout à fait conforme aux préceptes des herméneutes et de leur conception d'une «*Horizontverschmelzung*», où les éléments du texte (notre *Miss Britannia*, du texte 1) viennent se fondre dans le contexte associatif du récepteur du texte (*Marianne* pour la France, *Germania* pour l'Allemagne etc.), tout cela dans le respect mutuel d'un équilibre entre processus *bottom up* et processus *top down* .Un phénomène qui vient soutenir les hypothèses sur les «espaces mentaux» et l'«intégration conceptuelle», concepts qui constituent les deux piliers du cadre théorique développé par Fauconnier pour décrire certains aspects du fonctionnement de notre cerveau (cf. Fauconnier/ Turner 2002). Inversement nous pouvons dire que les recherches cognitivistes viennent légitimer les hypothèses (que nous considérons comme étant d'ordre heuristique) des herméneutes.

Et c'est très consciemment que nous utilisons l'image d'une «voie frayée». Les cognitivistes nous apprennent, en effet, que ce sont les expériences répétées qui finissent par frayer des chemins, c'est-à-dire par créer des voies neuronales qui forment la base des structures associatives qui nous permettent d'aboutir à des solutions créatives. Plus nous faisons des expériences du même ordre, plus ces voies déjà frayées – dans un processus qu'on peut rapprocher des catégorisations qui sont à la base de toute compréhension - attirent d'autres expériences du même ordre, qui viennent renforcer ces voies, jusqu'à créer des structures engrammatiques. La façon dont nos informateurs ont résolu le problème du texte numéro 2, montre qu'une voie commençait à être frayée.

Conclusion

Ces exemples nous ont montré à quel point un enseignement théorique cohérent, de nature cognitiviste, fournit une légitimation à la créativité spontanée du traducteur et favorise l'éclosion de celle -ci de façon systématique.

Lorsque le traducteur est conscient du fait que sa créativité commence dès sa perception du texte[4], qui est fonction de son vécu, comme nous l'apprennent les cognitivistes, et que ce vécu, conditionné par sa culture, a structuré son mental en réseaux engrammatiques à travers lequel il perçoit la réalité de façon forcément différente de l'individu qui a vécu dans une autre culture, il se détachera aisément des «maximes de traduction» qui risquent de conditionner ses choix traduisants (comme par ex.: «*trouver un mot qui rende tout*», dans notre corpus conversationnel roumain).

S'il est familiarisé avec la sémantique des «*scenes-and-frames*», il se laissera aisément aller à ses **visualisations**. S'il sait que ces scènes qu'il visualise ont une structure de «*figure/ground alignment*» (Langacker 1987:120ss.) et que les éléments scéniques qui font partie du «*ground*» sont susceptibles de devenir «*figure*» (puisque Langacker nous dit que la relation entre *figure* et *ground* n'est pas établie une fois pour toutes), il se laissera aisément aller à une énumération rapide des éléments scéniques, dont on sait qu'elle constitue une base propice à la créativité (Guilford 1975:40, parle de «***fluency of thinking***»). Et si, finalement, il sait que dans la culture de la langue cible, d'autres éléments scéniques du «*ground*»

[4] Dancette et al. (2007 :116) parlent de «compréhension créative»

peuvent venir jouer rôle de «*figure*», il ne sera plus influencé dans ces choix traduisants par une «maxime de traduction» qui lui dit, à tort, qu'il faut trouver en langue cible «*un mot qui rende le tout du mot en texte source*», mais sera prêt, par exemple, à procéder à un **changement de focalisation** pour trouver une solution créative (pour une présentation détaillée de ces bases théoriques cf. Bălăcescu/ Stefanink 2002b, 2005a,b,c).

Brainstormings, Visualisations, élargissements scéniques, extensions syntagmatiques, changements du focus dans la scène visualisée, etc., ce sont là les outils didactiques que les recherches cognitives mettent au service du didacticien de la traduction!

Les exemples que nous venons de voir montrent comment l'apport cognitiviste vient compléter de façon idéale les éléments plus traditionnels de la linguistique du texte (prise en considération de la fonction du texte mise en évidence par la '*Skopostheorie*', de la typologie des textes, de l'importance de la conscience isotopique, etc., …) pour former un kit didactique cohérent. Ils illustrent de façon convaincante l'introduction d'un input théorique dans la formation du traducteur.

Dans la pratique enseignante cet input théorique se constituera sur la base d'une analyse des besoins, à l'aide de **l'analyse conversationnelle ethnométhodologique**, analyse qui s'effectuera, ensemble avec les participants, sur le corpus de données conversationnelles qu'ils auront fourni. Ensuite, au long des différents textes en voie de traduction, l'enseignant fera réfléchir ses étudiants sur les problèmes à résoudre, à la lumière de ce fonds théorique.

Une remarque pratique: Intérêt du travail en sous-groupes et composition des groupes

L'atmosphère de travail dans un groupe est décontractée et se passe sur le mode du jeu, comme en témoignent nos enregistrements, où les débats sont fréquemment entrecoupés de rires. Ce sont là des éléments constitutifs de toute activité créatrice, selon des chercheurs en créativité comme de Bono. Evidemment le groupe doit être préparé à ce travail. A l'enseignant de créer une atmosphère de confiance, nécessaire à cette atmosphère ludique, en montrant par exemple que toute association peut donner lieu à d'autres, qui finissent par aboutir à une solution créative acceptable au cours d'enchaînements associatifs souvent inattendus (*sensu* Lakoff 1987, qui parle de «*chainings*»).

Ce que nous avons pu remarquer dans nos corpus conversationnels, c'est que le non respect du critère d'homogénéité du groupe, n'a pas l'effet négatif qu'on veut bien lui prêter. Ainsi dans notre corpus «*Marianne*» l'inf.4, qui a du mal à suivre le mouvement créatif des inf.1 et 2, pose des questions, qui obligent l'inf. 1 à prendre conscience de leurs démarches et à formuler les problèmes et les moyens de les résoudre, ce qui entraîne une prise de conscience générale de la macrostratégie à suivre, principe fondamental selon Hönig, à la base de toute stratégie traduisante et indispensable au processus de modélisation qui doit présider à toute opération traduisante. Cette prise de conscience est bénéfique pour l'ensemble du groupe.

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DISCOURSE AWARENESS. RAISING THE TRANSLATORS' AWARENESS OF DISCOURSE-RELEVANT ISSUES.

SILVIA IRIMIEA[*]

ABSTRACT. The present article surveys a few discourse-relevant issues that impact on translations, and, consequently, should be studied by translators. It goes out from discussing older and more recent and daunting approaches to discourse attempting to find a common ground for teaching discourse. It further tackles such issues like: the functional macro-patterning of discourse, discourse elements, relations and signals, variables accounting for discourse, realization of micro- and macro-level discourse coherence. The article points out some effective linguistic devices that ensure the rhetoric of discourse. Finally, other issues like the reader's expectations are exploited both within the broader framework of discourse concepts and within the concept of culturally determined discourse variables, such as scripts and schemas.

Key words: Discourse, functional macro-patterning, coherence, reader's expectations, discourse quality and production

Introduction

The present article is written to encapsulate and at the same time point out a few discourse aspects that bear directly on the translators' ability to work out a reliable text or translation, ie to build on their discourse awareness or competence.

In spite of the amount of research carried out in the area of discourse studies, this branch of linguistics is still under focus and arises many controversies and disputes, just like any other branch of linguistics. Even if the present article neither defies the most recent approaches and attitudes towards discourse, nor augments earlier concepts, it is, nevertheless, aimed at scrutinizing some relevant aspects that, in spite of their relative 'staleness', have proven valid and useful in understanding and using discourse both for translation and creative purposes. Finally, the article is also intended to guard learners of discourse and translation studies against the pitfalls which the translators are prone to if they misuse certain discursive features.

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Perspectives and approaches to discourse

The first aspect to be noted by the translation trainee is *discourse* and what discourse actually is about. The mid and late 90s brought into general attention consistent researches and approaches to discourse worked out by Susanne Eggins (1996), Evelyn Hatch (1992), Teun van Dijk (1997), Jaworsky A. & Coupland N. (1999), Bublitz W. et al.(1999), to mention just a few of the prominent linguists who explored discourse. They followed the mainstream, common sense concepts enunciated by G. Cook (1989), H. Widdowson (1978), Halliday M. and Hasan R. (1989), M. Hoey (1991), M. McCarthy (1991). Some of the 'old-school' representatives like M. Hoey, Widdowson, Teun van Dijk etc have continued to play a leading role in discourse studies, without, however, reforming or breaking away from their previous concepts. Then, the 21 century with its first decade, heralded a new era for discourse studies, one in which linguists or researchers, like Sinclair J.(2004), Toolan M.(2007), started interrogating and challenging some of the once defined and acknowledged concepts, that, at the time, put some order in the dazzling area of discourse.

Discourse has been defined in many ways by linguists. If we looked at the amount of existent definitions, we could assume that practically almost every linguist tried to define it by using more or less intricate definitions, or tried to challenge the present understanding of the concept of *discourse*. Sinclair, for example, in one of his most recent books, *Trust the text* (2004), expresses the need for a model of discourse which is special to discourse, urging linguists alike "to build a model which emphasizes the distinctive features of discourse"(2004:12). He further says that "a special model for discourse will offer an explanation of those features of discourse that are unique to it, or characteristic…or prominent…"(ibid.:12). Supposedly, such an attempt to re-visit the old concept of discourse will be carried out with the assistance of computers, which, according to him, "will tell us more reliably what we already suppose or predict (a kind of 'checking on detail')"(ibid.12). If we turn to other researchers, like Renkema (2004), we shall find a simplified list of characteristics that define discourse. According to him, discourse must have cohesion and coherence, it should be further characterized by intentionality, acceptability, informativeness, situationality and intertextuality.

In spite of the appearance of a coherent development of approaches and attitudes to discourse throughout the past decades, many investigations and writings are deemed to remain isolated contributions and are unknown to the mainstream research community.

Prospection vs. Retrospection

Sinclair(2004), whose views rely on the contribution of cognitive, non-textual linguistics, has explored spoken discourse and its breakdowns (ie move-sequences and adjacency pairs of the type: initiation-response, offer-accept, inform-acknowledge, request-comply etc) and wonders whether the same prospective qualities of spoken discourse based on "how they preclassify what follows"(ibid.:12) could not be applied to written discourse as well. He opinionates that written discourse has been broadly and mainly examined or described by way of 'retrospection', ie looking at cohesion, repetition, reference, reformulation, rather than through *prospection*. Hence, he interrogates the over-use of retrospection for interpreting written discourse. Michael Toolan(2007:277) in his article on Sinclair also poses some rhetorical questions, like: "How much looking back do we do? We talk of pronouns referring back, but what sort of 'going back' is actually done, by the eyes or the mind?". Toolan, in turn, quotes Sinclair, who writes: "Do we actually need all the linguistic detail of backward reference that we find in text description? Text is often described as a long string of sentences…I would like to suggest, as an alternative, that the mot important thing is *what is happening in the current sentence"*. Sinclair further postulates:

> The meaning of any word is got from the state of the discourse and not from where it came from. ...The state of the discourse is identified with the sentence which is currently being processed. No other sentence is presumed to be available. The previous text is part of the immediately previous experience of the reader or listener, and is no different from any other, non-linguistic, experience. It will normally have lost the features which were used to organize the meaning and to shape the text into a unique communicative instrument. (Sinclair, 2004:13)

This comes as a daunting and challenging perspective on text analysis and rules out all former assumptions regarding the importance of text-deciphering instruments like reference systems to text and discourse interpretation.

Toolan (2007:274) points out that there is some "common ground" between Sinclair's new and bold perspective focusing on the 'now-ness' of sign production and processing, and Roy Harris's principle of co-temporality (Harris 1981:157-164).

Sinclair's views outlined in *Trust the Text* (2004) are also grounded on the concept of **expectations**, indeed an old concept shared by most text linguists, and on how **text-progression guides expectations,** an inquiry taken up by Toolan as well and considered from the point of view of the influence exercised by the progression of a literary text on the readers' expectations and their prescience. Toolan (2007:275) argues that expectation "relates directly to those two classic questions of discourse and conversational analytical theory: 'Why this now?' 'What next?' " (2007:275) and suggests that it is "surely closely linked to what Sinclair calls the prospective features of discourse", according to which a "reader develops expectations on the basis of what the text *prospects*" (2007:275). He further quotes Sinclair to his benefit, arguing that "The more attention has been focused on the prospective qualities of discourse the more accurate and powerful the description has become" (Sinclair, 2004:13).

Scott Thurnbury(2005:43), an experienced trainer and writer, whose concerns include discourse analysis, second language acquisition and critical pedagogy, explicates Sinclair's theory in simpler terms:

> "We cannot process the whole text all at once… Therefore, as readers and listeners, we need guidance as to what has gone before and what is yet to come. The immediate sentence has to represent the text *at that moment*." Or, as Sinclair put it, 'The text at any particular time carries with it everything that a competent reader needs in order to understand the current state of the text'".

The theory argues that the text is only the immediate sentence, which either encapsulates the immediately preceding sentence, or sets forth an anticipation of the sentence that follows. This process is called *prospection*. Thus, the whole text, instead of being made up of a string of sentences which are intricately interconnected, turns out to be a series of sentence-length texts, each of which is a total update of the one before (Sinclair, 2004).

After having briefly re-visioned Sinclair's distrust in the relevance of such linguistic devices like cohesion and reference for analyzing discourse, and having looked at what Thornbury considers students should know, I conclude that the simplest and most understandable, or trustful definition of discourse aimed at teaching students is that provided by S. Thornbury (2005), who, very much indebted to Cook, Hoey, McCarthy, Sinclair and Widdowson, postulates that discourse is rather a *process* as opposed to text, which should be regarded or analyzed as a *product.* This distinction is extremely important, since translation and communication students are at a loss whenever they have to clearly determine the difference between *discourse* and *text*. Breeding out his definitions and concepts from the aforementioned linguists, Thornbury turns out to be a skillful teacher of creative and functional writing because of his ability to define concepts in a clear and understandable way for teaching purposes.

Despite the waves created by the new approach to discourse proclaimed by Sinclair in *Trust the text* (2004), it is my belief that students cannot be exposed to such daunting and bold perspectives in the absence of some prior knowledge of discourse or its historical evolution, that might enable them to better understand the challenging linguistic debates.

Then, the need to firmly define and simplify concepts springs out from the need of trainers Europe-wide to 'standardize' language and translation training. EU forums seek, thus, to address the issue and work out strategies that are lucrative and productive for teachers all over Europe. An outcome of these endeavours is a broad instrument called the *Common European Reference Framework for Language Teaching*, which, apart from the general language descriptors recommended for the evaluation of language skills, also includes notions and references to types and functions of both text and discourse. The inclusion of these concepts is necessary, since learners must be adept at the use of oral or written texts, or the production and use of discourse types. It is, therefore, advisable that trainers do reach consensus on the main concepts that are likely to be taught to future communicators and translators. In this respect, I will return to S. Thornbury and recommend his book, *Beyond the Sentence*. *Introducing discourse analysis*, published in 2005, as a reliable, user-friendly book on discourse that reconciles old and more recent theories on text and discourse, and which tries to render them accessible to trainees.

Types of discourse, macro-structures and relationships

The second important step in acquiring discourse expertise is that of identifying the type of discourse that a particular stretch of language aimed at communicating a message belongs to. Perhaps a quick overview of some ways of classifying discourse varieties, that might range from Jakobson's functional approach to discourse, to more recent classification attempts, would help trainees come closer to understanding discourse. It is, nevertheless, noteworthy to point out the emergence of the electronic discourse since the 70s, a computer-mediated communication, which might as well change the communication patterns, and which embraces several discourse types. In addition, talking about internet-chats, messaging, MUD (multi user dimensions) or e-mailing, the use of websites would enhance a more enthusiastic debate on: What is new about this mode of communication? and How much does the channel influence discourse? and other such inquiries.

The third step regarding the study of discourse for communication and translation purposes would be that of understanding the **macro-structure** of a particular discourse type and identifying its elements. The fairest definition of macro-structure was provided by Jan Renkema (2004), who holds the view that macro-structure is the global meaning of discourse, as opposed to *micro-structure*, which accounts for the relations between sentences and sentence segments, and which can be represented by *propositions*. The first are formed using three macro-rules: deletion, generalization rules and construction rules, all of which act on propositions.

For a better understanding of the issue, the most accessible and learner-friendly sources are W. Crombie (1985) and Bhatia (the discourse studies published in the 90s, particularly *Analyzing Genres*, 1993). The quality of these references lies in their capacity to explicate and clearly exemplify the investigated or scrutinized issues. Crombie has devoted a full chapter (Chapter 4) of his book to the functional patterning of discourse, thereby featuring two typical discourse macro-patterns: the PSn and the TRI patterns, and their variations. The advantage offered by Crombie's explanations and examples is that they illustrate the patterns with adequate and apprehensible examples, which can be easily applied to other text or discourse genres. Thornbury (2005) tackles the issue of text organization as well, organizing his approach in a slightly different way. In his case, the issues are dealt with within the broader framework of micro- and macro-level discourse structures.

Another aspect involved in understanding discourse is the kind of *relationships* established between discourse elements, in which respect Crombie (1985) also provides useful examples. The examples or applications are based on the identification of discourse elements and draw further on establishing the semantic and discursive relationships. However, almost a decade later, Mann & Thompson (2004) along with other discourse analysts, going out from the 80s definition that *discourse* is a hierarchical organization of text segments, adopted the *rhetorical structure theory (RST)* analysis which breaks down discourse into minimal units, such as independent clauses. They proposed a set of 20 relations, whose units were classified as either ‘nuclei’ or ‘satellites’. Whimsical as the entire picture of macro-structures and discourse relationships may seem to a novice, an experienced trainer must find the adequate way to acquaint trainees with them.

Coherence and cohesion

After having identified the particular text or discourse type a stretch of language belongs to and the elements that are significant for its cultural and linguistic ‘identity’, other knotty issues that both communicators and translators deal with are: **cohesion** and **coherence** and their significance for text translation. Both aspects were explored and described by linguists (text linguists, discourse experts, genre researchers and others alike). Even if the two concepts have been challenged by more recent linguists, including Sinclair, who claimed, as aforementioned, that such devices are obsolete and that the only text or discourse-determining element is the immediate *sentence,* reliable sources like S. Eggins’s writings(1996) draw both on coherence and cohesion and bring them under the umbrella of a concept called *texture,* formerly enunciated by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Hasan (1985). Similarly, if the latest disputes on what would really be helpful to a reader or listener for grasping the meaning of a text or discourse are blurred and yet unsettled, solid and unanimously agreed on concepts like texture, would certainly be helpful to students for unlocking or producing texts. First, Eggins defines a text by means of a few discriminative characteristics like: *grammaticality, coherence, cohesion, recognizable structure, function,* and *purpose*, a stance also taken up by Thornbury, who, in clear terms, asks his students to watch out for a few ‘conditions’ that must be fulfilled in order for a text to be a text. Thus, according to Thurnbury, texts must be self-contained, well-formed, hang together, be coherent, cohesive, have a clear communicative purpose, be recognizable text types, be appropriate to their context of use (2005). Eggins (1996) provides a replete description of the types of cohesion displayed by texts, ranging from lexical cohesion, reference, conjunctive relations to conversational structure. Her description is extremely helpful for teaching purposes due to the simple and clear examples used to illustrate the linguistic points. A further strength of her presentation lies in the detailed and well-illustrated survey of lexical relations.

Following the same linguistic thread, Thornbury's examples and exercises used in *Beyond the Sentence*(2005) illuminate the learners and help them produce similar examples, particularly in the areas of macro- and micro-level coherence. Looking out for *key words* in a text or discourse and retrieving its *internal patterning* or its underlying *lexical chain(s)* are exercises that not only communicators and future reporters find extremely helpful, but also translators.

Under the heading *What makes a text make sense?* Thornbury (2005) addresses some issues that are extremely important for communication and translation trainees. Within the broad concept of coherence he differentiates between *micro-level coherence* that involves logical relationships, theme-rheme relationships, and finally, reader expectations, and *macro-level coherence*, which is broadly centred on topic, key words, lexical chains, internal patterning, schemas and scripts.

From the broad range of coherence-defining issues, the ones that deserve special attention for translators are those related to expressing logical (conjunctive) relations, theme-rheme relationships, and answering the reader's expectations. In order to communicate successfully (a message), whether in one's own native language or in a different language, the communicator or message sender must position the elements in a sentence and link them according to the logical relationships that exist between them. Translators must, therefore, be alert at the lexical clues available in the text, which bind the text, and/or at the implicit logical relations. First and foremost, they must accurately understand the logical relationships between parts of a sentence in order to be able to render them correctly in the target language. In this respect exercises that point out lexical clues, logical relationships and possible connections are efficient. In addition, the translators must pay due attention to the signalling or linking devices ie the adequate choice of connectors. This is equally important, since the translation must foreground exactly what the source communicator wished to. To serve this purpose, the translation trainee should permanently keep an eye open to all possible and potential clues in the source text.

In English the sentences or the clauses of which texts are built, are broadly made up of two distinct parts, the *topic (theme)*, ie what the sentence or clause is about, and the *rheme,* or what the writer or speaker wants to tell about that particular topic,. Generally, the topic is related to old information (or given information), to what the reader or listener already knows, while the rheme is associate with new information. The translator must pay attention to placing the old information in a sentence initial position, while he should locate new information typically in the rheme (comment) position. This is important because the translator must use cohesive clues and distribute the information in a *predictable* way in the target language, ie in the way the reader or listener would expect it.

As far as the readers' expectations are concerned, communicators and translators must be aware of the readers' constant watch-out for clues that will support their assumptions that texts are, foremost, coherent. Thornbury assumes that these clues "are usually close at hand, in the associated text (or the *co-text*)- and often in the adjoining sentence. Or they may be in the *context* where the text is situated" (2005:45). Things turn out to be more difficult when sentences are juxtaposed and when their relationship cannot be clearly established, because they are purposefully juxtaposed accidentally. The translation trainee's awareness of what was really meant is, then, crucial for the accuracy of the message.

Thornbury deals with some other more intricate, sentence-related issues as well, such as: sentence insertion, use of passive constructions and cleft sentences, which can be surprisingly helpful in rendering a text intelligible or upraising a text's rhetoric. This means that the translator must be adept at understanding the emphasis and rhetoric of the text or text stretch, and then possess sufficient versatility to be able to express the message by making use of both the active and the passive voices, and alternating them skillfully to produce the desired effect. For teaching purposes, this means that the trainee must be familiar with the uses of the passive voice and exploit them whenever the rhetoric of the text calls for them. This is also indicative of the user's familiarity with the functions of the passive, of which the chief one is placing the object of the verb in the theme slot position, that otherwise is the domain of the grammatical subject. In addition, the use of only active forms in a text would make the text look stale and would obstruct the reader's shift of focus on what is newsworthy in a sentence. Besides, it would be difficult to maintain topic consistency over longer stretches of text. Another grammatical pattern, for example the skilful use of cleft sentences, would also help the translator alter the normal order of sentence elements for the sole purpose of placing special emphasis on new information.

A further issue for translators may be the use of *key words*. Key words are words that occur with a frequency that is significant if compared with the normal occurrence of a word, as determined by corpus linguistics. The translator's role would, hence, seem to have to do with finding the right equivalents for the words that are crucial for the text. Translators must bear in mind that the prominence of key words in a text is not accidental, and that they must find the right word that would relate it intimately to the topic, or to what the text is about. Translators should not overlook the fact that the topic of any text is largely carried by its words, and that these words, according to corpus linguistics, seem to be nouns. Translators should equally comprehend that cohesion is mainly realized through chains or threads of lexis. This means that translators should acquire considerable expertise in using them effectively. A useful practice that will familiarize trainees with such lexical choices is brainstorming. A further lexical exercise could be that of retrieving the lexical chains of a text prior to immersing in the translation activity.

Another lexis-bound activity that may help translators become more versatile users of a language for translation purposes is training the trainees for the way in which the internal patterning of a text is realized. The internal patterning of a text is realized locally in the way words (or their synonyms or derivatives) are carried over from one sentence to the next. The translator's problem, then, seems to be that of clearly identifying the elements of internal patterning and using the same linguistic devices to render the message in the target language. Michael Hoey in his study *Patterns of Lexis in Texts* (1991) argued that these patterns of lexical repetition through variation can extend over whole texts, even over the entire length of a book. Hoey further postulates that it is the coherence induced by these patterns that accounts for the sense the reader or listener gets from a text.

It has been stated, over and over again, that knowledge of both the culture of source language and that of the target language are crucial to translation. One reason behind this urge is that translators must be knowledgeable of the *scripts* and *schemas* available in the two languages that the translator works with. Both scripts and schemas are culture-determined, so both their meaning and *status quo* must be correctly grasped by the translator and rendered effectively in the target text. This has to do with the way particular cultures structure their perception of reality and is to a large extent, as aforementioned, culture specific.

Finally, the translator should pay due attention to the *reader's expectations* and should not forget that the reader approaches a text with certain expectations, ie questions. All texts must be organized and worded so as to answer the reader's questions at all times as he moves through the text. The translated text or piece of discourse will be successful only if the reader can make sense of the text, at any point. Thus, this is the only thing that would account for the text's coherence as far as the reader is concerned. Furthermore, these cognitive- related factors have to do with *scripts* and *schemata* and with the translator's ability to find the right lexical and rhetorical devices to satisfy the reader's expectations. Such accomplishments will assure the text's fluidity, ie coherence.

Judging discourse quality

The attempts to assess or judge discourse quality go back to the 1960s when Paul Diderich constructed a reasonably reliable judgment model made up of the following aspects: *content* (including: wealth of ideas, clarity, relevance for the topic, relevance for the audience), *usage* (sentence structure, punctuation and spelling), *organization*, *vocabulary* and *personal qualities*. Later on, the CCC model gained prominence. It consisted of three main elements: *correspondence* (accounting for the correspondence between the sender and receiver needs), *consistency*, and *correctness*, which can be further followed along some variables like: text type, content, structure, wording and punctuation.

The 80s pushed into general use the *functionalist comprehensibility theory*, according to which the text must fulfill the purpose for which it was created, ie the reader must get all the necessary information he is looking for (Gunnarsson B.L., 1984). Gunnarsson speaks up for situational coherence, emphasizing that not only syntactical and semantic factors are relevant, but that pragmatic ones are equally important. Gunnarsson assumes that text or discourse should be judged by what functions it performs to the reader, by what the reader makes out of it and how it impacts on him.

Discourse quality has been investigated extensively by applied linguists and text linguists. A wealth of research comes, however, from English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers or language testers who have worked out several evaluation grids whose validity was tested in many European countries, particularly in the 90s. Well-known evaluation instruments like the Common European Reference Framework for Language Teaching, the Cambridge examinations, the ALTE examinations etc use assessment devices that grade the quality of text or discourse samples produced by learners.

Even if not all the mentioned models must be learned by trainees, there is no doubt that the *functionalist comprehensibility theory* must become the rule of thumb for them.

Modelling discourse production and analyzing product and process

During the last two decades, several researchers have tried to capture the process of discourse production. Two earlier models accounting for discourse production, often referred to, are the models designed by C. Bereiter and M. Scardamalia (1987) and outlined in "The Psychology of written composition". The first model, called the *knowledge-telling model*, consists of three components: content knowledge and discourse knowledge, and, in between, the flowchart of knowledge-telling, which, in turn, involves: mental representation of assignment, local topic and genre identifiers, construct memory probes, retrieval of content from memory probes, running tests of appropriateness, writing notes, drafts, etc, updating mental representation of text. The second model, called the *knowledge-transforming model* is more elaborate and interactional, in that it expresses an on-going interaction between the components. Content knowledge is associated with content problem/space, while discourse knowledge with rhetorical problem/space. The process incorporates: mental representation of assignment, problem setting analysis and goal setting problem translation. In this model the problem analysis and goal setting stage interacts with both content knowledge and content, and discourse knowledge and rhetorical space. Similarly, the knowledge-telling process, on the whole, receives input from both content knowledge and content, on the one hand, and from discourse knowledge and rhetorical space, on the other. While the content domain focuses on issues like: What shall I write? the rhetorical domain will address questions like: How do I present this to my readers? All in all, both models, broadly speaking, combine content knowledge, cognitive processes, writing processes, and discourse knowledge.

However, the most general model for the writing process has been developed by Hayes (1996) and is an elaboration of his earlier 1981 model. The benefit offered by this model is its complexity, as it consists of the following components: social environment, physical environment, motivation/affect, working memory, long-term memory and cognitive processes. The model also expresses the on-going interaction between the elements. Hayes's model is used and referred to in many research writings as a useful framework which poses research inquiries and tests hypothesis about the writing (discourse production) process.

Such models are surely beneficial to trainers in that they outline variables of the writing process and foreground the impact of discourse knowledge on the entire process. Even if the models were aimed at teaching written discourse, let us not forget that the translation activity is a complex activity composed of a wide range of subsequent or simultaneous activities that inherently involve written discourse.

Perhaps the last issue that deserves consideration in what teaching discourse is concerned is *analyzing product* and *process*. In terms of discourse production, product stands broadly for production skills and is customarily assessed through the richness of vocabulary and syntactic complexity. A wealth of research and inquiry insights carried out by experts are available in the field of both text production and translation studies. The materials published by such researchers like William Grabe (2001), Liz Hamp-Lyons (2001), Alister Cumming (2001), etc. are valuable in this respect. In terms of discourse processing, Renkema (2004) mentions three activities that receivers (listeners and readers) engage in, which are: 1) surface representation, ie the representation of the formulation of syntactic structures; 2) propositional representation, ie the meaning of the discourse expressed in a network of propositions; 3) situational representation, ie the mental model of the discourse.

Finally, after becoming familiar with the general rules or standards of discourse quality, text or discourse producers can safely turn into judges of their own products.

Conclusion

The article reflects a trainer's possible views on working out a discourse- or text-based course syllabus for students who use a foreign language for translation and communication purposes. It must be, however, pointed out that a similar syllabus has been piloted for two years and it is estimated that it may ensure the proper acquisition of discourse competence. By posing such a problem the article also invites to further reflection. First of all, the article suggests that raising awareness about discourse-relevant issues involves understanding and defining discourse, as opposed to or compared, for example, with text. Growing the knowledge pool of a trainee by pointing out diverging or contrasting views on text and discourse should be serviceable to the training process only if the trainee has acquired the basic elements and is capable of dealing with further, more elaborate, issues. The next step in broadening or consolidating discursive competence is by looking closer at discourse elements, relations, signalling devices, functional patterns. Then, the mainstream teaching of discourse(and text production) must tackle the concept of texture, and ways of realizing it. Looking at micro- and macro-levels coherence is mandatory for ensuring the reader's making sense of the text. The trainer must persuade the trainee to keep the reader in mind all the way through any text or discourse, and fulfill his expectations by permanently answering his questions. Other discourse-relevant issues that should interest the translator are: assessing discourse quality and modelling discourse production. Mention must be made, however, that the present study draws only on sources and inspiration coming from discourse, text linguists and training experts. This, on the other hand, results in a legitimate quest for bridging the information and research gap between translation experts and other linguists and enhancing a resourceful collaboration between them. In the absence of such a collaboration or interaction many of the accomplished results run the risk of not being made proper use of.

Apart from the discourse-specific issues under focus, the article sought to suggest some useful sources for the study of the envisaged issues.

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PRACTICAL AND THEORETICAL ELEMENTS OF TRANSLATOR TRAINING IN HUNGARY - A CASE STUDY

BORBÁLA RICHTER*

ABSTRACT. In this article the post-graduate, technical translator training programme (specialising in legal and economic texts) offered by Kodolányi János University College, Hungary, is introduced. The components of the programme are presented and subsequently discussed. The course, "Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Translation", taught by the author of this article, is presented in more detail: the rationale for the content and the teaching methodology is offered for the consideration of the reader. It is argued that in a learner-centred class the 'great questions' of translation theory can be elicited from the students and that the search for answers to these questions can constitute the content of the course.

Keywords: translator training, theory and practice of translation, training methodology

Introduction

The steady increase in the demand for translation that characterised the last decades of the 20th century led to a proliferation of training possibilities at all levels. In Hungary, accession to the EU and progressive integration into the global economy has had a major impact on the market for translators. The post-graduate, technical translator training programme (specialising in legal and economic texts) offered by Kodolányi János University College, Hungary, is part of the response of higher education to the challenge presented by new constellation. The first part of this article deals with the components of the programme, which are presented and discussed. One course, "Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Translation", is taught by the author of this article, and the rationale for the content and teaching methodology of the course is offered for the consideration of the reader. The article seeks to explore how the gap between the theory and practice of translation can be bridged in this particular programme and, in particular, how this can be realised in the course focussing on theory. As such it is a self-reflective analysis of the ongoing process of course development.

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The translator training programme

The objective of the programme is to train competent translators who are capable of producing translations of a commercially and professionally acceptable standard. This dual rule of thumb means taking into account the findings of research and the quality initiatives of the profession, and meeting the needs of the market. The market is, of course, itself differentiated and our students are expected to meet the demands of the middle of the field. At our college, we offer the programme in three FLs*: English, German and French (this order reflects the number of students). Students already have a degree and a high level of general proficiency in one foreign language. Some of them may already be working as translators, but the majority can be considered novices.

Meeting the demand

Although the debate about whether translators should under ideal conditions translate only into their mother tongue has not yet been concluded, it is clear that in the case of Hungary and the Hungarian language, it is seldom feasible. The community of native speakers of Hungarian numbers about 15 million and Hungarian is unusual in Europe in that it is not an Indo-European language. We expect the majority of translation assignments undertaken by our students to be in the direction of FL to Hungarian, but deem it prudent to train them in translation in the other direction as well.

Developments in the training of translators have paralleled developments in society. Of particular importance are the many interrelated processes of globalisation: technical, political and economic. Developments in the global market economy have led to a marked and steady increase in the field of business-to-business, and business-to-consumer communication. Some of this is what may be termed general business language, and some of it is more specialized with regard to its focus (related to the sector and to the product). Peripheral to this is the area of legal translation, much of it likewise general. This burgeoning of communication across borders (geographic, cultural and linguistic), coupled with intensifying international competition, and the proliferation of regulations of various kinds originating from a multitude of sources have lead to an increase in the demand for non-literary translation. Our programme is a local response to this demand.

Components of the programme

What follows is a succinct outline of the taught programme as accredited by the Hungarian Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education Decree 5/2004. (II.27)) that runs for one year and offers a post-graduate diploma in Technical

* In this article, I have used the following abbreviations common in Translation Studies and language teaching: TT (target text), ST (source text); TL (target language), SL (source language); TC (target culture), SC (source culture); L1, L2, FL.

Translation specialising in legal and economic texts. The development of translation skills in these domains is linked with critical discussion of theoretical aspects of translation, the further development of language skills, and expansion of the students' relevant knowledge base. Although the focus is on 'specialised translation' as a general category, degree-level subject knowledge is not a requirement and the programme is intended to enable students to translate semi-specialised texts.

Modules and courses

1) Language Module: 60 periods
   a) Hungarian; Translation Proofreading, Revision and Editing
   b) Language Development in the Foreign Language
   c) Contrastive Specialised Terminology
2) Translation Module: 260 periods
   a) Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Translation
   b) Electronic Tools for Translators
   c) Specialised Translation FL>H (legal and business domains)
   d) Specialised Translation H>FL(legal and business domains)
3) Complementary Module: 80 periods
   a) Contrastive Cultural Studies
   b) Foundation Course in Law and Business Studies
   c) European Union Studies
   d) 'Thesis': comprising two translations (FL>H approx. 25,000 characters and H>FL approx. 7,500 characters), with annotations and commentaries.

Discussion

In the Sequential Model of translation proposed by Gile (1995) as both a tool for teachers of translation and a way of proceeding for (student) translators, adequate comprehension in the first phase is seen as a function of both knowledge of the language and extra-linguistic knowledge (p. 78), and needs to be tested for plausibility. In the second, reformulation, phase the message of the translation unit is verbalised and this likewise requires both knowledge of the language and extra-linguistic knowledge, and testing for fidelity and acceptability (p. 104). Viewing the programme as a whole, it can be seen that all these elements are given due emphasis in the appropriate courses.

The various components are designed to complement each other. Ideally, this should be reflected in the practice of teaching the course. All the teachers are involved in some way in the thesis component and this encourages interaction and consultation. Although the framework of the programme is given by the Ministry, the contents of the courses and the principles directing the teaching of these courses are the input of the teaching staff.

The Language Module

Both languages are given attention in the Language Module. Although it is a prerequisite for students to have high level L2 skills from the outset (C1 according to the Common European Framework of Reference), it is also clear that the levels of proficiency in any group will be mixed and that even professional translators have constantly to hone their language skills. Even if we argue that translating into the L2 is not the most felicitous working mode, it is clear that market forces may make it unavoidable. It is unlikely that a sufficient number of English (or German or French) native speakers are proficient enough in Hungarian to meet the demand. It is therefore a fact of life that translators may simultaneously be learners of their L2 and this is recognised in the curriculum. The process of translation itself, with its emphasis of reading for nuanced and precise comprehension, provides an excellent opportunity for natural language acquisition as put forward by Krashen (1987). This process is deliberately facilitated by the courses provided.

The process of translating entails the translator moving between the languages concerned, and using the languages in a disciplined way. The Hungarian course draws the students' attention to the need for revision and careful proofreading, whether of one's own work or that of others. In the language development courses, the content is chosen to increase cultural knowledge and awareness; while the terminology course provides standard items to learn, along with methods, procedures and techniques for coping with challenging terms and texts.

Hönig (1998: 88) argues that

> Academic institutions training translators have to provide evidence that the aim of their courses is not just (foreign) language acquisition, but to teach genuine translatory competence. This means that courses must be firmly based - as, indeed, all university courses should be - on the considerable procedural and methodological knowledge which has been accumulated over the last years in translatological literature. This does not mean, of course, that language acquisition courses should be banned altogether. They are useful as long as there is a definite demarcation line between courses teaching language skills and those imparting translatory competence.

The structure of our programme clearly reflects this view.

The Translation Module

From the point of view of the main objective of training competent translators, the translation module has to be considered the core of the programme. The practice of translation is practised in the paired courses dealing with translation from Hungarian to English, and from English to Hungarian. Here, *translation* refers to both the process and the product, and both enjoy attention. The pedagogical model based on 'learning through doing' under the guidance of a master was, until recently, the accepted way of becoming a translator. These classes – representing slightly more than half of all the class-time – can be seen as its institutionalised form and this form of guided practice aims to speed up what may previously have taken many years.

Information and communication technology has changed the way in which translators and the translation market works (Austermühl, 2001, p. 7-8). Austermühl goes so far as to state that the lone translator, "armed only with a pencil or typewriter and surrounded by dusty books" is no longer "a valid model" (ibid. p.11). In our course, the use of electronic tools is introduced and the users learn to choose the types of technology and computer aids that will be most useful to them in various circumstances. Yet, we remind students that a translator "who cannot translate with pencil and paper, and with reference works in the form of printed books, will not be able to translate with the latest computer aids" (Mossop, undated). Machine-aided translation facilitates the work of the translator but requires skilled and appropriate use of technology.

Advances in ICT have led to complex changes in the profession. Paradoxically, they could lead to an improvement in the status of the profession by an increasing differentiation between routine and repetitive translation tasks, and assignments in which approximation of content is sufficient, on the one hand, and translations meeting quality standards set by the profession, on the other. Such standards are regrettably still a thorny subject. At the conclusion of a discussion of the issue of translation quality assessment Schäffner commented that "we still do not know well enough when a TT can be characterised as 'good' or 'successful'. Different approaches define a 'good' translation differently and apply different assessment criteria" (Schäffner:1998, p. 5). Translators need to be aware of these different criteria and use them in their commercial dealings with clients.

The final course in this module is the "Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Translation"[†], which deals with the thinking, research and findings of the field of Translation Studies. Since this element will be discussed in greater detail below, suffice it here to say that the gap separating the 'ivory tower' (where translation and translations are studied) and the 'wordface'[‡] (where translations are produced) is intentionally bridged.

The Complementary Module

In the complementary courses, the students' knowledge of the world in general and their knowledge base related to the social sciences, law and business is deepened. The lectures focussing on the law, business studies, the EU and

[†] The course could also be called "Introduction to Translation Studies"; this issue related to the naming of the discipline and its sub-divisions is not a focus of this paper and the terms *translation theory* and *Translation Studies* are used loosely.

[‡] An apt term used for the first time, as far as I am aware, in Chesterman and Wagner (2002)

international organisations are given in the L1. With the help of these lectures, students will be better equipped to understand the ST and to use their assumption of relevance to grasp possibly vaguely or badly expressed content. Not all texts, even if written by native speakers, are well-written. Translators are communications specialists who can be expected to have excellent writing skills, but the authors of the ST are under no such compulsion.

In the contrastive study of the cultures associated with the languages (language embedded in culture, culture expressed through and reflected in language), special attention is given to the fact that all three languages are languages of wider communication. For Hungarians, English – currently and in the foreseeable future the dominant language of the Internet, international business and science - is the foreign language of choice. German is important for historical and geographical reasons. French, although it is the other official language of the EU, is less favoured and the French students form our smallest group of students.

The ‘multiculturalism’ of English and, to a lesser extent, German and French, presents the translator with special problems. To mention two:

1. It is increasingly likely that an original ST may have been composed by some-one for whom the language of the text is not the mother tongue. This is seldom communicated directly, although the content may give clues, as may the writer’s name. If the texts are not actually linguistically defective, it is only the reader’s feeling for the SL that signals that the text is subtly strange, that L1 interference may be making itself felt, or, indeed, that it is a translated text. Depending on the degree of interference or ‘translationese’, this can constitute an additional complicating factor in the decoding/analytical phase.

2. In the final phase of translation, namely encoding/synthesis, it is essential for the translator as the communicator to have a clear idea of the audience. This entails having an in-depth knowledge of the culture and norms of the TC, as well as a more detailed profile of the specific readership. But what is the culture of the English-speaking, or at least English-reading, wider audience of today? Whose norms, cultural terms, social customs, sensitivities, etc. should be taken into account? This issue is made even more complex by the likelihood of the readers having English as a foreign language. Such considerations add one more ‘judgement call’ to the list of such decisions that have to be taken by the translator. In many texts intended for an international audience, the author, whose own culture may not be that of the language used, is aware of this and writes for a general audience, taking special care not to be obscure and to avoid giving offence. These factors go a long way to explaining the characteristic blandness of many EU or UN texts.

The courses in contrastive cultural studies have therefore to do more than just describe and compare the contrasted cultures; they should widen the students’ awareness of the existence of worlds behind the words and thereby also to reflect on the interrelatedness of language and culture. Just as the link between words and their referents is essentially arbitrary, so too are ways of segmenting reality (Nida: 1982). Awareness of this can help students to recognise areas of potential difficulty.

The "Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Translation" course

Three fundamental questions need to be answered: "Why should translation theory be taught?", How should it be taught?" and "What should be taught?" In what follows below, I will offer for consideration my own personal answers to these questions.

"Why should translation theory be taught?"

In agreement with Hönig (as quoted above), courses at academic institutions should pass on the procedural and methodological knowledge which others have accumulated. In a practice-oriented course, the theoretical component must be related to practice. However, the Humboldtian ideal of the university, where the primary duty was to search for 'the truth', where research was valued for its own sake, and where research and teaching went hand-in-hand, lives on. It would therefore be curious indeed if no opportunity were provided for the scholarly pursuit of knowledge. That our students, who are all graduates, wish to become professionals in the field of translation does not mean that they will not also become researchers in the field.

Research does not necessarily entail being a research scholar. In education, *action research*, where teachers in the course of teaching also research aspects of the educational process and use their insights to improve their teaching, has gained ground in recent years. (The idea and the term itself can be traced back to Kurt Lewin, in the USA in the 1940s, see McFarland and Stansell (1993). Although the term has been redefined over time, the basic elements have remained.) Rather than focussing on abstract theory, action research provides a link between theory and practice whereby practitioners can select the topics to address based on other own concerns and needs, with the goal of making changes in the service of professional development.

It is an explicit objective of the course to encourage the students to become self-reflective practitioners, thereby beginning a spiral of action and reflection that encompasses posing questions, gathering data, reflecting, and acting to enhance their professional competence. Implicit in this process is the possibility of passing on the knowledge and insights gained. As Schön (1983) explains, the *reflective practitioner* accepts that there are indeterminate zones in practice (where there is confusion, uncertainty, and complexity; where it is hard to decide what exactly the problem is that needs to be solved); and carries out reflection-in-action, even reflecting on reflection-in-action. In encouraging and modelling this, the course can help the practising translator learn to resolve the tension between competing schools of thought about the nature of translation and on how best to solve translation problems.

Finally, in the market place, the translator may be called upon to defend translation decisions. It is in the translator's ethical and commercial interests to be able to do this, too, in a professional way. An adequate grounding in translation theory together with a personal, continuously up-dated, 'theory' (in the colloquial sense) of translation is indispensable.

"How should translation theory be taught?"

Since the objective is reflective practice, the methodology chosen to teach translation theory promotes this. The well-known Kolb-Lewin learning cycle proposes four stages of learning: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation. It can be expected that the students will go through such cycles in the process of learning to translate. The course on theory will aid them in particular in the 'abstract conceptualisation' phase. The approach is as follows:

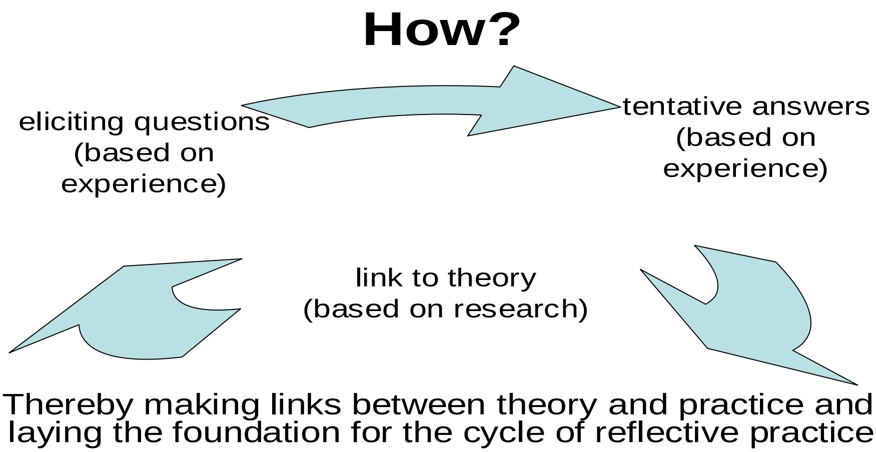

Figure 1. Learning cycle for translation theory

By eliciting the questions from the students, the structure of the learning content is decided not on the basis of a prior, formal organization of the subject, but rather on issues identified by the learners themselves and by their expressed interest. By formulating the questions themselves, the students provide their own curiosity as a source of motivation. These questions and the quest for answers to them form the "what is taught", the content of the course.

This approach draws heavily on my experience in teaching English as a foreign language with a learner-centred, negotiated syllabus, and is based on a cognitive and social constructivist understanding of the way in which learning takes place (in the tradition of Dewey, Piaget and Vygotsky). Designing a communicative curriculum for language teaching includes focussing on the learner and learning processes. Breen and Candlin (1980) argue that any syllabus, even one that is set out in advance, is constantly subject to negotiation and reinterpretation in the classroom by the participants. Applied to a content course, this involves moving away from a standard teacher-centred didactic approach of transferring information and knowledge by lecturing to students, to the creation of an interactive environment in which students are active co-creators of the course content, and their learning is embedded in their experience, analysis and reflection. This change is 'work-in-progress', as the original lecture format has been progressively (over the course of the three I have taught this course) modified. Formal presentation from the lecturer has been kept, but has been de-emphasised in favour of collaborative learning experiences. Group interaction using tasks, primary source material, student-identified translation problems is followed, not preceded, by the lecturer summary or presentation.

"What should be taught in the course?"

A tentative syllabus, based on the lecturer's own opinion of what should be included in the content, forms the framework for the course. It has three main foci:
1) the 'great questions',
2) the interdisciplinary nature of the discipline and the links to other disciplines, and
3) the empirical approach.
These allow the students together with the teacher to explore aspects of translation theory while retaining the link to practice.

A list of 'essential' questions, the great questions of Translation Studies, are borne in mind by the teacher, who ensures that they are raised. The stimulus can be varied: case studies, theoretical articles, problems raised by the students, research reports and translation tasks, and the discussion linked to the crucial issues. Hatim and Mason mention recurring and ongoing debates:

- Literal versus free translation
- Focus on the process or the product
- Translation quality assessment: objectivity versus subjectivity
- Author-centred or reader-centred translation

To these I would add the following questions:
What is translation? A translation? A good Translation?
What is equivalence in translation?
What is the unit of translation?
Are there universals of translation?
What is it that translators do? How? Why?

Knowing what?
What models are there of the process of translation?
Does it make a difference what language pairs are involved?
What – or who – else is involved in translation? What is the role of the client?
Furthermore, questions about the nature and interrelationship of:
text, the source text, the target text,
the language/s,
the extra-linguistic elements of the context,
the aims, intentions, purposes and functions of the translation and translator
the ethical responsibility of the translator
Finally (and initially), the basic question related to the discipline:
What is Translation Studies?

This last question is the point of departure for a discussion of the nature of Translation Studies. The students' expectations and prior knowledge are collected. A disciplinary map is, based on Holmes' seminal paper (1972), is drawn. This leads naturally into what Bassnett (1991) calls "[a] distinguishing feature of work in Translation Studies", namely "the combining of work in linguistics, literary studies, cultural history, philosophy, and anthropology"(p. xi). The interdisciplinary nature of Translation Studies is summarised in the map below (which has been adapted from Hatim and Munday (2004)). Education has been added as an important factor in the applied translation studies.

The students are encouraged to 'take excursions' into any of these related disciplines and to broaden their view of what it relevant. Since the students may have no background in linguistics, they are referred to *First Steps in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics* (Richter, 2007), which is aimed specifically at newcomers to the field. Other disciplines, like communication theory and cognitive psychology, can be included.

Further topic-based and question-related prescribed readings are selected from *The Translation Studies Reader*. The articles by Nida, Reiss, Toury and Vermeer are essential reading. The main textbook is *Languages in Translation* (Klaudy, 2003). The first Hungarian edition of this work was published in 1994 and has gone through numerous editions since then. The English version is a translation, allowing it to be studied also as an example of translation. Its rhetorical characteristics meet the expectations of the Hungarian students. (For a summary of the content, which goes beyond translation theory *per se,* see the review published in *Across Languages and Cultures 5(2).)* The book is used as a source for finding out what others have said with regard to the questions.

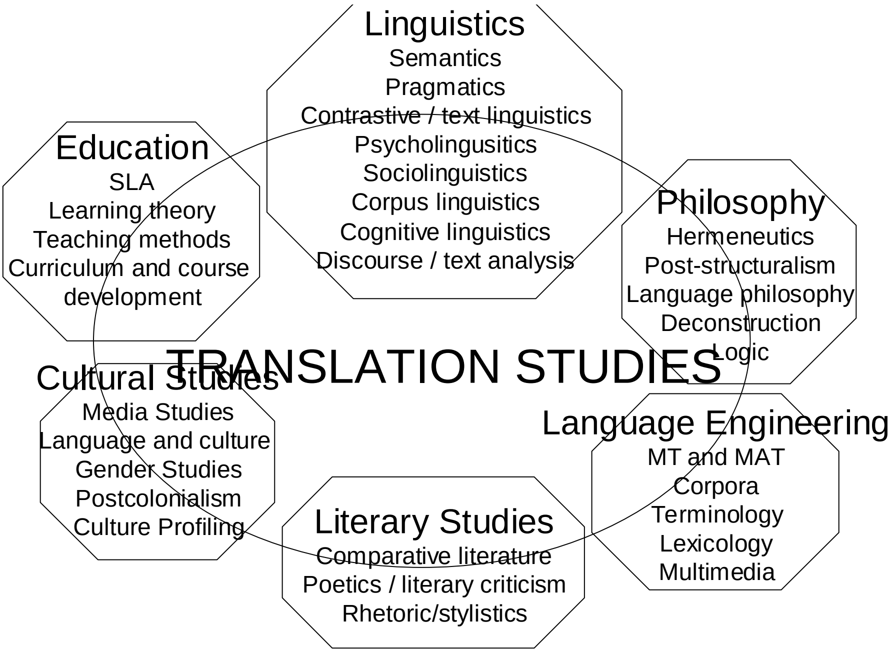

Figure 2: Interdisciplinary map of Translation Studies

The third focus serves to introduce the students to the empirical tradition in translation research and to recent developments. Technological advances have allowed researchers to respond to the call for more practical research, for example, by Hermans (1985, p 11). Corpus linguistics has revolutionised terminology and offers translators new possibilities as regards parallel, multilingual and comparable corpora (Baker, 1995).

Two mains strands of research are looked at:

1) “The heart of translation theory is translation problems” (Newmark: 1988, p. 21). This approach is practice-oriented. According to Newmark (1988, p.9):"What translation theory does is, first to identify and define a translation problem; second, to indicate all the factors that have to be taken into account in solving the problem; third, to list all the possible translation procedures; finally, to recommend the most suitable translation procedure, plus the appropriate translation."

2) Empirical research can look at the infinite variety of operations in the practice of translation and look for significant patterns and regularities.

The focus is not on problems, but on normality, that is, on “the normal, everyday activity of translators, not excluding innovation and creativity” (Klaudy, 2003). The system of transfer operations and their classification put forward by Klaudy provides a framework for analysing examples, both those in the book (although these are literary) and examples collected by the class.

The three main foci are pulled together in the discussions and serve to ensure that the negotiated content of the course remains focussed.

Conclusion

In the final part of this article, a student-centred approach to teaching translation theory was expounded. A rationale was suggested for why translation theory should be taught in this programme, how it should be taught to best enhance the learning experience of the students, and what the content of the course should be.

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QUALITY ISSUES IN ROMANIAN TRANSLATOR AND INTERPRETER TRAINING: INVESTIGATING THE VALIDITY OF THE STANDARDS PROPOSED BY THE ROMANIAN AGENCY FOR QUALITY ASSURANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION [ARACIS]

ANCA GREERE*

ABSTRACT. This paper seeks to pinpoint quality guidelines in translator and interpreter training as developed in recent years on the European education scene. The subsequent purpose is to analyze the standards proposed by the Romanian Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education [Romanian acronym: ARACIS] against European guidelines in order to identify the degree to which they are compatible. Given that the ARACIS methodology is currently undergoing ample reviewing (following the completed piloting of 2007), suggested actions of enhancement may prove timely.

Keywords: quality assurance, quality criteria, translator and interpreter training

Introduction

Accredited translator and interpreter training in Romania is undertaken predominantly by departments of *Applied Modern Languages* within different higher education institutions [in Romanian *Limbi Moderne Aplicate*, acronym *LMA*]. Initially set-up in 1991 by implementing the training guidelines of the French higher education *Langues Étrangères Appliquées* structure, Departments of Applied Modern Languages were soon to make their appearance on the Romanian higher education scene in many universities such as Universitatea Babeş-Bolyai, Cluj-Napoca, Universitatea Bucureşti, Universitatea Al. I. Cuza, Iaşi, Universitatea de Vest, Timişoara, Universitatea Transilvania, Braşov, Universitatea Lucian Blaga, Sibiu and others.

For a number of years curriculum development was guided by the adoption of French LEA curricula corroborated with authoritative translation training methodology, i.e. international and European, and by analysis of training necessities for the Romanian translation/interpreting market. In 2006, the Romanian Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education ARACIS was set up providing a methodology for quality assessment of higher education programmes in a number of key areas. The domain of study *Applied Modern Languages* falls under the competences of the ARACIS committee for Humanities and Theology and is regulated by specific quality standards issued by this committee. In what follows we propose to analyse these ARACIS standards and to inquire into their validity vis-à-vis European educational trends and Romanian LMA-specific training developments.

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T&I opportunities in the European context: EU involvement

Romania's accession to the European Union rendered a new status to Romanian as an official language of the EU, thus determining a spectacular increase in the workload of language professionals specialized in translation and interpreting and a subsequent need for further training in these fields to meet the demands on the EU market, in general, and of EU institutions, in particular.

Before the accession, the translation of the *acquis communautaire* proved a great challenge but also a great opportunity for Romanian translators. Following this experience, the 2006/2007 recruitment competition for Romanian language organized by the European Personnel Selection Office EPSO opened the doors for Romanian translators and interpreters to become employees of the European institutions forming subsequently departments of Romanian language within specialized EU services. The example of the Directorate General for Translation is quoted below:

> Taking full account of the lessons learned from the former enlargement, DGT [Directorate General for Translation] prepared the ground for the **smooth integration of Bulgarian and Romanian** as of 1 January 2007. The first translators were recruited as contract staff as early as January 2006 to prepare the translation infrastructure and tools. Following further selection procedures for temporary staff, by the time the new Member States joined more than 30 translators per new language were working for DGT, some of them in its Field Offices in Sofia and Bucharest. Another **150 or so successful candidates** are on the shortlists for each of these languages. These lists will be shared out between all the institutions and, over the next few months, additional translators will be recruited from them. During the first half of 2007 DGT should therefore be able to meet its target of 56 translators per language department.
> (http://ec.europa.eu/romania/documents/press_releases/memo-07-76_ro_en.pdf:1, July 14, 2008)

As an immediate consequence of the enlargement, translator and interpreter training also captured the attention of specialized services within the European Commission such as the Directorate General for Translation (DGT) and the Directorate General for Interpretation (DGI, formerly SCIC).

> With the major expansion of the EU in 2004, the Commission found it difficult to recruit enough translators for all nine new languages — hence the realisation that **better translator training** was needed.
>
> To help raise the standard of translator training in the EU, DGT has produced a standard curriculum for a **European Master's degree in Translation (EMT)**. This reference programme aims to produce highly qualified translators. It will equip students to compete successfully for jobs as translators at the Commission and other EU institutions or work as professionals in the translation market.
> (http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/external_relations/universities/master_en.htm, July 14, 2008)

The **European Masters in Conference Interpreting** [EMCI] is a Masters-type university programme which was launched as a pilot project by the European Commission's Joint Interpreting and Conference Service (JICS), DGXXII and the European Parliament in 1997. At the invitation of these organisations, and in consultation with them, a working group comprising eight university-level institutions drew up a core curriculum for interpreter training at post-graduate level which is being offered across the participating institutions which currently number fifteen. The partner institutions pursue a common policy on student recruitment and assessment and are committed to quality maintenance and regular reviews of the programme to adapt to changing needs and new developments.

The main motivation for the initiative was the shortage of highly-qualified conference interpreters, particularly for language combinations which include less widely-used and less-taught languages.

(http://www.emcinterpreting.org/whatis.php, July 14, 2008)

T&I training in the Romanian context: LMA requisites

In tune with the principles presented above, since the accession and even before (i.e. in preparation of the accession), the LMA department in Cluj-Napoca has received constant pedagogical and financial support for the development of master's programmes for specialized translator training and conference interpreting, respectively under the DGT Visiting Translator Scheme and under the DGI EMCI consortium. It is this support and our constant concern for the opportunities of our graduates on the global market that has determined us to continuously seek to align the programmes that we offer to make them compatible with market-driven requirements of the European Area of Higher Education.

The LMA-Cluj structures of today's BA and MA level translator and interpreter training programmes are the direct result of a permanent adjustment to professional market needs and educational requirements as formulated by European and Romanian national professional bodies and higher education institutions. More recently, the implementation of the Bologna reform coupled with recommendations issued by the DGT and DGI to endeavour towards more unified master's training (as quoted above) have provide us with renewed restructuring opportunities for LMA studies.

Still based on the core principles of the French LEA (stipulated also by the 'Charte de l'Association Nationale des LEA', http://lett.ubbcluj.ro/ CartaANLEA_ Romana.pdf, July 14, 2008), the 6-semester BA programme involves the study of two foreign languages within an interdisciplinary curriculum that focuses on enhancement of language and cultural competences as well as acquisition of domain knowledge in fields relevant for rapid market insertion, i.e. the law, economy, international trade relations, intercultural communication, IT&C, etc. As predominantly vocational education, the LMA BA is geared on developing superior practical skills for the market-place without ignoring the importance of theoretical systematisations. For this reason, contact with the professional world designed as both contact hours tutored by professionals and periods of internship/ traineeship in different national and international business organizations is of utmost importance. If BA level studies under Bologna restructuring are focussed on enhancement of linguistic and cultural competences complemented by introductory domain-knowledge in a number of fields of application, the two four-semester MA programmes that we offer make a clear distinction between translation competences and interpreting competences. The Master's in Translation – Terminology has been designed by consideration of the recommended curriculum of the DGT European Master's in Translation and the stipulations of the standard EN 15038 Translation Services-Service Requirements, without neglecting Romanian market trends (i.e. translation into the foreign language, translation in specialized domains of interest, etc.) (Greere 2008). The European Master's in Conference Interpreting is a partner of the EMCI consortium and strictly follows the structuring guidelines proposed by the programme.

Quality Desiderata for LMA/T&I Training

From our educational experience, before and during Bologna implementation, we can derive a number of quality desiderata for Applied Modern Language studies (LMA) with a focus on translator and interpreter training.

Level of Training. Although BA level training for translators and interpreters is practiced in some European cultures, an approach that places translator and interpreter training at an MA level as separate study programmes with distinct learning outcomes seems to be the solution preferred by Bologna systems of 3+2, approach strongly encouraged also by the European Commission through the EMT and EMCI initiatives. Under this perspective BA LMA training is to be more general, introductory in nature emphasizing language and cultural enhancement rather than specific specialized professional skills. An element of novelty has been added to the new 4-semester MA programmes. In keeping with French LEA developments, we also proposed a system of two-level master's (M1 and M2) with intermediate certification after one year of study, allowing for more flexibility.

Well-defined stages of development BA, MA (M1, M2), i.e. from general to specialized, enhance the quality of the training giving students clear outcomes for professional development. Noteworthy is also the fact that student mobilities have proven more efficient when the systems of training adopted are well staged out, increasing thus exchange compatibility.

Admission Criteria. Without prerequisite language assessment for the BA programme it is very difficult to develop translation competence (with all it entails) within a 6-semester structure (because trainers find themselves having to teach basic/intermediate language skills rather than to use the language for translation purposes). Given that most Romanian higher education institutions have ruled out the entrance examination with little guarantee that the Baccalaureate results are relevant for all BA majors and have adopted a system of admission based on highschool grading, it is to be expected that candidates will enrol without having a clear view as to how to self-assess vis-à-vis the requirements stipulated for the programme. In these conditions, the 6-semester BA structure can provide merely introductory training with focus on linguistic and cultural issues and without any claims of equipping the student with sufficient competences for a career in translation, let alone interpreting. The 4-semester MA programmes, on the other hand, having a clearly specialized admission examination in place will determine the candidate to prepare for the examination and will evaluate him/her according to the expectancies for the programme. At the end of this programme, graduates are specialized in their language profession and can issue high-level career expectations.

Candidate Profile. The recruitment pool for the BA programme is very large. Candidates often feel attracted to LMA because they do not want to study literature (*Language and Literature* being the alternative programme the Faculty of Letters offers), but they do want to study language. Consequently, the motivational factor at the BA level will often leave a lot to be desired. For the MA level, candidates who have a BA in LMA are at an advantage, having been exposed to applied language training and domain information in different fields, relevant for the translation/interpreting market. For them, the MA is a natural continuation of studies. However, BA graduates of *Language and Literature* programmes or BA graduates of other 'non-linguistic' specializations often prove to be an asset for the training group; therefore, their candidacy should not be underestimated. The former will come with solid language and cultural knowledge craving for specialized translation or interpreting training as they are determined to break away from a career as teachers and they do realize that additional competences are needed for them to be successful on the market[1] (i.e. the motivation is very strong, at this level). The latter bring in valuable domain-specific knowledge, useful for translation/interpreting tasks. All in all, a group formed of these three profiles may have a very enriching MA experience.

Language Level. All LMA training comprises three languages (A-native/local language, B-first foreign language, C-second foreign language). We recommend that on admission the language level for both foreign languages taken is above CEFR B, preferably B2. However, some candidates knowingly enrol with a lower level of language competence for both foreign languages, or a gap between languages (i.e. they are intermediate towards proficient in one foreign language and beginner towards intermediate in another, and they erroneously consider that there will be ample time to improve low-level language competence, especially for

[1] Even though Romanian legislation to date will enable the accreditation as an authorized translator and interpreter for the Ministry of Justice of any BA graduate of language education (either *Language and Literature* or *LMA Applied Modern Languages*) (aspect detailed in the article by Greere, Tătaru in this *Studia* issue), graduates of *Language and Literature* realize either immediately or after a given period of time that they do not hold the necessary competences. This is when they turn towards specialized MA programmes.

language C). In this context they will struggle with the language, fact which will affect their overall training performance. In the MA programme, we test for B2/C1 in both foreign languages, plus additional profession-relevant skills. For example for the MA is Translation-Terminology, the final grade is an average between language competences (in the two foreign languages and Romanian, as the mother tongue) and translation/terminology awareness, as elicited from the written test and the interview, plus motivational factors quantified in the interview mark.

Training Staff. In tune with Romanian legislation employees of higher education institutions must pursue an academic career (including PhD studies) if they are to occupy positions such as BA course leader or MA tutor. Professionals in given domains, even though they have relevant professional experience to convey, if they lack academic ranking, can only be regarded as collaborators with a part-time arrangement. On the other hand, European training institutions united in ANLEA, UCG and EMCI strongly emphasize the need for trainers to have professional experience as translators and interpreters working in the marketplace (http://lett.ubbcluj.ro/CartaANLEA_Romana.pdf:1.5, July 14, 2008). The Universities Contact Group of the IAMLADP working group on training reports:

> One crucial point was that translation and interpreting studies had in all cases to be taught by professionals with experience and that this was non-negotiable, though some universities were unwilling or unable to apply the rule, for cost reasons or because they had still not grasped the message.
>
> (UCG Meeting Report: 6, May 2007, unpublished)

Similarly, the EMCI site points out the requirements for training staff:

> Interpreting sessions will be conducted by practising/experienced conference interpreters with teaching skills. Where simultaneous interpreting is taught into B, the class will be conducted by an interpreter with an "A" in the target language.
>
> (http://www.emcinterpreting.org/coursestructure.php, July 14, 2008)

As a solution many universities will employ double-careered staff performing both pedagogical tasks as well as professional tasks. However, this double load will obviously impact on the performance in the two careers and a system should be designed to quantify professional T&I successes also within academic evaluations and vice versa.

Curriculum Design. If BA level training is to be viewed as a step towards more advanced training rather than a study programme per se with market insertion potential (and we argue in Greere 2007 that under the new Bologna system, the compulsory study unit is 3+2 rather than just 3 with an alternative addition of 2), it follows that the BA curriculum will set the basics for postgraduate training in an attempt to initiate competence development for language professions as practiced in the business world. Consequently, language, culture, (oral and written) communication, and functional text production (in languages A, B, C) are the components that will receive in-depth treatment in the BA structure. Other business-related subject-matter may be tackled at an introductory level, to be developed in the MA structures, e.g. law, economy, politics, management and marketing, public relations, etc. “Instrumental competence” (Kelly 2005: 74), i.e. translation-relevant IT skills must also be accounted for in both BA and MA structures. Another very important aspect of curriculum design for both BA and MA programmes relates to professional practice to be performed in companies, private or public institutions (http://lett.ubbcluj.ro/CartaANLEA_Romana. pdf: 1.4., July 14, 2008). Whereas the BA students are encouraged to take on an internship period in any business establishment, MA students are predominantly directed towards specialized enterprises and also exposed to simulations of real-life projects (on principles expressed by Kiraly 2000).

As specialized advanced training the MAs may want to keep a close profile to the EMT[2], EMCI[3] recommendations without disregarding national specificity, i.e. market trends and standardization requirements. Thus, the curriculum of the MA in translation may focus on specialized translations for key domains (into and out of the mother tongue/local language, depending on national market requirements), terminology and revision (also justified by the EN 15038 standard for translation services). Given the strong orientation towards the business world and the fact that freelancing is an option for many MA graduates, it is also necessary to provide specific (business and/or project) management and marketing competences, as well as deontological/ ethical considerations, i.e.

> … courses on how to set up a business, geared to working on the free market, admittedly, but useful in a general context bearing in mind that IOs used so many freelance staff.
>
> (UCG Meeting Report: 3, May 2007, unpublished)

***Career prospectives*.** In tune with aspects identified above, we feel that learning outcomes will have to be processed on start-up objectives. If the BA programme is designed to focus on developing interlingua-cultural communication competence and acquiring minimal business-knowledge, it follows that BA graduates ca pursue a variety of junior job positions with a view to further professional specializations. The MA programmes, being advanced specialized postgraduate training, will equip the graduate for insertion in the marketplace in specific higher job positions as specialized translators (including public-service translators in legal, administrative, medical settings), terminologist, revisers, subtitlers, community interpreters (in legal, administrative, medical settings),

[2] Downloadable at http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/external_relations/universities/master_curriculum_en.pdf [July 14, 2008]

[3] Downloadable at http://www.emcinterpreting.org/curriculum.php [July 14, 2008]

conference interpreters, depending on the training they pursue and the electives offered. One thing is clear that LMA studies are geared on the business world rather than pedagogical careers.

ARACIS Methodology for Quality Assessment of LMA/T&I programmes

The Romanian Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education accredits tertiary-level education providers -and the programmes that they offer- according to principles developed in the 'Methodology for External Evaluation'. This methodology clearly sets areas, criteria, standards and performance indicators for quality assurance providing a common framework of reference for Romanian higher education institutions to self-evaluate for subsequent improved performance.

> Three fundamental **areas** of quality assurance in education must be taken into consideration for the organization and functioning of an organization which aims to become or already operates as a higher education institution. The criteria, the standards and the performance indicators are formulated so as to stress not only the institution's compliance with a predetermined or predefined set of quantitative and qualitative conditions, but also the deliberate, voluntary and proactive engagement of the institution in achieving certain performances, which can be demonstrated through effective outcomes. The role of the external evaluator, namely RAQAHE [RO acronym ARACIS], is to acknowledge and evaluate the managerial and educational capacity of the education provider, in order to be able, on this basis, to state, then validate or invalidate its functioning publicly and with documentary evidence.

(http://www.aracis.ro/uploads/33/51/Metodologie_de_evaluare_externa.pdf: 11, July 14, 2008)

The three areas are: (1) *Institutional Capacity*, referring to administrative and managerial structures as well as material resources, (2) *Educational Effectiveness*, comprising the "organization of teaching, learning and research processes in terms of content, methods and techniques, resources, selection of students and teaching and research staff, which would enable the institution to achieve the learning and research outcomes stated through its mission" (idem: 12) and (3) *Quality Management*, focusing on "strategies, structures, techniques and operations through which the institution demonstrates that it evaluates its own performance related to education quality assurance and improvement" (idem:13).

Additional to this general methodology, specialized committees within the ARACIS structure have developed specific standards as guidelines for higher education institutions operating domain-specific education. Applied Modern Language studies fall under the standards of evaluation drafted by the committee for Humanities and Theology as regulated by the Romanian Governmental Decision 1175/2006.
http://www.aracis.ro/uploads/309/Standarde_specifice_C02.pdf, [July 14, 2008]

In what follows we intend to pinpoint elements of potential enhancement in the evaluation criteria proposed by the ARACIS documents. If the 'Methodology' makes generally-valid quality statements, the specific standards have explicit focus. Our attention will fall on T&I training implications in our attempt to elicit if the quality desiderata presented above have been observed in these quality assessment tools.

Suggestions for enhancement of ARACIS standards

The following suggestions are the result of careful analysis of the Romanian system of language education (including T&I training). The arguments that underlie these suggestions are quality-driven and they are supported by the vocational-academic dichotomic characteristics of T&I higher education and by the new post-Bologna context.

Level of Training. In the new Bologna structure we strongly feel that T&I training in the Romanian context would be ineffective if attempted at BA level. There are a number of reasons for this assumption: (1) the 3-year structure does not permit specialized training and it is highly unlikely that the necessary level of competence could be reached for translators or interpreters to be successfully absorbed by the market, (2) given the absence of an entrance examination at BA level, the language level upon admission might be insufficient to attempt subsequent T&I competence-based instruction, (3) at BA level the number of students is higher than for MA programmes, hence it is more difficult for trainers to tutor catering to individual needs (so the training is less efficient) and if they all train for translation and interpreting the alternatives on employment will be limited, not to mention a quick saturation of the market with semi-amateurish performances. Consequently, we feel that a more general applied language BA training (as detailed under ‘quality desiderata’) would eliminate all these drawbacks. We realize that ARACIS is using the categorization provided by the Governmental Decision 1175/2006 and that it is for the law to be amended before ARACIS can operate any changes in this respect. However, we are confident that in light of the Bologna process a re-evaluation of previously justified categorizations will be viewed as mandatory and it is bound to lead to amendments that can upgrade the quality of Romanian higher education.

An additional issue is represented by the possibility of introducing MA intermediate certification after the first year of study.

Admission Criteria. No amendments proposed. We realize that the trend in higher education is to eliminate testing procedures for admission, especially at BA level and MA programmes may design particular admission criteria.

Candidate Profile. No amendments proposed. Still, we would like to emphasize the importance of recruiting BA graduates of ‘non-linguistic’ programmes for T&I MAs. Their profile is not only eligible for T&I MAs but it is highly welcomed (for reasons expressed above).

Language Level. According to the EC and international professional associations, T&I working languages are marked as ‘A – native’, ‘B- first foreign language’, ‘C- second foreign language’. Thus, the language identification system presented in the ‘Standards’ is currently confusing and will have to be revised (http://www.aracis.ro/uploads/309/Standarde_specifice_C02.pdf: 7.1.2, 7.3.61, 7.4.4.2, 7.4.4.3).

The two foreign languages will be required at the same level of proficiency. For the BA level CEFR B1/B2 is compatible with highschool requirements, hence admission is feasible by consideration of highschool (graduation) grades. For the MA, CEFR B2/C1 is recommended on admission. Consequently, the level aimed at BA graduation is B2/C1 rather than B1/B2 (as noted in 7.4.4.3), as this level will permit admission to the superior MA level.

Training Staff. In tune with UCG, EMT and EMCI recommendations, (practical) sessions must be conducted by professionals. This desideratum clashes with Romanian legislation and ARACIS stipulations which do not accept at MA level trainers who have not completed a PhD. If translation and interpreting are to be trained only at MA level (for reasons expressed above), prominent professionals must be allowed to train regardless of whether they have academic pursuits or not. These being predominantly vocational programmes it is of paramount importance that professionals contribute to the training. Furthermore, for enhanced quality, specific standards should stipulate that all teaching staff (permanent, i.e. employees or part-time, i.e. collaborators) **must** have documented professional experience. (amendment recommended for implementation under http://www.aracis.ro/uploads/33/51/Metodologie_de_evaluare_externa.pdf: 4.4. 2b)

Interlinked with this aspect, we will also suggest that for T&I training the following also be evaluated and quantified as valid, relevant research: publication of translations (with renowned publishing houses) and participation in national or international projects where translation/ interpreting plays a role in determining research findings. This would allow for professional expertise to be documented academically and could counterbalance lack of other academic research, especially in benefit of double-careered staff. (amendment recommended under http://www.aracis.ro/uploads /309/Standarde_specifice_C02.pdf: 7.5).

Curriculum Design. For the BA LMA programme, we recommend two additions: (1) Romanian Language course, imperative for language refinement, and (2) Information and Communication Technology ICT, imperative for modern-day text production situations. (amendments recommended to be implemented under http://www.aracis.ro/uploads/309/Standarde_specifice_C02.pdf: 7.4.4.2, 7.4.4.3). Other subjects proposed by the 'Standards' carefully meet overall LMA programme objectives.

EMT and EMCI recommendations provide guidelines for the development of T&I MA frameworks, however elements of specificity are not to be ruled out. According to the 'Specific Standards' the MA curriculum is quite flexible, allowing for inclusion of such subjects that programme designers consider appropriate for the trainees, i.e. in tune with market trends, and realistic for the trainers, i.e. in tune with their competences. We consider this flexibility very beneficial for higher education institutions allowing them to present competitive offers.

Career Prospectives. In the current ARACIS standards we note an overlap (or rather a mismatch) between career prospectives for graduates of LMA studies and Language and Literature studies. To clarify any miscomprehensions we will make the following statements: (1) LMA studies are geared on the business world as opposed to Language and Literature studies which have as objective teacher training (comparison of the two programmes is presented by Greere and Tătaru in this issue). (2) If 'Literature' is tackled in LMA structures, the purpose is to develop cultural awareness, however it is highly unlikely that the LMA graduate will be properly equipped to tackle literary translations. (3) On the other hand, Language and Literature graduates will not be skilled for specialized translations (as they lack background knowledge in domain-specific subject-areas and specific transfer competences) and they will not be skilled for interpreting as they have undergone no specific training. Consequently, BA LMA studies do not prepare for professions such as 'teacher in secondary education', 'philologists' 'literary specialist', or 'literary editor', these being career prospectives for Language and Literature graduates. Language and Literature studies do not prepare for careers as 'translator' (bar maybe the literary translator status), 'interpreter' or 'interpreter in diplomatic relations'. (amendments recommended to be implemented under http://www.aracis.ro/uploads/309/Standarde_specifice_C02.pdf: 7.1.2.2., 7.1.2.5, 7.1.2.6).

If it is admitted that under the new Bologna developments translation and interpreting require specific professional competence development, additional to language and cultural competences, which are recommended to be developed at MA level, only MA graduates will have career prospectives in translation and interpreting (with specializations such as 'legal translator', 'medical translator', 'technical writer', 'terminologist', 'subtitler', etc. and 'community interpreter', 'court interpreter', 'conference interpreter', etc.).

Conclusion

In testing the validity of ARACIS standards for LMA/T&I programmes we find that apart from some omissions or inaccuracies, the standards are compliant with European LMA(LEA)/T&I training recommendations. Noteworthy is the degree of flexibility conferred to MA level programmes in what regards admission criteria (including candidate profiles), curriculum development and learning outcomes (quantified as career prospectives).

Given the specific outcomes geared on vocational and academic skills, LMA/T&I will exhibit particular requirements. This specificity must be acknowledged and incorporated in the standards for enhanced quality training. Consequently, there are some aspects that have been noted with recommendations for amendment. Imperative amendments are related to (1) the staging out of the training (BA: Applied Modern Languages, MA: Specialized Translation/Conference Interpreting) by acknowledging that translation and interpreting require advanced competences to be fully developed exclusively within postgraduate MA training and (2) the expanding of training staff profile requirements to include professional experience, and implicitly admittance of professionals without an academic track as trainers.

We are aware of the fact that the recommended amendments are implementable subject to compatibility with Romanian legislation on higher education. However, given the Bologna renewal of higher education, we feel that a legislative updating is imminent. Furthermore, ARACIS, too, is undergoing a process of methodological re-evaluation as a follow-up to the piloting of 2007. This change-driven context will prove optimal for consideration of the proposed amendments.

As LMA/T&I studies in Romania are only now finding an identity of their own, it is only natural to evaluate European recommendations on quality against the national context before final decisions are reached. Implementation of the Bologna process also contributes to a 'trial-and-error' feeling in higher education. All in all, this adjustment stage in higher education can be beneficial to all stakeholders if approached correctly. The fact that ARACIS has invited relevant stakeholders to make proposals for amendments of its 'Methodology' and 'Specific Standards' is clearly a step in the right direction (LMA-Cluj has already submitted the above detailed recommendations). It remains to be seen how these proposals will be managed.

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TRAINING FOR THE TRANSLATION PROFESSION: WHAT DO ROMANIAN UNIVERSITY PROGRAMMES HAVE TO OFFER?

ANCA GREERE*, **CRISTINA TĂTARU****

ABSTRACT. Anyone holding a university degree in languages[1] can be authorised by the Romanian Ministry of Justice to perform legalised translations. We intend to test the validity of this procedure by inquiring into the competences developed during the undergraduate years by the Departments of Foreign Language and Literature (offering philological training) and the Departments of Applied Modern Languages (offering specific translator training). For this purpose, we will evaluate the curricula of two departments within the Babeş-Bolyai University of Cluj-Napoca (namely, the Department of English Language and Literature and the Department of Applied Modern Languages) so as to establish the nature and degree of exposure to the specificity of the translation profession[2]. We conclude with a word of advice to our graduates: Do not be misled! Authorised translations are not literary translations and literary translations are not authorised translations.

Keywords: translator vs. language training, public-service translations vs. literary translations, curriculum development, translation competence

Introduction

Before Departments of Applied Modern Languages were set up in Romania (the first in 1991 in Cluj-Napoca) all language training was done within the Departments of Language and Literature of Philology Faculties. Graduates of language and literature departments could become both teachers of a foreign language in secondary or higher education or translators authorised by the Ministry of Justice to perform legal/legalised translations, respectively, by the Ministry of

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[1] We will limit our analysis to higher education training, even though we are aware of the fact that according to Romanian legislation anyone holding a school-leaving diploma (*Diplomă de Baccalaureat*) from highschools where the training is done in a foreign language/minority language can also present an application with the Ministry of Justice for an authorisation. (OG nr. 11/2005)

[2] This article details the presentation entitled 'Does the English department train translators? Authorized translations vs. literary translations' delivered at the 2006 Conference *Construction of Identities*, organized by the Department of English Language and Literature of the Faculty of Letters, Babeş-Bolyai University of Cluj-Napoca, Romania.

Culture, to perform literary translations. Today, this is still possible, in spite of the existence of specialised undergraduate and master level training in the field of translation. The specialised translator/interpreter training is undertaken by the Departments of Applied Modern Languages (LMA Departments) in university centres such as Cluj-Napoca, Bucharest, Iaşi, Timişoara and others.

Given that the Romanian translation/interpreting market has witnessed a boom in the past few years, we feel that a closer analysis of the professional standard is called for. In this study we set out to evaluate the current situation in Romania as regards the professions of translator and interpreter by looking into: (1) translator/interpreter authorisation procedures and (2) training programmes offered at undergraduate and master's level. Our intent is to identify the range of competences offered by specific training programmes within the Romanian context so that we may then evaluate the validity of the authorisation procedure by the Romanian Ministry of Justice to see whether the basis for authorisation is competence-oriented and whether this procedure is fine-tuned according to European standards.

Our main aim is to tackle the difference between authorised (hence legalised) translations and literary translations from the point of view of the competences entailed for these activities. Such competences are developed through given training programmes and are then enhanced 'on the job' as the translator gains in experience.

As the two professions indicate that there are multiple differences in the way competences are applied, we think it is only fit for training programmes to tailor to specific training needs. Also, authorisation procedures must relevantly include such criteria meant to test the competences held by the applicant, competences that the applicant acquired either through training or a solid professional experience.

1. Authorisation

Our starting point is the procedure of authorisation for professional translators. Briefly, we will say that in order for someone to work as a specialised translator and/or[3] interpreter in Romania (and get paid for this service), the would-be translator and/or interpreter will follow an authorisation procedure that includes assessment of domain-specific language knowledge at the Ministry of Culture (if the applicant is a graduate of specialised undergraduate education) and/or submission of an application file with the Ministry of Justice (in case the applicant holds a degree in languages).

This procedure entails a number of problems indicative of the fact that the two professions are not understood in essence by the authorisation bodies.

[3] Even though translation and interpreting are two distinct professions, in Romania there are many professionals who perform both types of activities. Additionally, the authorisation issued by the Ministry of Justice also entails that both professions can be performed. (Legea 178/1997, Legea 36/1995)

(1) The criteria of eligibility show that anyone having been awarded a university degree in languages (or even a highschool degree[4] from highschools where training is undertaken in a foreign language) can aspire to the profession of 'authorised translator/interpreter' without having been enrolled in translator/interpreter training programs and without having any knowledge of the legal domain. In contrast, those individuals who have graduated from departments specialising in fields other than language will have to be tested and certified by the Ministry of Culture in the legal domain in order to be eligible for authorisation by the Ministry of Justice.

(2) Another discrepancy is given by the fact that on the basis of the written application, the applicant is authorised both as a translator and interpreter, i.e. to translate legal/official texts for juridical purposes and to interpret in courts or for the Notary public. Repeated refusals to respond to interpreting tasks can – theoretically – result in the annulment of the authorisation, even when that refusal is justified by the fact that the translator does not posses interpreting skills and s/he responsibly acknowledges this lack of competence.

(3) The authorisation by the Ministry of Justice clearly states that the translator/interpreter is authorised to work in both transfer directions, i.e. into the mother-tongue and into the foreign language, even if in one direction the translator/interpreter would not have sufficient transfer competence.

(4) Language graduates who want to become translators in fields other than the law should not have to apply to the Ministry of Justice for authorisation. However, Romanian legislation in force is not perceptive to this reality. Thus, translators, who want to legally invoice their clients, can either set up a sole-trading business (in which case the authorisation from the Ministry of Justice is compulsory[5]) or set up a company by inclusion of translation services in the objects clause.

Additionally, we have to note that the role of the authorisation is frequently misunderstood by clients, as well. Clients often consider the authorisation a sign of professionalism and seek out authorised translators for any task, regardless if the task they are commissioning involves a legal/official text-genre (that would entail a legalisation procedure subsequent to the translation) or not. Text-genres such as newspaper articles, journal articles etc. do not require a legalisation procedure, and are most often received in the TC without due credit to the translator. Hence, anyone with translation competence (in the given domain) could be a potential service provider, the authorisation is irrelevant in this case[6] and it doesn't indicate a more reliable service.

[4] Note that this practice goes against European criteria of eligibility for employment of translators or interpreters. Applicants for these positions are asked to provide proof of their university training. (www.europa.eu/epso)

[5] c.f. Romanian Law 300/2004 (Legea 300/2004 privind autorizarea persoanelor fizice şi a asociaţiilor familiale care desfăşoară activităţi economice în mod independent, publicată în M. Of. partea I nr. 576 din 29.06.2003, normele de aplicare 1766/2004)

[6] The authorisation is relevant only in such cases where the TT requires – by law – a legalisation procedure to be preformed by the Notary public. Through this procedure the translator is clearly identified as an authorised translator by the Ministry of Justice.

The initial conclusion that we may draw is that anyone having a degree in languages can and should be authorised if they want to perform the services of translation or interpretation: CAN - because of the lax procedure, and SHOULD - because of legislation in force and because of clients' biased attitude towards translators who do not hold an authorisation. Sadly, legislators, authorisation bodies and clients are not sufficiently aware of the competences required by these professions and of the training programmes existing within higher education where translators and interpreters are prepared to tackle the realities of the two distinct professions.

In what follows we intend to compare the professions of 'translator' and 'interpreter' and the professions of 'authorised translator' and 'literary translator' to pinpoint what competences are needed to perform these activities. Subsequently, in the chapter on 'Training', we will identify the competences developed within training programmes so that we may then revisit the authorisation procedure in an attempt to draw some conclusive remarks.

2. The Professions

We find it imperative to reiterate ideas on the differences between the activities of translation and interpretation, which have been theoretically noted but fail to be sufficiently considered in practice by Romanian participants to the intercultural communication processes.

Further, we intend to compare and contrast the activity of the authorised translator as opposed to that of the literary translator with the purpose of adequately identifying and accurately describing the competences required for the two professional profiles.

2.1. Translator vs. Interpreter

Firstly, we must draw the attention to the major difference between the professions of translator and interpreter.

The translator works with written texts whereas the interpreter endeavours to make oral texts comprehensible to an audience which lacks source-language competence. Although this difference is viewed as common-knowledge, clients fail to understand its relevance in ascribing given tasks and Romanian authorisation bodies fail to understand its relevance in awarding authorisations to translators/interpreters.

There is too little awareness of the following realities:

(1) Language competence is only a part of translation/interpreting competence (refer to subchapter on 'Translation Competence' for a full understanding of the components of translation competence). Wrongly so, Romanian individual and institutional clients alike consider that anyone who has some language competence can perform a written and/or spoken transfer from one language into another (with either the source-language or the target-language being the mother-tongue).

(2) Transferring a written message entails different aspects as opposed to transferring a message received through an oral medium. Translation is characterised

by linguistic precision, multiple revision, ample research in the pre-translation phase but also during the translation phase, task documentation and systematisation in the post-translation phase, client collaboration, etc., whereas interpreting brings into play such characteristics as are: distributive attention, spontaneity, flexibility/ adaptability, improved memorisation, etc.

(3) The degree of difficulty for the transfer direction foreign language into mother tongue is different to the direction mother tongue into foreign language. It is believed that translation/interpretation[7] into the mother-tongue will generally result in appropriate text production. Nevertheless, note that there are advantages and disadvantages with each transfer direction. For example, translation/interpretation into the mother tongue is more plausible and easier to perform if the native-speaker is indeed highly proficient in the mother-tongue. However, the level of linguistic competence (especially domain-specific competence) will vary among native-speakers. Not every person who declares himself a native speaker will exhibit a C2 level of competence according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (promoted by the European Council)[8]. On the other hand, translation/ interpretation into the foreign language is assumed more difficult because: cognitively-speaking, this is not the language the individual thinks in; from the point of view of exposure, this is not the language employed in the daily environment of that individual; from the point of view of production, depending on the level of foreign-language proficiency, this is a language where production is almost inevitably intertwined with somewhat awkward syntactical constructions or lexical choices. On the positive side, foreign recipients approach a translation/interpretation context with linguistic tolerance[9], with an open attitude towards communication ignoring – within reasonable limits – any awkwardness in TT production as long as this does not affect the overall development of the communication process.

Clients will tend to commission tasks based on their individual assumptions and experience with translation and interpretation. We consider that it is the responsibility of the translator or the interpreter to take on such tasks that

[7] Note that the European Commission uses (and tests) for translation and interpretation only the direction into the mother-tongue.

[8] In order to have a C2 language competence a native-speaker will have been exposed to various language experiences (domain-specific or otherwise) and s/he will continue throughout adult life to cultivate language proficiency by developing constant awareness of linguistic nuances and of changing textual standards. Being born into a language does not automatically make one a competent native-speaker of that language, especially in those situations where the individual left the country of origin and moved to another country, where s/he uses the native language on a restrictive scale as opposed to the foreign language of the country of adoption. Loss of contact with the day-to-day developments of the native language, i.e. with language-in-use, will undoubtedly force the native users to display outdated language characteristics in their choice for lexical and grammatical constructions.

[9] The tolerance that recipients might exhibit is no excuse for poor professional performance. The professional translator/interpreter should not set out to produce text into the foreign language when s/he is aware of competence gaps only because s/he makes use of the potential tolerance the text will be received with in the foreign culture.

correspond with their profile and to refuse tasks that are beyond their capabilities, even when the price is extremely attractive. Such a competence-conscious attitude will render the individual a professional.

2.2. Authorised Translator vs. Literary Translator

As these two professions are the focus of our study, we will further indicate the main points of contrast in the profiles of these translators and the activities that they perform. Specifically, we will be looking at: (1) professional certification, (2) the translation task (including client profiles and applicable transfer techniques), (3) the translation process, (4) the set of competences required to perform such tasks.

2.2.1. Professional certification

In order to start out this comparison, we would first have to explain a contradiction in terms. The use of the word 'authorised' is to some extent improper, if we consider the fact that the literary translator may also hold a form of authorisation[10].

The *authorised translator* is a language university graduate or a graduate of a specialised faculty[11] who, on the basis of a procedure performed by the Romanian Ministry of Justice, was granted authorisation to translate, especially texts with legal relevance such as official documents, (i.e. degrees and diplomas, certificates, contracts, court sentences, etc.) for legal institutions such as Notary public offices, courts of law, etc.

The *literary translator* is the translator who translates texts of a literary nature and who is often a university graduate of foreign language departments. Nevertheless, the literary translator may also hold a certification issued by the Ministry of Culture to perform translations in the literary domain. So, s/he too is an authorised translator; however, the authorisation body as well as the domain of textual performance is different.

2.2.2. Translation Task

The *authorised translator* is authorised to translate official documents or any other legal texts. Usually these texts are not exceedingly long and the translation job will finish within a maximum of one month (exceptions do occur). Because such documents are always domain-specific, research into domain-specific realities is always necessary, unless the translator already possesses knowledge in the given subfield. The collaboration with the client is also very important as the translator will learn from the client what the functionality of the TT is intended to be and who the recipients are. Such information will considerably guide the TT

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[10] Nowadays, very few literary translators hold this certificate. Most literary translators will invoice their clients through a company or a publishing house.

[11] In this case, the future translator will have to take an exam with the Romanian Ministry of Culture for the legal domain, prior to submission of the application for the authorisation by the Ministry of Justice.

production as the translator will design such a transfer technique that will accommodate specific communicational needs of the client and the recipients. As these texts are generally subject to a legalisation procedure by the Notary Public, the translator has the duty to observe during TT design such production criteria that are regulated by Romanian laws. Additionally, the translator cannot apply any adaptation or modifications requests made by the client – even if these are in the benefit of the recipient – unless s/he seeks the approval of the Notary public who validates the legality of the transfer action. Hence, the adequacy of the TT lies with Skopos, the factors of situationality and the legislation in force.

The *literary translator* translates texts pertaining to the literary genre. Because of stylistic, semantic, etc. characteristics of the text, the translator will accept for translation or will decide to translate only such STs (produced by authors) that the translator may feel empathy towards. Thus, feasibility is not decided upon in terms of (domain) knowledge or experience but rather in terms of individual affinity with the ST and linguistic/cultural translatability of elements pertaining to stylistics, register, sociolect, dialect, and idiolect. Frequently, there is no client to speak of and no communicative or business needs that should be fulfilled as a result of the translational act. In terms of transfer strategy, we cannot invoke adaptation to reception conditions as an appropriate technique because faithfulness to the ST's authorial intention is of paramount importance. Thus, the addressee profile is (almost totally) irrelevant as is the situationality of reception.

2.2.3. Translation Process

As mentioned above, *authorised translations* are governed by Romanian legislation in force. There are elements that must be considered during TT production such as the verbalisation of non-verbal elements like photos, signatures, etc. The translator must affix a certification formula and must send the translation to be legalised[12] by a Notary public[13].

Usually, such texts are not very long and the production of the TT is not very time-consuming unless the translator has to research extensively to compensate for lingua-cultural/domain knowledge gaps.

The problems the authorised translator encounters have to do with: eliciting appropriate terminology, observing the translation brief, designing transfer strategies that will suit the profile of the recipient and be approved by the Notary public, etc.

The inability to find proper research resources and the lack of a full-size brief provided by an uncollaborative client are elements that can considerably slow down the production of the target-text.

A task of *literary translation* is always considerably lengthy: the text to be translated is (generally) long (e.g. prose) or it reflects production features difficult

[12] Through the legalisation procedure the Notary public states that the translator of the text indeed holds an authorisation issued by the Romanian Ministry of Justice.

[13] For complete formal and content requirements regarding legalised translations consult Legea 36/1995, Annex 1.

to duplicate (e.g. rhythm and rhyme in poetry), research may be cumbersome (especially when the author is dead or cannot be contacted for specific reasons) and self-revision must always take place after a long pause allowing the translator to gain the necessary distance from the ST and the TT.

The translator of literary texts is not dependant on any brief or other means of client input, though s/he too may be considerably slowed down by insufficient research findings. For the literary translator, the following elements will raise the level of transfer difficulty: literary canon, stage of language development, conventions of epoch, typical rhetorical and/or versification patterns, conveying the same degree of ambiguity etc. In other words, literary translation is more dependent on context (in all the acceptations of the term), than non-literary translation.

2.2.4. Translation Competences

For translators to be able to produce target-texts at given professional standards, they must have developed – as part of their training or through experience – specific competences. Translation competence overlaps to some extent in performing these two activities (i.e. authorised translations vs. literary translations). However, the focus and the relevance of sub-competences will differ: whereas client collaboration may be specifically relevant to fulfilling a task by the authorised translator, this aspect fails to represent a cornerstone in the production of a literary translation; both the literary translator and the authorised translator will have to posses some managerial skills; task feasibility evaluators differ between the commission for an authorised translation as opposed to a commission of literary translation; research in view of TT production is undertaken by both professionals but with different research needs, different research sources and different criteria of validating research results; the self-revision process is also quite different both in terms of time and focus of subsequent re-readings, etc.

For the purpose of comparing competences specific for each of the two profiles (i.e. the authorised translator and the literary translator), we will draw on Greere’s model (2003:131-143), which we have slightly updated to include ‘computer competence’ so as to suit the ever-growing presence of computer programs in the life of a translator. In analysing the sub-competences that build up translation competence for the authorised translator as opposed to the literary translator, we notice that both profiles entail the maintaining and upgrading of such process and product competences as are organisational competence, communicative competence, research competence, computer competence, language competence, cultural competence, textual/discourse competence and subject competence.

During one’s profession, the Romanian translator will not only translate text into the mother tongue, but also into his foreign language(s). As a result, when we refer to product competences these will have to cover both the source reality (source language and culture) as well as the target reality (target language and culture). Process competences do not involve languages for transfer purposes, but rather other abilities leading up to task fulfilment.

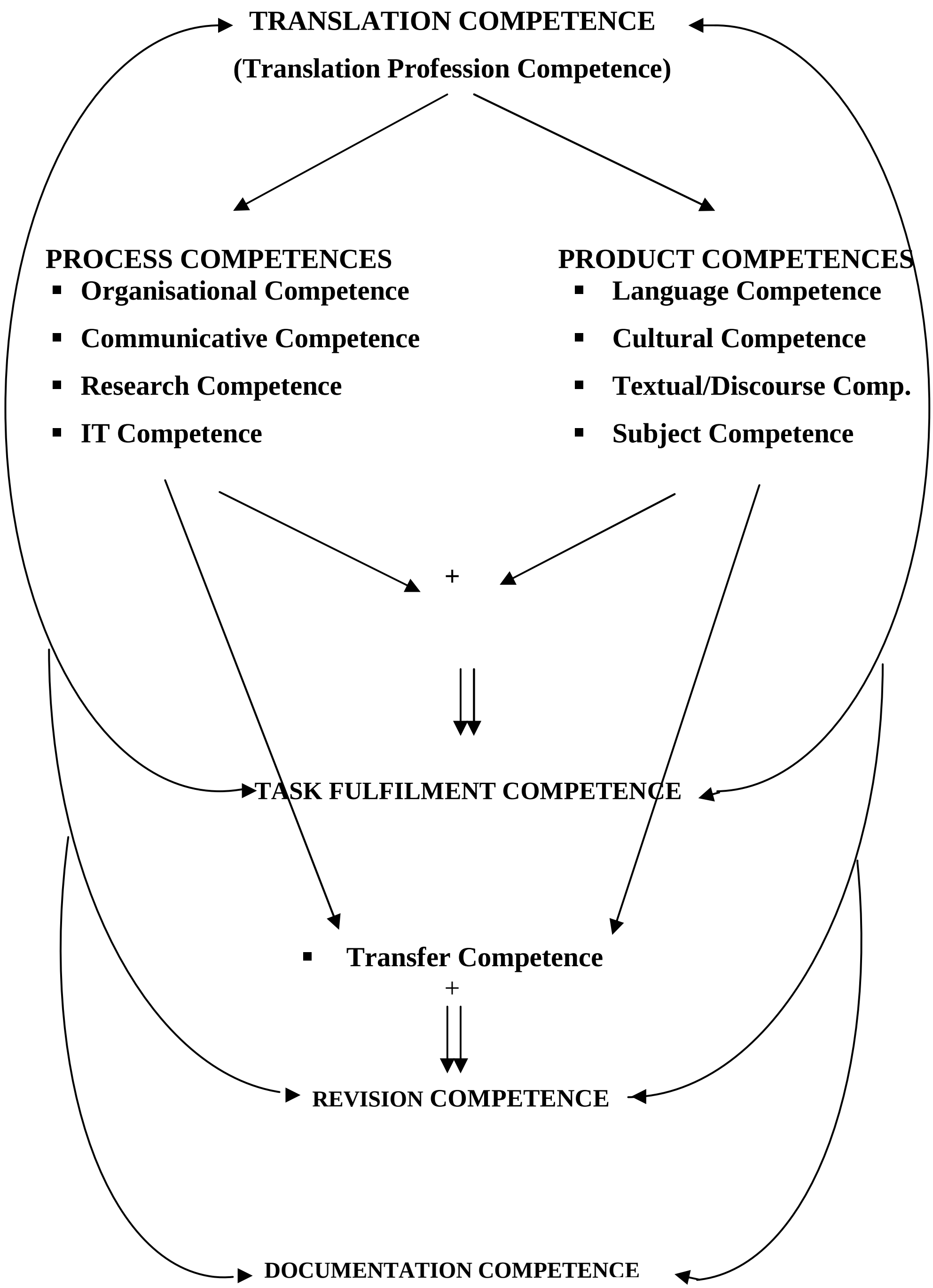
Both types of translation are inevitably to be analysed as pertaining to different domains. As with any domain translation, product competences will be described by reference to domain-specific characteristics, be they linguistic, cultural, textual or subject-oriented. In what follows, we will also see that even process competences are to some extent determined by the particulars of the domain. If the text is domain-specific, all actions of the translator must consider the domain reality with all its implications, and all competences must be oriented towards that particular domain.

Organisational Competence is the ability to organise the translation work in all its aspects including organisation of the business (e.g. management of office, accounting aspects, marketing of service, etc.), the research (e.g. reliable/relevant research sources, systematisation of research results, etc.) and the communication process with collaborators (e.g. task feasibility, negotiation of deadline, continuous assistance throughout the translation process).

Usually literary translators do not have a 'translation office' proper. So, such situations where clients come in and go out, the phone rings, clients are unrealistic about commissions as regards TT production are not really frequent. The translator of literary texts may just as well seek out texts or authors s/he feels empathy with and decide to translate the text. An offer of translation will be made to publishing houses before or even after the TT was produced. The text of the translation is treated in a more or less similar way as original authorial texts, therefore the name of the translator is important, whereas the retribution often has the character of royalties.

Authorised translators may be organised as a sole-trading business (Romanian 'persoană fizică autorizată') or a company (most frequently a Romanian SRL – private company limited by shares). If this business is the only means of financial income, authorised translators have to posses some very efficient marketing skills as the number of authorised translators in Romania is currently over 15,000. (http://www.just.ro/ files/experti_tehnici/ Traducatori05102006.pdf)

As opposed to literary translators, whose work is quite lengthy (if they get a contract, this will ensure that they have work for at least a number of months), authorised translators frequently only get casual clients with very short texts to translate. For these reasons authorised translators have to devise management and marketing techniques that will help to attract clients, whereas literary translators can be their own commissioners.



(adapted after Greere 2003: 131)

'Communicative competence is the ability to initiate and sustain a communicative relationship with collaborators [e.g. client, domain-experts, Notary public] for the purpose of ensuring task fulfilment.' (Greere 2003:134)

The competence to communicate efficiently will ultimately determine the appropriateness of the target text production. Authorised translators make use of this competence more than literary translators do. In the case of literary translators, transfer decisions are not a matter of negotiation (hence less communication), whereas authorised translators will often have to negotiate macrotextual and (sometimes) even microtextual solution alternatives either with the client or with the Notary public. Authorised translators have to deal with (reluctant) clients in order to obtain a full-scale brief and one that will enable them to narrow down the transfer choices to one alternative that will suit the situationality of textual reception in the target culture. Furthermore, discussions with domain-experts are often quite tiresome due to the (more or less) limited foreign language competence such experts will have. Last, communicative competence will also be used with the Notary public, an active interlocutor for the translation process.

Literary translators need communicative competence when engaging into a discussion with the author of the text (on a particular stylistic or semantic ambiguity) and when in contact with the editor of the publishing house. Otherwise, the TT production is guided by the translators' language flair, their interpretive skills, their affinity with the text and their knowledge of the author and his position within a particular literary epoch/trend.

'Research competence is the ability to seek, extract and validate textual and client information relevant for task fulfilment by researching resources available or by engaging expert consultancy' (Greere 2003: 134).

Whereas the legal translator will focus on domain-specificity, i.e. research in the field of the law, language focus on legal terminology and legal text-genre conventionality, the literary translator will also research, but s/he researches for authorial specificity in terms of usage of lexical and syntactical units, discursive techniques characteristic to one author alone, cultural and situational implications of plot, etc.

Potential sources of research include dictionaries, books and the internet. While the authorised translator will use (monolingual and bilingual) dictionaries to a smaller extent (especially because domain-specific bilingual dictionaries are very hard to come by) and will most frequently resort to researching (often on the internet) for parallel and comparative texts[14] to elicit text production macrotextual and microtextual conventions, the literary translator will use the internet in a restrictive sense (maybe to

[14] Parallel texts are '[TC] linguistically independent products arising from an identical or very similar situation [to the ST] (Snell-Hornby 1988:86); that is, they are original [TL] texts on the same subject-matter, belonging to the same text-type as the SL text (Nord 1991:155).Comparative texts are original TL texts on similar subject-matter as the ST encoded in a (possibly) different text-type and text-genre than the ST (Greere 2003:167).

find critiques of the work being translated, maybe to find information on the author, other works by the same author or within the same literary trend) and will frequently make use of such research tools that will help enhance the linguistic transfer, namely dictionaries and thesauruses. This difference is actually given by the transfer method the two professionals apply. The authorised translator seeks to find standard drafting formulations that s/he may copy or imitate (where the meaning allows) so as to better address the expectancies of the specialised audience regarding textual conventionality, whereas the literary translator seeks to get a feel of the text, of the author, to be able to interpret and transmit the expressive value of the work. The authorised translator strives on conventionality, whereas the literary translator is preoccupied with maintaining the degree of originality from the ST.

Computer Competence is comprised of skills and knowledge relating to the use of computers for purposes of translation.

This competence is better represented in the profile of the authorised translator who can work with CAT[15]-tools in order to avoid unproductive research and transfer strategies. Such tools will help the translator systemise conventional features that can and need to be subsequently duplicated for domain-similar tasks. The translation memory will help save precious time (that will otherwise go into researching the same materials again and into validating solutions encountered) and will help produce accurate solutions on the basis of previously validated research results. Terminological work as well as excerpts previously translated will be issued automatically (under supervision) in the TT by replacements (where the level of correspondence is very high) or by suggestions (where replacements might result in errors due to a lower level of correspondence). Familiarisation with such tools considerably increases efficiency (by reducing the effort and time spent on a given task) and the transferability of the ST (by offering appropriate transfer solutions previously tested for conventionality). Additionally, typographic work and formatting requirements, arrangement of data into tables, and interpretation and validation of search results are all part of the everyday life of a translation task. Hence, the authorised translator should know how to handle a Word document (and the features entailed), an Excel table and the navigational facilities of particular internet search engines (e.g. Google).

Needless to say, in today's world any text production will be electronic. Translation of literature will also be computer-based, even if it uses only basic editing programmes. Literary translators will not have any use of memory tools as their work is by definition unique, based on originality rather than conventional repetitiveness. However, for lexical/semantic searches, literary translators may resort to electronic dictionaries/thesauruses to speed up their search. Though not exhaustive, Microsoft Word facilities like: 'synonym' or 'thesaurus' may also prove efficient. Still, at times, computer programmes can become a hindrance in literary

[15] CAT = Computer-Aided Translation

translation, because of the computer's "stubbornness" in not accepting certain nonce-words or in "correcting" punctuation or word-order in a mechanical way. Variants are more than often lost, which might be serious reasons for not translating straight on the computer, especially when poetry is in question.

Language Competence is defined by Neubert (2000: 8) as involving the knowledge of the 'niceties of the grammatical and the lexical systems of the source and target language … as well as preferred syntactic and morphological conventions.'

Both professionals have to possess source and target language competence in order to perform the translation task adequately. However, each translator will enhance the general lexical and grammatical knowledge inherent to language competence with elements specific to the two translation directions they each represent. Hence, the literary translator adds the expressive function of the language while the authorised translator focuses on domain-specific language characteristics.

Language competence for the literary translator includes the knowledge and interpretive potential of figures of speech and original structural and lexical subtleties devised by the author to obtain a particular literary effect – for the source language, and the linguistic capacity (better expressed as 'the linguistic talent') to render the expressive value of the ST by selecting (from among those existing) or devising (where the degree of textual originality calls for linguistic novelty) such TL structural and lexical subtleties equivalent in effect to those produced by the ST author. Perhaps the most striking stylistic difference between the two types of translation is that the literary translator is compelled to preserve ambiguities in the TT (since they are most likely to be style markers), whereas the authorised translator is under the obligation to disambiguate any formulation in the ST that is likely to lead to parallel and equally valid readings of one and the same text.

The authorised translator will have to develop his general language competence with domain-specific language components. The focus of the authorised translator falls onto appropriate usage of terminology from the legal domain and other domains legally regulated by the text-genre requiring translation, legal phraseology and collocations conventionally used in legal text drafting, usage of foreign legal expressions (especially from Latin), 'void' adverbs specific to legalese (e.g. hereinafter, herewith etc.), use of archaic grammatical forms (maintained especially in English legal drafting), grammatical constructions that carry legal implications (e.g. the use of English modal verbs), specific linkage devices sustaining textual coherence of given legal texts, and atypical syntactic structures (i.e. specific legalese word-order and sentence structure devised to enhance the interpretation of legal meaning at the risk of being ungrammatical). In other words, legal translation seeks for monosemy, while literary translation exploits polysemy in all its aspects.

In every translation process, active language competence of both source and target language is needed. The translator must be able to accurately interpret the ST and to produce a TT adequate to the text-genre. So, elements like the ones noted above must be received (i.e. decoded from the ST) and reproduced (i.e. encoded in the TT) with equal accuracy. If the translator takes on tasks involving both translation directions (i.e. into/from the mother-tongue), it follows that foreign language competence cannot remain passive. Production into the foreign language is also required to abide by the specificities of literary text production and legal text production, respectively. Whereas, legal language text production is based on conventionality and standardisation of language usage and can be learned through training or experience, literary texts are by rule highly original, making the job of the translator quite difficult. We would safely say that language competent authorised translators can do a good job of legal translations into the foreign language (with the help of research material), but language competent literary translators must rely on linguistic talent and a (near) native-speaker feel of the foreign language to address a foreign audience with a literary product.

Cultural Competence comprises knowledge of those elements that are 'strikingly, but also less visibly, contrastive (or identical) between source and target culture patternings' (Neubert 2000: 10) in respect to 'historical, political, economic, cultural etc. aspects in the respective countries' (Schaeffner 2000: 146) including 'socio-behavioural custom patternings' (Greere 2003: 137).

Literary works are the expression of a culture and authors of literature will always make reference (implicitly or explicitly) to beliefs, customs, social acceptability standards etc. pertaining to the national context their work describes. Such reference is (easily) decodable by readers who are rooted in that culture through their background knowledge and experience. However, the translation of such elements is highly problematic, especially if the targeted culture is very different to the source culture.

The password in the trans-rooting of literary text into the target-culture, then, seems to be adequacy, rather than strict linguistic accuracy. Literary translation poses such problems as lack of a relevant situational context in the target-culture for a situation existing in the source culture (Neubert's definition of "cultural untranslatability" – Neubert 1984: 60), whence the ensuing categories of "loss" and "gain" in translation (Bassnett 1980: 54sq). Lack of denotation and/or lack of connotation in the TL of a lexical item or construction in the SL are also frequent problems encountered by a literary translator and can only be overcome by a more or less accurate level shift (solving translation problems occurring at one level of the language by resorting to means and instruments pertaining to another level – for instance paraphrasing a notion that does not exist in the TL or, even, giving footnotes). Even under such circumstances, though, deciphering a literary text coming from another culture might prove problematic to a TL-recipient, since the glossematic ratio between any two languages is far from being one-to-one. The recipient of the TT has to put to use his imagination in a way comparable, if not greater than with literary texts in his own mother-tongue.

In comparison to the literary translator, the authorised translator seems to be spared the difficulty of having to convey cultural connotations. In viewing culture[16] as a mixture of beliefs, customs, traditions, conventional social behaviour

[16] Culture can be defined in a more restrictive sense to include only customs/beliefs/artistic initiatives but it may also be defined more loosely to make reference to the sum total ways of living by a people.

and historical links that bring a people together, we will have to admit that legal texts have a very small cultural imprint as such texts mainly describe the mechanisms of the legal system. Still, the legal system reflects to a great extent the manner in which society appreciates the concept of 'justice'. Different societies may accept or reject individual procedures; nevertheless, there is a note of consensus at an international level regarding the need for justice and the need to arrange (personal and professional) relationships through legally-binding methods.

For these reasons, the legal domain may be defined as partially internationalised, i.e. exhibiting international traits and partially culture-bound, i.e. linked to the reality of a given nation. This means that there are a number of domain concepts that are to be found on an international level; however, as a result of national legislation in force, legal procedures may differ. This difference will bring about a patterning of legal performance and legal expectations.

If we enlarge the concept of culture and consider these patterns to be part of one's cultural background, then we may speak of a legal culture, and if we speak of a legal culture, then we may speak of translating cultural references embedded in the SC legal system. In this case, the ST is produced by its author to contain such presuppositions that the SC audience can decode with the knowledge and experience they have of their native legal system. In translation, knowledge of comparative law will help the translator overcome such transfer problems by consideration of discrepancies in the two legal systems. The methods used in transfer are: explicitation of ST presuppositions (i.e. making explicit what has remained implicit in the ST), adaptation to TC acceptability standards (where appropriate), or use of the 'translator's note' to guide the way TC recipients interpret the (legal) implications of textual units and of specific legal realities described.

If, paradoxically, a literary translator were set in the situation of translating a legal text, his first worry would be, instinctively, to render the archaic or obsolescent words and expressions by possible equivalents from about the same stage of development of the TL (which, needless to say, are almost never accurate or adequate). A legal translator need not know the history of either SL or TL, or of the terms s/he uses, while for a literary translator this is a must.

Textual/Discourse Competence. For the authorised translator, this competence refers strictly to conventionality and regularity of textual production, i.e. being able to identify and reproduce 'normative usages and arrangements of types and genres of texts' (Neubert 2000: 8). Legal texts are highly normative and both textual production and reception are guided by the expectancies of the lay and specialised public regarding individual legal text-genres. In comparison to Romanian legal drafting where sometimes ambiguity is sought to facilitate a more lax interpretation in case of legal dispute, English legal drafting seeks to obtain maximum content clarity[17]. Such

[17] Drafting procedures mirror the type of textual construction (i.e. interpretation) applied in common law courts as opposed to civil law courts, namely grammatical interpretation vs. contextual interpretation. Sarcevic1997: 62

discourse might seem to present some 'faults' when scrutinised by a layman's eye: sometimes ungrammatical-like constructions are produced, the sequence of sentence units might seem unnatural, disturbing use of synonyms leading to (apparent) unnecessary redundancy, reversed argument logic etc. Typographical characteristics, layout features, specific formatting strategies must also be taken as conventional for legal drafting. Because such elements may very well carry legal meaning, they should also be included when textual/discourse competence is developed. The translation of official documents and legal texts calls for research into drafting conventionality, research undertaken by analysis of parallel, comparative and background texts. Once the translator identifies original model texts in the TC, s/he will simply attempt to copy the textual and discursive features elicited. Consequently, the major difficulty lies with the research rather than the production proper.

In opposition, the literary translator deals mainly with non-normative, original text production. S/He cannot copy previously produced textual units from the same text-genre and consider the production process a success. The literary translator has to invent target language strategies similar in effect to those of the ST, s/he has to duplicate ambiguity to its subtlest degree, s/he has to duplicate argumentative sequences specific to authorial style, s/he has to keep the deep structure of the text deep and not surface it unnecessarily (i.e. explicitation might ruin the authorial intent) etc. It follows that the productive process will be an endeavour to produce originality in comparison to the productive process of the authorised translator who should master the technique of imitating /copying textual-discursive conventionality.

Subject Competence is knowledge about the subject tackled in the text. Important aspects include topicality of subject-matter for a given culture, culturally-tabu or trivial topics, subject interconnectivity to other subjects within the same field or within different fields, relevance of subject-matter for a given domain etc. Subject competence refers to domain-specificity as well as to cultural-specificity. Whereas the authorised translator will have to tackle subject-matter mainly from a domain perspective, the literary translator will also have to apply a filter of culturality alongside the domain filter.

From the point of view of subject-matter, the problems an authorised translator faces are mainly linked to (1) comprehension of subject-matter (what do concepts mean? what does the text infer?), (2) understanding of the role particular subjects play within the given domain (what is the relevance of the subject depicted?, what is the relationship with or level of dependency to other subjects within the domain?) and (3) identification of the transfer potential into a foreign culture by analysis of internationalised or cultural-bound domain realities (how well is that subject known in the TC as opposed to the SC?, what terminology should be used to capture the same idea?). If the translator does not possess enough domain knowledge to deal with subject-matter issues, s/he may very well overcome this competence gap by researching into subject-specificity.

The literary translator must have a two-fold focus when interpreting subject-matter (i.e. cultural and domain-related). Literary texts being affiliated to the literary domain, apart from culturally relevant subject-matter depicted to convey authorial intention and an emotive effect, the translator will also be faced with the need to interpret subject-matter from the point of view of the text's intertextuality feature, i.e. its (explicit and implicit) connection with other texts. Knowledge of comparative literary history, characteristics of the literary trends, literary narration/versification patternings, the stages of literary development in the author's life, the author's individual reaction to mainstream tendencies of his time, novelty of subject-matter interpretation or representation etc. brings out the competence to evaluate the difficulty of transferring particular subject-matter into a foreign culture.

Transfer Competence. Once discrepancies between SC production/reception and TC reception have been identified, the translator must design such transfer solutions that will prove effective for the act of communication. In the situation where TC recipients have different communicative expectations based on different communicative backgrounds, the translator must devise solutions that will facilitate communication.

Because of the different text-types represented by legal translations as opposed to literary translations, i.e. informative/operative and expressive, respectively, the transfer will be governed by different elements of focus. In the production of the TT, the legal translator will try and adapt or explicitate cultural issues to the recipient, s/he will try to consider as much as possible standards of text production in the TC in order to facilitate textual reception; the literary translator will focus on such matters as are conveyance of authorial style and artistic message (sometimes by maintaining the level of ambiguity). The legal TT thus produced will facilitate the reception in the target culture by a (lay or specialised) audience whose communicative needs have been considered, whereas the literary text will only consider its audience in such instances where intercultural discrepancies would interfere with textual reception. In such instances, the literary translator will evaluate the aesthetic implications of footnotes balanced against intratextual explicitation.

In terms of transfer methodology, note also that literary translations are per se the representation of a source message for a source culture, consequently the macrotextual transfer will be source-culture oriented. In contrast, the translation of legal texts may consider appropriate a macrotextual orientation towards target culture conventionality standards. Microtextually, both transfer situations are better oriented towards the target culture. If a target-oriented transfer fails to suit textual production/reception needs, an attempt will be made at applying a source culture-oriented approach.

'*Revision Competence* implies the application of a quality assessment filter to the [translation] process and the end product.' (Greere 2003: 139) Revisers will 'identify features of the draft translation that fall short of what is acceptable and make appropriate corrections and improvements.' (Mossop 2001: 83) The revision process may consist of a number of subsequent re-readings of the TT for which the reviser will have established different points of focus depending on whether the run-through is comparative or unilingual. Thus, the reviser will have in view such elements as: accuracy of transfer (identical/similar message conveyed), completeness of transfer (all elements to be translated if required), TL smoothness (idiomatic use of language + readable and clear constructions), TL grammatical/lexical-terminological accuracy (choices according to language in use), typography (spelling, layout, paragraph-formatting) etc. by consideration of the translation brief the translator received (i.e. the client's requirements).

Before a text goes to the client, translators will revise the text themselves for errors as the ones enumerated above (called 'self-revision') and they might also ask a fellow translator to check the text as part of quality assurance procedures (called 'revision by another'). Generally legal translators will revise for: legal accuracy of the message (no unnecessary ambiguities should have taken shape), textual completeness (all verbal and non-verbal features should be transferred), validated terminological choices (terms should be well-researched and consistently used throughout the text as any synonymy might have legal consequences), and typography. Literary translators will self-revise for stylistic performance, effect-producing language choices (by avoidance of redundancy and appropriate use of synonymy), and solutions of cultural transfer. Whereas the legal translator is recommended to perform the (comparative and unilingual) self-revision task immediately after TT production, because research findings are still fresh in his memory, the literary translator will sometimes give himself a larger time-span (even one exceeding a few months) before s/he will take the text up for unilingual revision. During the translation process the literary translator becomes so worked up with semantic language units, that s/he may lose sight and focus of the textual whole. This time-span is needed to obtain the distance required for an effective macrotextual evaluation. Another difference lies in the fact that legal texts may relevantly be revised (comparatively and unilingually) by another translator with sufficient domain-competence; however, this procedure is not at all applicable for a literary translation. The literary translation bears the imprint of the translator's particular affinity and understanding of the ST author. Another translator will unnecessarily feel the need to modify the text to suit his own textual perception, in which case the text will be uselessly re-written. For literary translations, 'the second pair of eyes' should be looking at typographical aspects, and where appropriate identify cumbersome constructions or vocabulary choices for the translator to revise – if stylistically a change is called for. Also, the reviser of a literary translation should be a native speaker of the TL, not necessarily a translator (like in the case of authorised translations) and s/he need not apply a comparative revision but s/he should rather focus on unilingual revision.

Documentation Competence refers to the ability to systemise translation work for future re-usage in such cases where texts with similar extratextual or intratextual features will be commissioned for translation. The translator will systemise (in electronic format if possible) the ST, the TT, research results, and details of reference works used.

The efficiency of documentation is especially visible where textual production calls for standardisation. Consequently, this competence is apparently more important for the authorised translator as opposed to the literary translator.

Indeed, the authorised translator working with legal text-genres that comply to given production standards will be able to benefit more from previous work and from efficient systematisation of that work. The authorised translator performs a task of translation involving standardised text-genres and specific transfer requirements by the client. The authorised translator will have to systemise also aspects in the translation brief, details of client collaboration (e.g. in-house text production requirements), research resources (e.g. full-size parallel texts) apart from terminology findings and domain knowledge. In the future, if the same text-genre is commissioned for translation or the same client commissions a (similar or different) translation task, the translator's research effort will be considerably reduced.

The literary translator, too, can develop such an ability to help sustain translation tasks that s/he undertakes. We have stated before that a literary translator generally chooses or accepts for translation such texts that s/he may feel affinity towards. It is very likely for a translator to decide to translate other works by the same author or other works within the same literary trend or other works on the same topic. If this happens, previous research work undertaken can become very valuable. Given that the literary translator researches in order to obtain compatibility with the author (i.e. a better understanding of the author's position vis-à-vis the subject, the author's role in a particular literary epoch/trend), lexical variability, and stylistic accuracy, the information elicited should be systemised. So, in Bell's terms (Bell 1991: 40sq), a legal translator rather conforms to the expertise-model, while the literary translator should focus on the communicative-competence model.

3. Training

'Translation competence can be separated into relatively independent components, and those components can be used as building blocks in curriculum design.' (Campbell 1998: 163) Staring from Campbell's assumption, let us now look at Romanian training programmes to see which of the competences described above are developed within their curricula.

Given that applicants who hold a degree in languages are eligible for the authorisation with the Ministry of Justice, in our comparison we will consider the two higher education training programmes that focus on the acquisition and development of language competence: Philology Foreign Language programmes and Applied Modern Language programmes. The graduates of Departments of Foreign Language and Literature are language professionals who can work primarily in the field of education (as secondary or higher education teachers). Some choose to work as translators and they apply for the authorisation by the Ministry of Justice. On the other hand, the trainees of Departments of Applied Modern Languages are preparing for a profession in translation and/or interpreting.

The aim of this analysis is to answer the following questions:

(1) Which training programme prepares for which profession?

(2) Is the authorisation procedure justified?

In the table below we have systemised translation competences and the (compulsory or optional) modules and courses/seminars designed to develop these competences[18]. For the sake of exemplification, we have decided to single out in a comparison the Department of English Language and Literature and the Department of Applied Modern Languages within the Babeş-Bolyai University of Cluj-Napoca, Romania, departments that we (i.e. the authors) are currently affiliated with. However, note that the comparison can easily be extended to other foreign languages taught at undergraduate and master's level as these too bear the specificity of philological training or LMA training, respectively.

CASE STUDY

	LMA DEPARTMENT	year of study	***ENGLISH DEPARTMENT***	year of study
ORGANISATIONAL COMPETENCE	**DEVELOPED** (highly important)		**RESTRICTED** (reduced relevance for literary translation)	
	Theory & Methods of Translation (Translation Management)	2nd	*Theory and Practice of Translation*	2nd
	Accounting and Commercial Correspondence	3rd		
	Deontology	3rd		
	Management and Global Simulation	4th		
	Marketing	4th		
	Public Relations	4th		
	National and International Internships			
	FOCUS ON: managing an office task design team-work		**FOCUS ON:** choice of STs	

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[18] For our evaluation we will refer to the curricula (http://lett.ubbcluj.ro/planuri/specA/engleza_A.doc, http://lett.ubbcluj.ro/planuri/lma.doc) that are valid for pre-Bologna full implementation, 2006/2007. For the LMA department, the Bologna process affects the structure of the undergraduate programme (from a 4-year programme to 3 years) and that of the master's programme (from a 1-year programme to 2 years) rather than the subjects taught. Generally speaking, courses that are now offered to 4th year undergraduate students will be incorporated in the 1st year of the master programme. With the English Department, the procedure designed to accommodate a 3-year programme is based on the reduction of the number of hours taught, rather than a re-scheduling between undergraduate and master training.

	LMA DEPARTMENT	year of study	*ENGLISH DEPARTMENT*	year of study
COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE	**DEVELOPED** (highly important) *Oral and Written Communication* *Theory and Methods of Translation* *Media and Communication* *Rhetoric* *Marketing* *Public Relations* National and International Internships **FOCUS ON**: client collaboration international communication issues interpretive skills	 1st 2nd 3rd 3rd 4th 4th	**RESTRICTED** (reduced relevance for literary translation) *Theory and Practice of Translation* **FOCUS ON**: publishing houses authorial clarifications	 2nd
RESEARCH COMPETENCE	**DEVELOPED** (highly important) *Theory and Methods of Translation* *Applied Computer Science. Research Methodology* **FOCUS ON**: validation of sources relevant usage of research findings parallel, comparative, background texts for conventionality dictionary-less used	 2nd 2nd	**DEVELOPED** *Theory and Practice of Translation* **FOCUS ON**: dictionary thesaurus literary trends/criticism	 2nd
COMPUTER COMPETENCE	**DEVELOPED** *Applied Computer Science.* *Applied Computer Science. Research Methodology* *Computers and Multimedia* *IT Tools for Terminology* **FOCUS ON:** CAT tools	 1st 2nd 3rd 4th	**NOT DEVELOPED**	

LANGUAGE COMPETENCE	**DEVELOPED** *English Language – Morphology* *Oral and Written Communication* *Analysis and Text production* *Phonetics* *English Language - Syntax* *English Language - Phraseology* **FOCUS ON:** translatability	 1st 1st 1st 1st 2nd 3rd	**DEVELOPED** *English Language-* *Phonetics, Morphology,* *Lexicology, Stylistics* *English Language-* *Discourse Analysis* *Semantics, Syntax* *Generative Grammar* *Formal semantics* *Applied linguistics* **FOCUS ON:** foreign language specificity	 1st 1st 1st 2nd 2nd 2nd 3rd 4th 1-4
CULTURAL COMPETENCE	**DEVELOPED** *Culture and Civilisation* *Political Institutions* *European Integration* *Media and Communication* *Study of Mentalities* *Culture and Literature* *International commercial Relations* **FOCUS ON:** comparative RO-EN European Culture	 1st 2nd 2nd 3rd 4th 4th 4th	**(LESS) DEVELOPED** *English Literature* (Old English, Renaissance, Anglo-American culture and Civilisation) *Language and Society* Master programmes : *American Cultural Studies* *British Cultural Studies*	 1st 4th
TEXTUAL/ DISCOURSE COMPETENCE	**DEVELOPED** *Contrastive Analysis* *Oral and Written Communication* *Discourse Typology and Cultural References*	 1st 1st 2nd	**DEVELOPED** *Stylistics* *Speech Acts Theory* *Theory and Practice of Translation* *English Language* (Discourse Analysis)	 2nd 2nd 2nd 3rd
SUBJECT COMPETENCE	**DEVELOPED** *General economy* *Domain-specific/Specialised Translations (focus on business, educational, legal texts)* *Public and Private Law* *Commercial/Business Law* *Accounting* *Culture and Literature **FOCUS ON**: domains: law, education, business, tourism, medicine etc. domain-specific knowledge domain-specific translatability legalised translations -specificity	 1 ,2 3 ,4 3rd 3rd 3rd 4th	**DEVELOPED** *Introduction to Linguistics* *Theory of Literature* *General Linguistics* *Comparative Literature* *English Literature* *American Literature* **Optional:** *British Drama*, *British Novel*, *British Poetry*, *American Novel*, *Irish Literature*, *Canadian literature* **FOCUS ON:** literature from English-speaking cultures literary trends/epoch	 1st 1,3 2nd 2-4 1-4 4th

TRANSFER COMPETENCE	**DEVELOPED** *Translation, BackTranslation* *Introd. to Translation Methodology* *Theory and Methods of Translation* *Domain -specific/ Specialised Translations (notarisation)* *Marketing and Global Simulation* **FOCUS ON:** research methodology analysis of brief: situationality, client needs, legality, etc specific requirements for notarised/legalised translations CONSTRAINTS: lack of resources lack of full-size brief lack of collaboration APPROPRIATENESS in terms of: ADDRESSEE profile CLIENT needs LEGAL validity METHOD: DUPLICATION of conventions	1-2 1st 2nd 3 -4 4th	**DEVELOPED** *Theory and Practice of Translation* **FOCUS ON**: untranslatability, stylistics, denotation , connotation, register, sociolect, dialect, idiolect, identification of tropes, figures of speech CONSTRAINTS in terms of: literary trend/epoch/canon, language development, rhetorical and/or versification patterns APPROPRIATENESS in terms of: AUTHOR STYLE METHOD: FEEL of the text	2nd
REVISION COMPETENCE	**DEVELOPED** *Translation, Bac Translation* *Introd. to Translation Methodology* *Theory and Methods of Translation* *Domain -specific/ Specialised Translations (notarisation)* **FOCUS ON:** consistent terminology, conventionality, spelling, language fluency, addressee adequacy etc.	1-2 1st 2nd 3 -4	**DEVELOPED** *Theory and Practice of Translation* **FOCUS ON:** style, choice of vocabulary etc.	2nd
DOCUMENTATION COMPETENCE	**DEVELOPED** *Theory and Methods of Translation* **FOCUS ON:** reuse of material	2nd	**DEVELOPED** *Theory and Practice of Translation* **FOCUS ON:** glossaries – vocabulary	2nd

According to Kelly (2005: 36) undergraduate programmes in translation should be thus designed so that '[o]n completion of the course, students will have acquired the necessary set of competences (knowledge, skills and attitudes) to be able to join the translation profession in any of its specialised areas in this country [the country where the course is delivered] or abroad at a junior level'. We strongly feel that this description corresponds with the aims of the Department of Applied Modern Languages. On completion of the undergraduate programme, the graduates of the LMA department will have translation competences in two or more foreign languages apart from specialised knowledge in domains of interest for the Romanian and European markets and managerial abilities and transfer/computer skills particular for the translation profession.

The curriculum of the Department of Applied Modern Languages is designed to attribute special focus to developing competences relevant for the translation profession through all courses delivered at undergraduate and master's levels. The emphasis falls on specialised translations (domain-specific translations) especially within such courses that have a strong domain-orientation (Accounting, Legal/Business Translations, Marketing, Management etc.). The syllabus of the 4th year course on specialised translations[19] details legal requirements and textual conventions specific to notarised translations in such text-genres particular of given domains of interest: the law (business documents/contracts), education (degrees and diplomas), medicine and tourism. Aware of the importance of cultivating mother-tongue competences, the LMA department also caters for this need in all years of study. Additionally, students are familiarised with computer-based translation tools to aid the translation process. We may safely say that a graduate of this department has acquired during training the prerequisite competences to enable him to perform professionally as an authorised translator. This training programme equips future translators with information on specificities of domain translations, in general and notarised/authorised translations, in particular.

In what regards literary translations we cannot say that the LMA department trains for this profession. Although there is a course on literary translations and cultural competence is developed throughout the LMA study programme, we feel that this does not prepare our graduates sufficiently to perform literary translations. However, the Department of English, especially through its translation course *Theory and Practice of Translation* focuses particularly on issues in literary translation and the development of translation competences encompasses the specific focus literary translators must obtain. Furthermore, literary domain competence is extensively acquired through all courses on literary trends and literary genres and cultural competence is closely linked to these courses rather than to specific courses on culture and civilisation (which are to be found predominantly at master's level).

[19] This course will be fully reorganized in the Bologna master structure to cover a two-year in-depth study of legal translations, making it even more appropriate for the prospective profession of authorized translations.

In conclusion, we may say that the English Department curriculum is not designed for the training of translators because (1) it includes only one translation course[20] and (2) the training does not develop all competences necessary. However, we do acknowledge the potential of this department to re-design the curricula to include the training of literary translators because as it stands now it offers ample background knowledge to future literary translators. Given this background, we feel that a training programme for literary translators can be developed alongside the existing undergraduate curricula or within a master's degree.

4. Authorisation Revisited

Having established that translator competence entails a number of components and that not all language training is oriented towards translation activities, we need to revisit the Romanian system of authorisation so as to establish whether its procedure considers as eligibility criteria the competences a translator must hold by evaluating the applicant's specialised training in the field of translation or his experience indicative of a competitive level of competences. In looking at the role ascribed to the authorisation by different participants to the translation/interpreting process we see that there are a number of issues that need to be dealt with before the authorisation stands for true professionalism.

The authorisation issued by the Ministry of Justice covers strictly the area of the law and it should stand for professionalism in the field of legal translations. However, considering the authorisation eligibility criteria (focussed on language competence), we cannot vouch for the professionalism of the newly authorised translators/interpreters, especially when they have no higher education training. The university/highschool diploma and a letter of recommendation may stand as palpable proof of the applicant's language competence and appropriate conduct/attitude, but **translator or interpreter competence is never tested, hence it is totally disregarded as a fundamental criterion underlying these professions**. Such professional competence is developed through specialised training and should be assessed according to given criteria relevant for legal/notarised translation and court interpreting. However, this is not the case.

Translators who are specialised in other domains rather than the law should not have to request the authorisation by the Ministry of Justice in order to perform the activity in lucrative conditions, and the Ministry of Justice should not issue this authorisation if the translator is not competent or even interested to gain competence to translate texts for legal bodies. There should be other authoritative assessment bodies for each domain who can certify the competences of a translator in the given domain.

Until the authorisation procedure changes the general public should not be encouraged to think that the authorisation is a marker of quality (unfortunately a lot of amateurism is present on the Romania translation market). The authorisation

[20] Up to this year, the course on *Theory and Practice of Translation* was elective.

will be a marker of quality in translation if and when the procedure becomes competence-oriented and limited to the legal domain, and if and when other quality evaluation means are established for other domains.

Considering that a number of graduates of the LMA department are currently employed with the specialised departments of the European Commission (the Directorate General for Translation and the Directorate General for Interpretation) and the European Parliament, given that the academic staff of the AML department was part of the evaluation board for the EPSO Romanian Translators Recruitment competition organised by the European Commission, considering also that the AML master's programmes are designed with the assistance of the European Commission we think that the specialised training offered by the LMA department indeed covers professional requirements at European standards.

Under these conditions we feel that a first step towards improving the authorisation procedure is the consideration of the applicant's training results. However, we do not rule out that translation competence can be acquired through experience, and there should be a criterion to evaluate experience, as well.

On the other hand, graduates of the Department of English, who have made use of the background knowledge acquired during their training, have become successful literary translators; members of the teaching staff of the Department of English are renowned literary translators who have know-how and know-what to train students who prove to have the necessary talent for literary translations.

Although graduates of language departments can – according to current-day authorisation procedures – apply for an authorisation, we must warn against the misconception that university language graduates are competence-fit to perform authorised translations, let alone highschool graduates. As shown above in the systematisation of courses according to the competences they entail, the training offered by the English Department opens the door for literary translation, whereas the training offered by the LMA department opens the door for authorised/ specialised translations. Hence, LMA graduates will have great difficulties in performing literary translations and so will language graduates embracing the profession of authorised translator. Until the authorisation procedure changes, it is up to the graduate himself (with the assistance of the guiding tutors) to understand the nature of competences s/he possesses, the degree of difficulty entailed by the two activities and to venture on a professional course only after proper self-reflexion.

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LAWS AND ACTS

LEGEA nr. 36/1995 notarilor publici şi a activității notariale

LEGEA nr. 178/ 1997 pentru autorizarea şi plata interpreților şi traducătorilor folosiți de organele de urmărire penala, de instanțele judecătoreşti, de birourile notarilor publici, de avocați şi de Ministerul Justiției

LEGEA nr. 300/2004 privind autorizarea persoanelor fizice şi a asociațiilor familiale care desfăşoară activități economice în mod independent

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TRANSLATING FOR A PURPOSE: THE *SKOPOS* THEORY APPLIED TO THE TRANSLATION FOR MINORITY LANGUAGES

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ABSTRACT. In the last decades population movements are facilitating connexions between groups of minority languages and cultures and a majority and dominant language and culture in limited time and space. This creates needs that bring about change. As a consequence the institution's need to communicate with the users of its services forces the creation of mechanisms and tools that help in this endeavor. One of the solutions often used is both the production of multilingual materials and the translation of materials from the majority language to the other minority languages. Since the aim of these translations is to facilitate communication, a pragmatic use of the language in regard to the translated texts (TT) receiver should be adopted. Our aim is to analyze the translated texts produced in the immigrant languages in light of the *Skopos* theory.

Keywords: miniority language translations, *Skopos* theory, pragmatic approach

1. Introduction. A Few Remarks on Some Key Concepts in the *Skopos* Theory

According to the *skopos* theory, the primer principle determining any translation process is the purpose (*Skopos*) of the overall translational action. This fits in with intentionality being part of the very definition of any action. Considering that these types of texts produced for minority languages within the incipient Spanish market are given a specific function: to facilitate communication between those who arrive and those who are already present, this theory of translation seems to be the most applicable and appropriate to check TT effectiveness.

First I will briefly explain the *skopo*s theory; secondly I will analyze the context in which the TTs are produced; thirdly, I will study the TTs using the *skopos* theory as the framework of reference, and data from three studies. Finally some conclusions and suggestions for future action will be pointed out.

"*Skopos*" is a Greek word meaning "aim, target, and purpose". According to the *skopostheorie* (the theory that applies the notion of s*kopos* to translation), the prime principle determining any translation process is the purpose (*skopos*) of the overall translational action (Nord, 1997: 27). This intentionality is achieved through

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‘translation instructions`, which must consist of a more or less explicit description of the prospective target situation, and are referred to as the “*skopos*”, i.e. the text function of the translated text (TT) (Nord 1991:8).

According to Nord (1997: 15-26), the notion of “text function” involves viewing translation as an intentional, interpersonal, communicative, intercultural and text-processing action. In the following lines I will briefly explain these defining features:

1. Translating as intentional interaction means that the translation is first and foremost *intended* to change an existing state of affairs (minimally the inability of certain people to communicate with each other);

2. Translating as interpersonal interaction involves the interaction of certain agents who perform different functions in a complex network of mutual relations. These agents and their roles are:

The role of the initiator or commissioner, who are the person, group or institution that starts off the translation process and determines its course by defining the purpose for which the TT is needed. Nord also mentions the role of source - text producer who are the person, group or institution actually responsible for any linguistic or stylistic choices present in the text expressing the sender’s communicative intentions. Both roles - initiator and ST producer- are often performed by the same person.

The role of the translator, who is the expert in translation action and should be responsible both for carrying out the commissioned task and for ensuring the result of the translation process, even when aspects like formatting and layout are assigned to other agents (Vermeer 1989b). In cases when the sender’s intention is not expressed adequately in the text, the translator can be compared with a target-culture text producer expressing a source- culture sender’s communicative intentions.

The role of target- text receiver, who is the addressee of the translation, and the prospective receiver from the text producer’s standpoint.

The role of the target- text user, who is the one who finally puts it to use, perhaps as training material, as a source of information or as a means of advertising.

It is important to note that different agent roles may be fulfilled by one person.

3. Translating as a communicative action means that the function of the TT is recognized by the receiver. That is, the translator produced signs that are recognized by the audience. According to Nord, the translator uses signs taken from a source-culture inventory that might be misinterpreted from a target –culture point of view, then the TT should be marked accordingly.

4. Translating as intercultural action means that, assuming that translation takes place in a concrete, definable situation that involves members of different cultures, and that language and culture are inseparable (Agar (1991:168) speaks of “languaculture” as a single entity), then the translator has to be aware of this interdependence and the rich points relevant to a particular translation task between group or sub-groups on either side of the language culture barrier.

5. Translating as a text-processing action means that the translator, faced with a source text which is only an "offer of information" among the various sources of information s/he must choose the items s/he regards as interesting, useful or adequate to the desired purpose. Nord (1997: 26), following Reiss and Vermeer (1984:76), defines translation as a new offer of information in the target culture, a definition that can be seen as a synonym of "adaptation".

Thus, translation is seen as "the production of a functional target text maintaining a relationship with a given source text that is specific according to the intended or demanded function of the target text (translation *skopos*)" and allows "a communicative act to take place which because of existing linguistic and cultural barriers would not have been possible without it" (Nord 1991: 28).

In other words, the function of the TT must be pragmatically defined by the purpose of the TT. Furthermore as every TT recipient will be different from the ST recipient in at least one respect- s/he is a member of another cultural and linguistic community- functional equivalence between ST and TT doesn't necessarily need to be always the same. This fact brings back the issue of adaptation. It is a fact that the target recipient has a different knowledge of the world, a different way of life, a different perspective on things, and a different "text experience" in the light of which the TT is read. In other words, the target reader handles the text in a different way, maybe s/he is not familiar with the subject matter, or s/he needs to be filled in on ST specific cultural phenomena. To meet this demand, the feature of "adaptation" must be part of the concept of translation as a strategy which demands particular attention on the translator's part (Nord 1991: 24).

And it is usually the translator's task to consider the relevant dimensions for each individual text or text type, and he is also responsible for getting different degrees of equivalence because the initiator not normally bother or don´t know how to give the translator these sort of indications. As Nord (1997: 30) explains: "Evidently, the *Skopos* often has to be negotiated between the client and the translator, especially when the client has only a vague or even incorrect idea of what kind of text is needed for the situation in question. Clients do not normally bother to give the translator an explicit translation brief, not being experts in intercultural communication; they often do not know that a good brief spells a better translation".

The translalor is also responsible for the communicative function of the TT. In this sense, a distinction must be made between adaptations forced because of the linguistic/cultural differences between the SL and TL, and adaptations which result from intentional choices made by the translator in order to comply with purpose and intentional outlines in the given translation instruction. This brings into play the concept/idea or sender-receiver relationships and that of the asymmetry of knowledge: the social role can be asymmetrical as the TT receiver knowledge of institutions or cultural elements is not as detailed as that of the ST receivers. And the other way round, the ST receiver (or ST initiator) might not know the TT receivers´ culture, as it is sometimes the case in the material analysed for the present study. Then we must assume that some culture-specific elements and presuppositions would require additional expansions when translating the text for a specific audience (Arabic, Romanian, Polish, Wolof, etc).

Sender /receiver relationship might also lead to some changes, for example, the level of formality may be lowered. This implies that complex lexical items are to be explained or substituted by more general terms, just as very complex noun phrases and sentences will have to be broken up in order to meet the recipient ideal conventions of reader-friendliness.

The translator also becomes the central figure in the process of intercultural communication. According to Nord (1997: 47-48), s/he must adhere to the principle of loyalty, which has two directions: towards the ST, and towards the TT reader. Nord, stressing the concept of loyalty, considers that the translator's task is to "mediate" between the two cultures without falling into the trap of "cultural imperialism", i.e. without pretending that the concept of culture A is superior and, therefore, must be adopted by others.

In short, the extent to which a text is translatable is thought to vary with the degree to which it is embedded in its own specific culture, and with the distance that separates the cultural background of ST and TT audience in terms of time, place, and socio-cultural asymmetries. (the "scale of translatability).

There are not theoretical models of translation to solve all the problems a translator encounters, instead, theories should formulate a set of strategies for approaching problems and for coordinating the different aspects entailed.

In the following pages, it is our intention to examine the functionality (the *Skopos*) of the TTs produced for the immigrant population in Spain.

2. The production of TTs for minority languages. An incipient market in Spain

The production of translated texts for migrant minority communities who are culturally and linguistically differentiated is a requested way of communication nowadays in Spain, a country which is experiencing deep changes regarding both the structure of societies and the forms of establishing relationships between people. A quick continuous increase in the flow of people from Africa, Eastern Europe, and Asia is forcing the government to develop initiatives to overcome all kinds of barriers (linguistic, socio-cultural, political, economical, educative, and so on). This situation might be extrapolated to other EU countries which have received, in large numbers and over a short time period, people from communities whose languages and cultures differ from the context of the host culture.

One of these first initiatives usually put into practice is to provide linguistic services. In the case of Spain, a country without experience and institutions or organizations who perform this task, the government and the non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are the ones forced to provide translating and interpreting (T&I) services in a great variety of minority languages. In the case of NGOs this is the result of the politics followed by the government, who left on NGOs´ hands part of welfare issues and community services, which obviously includes establishing contact with people who do not speak the official language(s).

T&I services, when offered, are commonly free for migrants or refugees who have not resources and need some documents – usually official documents or documents required by the authorities- to be translated, or they need to be accompanied to the doctor's or to a government office or public institution for some kind of interview. These services were usually performed by volunteers who had no training and which only difference with the other immigrants was frequently that they could communicate in Spanish. This tendency is still given but there are more and more trained and paid T&I working for NGOs and the government when required - at police stations, town halls, schools, customs, etc. - and are sometimes hired as freelance T&I or volunteers in co-operation with NGOs.

A characteristic that shares most of these T&I is that they perform a double role, especially if they are members of the minority, that is, they work, on one hand, inside of and for their same community, often using their own language, and, on the other hand, they work with the host society at schools, in hospitals, or at work where they have to negotiate and exchange meanings with people that usually don't share the same language and culture. This makes particularly relevant the topic of loyalty as explained by Nord and it is the source of debate in many recent papers (See Brunette et al 2003, and Wadensjö et al 2004, and Valero-Garcés & Martin 2008).

3. The *Skopos* Theory and TTs for Minority Languages

It this section it is my intention to check in which ways the *skopos* theory applies to TTs in Spain through the analysis of the results of three different studies conducted in 2001-2, 2002-4, and 2005-6, respectively.

The hypothesis is that every TT is the result of different agents and may respond to a different function. Following the *skopos* approach in which translation is essentially a form of mediated intercultural communication based on a source text (Nord 1997: 18), I will analyse the results of the three studies developed along six years in which the incipient market of translation for migrant communities has experienced – and is experiencing- relevant changes regarding quantity and quality, even though we are still further from other countries like USA, England or Australia that experienced the phenomenon of migration before.

The three surveys were conducted in the central area of Spain - where the rate of migrant population has increaded rapidly (the percentage has changed approximately from to 5% to is 13 % in less than a decade in Madrid area). The informants were mostly migrants with experience as translators and interpreters for NGOs and the government, as well as receivers of STs and TTs.

Study 1

The first study was conducted in 2001-2002 (Valero-Garcés 2004) among people working in NGOs as T&I. It consisted in a questionnaire about the informants expertise and the difficulties and strategies used for translating to minority languages. There were 46 informants. The main objective of the study was to analyse the purpose under the production of TTs as facilitators of communication between the Spanish authorities and institutions and the new population. The TTs were mostly information sheets, applications forms, instructions to have access to some public services and so on. The initiator of the process – and the producer of the source text- were both the government- interested in producing in some languages legal, administrative, and healthcare application forms and information sheets-, and some NGOs (Red Acoge, Cruz Roja) who received and assisted immigrants in their first steps in the new country. They produced mostly information brochures with services providers´ addresses and informative notes. In the case of the Government they were usually the same official texts produced for the Spanish population, and in the case of texts produced by NGOs, they were texts written in Spanish but for a more specific purpose and depending on the needs: how to take the tube, how to register in the town hall, how to ask for the sanitary card, and so on.

The translators were also the producers of the TTs. They were mostly bilinguals, who had been living in Spain for a certain period of time (from 6 months to 12 years), but who had not received formal learning of Spanish nor specific training on T&I. However, most of them had wide experience in accompanying people as an interpreter. Their educational background was quite diverse, as they ranged from illiterate people to those with university degrees. Most of them worked or had worked as volunteers in NGOs or humanitarian organizations, and some of them had also worked occasionally for the government (50%). They also helped their family members, friends or people from the same ethnic group as volunteers, this activity being the main source of their experience.

A high percentage of these “natural” translators were aware of the need to produce communicative TT, which implies being aware of the linguistic and cultural differences between the ST and TT. Thus, when asked about the main difficulties they found in their work as translators and interpreters, a high percentage of them mention problems in the case of language for specific purposes (legal, administrative, educational, and medical). When interpreting, some of them felt that their task went far beyond literal translation and that they had to explain technical words, very specific expressions, or cultural concepts; in the case of a written text some also considered that they had to look for expressions or synonyms more appropriate for the intended readership, but some also pointed out that they found easier interpreting and they only produced written texts when requested.

The TT user were immigrants with different cultures and languages (Arabic, Bulgarian, Romanian, Russian, Moroccan, Wolof, Chinese Polish) with no – or little- knowledge of Spanish language and culture and with very different educational background- some illiterate some with university degrees.

Study 2

An empirical study based on interviews carried out through a questionnaire distributed to immigrants working or in contact with NGOs was developed two years later as a step further in our research. The questionnaire was divided into two sections: the first one included questions (1-13) about the informants' perception of the quality of TTs for immigrants. The second part included some questions (14-18) about two samples of texts translated for the Arabic community in Spain – one of the most representatives- together with Romanian- for different reasons (language and culture distance, percentage, social and educational differences). I have only chosen some questions and answers relevant for the present study (For more information see Valero-Garcés & Sales 2007). There were 12 informants, bilingual immigrants with both experience in producing and consuming ST and TTs.

The intention was the same as in study 1: to analyse the characteristics of TTs as facilitators of communication between the Spanish authorities and institutions and the new population. The ST were similar too: official documents, information sheets, applications forms, instructions to have access to some public services, but produced in a higher percentage.

The initiators and producers of ST were also the same as in Study 1: a) The government, interested in producing TTs related to legal, administrative, healthcare application forms and documents as well as information sheets and brochures, and b) NGOs, mostly engaged in the production of information brochures as required.

In the case of the two fragments used for this case study, they were fragments of two guides produced by two different government offices, chosen because they were representatives of the sort of new materials that the government was producing. The fragments were the following:

1) First fragment: *Guía de salud para inmigrantes magrebíes* (2000), (*Health Guide for Immigrants from the Maghreb*) bilingually published in Spanish-Arabic, by the Department of Healthcare of the Regional Government of the Valencian Community, Spain.

2) Second fragment: *Guía de salud para inmigrantes y refugiados en español, inglés, francés, árabe y chino (Health Guide for Immigrants and Refugees in Spanish, English, French, Arabic and Chinese)* (1999). IMSERSO, Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs.

The translators and TT producers were bilingual immigrants; all had some experience as translators and interpreters, and some of them (60 %) had received some specific training as T&I (also see Valero-Garcés 2002, 2003). Again their educational background was quite diverse, as they range from illiterate people to those with university degrees; most of them worked or had worked as volunteers in NGOs or humanitarian organizations, and occasionally for the government especially with some languages – Hindi, Urdu, Armenian, - for which it was even difficult to find T&I. They also kept helping their family members, friends or people from the same ethnic group as volunteers.

As for the TT user, they were immigrants who went to goverment offices or NGOs to ask for help or submit some documents required to legalise their presence in Spain. Their opinions provide interesting information about the *skopos* of TTs as for example, as seen in questions 1 and 2 down, related to the informants' perception of the quality of TTS

Question 1. Do you think that the TT is cleaarly understood and suitable for the readership intended?

100 % replied "yes", and one reinforced his answer with the comment: "Yes, the translators are usually native speakers", while another said: "Sometimes the language is understood but not the culture".

Question 2. Do you consider that there is any difference (content, quality, linguistic competence, etc.) between the materials translated by the administration and those translated by NGOs or other entities?

70 % considered that there are indeed differences, while 30 % think that all of them have similar characteristics. Some specific comments - opinions indeed - provided by the informants are interesting, as they call our attention to other external factors present in the *skopos* of TT:

1- "Yes, the material from the administration is usually more expensively-produced texts with translations that are rather literal and not so culturally sensitive. NGOs and other bodies tend to produce texts which are better adapted to the users' socio-cultural background"

3- "Yes, the NGO translations are done by bilingual immigrants. The administration uses professional translators"

4- "Yes, the administration's material is more complex, the NGOs' material is simpler and more practical"

6- "Yes, maybe the administration has better-qualified translators because it pays better"

7- "I think the administration is more interested in politics than in communicating with immigrants. (…) They spend lots of money on brochures, guides and so on, and sometimes the result can be quite offensive. They use people who are qualified but aren't in contact with immigrants, people who don't know anything about them; they are just translators doing their job, although certainly some of the translations are perfectly decent ; it all tends to depend on the translator. On the other hand, NGOs tend to use people who know two or three languages and are often involved with and committed to the target community. The result may not be a linguistically perfect text, but they get the message across and reach the target reader".

Question 3 refered specifically to the two fragments selected. With it we tried to call the attention to translating as a communicative, intercultural and text processing action asking about the treatment of content, language and the role of the translator when producing the TT. The question and some answers were the following.

Question 3. Compare the original fragments and their translations (attached to this questionnaire) and tell us your opinion regarding the following aspects: Content, language and translator:

Content: Does the translated text contain the same information as the original text?

In general terms, 90 % of the informants replied that the TT contains the same information as the ST, and the 10 % remaining pointed out that in the second fragment there were some omissions.

When asked about the appropriateness of the language for the intended readership, some comments were that it depends on the user´s educational level- being suitable for medium to high level-, and in the case of Arabic, they considered the translation was quite literal and lacking respect in the treatment of courtesy rules.

When the informants were asked about the translator´s task, 70 % of the informants considered that the translator was somebody who only knew the languages concerned. The rest (30 %) considered that the translator perhaps had specific training, though they did not explain their answers. As an example a comment by one informant follows:

> I think the translator has an academic knowledge of Arabic and is an Arabic speaker, but, as I said before, he or she hasn't taken the target reader into account, but has just transposed words from one language to another. That's what I think for the health guide. Another important point is that the title of the guide in Spanish says 'people from the Maghreb countries', but the Arabic text says 'Moroccans'. I think this is the mistake of someone who doesn't know Spanish properly and has mixed up 'magrebí' and 'marroquí'. The translation has probably been done by a trained translator, but one who lacks sensitivity and doesn't seem very interested in quality.

These answers bring as back to the *skopos* of TTS: 1. Some institutions and translators are more aware than others of the need to produce communicative TT; 2. TTs should be different for the different languages, and even within the same language as every TT might have a specific purpose and it might be affected by differente factors.

Answers to question 4 below add more information and clues about the deficiencies of the TTs - or say degrees of functionality -:

Question 4: Would you change anything in the translated text? What?

60 % simply replied that they would change nothing, but among the rest (40 %) we find some interesting comments:

> 1. "Yes, the first one is offensive when it talks about hygiene standards for people from the Maghreb. I find it quite offensive because it assumes what 'we all know', that 'those people are not clean'."
>
> 2. "Some technical terms could be replaced by simpler language."
>
> 3. "I would get rid of the health guide altogether. In fact it was withdrawn as soon as it was published because it was found offensive and humiliating. The entire text is offensive and insulting to both immigrants and Spanish people: telling adult immigrants what water and hygiene is, it´s a total aberration!."

Study 3

The empirical study 3 was conducted two years later than the previous one and was based on personal interviews to freelance T&I and reviewers of TTs working with NGOs or official institutions when required. We interviewed twenty T&I. The focus was mostly placed in the role of the translator and the user of TT as seen by the T&I with experience in translating and receiving both STs and TTs. Most of them had also received some training.

The comments by the informants – as in previous studies all of them work as freelance T&I for NGOs or the goverment when required - provide clues for all the processes including translating, that is intentionality, interpersonal interaction, communicative, intercultural and text processing action. I have selected some comments that follow:

<u>Comment 1</u>.

Darina (Russian, personal communication, October 2005). When asked about the quality of some TTs into Russian (a five-language brochure on the census setting out immigrants' rights and duties; a consumers' guide; a guide to the euro; and a guide about the consumers' rights produced by OFRIM (Madrid Regional Immigration Office)), she makes the following comment:

> The author of the translation has done it well. Everybody can understand the text. No information is added or deleted. Perhaps some words are compressed, such as for instance "product or apparatus" in Russian, which is translated as "something"; or when in Russian says "...bad working of services" the translation says "working of services", omitting "bad", on the basis that you don't complain for good working.

<u>Comment 2</u>.

Kasia (Polish, freelance T&I, postgraduate student and student of the PSI&T program at the UAH, personal interview, June 2006), when asked about the quality of the translation into Polish of the *Guia multilingüe de atención a mujeres* *embarazadas(Valero-Garcés, ed. 2006) (Multilingual Guide for Pregnant Women)*, she said that the TTs contained many false friends, non-existing words in Polish, confused rendering of technical words or specific expressions; use of generic words and some spelling and some grammatical mistakes. All this shows in part the consequences of using bilinguals without specific training as T&I and whohave being living in Spain for sme years, without practiisng Polish. In this specific case the translator was a Polish nurse who has been living in Spain for 12 years.

Comment 3.

Dora (T&I trainer at the University Jaume I, Castellón) and Fatima (T&I and intercultural mediator working at NGOs and at the local government at the Comunidad Valenciana (the regional government for the Valencian Community, in the Mediterranean Sea)), personal interview, October 2005).

According to these two informants, an example of literal translation might be the *Guía de salud para inmigrantes magrebíes* (*Health Guide for Maghrebi Immigrants*, 2000), in Spanish and Arabic, published by the health department of the Comunidad Valenciana. This guide was sharply criticized when it appeared, on the grounds of the lack of respect shown in the content (e.g. it refers to how to wash the foreskin –p. 10, and recommended levels of sausage consumption –p. 24). Also, the text was written in classical Arabic, a form which is not accessible to all Arabic speakers, since spoken Arabic (the dialectal variants corresponding to each Arabic-speaking country or region) is quite different from written (classical) Arabic. Strong protests were registered by several NGOs with the (then existing) Servicio de Atención al Inmigrante (Service for Attention to Immigrants) of the Generalitat Valenciana (Valencian regional government), and the guide was withdrawn.

The relevant point is to notice that the problematic cultural references were in fact present in the ST, and then literally rendered without further reflection or consideration into the TT.

Comment 4.

FITISPos' (see http://www2.uah.es/traduccion) comments based on its experienced as producer and reviewer of TTs for minority groups as well as in charge of the training program in Public Service Interpreting and Translatig highly coincide with previous ideas:

Regarding content and quality of the corpus of the texts examined, we may once again evoke (at least up to a point) that the two tendencies observed in previous study (Valero-Garcés, 2002, Valero-Garcés & Sales 2007) still seem to be true although a more detailed study would be necessary in order to delineate some substantial concluding points. Briefly these two tendencies are:

1. The texts produced by NGOs or associations of particular ethnic groups/ immigrant communities are more likely to be adapted to the socio-cultural realities of the recipients or, in other words, the translator is translating the culture of the ST

adopting a functional approach towards the targert context.. Also, and paradoxically, these low-budget documents tend to be more effective, even though they tend to have a limited distribution, with low print-runs, and to be produced using lower-quality materials. As an example of this type of (sometimes very ephemeral) material, we may mention the posters and other information put up on the walls of underground stations or of the telephone booths used by immigrant communities.

2. The material produced by institutions tends to take the form of texts that reflect a higher budget and offer a translation that is rather literal which means that the culture implicit in the ST (content choice, register, ways of expressing, etc.) is rendered literally by the translator without further reflection or translation strategy. As a consequence, TTs often lack sensitivity with respect to the target culture, as well as: a) reproducing drawings or graphics from the original text without taking into account those images' message; b) using expressions or mentioning subjects which are taboo in other cultures; c) failing to take account of the target public (which may not be literate); d) including cultural references that clearly reveal their lack of competence in this respect.

It should also be remembered that the translators for the NGOs or for the official institutions are often the same. Also that there is an increasing number of TTs produced and that T&I are more experienced and have received or are receiving specific training. T&I usually work as freelance or hired by the institution. However volunteers, especially when working for NGos, are still a big number.

3. Conclusions and Further Considerations

In Spain, due to the migration phenomenon, written communication or production of multilingual material and documents are increasing in numbers. These are texts having a specific and very relevant communicative function, but as we have tried to show in this paper they are, however, insufficient and sometimes problematic.

Our research over the last six years or so makes more evident that different degrees of functionality apply to TTs. We have found that:

1. The primary intention is to facilitate communication between the Spanish authorities and institutions and the new population.

2. Initiators, commisioners and producers of STs are basically two: the Goverment and some NGOs, but with some differences in the treatment of the information as regarding the socio-cultural context and the TT audience, which results in different degrees of functionality according to the *skopos* theory.

The translator and producer of the TT is an essential element –highly influential– in the communication chain. The strategies s/he uses in producing a TT may determine the nature of the text and their effect. Some of the problems we have detected are: Most T&I are bilinguals, without any specific training in T&I in the first study but with some training and more experience in the last one. Most of them have to perform a double role working for the minority community and for the host society. Besides T&I don't have clear guidelines to produce appropriate texts for the situation (‘*skopos* theory’). Most of the practitioners are volunteers or not very well paid, and have to translate all variety of texts, which often include specific terminology that often means a challenge for the T&I when not (well) trained and/or experienced.

As for the TT users, they are inmigrants with different degrees of knowlege of Spanish language and culture, and often showing a deep socio-cultural asymmetry, among them and in relation to the mayority. The results are that some TTs are less useful than others, and an adapted text should be produced. However, the reality is quite different.

In sort, some texts and in some languages are highly communicative while others are not. Many factors affect these results: initiators, translators, text type, specific time and situation, TT readers, asymmetry of knowledge… Many of these defiencies could be eliminated with training. And the *skopos* theory provides an excellent framework to develop a program and some guidelines for future I&T. Our exprerience and results from this research show that in order to ensure quality in TTs and effective communication, training is necessary as well as a specific education and professional recognition. What is needed, then, is a new awareness on the part of society and institutions.

Our societies are increasingly aware of the emerging multicultural reality, and are therefore making their first gradual steps in the study of a hitherto neglected area, namely interlinguistic communication. There is even more visible interest in this type of translation and interpretation, considered as an additional mechanism or means for facilitating communication between the majority and those with a limited knowledge of the mainstream language or the language used in the public services and government offices.

Obviously and like any other corpus-based analysis, this study remains open to any complementary results that might emerge from future research. We are of course aware of this. However, we believe this is a first step towards further work.

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STATUS QUO AND FUTURE TRENDS OF THE ROMANIAN TRANSLATION MARKET

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ABSTRACT. This first research on the Romanian translation market analyses the organization and activity of Romanian translation service providers, types of services offered, customers and markets targeted, and examines various aspects of the evolution of the national and international translation market, such as client base, turnover and demand for translation services and their impact on the translation market. Survey responses outline the profile of the Romanian translation service provider and allow for conclusions and forecasts regarding the future of the translation industry in Romania. Taking into account global translation industry dynamics, as well as external trade and national economy forecasts, the study estimates that the Romanian translation market will continue to grow by 15% yearly, until 2013. This robust positive trend can only confirm and fuel translators' confidence in the future development of the translation market.

Keywords: Romanian translation market, market trends, forecasts, translation service provider

Introduction

The Romanian Translators Association (Asociația Traducătorilor din România - ATR) has conducted a survey with the goal of identifying the trends of the Romanian translation market after the accession of Romania to the European Union in January 2007.

Between September 22 and October 22, ATR asked Romanian language translators to express their opinions regarding the evolution of the market on which they are active. The survey was open to any translator who wished to participate. The responses collected represent the professional experience of each respondent.

The survey was circulated on virtual fora and groups dedicated to Romanian translators administered or monitored by ATR, including the members' only forum of the Romanian Translators Association, the list of subscribers to the publication ATR Flash, the discussion group [tineritraducatori] and Romanian ProZ.com forum, approximating a total of 3000 translation service providers. A total of 289 valid responses were received. This is the highest response rate to a Romanian translation industry survey to date.

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The survey includes 12 questions regarding the organization and activity of Romanian translation service providers, types of services offered, clients and markets targeted. The questionnaire examines various aspects of the evolution of the national and international translation market, such as client base, turnover and demand for translation services and their impact on the translation market.

1. Translator Service Provider (TSP) Typology

The first part of the survey analyses the various legal forms of organization of the translation activity, as well as the time dedicated to providing translation services. Romanian translators can choose from a variety of forms of organization. The most common, adopted by a majority of 63% (183) of respondents, is that of freelance translator, as per law 178/97 creating the framework for the authorization of translators by the Ministry of Justice. The second most common option is in-house translator and/or interpreter, preferred by 19% of respondents, while 16% own limited liability companies and 7% opted for microenterprises. The survey indicates that, out of the total number of respondents, only 10% are freelance translators, authorized by the city hall. Nine percent of the respondents are employed full-time in a non-translation position and also work as part-time TSPs.

Survey data outlines three main categories of translation service providers (TSPs) active on the Romanian market: freelance translators that account for 73% of the total number of respondents, translation companies approximating a total of 23%, while in-house translators and interpreters amount to 19 percent of responses.

Fig. 1. Main TSP categories

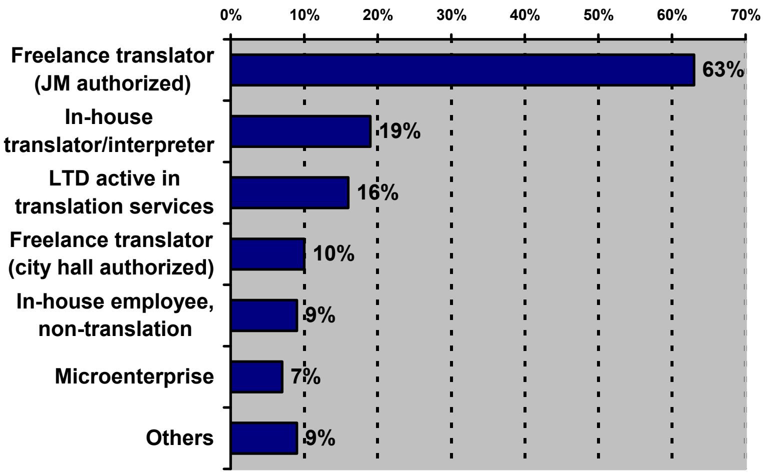
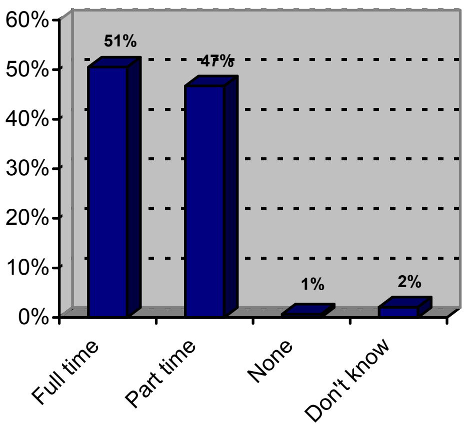


Fig. 2. Time dedicated to providing translation services



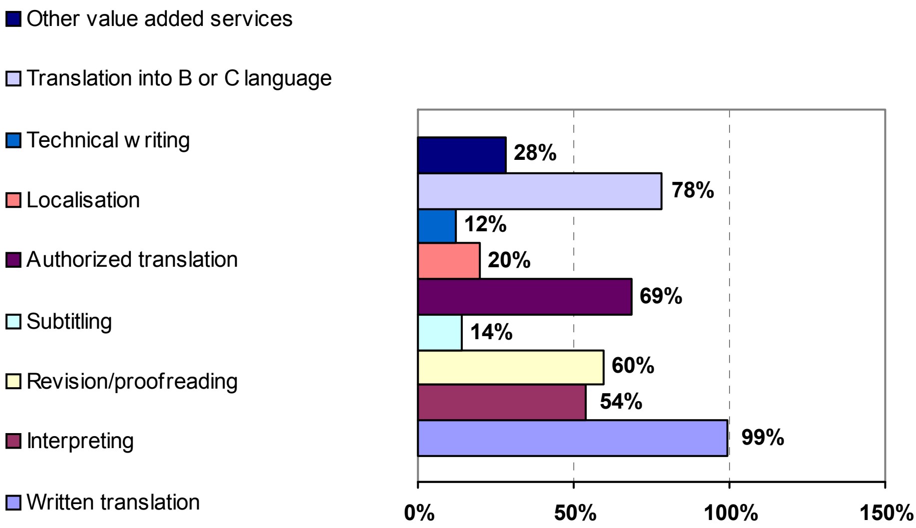
A much-debated aspect is the time dedicated to translation activities. The survey shows an almost equal division of the TSPs active on the translation market into full-time (51%) and part-time (47%) translators/interpreters. The vast majority of the latter have a full-time in-house job and provide translation services as a second part-time job or only occasionally.

2. Range of Services

A surprisingly high proportion of 99.31% of respondents provide written translation services. The majority of TSPs offer a range of services that might include: authorized translations (69%), interpreting (54%), third party proofreading and/or revision (60%), subtitling (14%), software and web localization (20%), technical writing (12%), translation into a foreign language (78%). The data indicates that, although at European level translation and interpretation (be it court or conference interpretation) are considered separate professions, requiring distinctive sets of skills, in practice, in Romania, only a small number of interpreters are able to make a living by providing exclusively interpreting services, while the majority of trained interpreters are forced to provide various other services, more commonly written translation.

A notable aspect revealed by the survey is that, although only 183 respondents possess an authorization issued by the Ministry of Justice for authorized translators, a number of 198 respondents claim that they offer authorized translation. The difference indicates the existence of translation or other type of companies offering this service through in-house translators or freelance translators. Authorized translations are a value added service, according to SR EN 15038 translation services standard, reserved to translators authorized by the Ministry of Justice. Only natural persons can apply for such an authorization and can receive the title of „authorized translator". However, a company or a translation bureau cannot be „authorized" by the Ministry of Justice to provide authorized translations. Clients should be aware that companies or translation bureaus claiming to provide authorized translation services are acting as intermediaries between the end client and the translator and, as such, add a margin to the price of the service. Typically, in exchange for this hefty margin (usually 30-50%), translation companies or bureaus should offer additional services such as revision, quality assurance, terminology management, DTP etc.).

Fig. 3. Translation services offered by Romanian TSPs



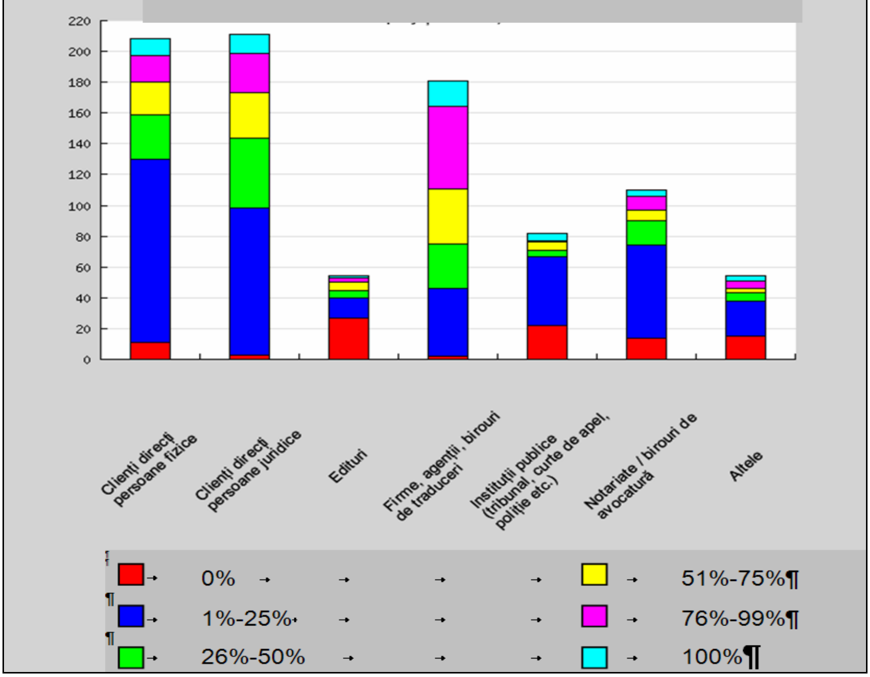
Translation into a foreign language or, in rare and unfortunate cases, between two foreign languages, remains a particular and undesirable trait of the Romanian translation market. A portion of 78% of respondents states that they offer translation into B or C languages. Deontology codes around the world recommend translation from a foreign language into the dominant or A language, which, in the majority of cases, but not exclusively, is also the native language. Experts consider this as a sine qua non condition for the provision of adequate quality translation services. This principle is shared by the Romanian Translators Association and it is included in ATR's professional deontology code. However, on the Romanian translation market, this rule is widely disregarded. The alarming phenomenon is not exclusively caused by ignorance or disregard towards ethical principles. There are some deeply rooted bad practices, but also misconceptions shared by many ill-advised clients regarding the professions of translator and interpreter. Romanian translators are still subject to naïve assumptions such as "You know Japanese, hence you can easily translate from and into this language" or, more surprisingly, „You speak Russian, you speak English, it should not be too difficult to provide simultaneous interpretation from English into Russian" and even the mindboggling offer „You translate from Spanish into Romanian, why not translate from Italian or Portuguese, they are very similar to Spanish!". Such fallacies take a toll on the Romanian immature and fragmented market.

3. Translation Service Buyers Typology

Translators derive revenues from services delivered to clients from the public sector (82 out of 900 responses) as well as the private sector, residing in Romania or abroad.

The fourth question of the survey analyses the categories of translation service buyers, classified according to their organization form. Respondents had to choose from six different categories and were requested to weigh each type of client against their total client base. The structure of responses to this question allows for a ranking by client category and their comparative importance. Most respondents state that they work to some extent with direct clients legal entities (211 out of 900 total responses) and with direct clients natural persons (208 responses). The third most important client type is represented by translation companies, agencies and bureaus (181 responses). Collaborations with notary public offices and lawyers rank fourth (110 options). Public institutions (justice court, police etc.) are credited with 82 responses, while publishing houses rank last with only 54 out of 900 responses. The survey data outlines the most important types of clients are: direct private clients, legal or natural persons, and translation companies.

Fig. 4. Client types and their relative importance



The survey reveals that the vast majority of translators have a fragmented and diverse clientele. Options for a certain type of client have exceeded 50% in one case only, falling bellow 25% for the majority of client categories. In the case of publishing houses, the majority of the options submitted by translators indicate a 0% value. Ranking client types in comparison with the threshold of 50% of total client base thus becomes possible: the preferred client type seems to be translation company/agency/bureau (73 options above 50% of individual client base), followed by direct clients legal entities (67 options above 50%) and direct clients natural persons (49 options above 50%). In the above classification of client types accounting for over 50% of the individual client base, notary public offices and lawyers rank fourth with 20 responses, followed by public institutions (11) and publishing houses (9). The limited business drawn from public institutions is not surprising, given their particular circumstances and restricted budget for outsourcing translation services. It is a well-known fact that publishing houses outsource a huge volume of translation work, considering that the vast majority of books published in Romanian are translations. It is however surprising that this particular type of client should receive the highest number of 0% responses and that only 9 options out of 900 (namely 1%) claim to work regularly for publishing houses.

Table 1. Client categories and their relative importance in 2007

	No. of responses (absolute values)						
Client categories	Proportion of total client base						
	0%	1%-25%	26%-50%	51%-75%	76%-99%	100%	Total
Direct clients natural persons	11	119	29	21	17	11	208
Direct clients legal persons	3	95	46	29	26	12	211
Publishing houses	27	13	5	5	3	1	54
Translation companies, agencies, bureaus	2	44	29	36	53	17	181
Public institutions (justice court, police, etc.)	22	45	4	5	1	5	82
Notary public offices, lawyers	14	60	16	7	9	4	110
Other	15	23	5	3	5	3	54
	289 respondents						

A recent press release issued by the International Translators Federation describes translation services as trans-national *par excellence*. A survey conducted by the Institute of Translation and Interpreting (ITI) on the revenues of United Kingdom translators indicated that the majority of British translators derive between 50 and 75 percent of their revenues from clients located outside their national borders, especially in the European Union (270 responses out of 519). The same study found a very small proportion of British translators without any clients abroad (Aparicio, Benis, Cross, 2001). Modern communication technology, particularly the Internet, helped translators export translation and language services and penetrate external markets. The notable results of this development have been larger client base and rising revenues for individual TSPs.

Table 2. Geographical location of client base

	No. of responses (absolute values)						
	Proportion of total client base						
Geographical location of client base	**0%**	**1%-25%**	**26%-50%**	**51%-75%**	**76%-99%**	**100%**	**Total**
Romania	7	31	26	34	**84**	77	259
European Union	3	**71**	31	20	24	14	163
Entire world	2	**49**	7	5	6	13	82
Don't know/Refuse to respond	3	0	0	0	0	1	4
	289 respondents						

The data collected indicates that, in Romania, the export of translation services remains very low: the majority of respondents (68%) indicate that over half of their clients are located in Romania; most respondents indicate that over 76% clients are Romanian. A proportion of 20% of respondents work with EU clients, while 8% work with clients from all over the world.

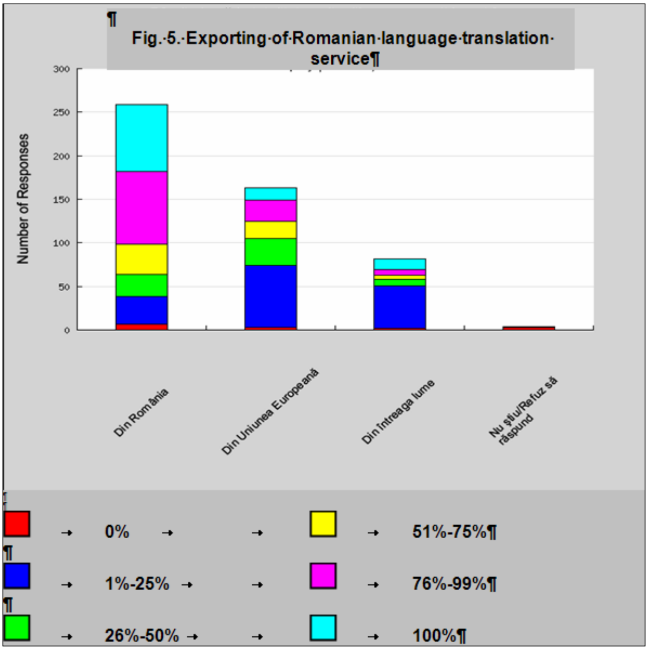


Fig. 5. Exporting of Romanian language translation service

4. Demand for Translation Services

4.1. Client base

The next question of the survey analyses the evolution in new clients attracted by Romanian TSPs in 2007. The data collected for Romanian clients and external clients seem to have a similarly positive evolution. However, the number of negative responses describes a different trend for the two categories. Maximum values, all positive, are shown inside the thick frame: most respondents indicate a slight rise (30%) or a constant evolution in the number of new clients. A similar percentage of TSPs have experienced a significant rise in the number of clients on the national market (16%) and on the international one (15%). The negative values (lower part of the table) indicate a tendency to abandon the national market: 15% of respondents reported a slight or significant reduction in the number of national clients, while only 4% indicate a negative evolution on the external market. The phenomenon of abandonment of the local market could be triggered by a variety of reasons: change in career paths and moving away from translation services, choosing an in-house position over freelancing, reducing the time dedicated to translation activities or dismissing internal clients in favour of external ones. In the following paragraphs we shall explore in more detail this interesting development.

Table 3. Client base evolution in 2007

	No. of responses (absolute and percentual values)	
	Internal market (Romania)	External market
My client base grew significantly	47 (16%)	43 (15%)
My client base grew slightly	**87 (30%)**	**86 (30%)**
My client base remained constant	**79 (27%)**	**72 (25%)**
My client base diminished slightly	**22 (8%)**	9 (3%)
My client base diminished significantly	**20 (7%)**	4 (1%)
Don't know/Refuse to respond	34 (12%)	75 (26%)

The following table analyses the markets targeted by Romanian TSPs and the degree to which they are able to penetrate them and attract clients on the internal and external markets respectively. Most of the responses are positive and indicate a slight rise in client base both on national and international markets. However, out of those who indicated a constant evolution on the internal market, 11 respondents attracted a significantly larger number of external clients, 24 respondents experienced a slight rise in client base and 22 maintained the same number of external clients as compared to the previous year. The right side of the table offers some insights regarding the wave of TSPs leaving the national market. The data collected indicates that 12 respondents chose to have fewer clients on the national market and maintained the same client base on the external market, while 8 gave up on national clients and attracted slightly more external clients and 7 respondents managed to add a significant external client base and dismissed part of their national clientele. Hence, only a small portion of respondents that claim to have attracted less internal clients exited the translation market, most of them preferred to channel their efforts towards external opportunities (larger client base or project volumes).

It should also be noted that, out of the total number of respondents indicating positive evolutions on the external market, 19 TSPs chose not to answer questions regarding the internal market, due to lack of personal experience and information regarding the latter. Similarly, 50 TSPs with positive evolutions on the internal market did not provide information on the external market, for the same reasons. The survey outlines a slight trend of TSPs re-orientation towards external opportunities. Only time and future research will tell if this is the beginning of increased exporting of translation services from Romanian TSPs.

Table 4. Internal and external client base evolution trends

		Internal (Romanian) client base evolution in 2007					
	Trend	grew significantly	grew slightly	constant	diminished slightly	diminished significantly	Don't know/ Refuse to respond
External client base evolution in 2007	grew significantly	10	9	11	3	4	6
	grew slightly	18	26	24	6	2	10
	constant	9	26	22	7	5	3
	diminished slightly	1	4	2	1	1	0
	diminished significantly	0	1	0	1	2	0
	Don't know/Refuse to respond	9	21	20	4	6	15

Cross-tabulation analysis reveals interesting statistics regarding the number of clients attracted on internal and external markets in relation to full-time or part-time translation activity. The slight increase in client base is general and similar; however, part-time translators find it more difficult to maintain their client base. It should also be noted that full-time translators seem to favour external clients, while part-time translators seem to favour internal clients. The number of full-time TSPs that indicated a significant rise in client base is almost double in comparison to part-time translators reporting the same evolution. It becomes clear that the development of one's client base is directly related to the time dedicated to translation services.

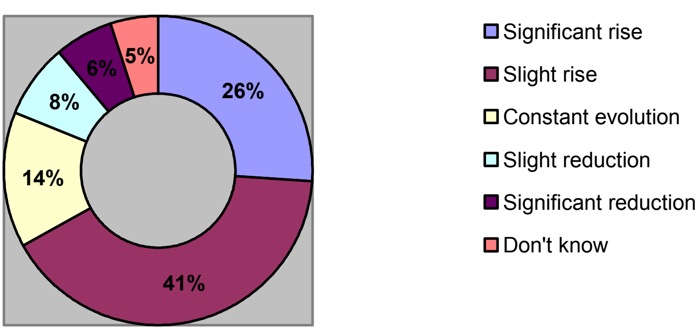
Table 5. Internal and external client base evolution compared with full-time or part-time activity

	Time allocated to TSP activity			
	Full-time		Part-time	
	External clients	Internal clients	External clients	Internal clients
My client base grew significantly	31	30	12	16
My client base grew slightly	46	41	40	45
My client base remained constant	37	47	33	32
My client base diminished slightly	3	9	6	13
My client base diminished significantly	0	6	3	11
Don't know/Refuse to respond	29	13	41	18

4. 2. Turnover

A good indicator of market trends is turnover evolution. The respondents were asked to compare their 2007 and 2006 turnovers: 26% of respondents indicated a significant rise in turnover, 41% a slight rise, 14% a constant evolution, while 14% experienced reduced turnover.

Fig. 6. Turnover evolution



As in the case of client base evolution, cross-tabulated analysis shows a direct correlation between the time dedicated to translation services and turnover evolution. A larger number of full-time TSPs have indicated a slight turnover rise, while the number of full-time TSPs experiencing significant turnover augmentation is more than double in comparison to part-time TSPs. Notably, part-time TSPs indicated, to a larger extent, a constant turnover or a slightly reduced turnover as compared to previous year.

Table 6. Turnover evolution compared with full-time or part-time activity

	Time allocated to TSP activity	
	Full-time	Part-time
My turnover grew significantly	52	23
My turnover grew slightly	62	56
My turnover remained constant	16	25
My turnover diminished slightly	8	14
My turnover diminished significantly	4	9
Don't know/Refuse to respond	4	8

A cross-analysis of client base and turnover evolutions could indicate whether or not there is a direct correlation between the two indicators. A parallel evolution should indicate a direct link, while discrepancies should show that the turnover was influenced by other factors. A proportional relation was to be expected, in other words, it is normal that a larger client base should boost the turnover of a TSP, while a diminished client base would influence it negatively. However, larger turnover can be achieved through other means, by preserving the same client base or even a small part of the client base, for example by attracting larger volumes of work from existing clients or by raising the rates for translation services.

The table below shows very few surprises. In most cases, there is a direct connection between client base and turnover evolutions, both negative and positive. There is only one exception, 58 respondents indicating a constant client base evolution have increased their turnover without adding to their existent client base. This shows that there is a solid trend of slight growth in demand, both from new clients and from existing ones, with direct impact on turnover.

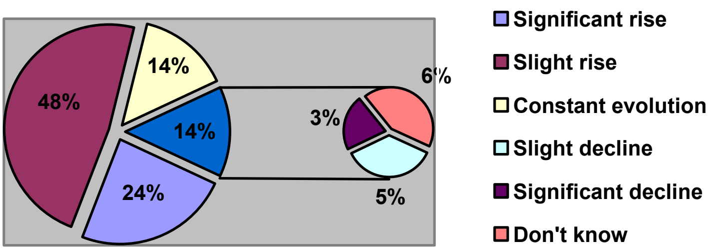
Table 7. Turnover evolution compared with client base evolution

	Client base evolution											
	Grew significantly		Grew slightly		Constant		Diminished slightly		Diminished significantly		Don't know/Refuse to respond	
Turnover evolution	External clients	Internal clients	External clients	Internal clients	External clients	Internal clients	External clients	Internal clients	External clients	Internal clients	External clients	Internal clients
My turnover grew significantly	**33**	**26**	13	28	15	10	5	3	2	0	7	8
My turnover grew slightly	13	13	**63**	**45**	**30**	**28**	2	2	2	0	9	31
My turnover remained constant	0	4	9	7	22	17	5	2	1	0	4	11
My turnover diminished slightly	1	0	1	4	7	9	**8**	**1**	3	2	2	6
My turnover diminished significantly	0	0	1	1	2	6	1	1	**12**	**2**	1	7
Don't know/Refuse to respond	0	0	0	1	3	2	1	0	0	0	**11**	**12**

4.3. The demand for translation services

Respondents were asked, keeping in mind the answers provided to previous questions and their own professional experience, to express their opinion regarding the evolution of the demand for Romanian language translation services. The results mirror the tendencies outlined throughout the survey. Thus, 48% of respondents indicated, based on their professional experience, a slight rise in demand in 2007 as compared to 2006, while 24% indicated a significant rise and 14% a stable evolution. A ratio of 8% of respondents found that 2007 brought a slight or significant decline in the demand for translation services.

Fig. 7. Evolution of demand for Romanian language translation services



TSPs that experienced a boost in the demand for their services consider that the rising demand was present on the internal market (49%), the Single Market (47%) or the global market (17%). Respondents that reported shrinking demand for translation services think that it affected the internal market (26%), the EU market (14%) and the global market (6%).

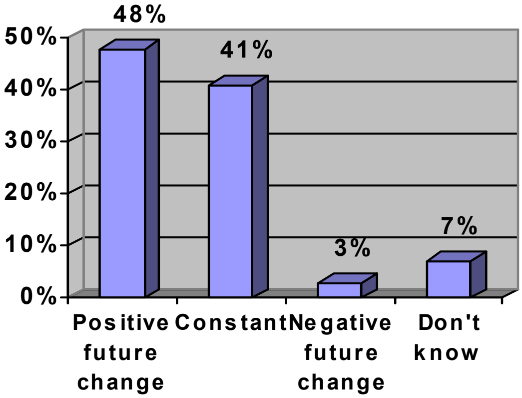
Table 8. Evolution of demand for Romanian language translation services on the internal and external markets

	No. of responses (absolute and percentual values)	
	Rising demand	Declining demand
Internal market	119 (49%)	24 (26%)
Single Market (EU)	114 (47%)	13 (14%)
Global market	42 (17%)	6 (6%)
Don't know/Refuse to respond	31 (13%)	54 (58%)
Total number of responses	245	93

4.4. Forecasts and future trends

The last question of the survey asked respondents to voice their views regarding the future trend of the market for Romanian language translation services. The vast majority of responses were optimistic: 48% consider that the current trend of the market will change for the better, 41% think that the trend will remain stable, while only 3% forecast a negative change in future trend.

Fig. 8. Future trends



Most optimistic forecasts were expressed by TSPs indicating a slight increase in client base (91 responses), followed by TSPs experiencing steady client base evolutions (76) or slight decreasing client bases (15). Most TSPs indicating significant client base growth considered that the current trend will maintain (45 responses) or will change for the better (38 responses).

Table 9. Forecasts regarding market trends compared with client base evolution

Client base evolution	Grew significantly		Grew slightly		Constant		Diminished slightly		Diminished significantly		Don't know/ Refuse to respond	
	External clients	Internal clients	External clients	Internal clients	External clients	Internal clients	External clients	Internal clients	External clients	Internal clients	External clients	Internal clients
Current trend will maintain	**23**	**22**	35	42	34	21	9	4	**9**	**2**	8	27
Current trend will change for the better	20	18	**49**	**42**	**37**	**39**	**10**	**5**	5	0	**19**	**38**
Current trend will change for the worse	2	0	0	1	2	7	2	0	3	2	1	0
Don't know/ Refuse to respond	2	3	3	1	6	5	1	0	3	0	6	12

5. The Profile of the Romanian Translator

Romanian translation services providers (TSPs) are, in most cases, freelance translators, authorized by the Ministry of Justice (63%). The ratio of 73% freelance translators on the Romanian translation market mirrors most international statistics indicating a majority of freelance TSPs (75% of the number of active TSPs at global level). Romanian TSPs practice translation on full-time or part-time basis (as a second job, since many TSPs also have a full-time employment as a translator-interpreter or a different position). Romanian TSPs offer a diverse range of services, but almost all of them provide written translations into Romanian or into a foreign language, as well as authorized translations and third party revision. Romanian interpreters are forced by market circumstances to offer other services, such as written translations. Romanian TSPs provide, to a smaller extent, services requiring a high degree of specialization or technological skills, such as localization, subtitling or technical writing. Regarding client type choice, Romanian TSPs do not seem to favour a certain type of client, most providers catering for a diversity of clients. However, Romanian TSP work to a larger extent for translation companies/agencies/bureaus, while their direct clients can be legal or natural persons, notary public offices, lawyers or, to a smaller extent, public institutions or publishing houses. Romanian TSPs generally seek new clients on the internal market, whereas a small proportion of TSPs attempt to penetrate external markets. However, the impressive number of TSPs on the internal market and unfavourable market conditions determine Romanian TSPs to seek more clients abroad in an attempt to broaden their client base and obtain better rates for their services. Romanian TSPs are constantly seeking new clients, a strategy that produced positive results in 2007. Thus, Romanian TSPs report a slight growth of their client base, mirrored by a slight rise in turnover in 2007 as compared to 2006. Notably, TSPs deciding to seek clients on the external market indicate positive results, while the extent to which external client base shrunk is smaller than corresponding evolutions on the internal market. Full-time TSPs were more successful in growing their business than part-time translators. General positive results determined Romanian TSPs to conclude that, in 2007 in comparison to 2006, there was a slight growth of the internal and external translation market. Romanian translators are optimistic about future trends of the Romanian language translation market. In their opinion, the current trend of slight growth of the market will evolve even more positively or will remain steady. These forecasts reflect international statistics indicating that, at global level, the translation market has been growing by 5-7%, some countries reporting 7-10% growth. Global forecasts predict a future development of the global translation market by at least 7.5% yearly for the following 3 years.

Conclusions

The first conclusion that can be drawn from the survey results is that 73% of Romanian TSPs are freelance translators, while 23% are translation companies. This situation mirrors global statistics. A current trend that became clear at global level, in the last decade, is the increasing number of projects requiring translation into a large number of target languages, boosting the development of translation companies. Experts think that this trend will lead to a small change in the percentage of translation companies in the future, thus the number of translation companies could slightly increase, while the proportion of translators may fall back from 75% to 70-65% in the long run. We expect the Romanian translation market to follow a similar evolution pattern. The rising demand for larger volumes, shorter deadlines and more target languages will determine, as a matter of course, TSPs that work as freelance translators to incorporate their businesses and form translation companies in the next years.

The continuing growing demand for translation services and positive economical results may also impact the current division of TSPs into full-time (51%) and part-time translators (47%). Hence, in the future, we expect more part-time TSPs to join the ranks of full-time professionals contributing to a higher level of professional ethics and quality in translation services.

The range of services offered by TSPs includes written translation (99.3%), authorized translation (69%) and translation into a foreign language (78%). We expect that translations into a foreign language provided by non-native Romanian translators will gradually and significantly decline as a direct impact of the demand for translation into Romanian language. It is likely that more translators will understand the need to differentiate themselves on the market and specialize in certain fields and services that suit their skills and preferences and, consequently, strengthen partnerships with clients that need specialized linguistic services.

Typical TSP client base includes primarily direct clients natural persons (208 responses) and legal persons (211) and, to a lesser extent, translation companies (181). However, it is to be expected that the number of direct clients will fall back, due to the fact that direct clients have irregular and occasional needs), and leave place for more cooperation between freelance translators and translation companies. Arguments in favour of this trend are, apart from the general growing number of translation companies, the fact that translation companies attract large volumes of work and outsource it to freelance translators. It is also easier and less risky for freelance translators to work with translation companies than seek direct clients and negotiate contracts themselves.

In 2007, the growth of internal and external client bases was very similar. Currently, TSPs prefer to seek internal clients located in different cities or counties, while some tend to abandon altogether the internal market. According to data collected by the survey and international trends, it is to be expected that more Romanian TSPs will choose to export their services, seeking to enlarge their external client base.

Turnover evolution typically depends on a number of important factors, such as: increasing demand for translation services, larger client base, time allocated to providing translation services, increasing rates for translation services, and bigger volume of work. The last two factors are limited by market conditions, the time allocated to translation services and the form of organization (freelance, company, etc.). The first three factors are analysed by this survey. Cross-tabulation revealed clear inter-dependence between a larger client base and a boost in turnover. Generally, in 2007, 41% of TSPs reported a slight rise and 26% a significant rise in turnover. Full-time and part-time work as TSP proved to have a major impact on business development.

The most important factor influencing the evolution of the translation service market is the demand for translation services. Survey data shows that 48% of respondents reported a slight rise in demand, while 24% experienced a significant rise. The majority of respondents consider that the growing demand was present at global level (64%), and almost half of them experienced it at internal level (49%). This difference indicates a trend to explore external opportunities. Romanian TSPs are confident that the future will bring positive changes in market evolution (48%) or that current trends will remain stable (41%). However, the question of the extent of the growing demand for Romanian language translation services remains unanswered.

Forecasts for the following five years

The evolution of the translation market depends on economic factors, especially on the intensity of trade exchanges. According to World Trade Organization statistics, at global level, international merchandise and service trade grew, between 2000 and 2006, with approximately 11% yearly, while the translation industry grew 10% yearly (Beninatto, DePalma, 2006), reaching 20% growth in some European countries. International trade development generated increasing demand for translation services and will continue to ensure an almost parallel development of the translation industry. For 2007-2011, Common Sense Advisory Inc. forecasts a global yearly growth rate of 7.5% for the translation service sector. The same company noted, in 2006, the important potential for growth in non-euro countries such as the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia, due to the exponential growth of the translation sector in these countries.

In Romania, the National Statistics Institute (NSI) and the National Prognosis Commission (NPC) provide data regarding external trade. NPC forecasts for 2007-2013 indicate a significant growth of external trade. The accession of Romania to EU is likely to intensify commercial exchanges with EU countries. Merchandise exports are expected to grow at a 15.7% yearly rate, while imports will rise by 15% yearly. In accordance to global sector dynamics, we predict that the Romanian translation service sector will grow in the following five years by a minimum per annum rate of 15%, paralleling the intensification of external trade. This positive trend can only confirm and fuel translators' confidence in the future development of the translation market.

In conclusion, we hope that the future will also bring a positive transformation in the profile of the Romanian translator. In the following years, we expect translators to specialize in order to differentiate their services on the market. It is also likely that Romanian TSPs will further their translation, linguistic, research, inter-cultural and technological competences, and pave the way towards a steady professional maturing process, invigorated by positive forecasts for sustainable growth of the Romanian translation service industry.

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LE MARCHE DE LA TRADUCTION EN ROUMANIE: CONFIGURATION ACTUELLE, ENJEUX ET PERSPECTIVES EUROPEENNES

MIHAELA TOADER*

ABSTRACT. Set against the backdrop of enlarged Europe, the European Higher Education zone constitutes itself in a major linguistic challenge, bearing inevitably upon all processes pertaining to linguistic and cultural mediation. In this context, the phenomenon of multilingualism is the added value that brings to the fore new conditions of specificity congenial to the professionalisation of various learning modes and subject areas. As well as engenedering a new learning environment, multilingualism fosters a whole array of career oportunities for new generations of translation and conference interpreting professionals active on a job market more often than not dominated by ruthless competitive self-regulating laws. Against this background, due attention needs to be devoted to major concerns regarding the resources available in EU members states in terms of expert liguistic services and the alternative, non-professional services rendered by individuals lacking the appropriate qualifications. The above are key aspects that ultimately legitimate the translation market in all that it entails: localisation, meeting specific customer demands, handling multi-purpose linguistic services, cost-responsible factors, academic standards and the quality of services offered by HE degrees holders. The paper addresses the above with direct reference to the specific inititatives launched by the Department of Applied Modern Languages of The Faculty of Letters at Babeş-Bolyai University.

Key concepts: multilingualism, language-related professions, translation market, translator training, clients, cultural mediation

Le processus de création de l'Espace Européen de l'Enseignement Supérieur se déroule sur le fond de l'élargissement de l'Union Européenne et constitue implicitement un grand défi linguistique. Dans ce contexte, le plurilinguisme apparaît comme un principe à promouvoir et à maintenir, les conditions que ceci impose étant nombreuses et difficiles à satisfaire. Les pays appelés à atteindre cette cible ont eu et auront encore beaucoup d'efforts à faire – financiers d'abord – et ce n'est pas un secret pour personne que de tels efforts, surtout pour une cause comme celle qui est défendue par les professionnels de la traduction et de l'interprétation, supposent une volonté ferme de chaque pays impliqué dans la construction d'une Europe plurilingue.

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De nombreuses enquêtes internationales de portée plus ou moins large et menées dans les domaines de la traduction, de la terminologie, des outils de la traduction laissent voir une réalité qui est de plus en plus évidente: les universités sont devenues et sont considérées désormais comme des acteurs importants sur le marché de la traduction. Ce positionnement permet et suscite de nombreuses réflexions vouées à éclaircir également la façon dont les universités évaluent leurs propres produits, la façon dont elles se situent par rapport aux autres et non en dernier lieu la façon dont elles élaborent des stratégies pour convaincre et conquérir un marché.

Quelle qu'en soit cependant la perspective proposée, une fois la réflexion faite autour de la spécialisation universitaire dans la traduction et autour du marché de la traduction, il nous faut admettre que seule une étude ample, internationale pourrait nous permettre d'aboutir à des conclusions justes et par là à des solutions valables. Une perspective internationale peut surprendre le contexte économique, social, politique et académique large de la pratique de la traduction dans divers pays et permet des comparaisons en termes de valeur et de quantité relevantes pour le marché national et international de profil.

Les enquêtes de plus en plus courantes, même pour un domaine comme celui de la traduction, sont de nature à apporter une meilleure compréhension de la situation de la traduction ou de nous permettre de voir clair la mesure où elles débouchent sur certains types de réalisations concrètes. À présent, les études et les enquêtes mettent pour la plupart en évidence une autre réalité qui ne surprend plus personne et qui concerne une nouvelle dimension de l'enseignement universitaire: on se réfère de plus en plus aux universités, en termes de concurrence, on entend toujours plus souvent qu'il est nécessaire d'être au courant de ce qui se passe sur le «marché de spécialité» au niveau international, ce qui implique des méthodologies spécifiques de connaissance, de mensuration/quantification, de comparaison et de positionnement correct relevant du *benchmarking*, *rating* et *ranking*.

Supposant l'amélioration des performances, le concept de *benchmarking* (le mot anglais «benchmarks» signifiant «repères», «jalons») a été d'abord employé par les géomètres pour signifier «jalonner le meilleur parcours d'une route». Par extension, le terme a été appliqué au monde de l'entreprise dans le sens de «jalonner le progrès»: il s'agit de se fixer des objectifs balisés sur le long terme afin de devenir à son tour une référence. Ainsi le «benchmark» est l'étalon de mesure auquel on se réfère, tandis que le «benchmarking» désigne le processus de recherche de cet étalon, qui conditionne l'amélioration des performances.

L'environnement immédiat et concret où la réforme LMD est contrainte à évoluer en contexte européen, l'enseignement et le marché de spécialité pourraient certainement être analysés sous plusieurs aspects qui pourraient laisser lieu à autant de développements thématiques. Sur le fond général du problème, il reste cependant encore, dans la plupart des pays concernés par ces réflexions et quel que soit l'angle ou le développement thématique de l'approche, quelques aspects importants, difficiles à contourner ou à ignorer, des questions que nous allons passer en revue un par un, dans ce qui suit.

1. Les Etats concernés, sont-ils capables de répondre par une offre adaptée de formations professionnalisantes pour les métiers de la traduction?

Un simple regard sur l'évolution des formations universitaires concernées suffit pour révéler une réalité assez générale et que nous ne pouvons pas ignorer: l'espace européen, malgré les politiques actuelles encourageantes, se retrouve confronté plutôt à une certaine incapacité des Etats à fournir un nombre suffisant de traducteurs formés sur les critères exigeants de l'Union Européenne qui puissent couvrir toute l'aire en question, car sur le plan commercial et économique nous assistons au déploiement d'un marché européen toujours plus large confronté lui aussi à de nombreux problèmes dont ceux d'ordre linguistique. La situation est pareille et ne diffère en rien pour les interprètes de conférence.

Les universités sont parfaitement conscientes du fait que même si l'anglais et l'allemand ont dominé la communication dans le commerce, les besoins en matière de traduction et d'interprétation dans les relations avec les pays de l'Europe Centrale et de l'Est, notamment dans les domaines technique, juridique, administratif et politique sont encore loin d'être comblés faute d'un nombre suffisant de traducteurs et d'interprètes professionnels.

Dans cette perspective, il faut admettre que la formation des traducteurs et des interprètes a eu toutes les chances de devenir – et elle est devenue, dans les conditions de la réforme LMD – une question essentielle pour l'aire européenne impliquée dans la réforme, malgré la perception pas tout à fait bonne dans les milieux officiels et économiques. Dans ce contexte, en Roumanie, comme dans les autres pays de l'Europe centrale et de l'Est, il y a encore beaucoup d'obstacles à franchir et de difficultés à surmonter jusqu'à la reconnaissance sans réserves de la nécessité de soutenir la formation des professionnels de la traduction et de l'interprétation. Les obstacles sont nombreux, mais les plus difficiles à surmonter sont ceux d'ordre institutionnel, matériel et financier. Heureusement, les ministères, les institutions importantes recourent de plus en plus aux services des traducteurs et des interprètes professionnels qui travaillent selon des normes spécifiques reconnues.

2. La concurrence des prestataires non qualifiés

Voilà un autre aspect préoccupant le marché de la traduction, un aspect que nous ne pouvons pas ignorer non plus et qui relève toujours de la même problématique des formations universitaires professionnalisantes, mais qui est un des plus graves à présent et des plus difficiles à gérer. Il s'agit de l'émergence sur le marché d'un grand nombre de sociétés qui offrent des services de traduction et d'interprétation exploitant les compétences linguistiques d'un nombre croissant de connaisseurs de langues étrangères de diverses formations qui ne sont pas les produits authentiques des filières de formation des traducteurs/interprètes professionnels. Ceci étant, le critère des coûts prime sur celui de la qualité, au grand détriment de celle-ci.

3. Le marché de la traduction existe-t-il véritablement?

Le troisième aspect à prendre en compte vise l'existence même d'un véritable marché de la traduction en Roumanie et en général dans les pays récemment admis dans l'Union Européenne. Ce marché, dans la mesure où nous l'assumons comme tel, comporte un grqnd nombre de travailleurs indépendants. Très peu d'entreprises ont gardé de tels spécialistes dans leur personnel en raison des volontés d'externalisation de plus en plus importantes des entreprises, du moins en ce qui concerne les compétences non stratégiques. Dans ce contexte, nous pouvons admettre que, de façon générale, les services de traduction internes des entreprises n'ont pas résisté aux vagues d'externalisation, ce qui nous oblige à considérer d'un regard très attentif ce que nous appelons «marché de la traduction» et ce que nous entendons par l'évolution de celui-ci.

Avec le développement spectaculaire des NTIC, avec l'avènement d'Internet et le recours de plus en plus courant aux outils de traduction assistée par ordinateur, le marché de la traduction traditionnellement très protégé en raison de sa nature exclusivement locale est devenu, peu à peu, un marché mondial.

4. Les clients du marché de la traduction

Ceci est un autre aspect important à définir et à prendre en compte. Il est généralement admis qu'il existe deux catégories de clients qui se partagent le marché de la traduction**.** Les clients directs en sont les banques, les cabinets d'avocats, les éditeurs de revues, etc. Ils traitent quasiment tous directement avec des traducteurs indépendants. Pour ce qui est des clients indirects, ce sont principalement les agences de traduction et/ou prestataires de services linguistiques. Ce sont généralement des «grossistes» de la traduction car il existe assez peu d'agences spécialisées dans un domaine particulier. Le fonctionnement de ce marché est assez simple: les sociétés font appel à des agences pour leurs travaux de traduction. Ces agences ont leurs réseaux de traducteurs indépendants et de mini-agences. Les unes et les autres font appel à des traducteurs indépendants. Ce type de fonctionnement nous oblige à constater que plus le nombre d'intermédiaires augmente, plus le coût de la traduction augmente aussi. C'est pourquoi les entreprises performantes font de plus en plus appel à des cabinets de traducteurs indépendants. Seuls ou en équipe, ces traducteurs font le même travail que lorsqu'ils opèrent pour le compte d'intermédiaires multiples. Leurs clients réalisent donc des économies substantielles. En choisissant ce mode de collaboration, les clients ont directement accès aux spécialistes en charge de leurs dossiers, sans aucun intermédiaire: la déperdition/distorsion des informations est donc également diminuée. La collaboration est donc à la fois plus transparente et plus efficace. Ceci permet donc au traducteur de supprimer les intermédiaires et d'augmenter un peu son revenu, le client obtenant, pour sa part, une collaboration plus souple, plus fructueuse et certainement moins coûteuse.

5. Les besoins spécifiques du marché de la traduction

Ceux-ci concernent le secteur de la traduction comme celui de l'interprétariat (les deux ayant des évolutions très proches). En ce sens, les traducteurs professionnels et les entreprises de traduction sont de plus en plus penchés vers les besoins de leurs clients. Ils savent que dans le but d'être plus proche de ses partenaires étrangers, un client peut être amené à devoir communiquer dans une autre langue qui lui est peu ou pas du tout familière. Pour cela, les professionnels de la traduction et les entreprises pourront avoir besoin de traduire une brochure ou un catalogue, ou bien ils chercheront quelqu'un pour les aider à traduire une conversation ou négociation (par téléphone ou en réunion). En effet, la présence d'un *interprète* permettra au traducteur de comprendre les moindres termes de la conversation et de se faire comprendre dans n'importe quelle langue par les expressions appropriées. Les entreprises de traduction qui choisissent ce type de travail en équipe réussissent à mieux consolider leur image et deviennent assez rapidement visibles.

Les besoins spécifiques du marché de la traduction évoluent avec les clients du marché. Autrement dit, plus le client est éduqué pour faire confiance aux professionnels, mieux il saura que lorsqu'il a besoin de la traduction d'un document dans une autre langue, seul un professionnel de la traduction sera à même de préserver le message original de son texte, le style original de son document ainsi que ses idées. Malgré le développement spectaculaire des sites de traduction on-line, la technologie de ce secteur ne permet pas encore un travail de qualité suffisante. Il existe également des logiciels de traduction plus ou moins performants mais dont la limite tient au fait que la traduction se fait mot à mot ce qui finit par situer certaines traductions bien loin des objectifs d'une traduction qualifiée.

6. Les types de services et la définition correcte des besoins

En ce sens, le public qui est desservi par les professionnels de la traduction et de l'interprétation a évolué étant déjà conscient du fait que les services de traduction comme ceux d'interprétariat comprennent différentes caractéristiques qui doivent être bien définies par le client à la demande du fournisseur dans le but de l'établissement d'un devis.

Avant tout engagement, le client doit bien définir la mission pour laquelle il veut faire appel à un interprète ou à un traducteur. Il doit bien définir le secteur d'activité(s) ou le champ d'application de la traduction, car seule la bonne définition de ceux-ci permet une identification correcte de ses besoins en traduction et préciser quelle est la langue source et la langue cible du document à traduire. Plus le client est capable de définir ce besoin, plus il sera capable d'identifier les professionnels qui exercent dans leur secteur spécifique: français financier, allemand technique, japonais scientifique, italien juridique, etc. et cela va sans doute influencer son choix du traducteur ou de l'entreprise de traduction, car une certaine expérience dans un domaine spécialisé est toujours préférée par les clients qui cherchent un service professionnel.

En ce sens, il devient évident que les traducteurs et les entreprises de traductions feraient toujours plus de confiance aux clients si, dans leurs offres, ils précisent bien les vocabulaires spécifiques qu'ils utilisent le plus souvent. Les clients, de leur côté, devraient également préciser, dans la demande auprès d'un service de traductions quels sont les domaines de communication en langues étrangères que le traducteur ou interprète doit maîtriser. Pour ce qui est du support contenant le document à traduire, il peut s'agir d'un catalogue, d'un site Internet, ou même d'une vidéo. Le délai exigé pour la remise de la traduction est aussi très important et doit être respecté. Il est extrêmement important de faire comprendre aux clients que tous ces aspects sont à définir entre tout client et son fournisseur de services de traductions.

La définition correcte des besoins en matière de traductions ira toujours de pair avec la qualité de l'offre des spécialistes et tiendra compte, dans les conditions d'un marché compétitif de la traduction d'une spécialisation sectorielle (outre une connaissance générale de la langue, le traducteur ou l'interprète seront choisis en fonction de leur connaissance du secteur d'activité qui intéresse le client) car celle-ci suppose la maîtrise de termes spécifiques et d'un langage propre afin d'assister le client efficacement dans son travail et de répondre à ses besoins en matière de traduction.

De même, la qualité de l'offre sera toujours influencée par l'expérience du traducteur. En ce sens, le client peut demander à consulter des références fournies par d'autres bénéficiaires des services du même traducteur. Si un traducteur a, dans le passé, déjà eu une mission semblable à celle qui lui est demandée à présent, il est clair que ce traducteur sera considéré comme plus apte à effectuer un travail du même type et que ce travail a la chance d'être réalisé dans les meilleures conditions.

Pour apprécier la qualité de l'offre, le client attache actuellement toujours plus d'attention à la pratique de la langue cible et il saura adresser sa demande en premier lieu à des personnes dont la langue maternelle est la langue cible, ou mieux encore, à un habitant du pays dont la langue maternelle correspond à la langue cible.

La disponibilité est aussi très importante et peut jouer un rôle décisif dans le choix d'un fournisseur de traductions, vu qu'un client peut avoir besoin d'un traducteur ou d'un interprète pour une période de temps indéterminée. Plus l'offre comprend et rend visible des détails portant sur la disponibilité des professionnels sollicités pour des traductions ou pour l'interprétation, plus le client sera convaincu du fait qu'il ne sera jamais abandonné et qu'il bénéficiera toujours des services de spécialité, ce qui crée un climat de confiance réciproque et assure des collaborations à long terme. Les services particulier**s** sont aussi à prendre en compte (conférences, accompagnement en voyage, conseil culturel, médiation linguistique et culturelle spécifique). Pour ces services, la proximité devient aussi importante, car un traducteur qui habite la même région sera beaucoup plus facile à rencontrer.

Le client appréciera la capacité des professionnels de la traduction et de l'interprétation de comprendre réellement ses besoins et de réagir très rapidement pour lui venir en aide, la réceptivité du spécialiste en traduction ou en interprétation étant pour lui, d'une grande importance lors du choix des collaborateurs.

7. Les générateurs de coûts

Ceux-ci sont à considérer selon le secteur spécifique (traduction ou interprétariat). Pour le secteur de la traduction les principaux générateurs de coûts sont la *détermination du tarif* (le fournisseur peut choisir de se faire rémunérer au mot, au nombre de lignes ou bien en fonction du nombre de pages), la négociation d'un *contrat à long terme* avec un fournisseur disposé à accorder aussi des tarifs préférentiels, *la langue source* et plus encore *la langue cible* et le degré de difficulté de la traduction en certaines langues, le *délai exigé* pour la remise de la traduction (une traduction réalisée en régime d'urgence sera toujours plus coûteuse).

Pour le secteur de l'interprétariat, les générateurs de coûts sont *la périodicité, le nombre d'heures de travail prestées par jour, les frais de déplacement* entrepris par l'interprète professionnel pour se rendre à son lieu de travail, *l'originalité de la langue* (une langue moins commune comme le tibétain, ou très complexe comme le mandarin fera sans doute varier les coûts du service linguistique demandé).

Un milieu académique qui forme des professionnels de la traduction et de l'interprétation de conférence est sans doute le premier appelé à éduquer les futurs spécialistes à une correcte perception du marché de la traduction, de ses enjeux et caractéristiques plus ou moins visibles pour un jeune diplômé et d'assurer et d'imposer l'excellence scientifique et professionnelle qui sera par la suite capable d'engendrer des modèles tant pour le traducteur que pour ses clients.

8. Les universités sont-elles capables de devenir des opérateurs efficaces d'une valorisation convenable des services linguistiques universitaires?

Voilà encore une question intéressante qui est souvent posée et qui pourrait faire l'objet d'un débat plus large. Il s'agit de savoir dans quelle mesure les marchés du travail universitaire sont vraiment capables de devenir les opérateurs d'une telle valorisation de l'activité universitaire. D'une manière plus générale, c'est la singularité des activités universitaires et scientifiques qui est à questionner et notamment la réduction de la distance entre elles et les autres activités salariées à l'heure où celles-ci connaissent également de profondes mutations. Ici, les étudiants peuvent jouer un rôle très important. Les stages de traductions auprès des professionnels (qui sont bien souvent aussi leurs professeurs) leur permettraient d'apprendre le travail en équipe sous la forme d'un tutorat professionnel et scientifique et de s'ouvrir par la pratique surveillée à toutes les professions de la traduction. Les étudiants sont en même temps bénéficiaires d'une formation professionnalisante et prestataires de services linguistiques aux côtés de leurs maîtres, faisant la découverte des valeurs d'un véritable travail d'équipe auprès des clients de l'université. La transformation des publics étudiants est largement documentée et constitue l'une des composantes cruciales que doivent intégrer les établissements. Dans cette perspective, l'acquisition de connaissances, n'est plus le seul «produit» qui est délivré: les étudiants doivent aussi pouvoir trouver un emploi, répondre aux besoins du marché du travail, et être traités de manière plus individualisée. Les conséquences de ces tendances, qui existent à des degrés très divers d'un pays à un autre et parfois d'un secteur à un autre dans un même pays sont certainement très différentes car elles influencent de beaucoup la relation entre étudiants et enseignants comme elle influence la constitution de l'offre de formation. Parmi les nombreux arguments développés en faveur de cette évolution dans plusieurs pays dont la France, il y a en premier lieu celui de l'inefficacité de la gratuité ou de la quasi-gratuité à démocratiser l'accès aux formations les plus prestigieuses.

Les universités, étant de plus en plus considérées comme des acteurs importants sur le marché de la traduction, commencent à être concernées aussi par le *benchmarking*, le *rating* et par le *ranking*, ce qui leur permettra d'emprunter de véritables paramètres d'évolution et de fonctionnement efficace sur un marché concurrentiel. L'une des conséquences de l'intensification de la compétition et la pression aux résultats plus fortes qui s'exercent sur l'enseignement supérieur et la recherche d'un côté, et de la multiplication et de l'extension des espaces de référence de l'autre, est la production de données visant à évaluer les résultats mais aussi à les comparer entre eux.

9. La qualité des services linguistiques

Il est vrai que, d'une part, il y a des organismes supranationaux (et notamment l'OCDE ou l'UNESCO) qui ont retenu un certain nombre d'indicateurs et développé des catégories permettant la comparaison et qui produisent des données sur un grand nombre de pays. Celles-ci permettent de situer chacun d'entre eux par rapport aux autres sur un certain nombre de dimensions, mais encouragent aussi ces derniers à pratiquer du *benchmarking*, c'est-à-dire à repérer, échanger et introduire les meilleures pratiques. D'autre part, il y a nombre d'agences privées qui agissent dans le même sens, étant elles aussi concernées par ce même souci de la qualité (telles EQUIS[1] ou l'AACSB[2]) ou d'agences publiques (le QAA[3] en Grande Bretagne) qui ont concentré visiblement leurs activités dans le secteur du processus d'évaluation disciplinaire ou institutionnelle et qui visent à assurer le respect d'un standard de qualité. Il s'agit, dans leur cas, plus de délivrer des «marques» que de classer. D'autres organismes ont assumé la responsabilité de la réalisation d'évaluations des résultats individuels ou institutionnels qui permettent d'appuyer ou de légitimer les décisions prises par les autorités publiques (ou les financeurs privés quand les résultats de ces évaluations sont rendus publics) en matière d'attribution de ressources ou de gestion des carrières.

A cet égard, il conviendrait peut-être de nous interroger aussi sur la manière dont les établissements réagissent face à ces évolutions, mais aussi dans quelle mesure ils y participent et de nous interroger également sur l'articulation entre,

[1] EQUIS : the European Quality Improvment System
[2] AACSB : the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business
[3] QAA. The Quality Assurance Agency

d'un côté, les normes, principes, règles qui tendent ainsi à se diffuser et à s'imposer au-delà de toute frontière et qui poussent les institutions à développer des stratégies individuelles de positionnement sur différents espaces et, de l'autre, les normes, principes, règles que les autorités publiques locales, nationales ou supranationales (notamment européennes) cherchent à développer pour instaurer un pilotage plus collectif, plus coordonné sur chacun de ces niveaux.

Voici en quelques lignes l'environnement concret où est condamnée à évoluer la réforme LMD et, dans le contexte européen, l'enseignement de spécialité. En d'autres termes, malgré les programmes universitaires toujours plus nombreux voués à former des professionnels de la traduction, sur le marché réel de la traduction on se heurte toujours plus au manque de professionnalité et à l'imposture sous leurs diverses formes.

En conclusion, dans les conditions de la professionnalisation de l'enseignement, la formation des traducteurs se retrouve dans une situation paradoxale en quelque sorte, tant en Roumanie que dans d'autres pays européens: la traduction est de plus en plus une profession de succès et, par conséquent, toujours plus pratiquée, le nombre de ceux qui souhaitent une formation de spécialité dans ce domaine est en hausse, et pourtant le nombre des demandes de services de profil sur le marché ne diminue pas, au contraire.

Comme notre démarche générale en tant que formateurs de traducteurs et d'interprètes professionnels de haut niveau vise principalement la mise au service de la qualité de l'enseignement supérieur de profil et qu'elle s'inscrit dans la politique promue au niveau européen, le Département des Langues Modernes Appliquées de l'Université Babeş-Bolyai de Cluj a entrepris quelques interventions ponctuelles lors des réunions européennes SCIC-UNIVERSITES consacrées éminemment aux professions de la traduction et de l'interprétation et à leur évolution dans différents pays[4]. Notre projet porte sur l'amélioration, en Roumanie, de la formation des spécialistes et des services dans le domaine de la traduction et de l'interprétation par la création de Centres d'excellence dans les seules trois universités qui forment des traducteurs et des interprètes de conférence (Cluj, Bucarest, Iassy).

Les centres de formation que nous proposons par notre projet s'adressent à un public cible à compétences linguistiques et (inter)culturelles supérieures dans au moins deux langues, et leur rôle au niveau national est d'assurer la formation et l'évaluation des professionnels de la traduction et de l'interprétation, mais également d'assurer, par des services de profil, la base matérielle et l'infrastructure nécessaires aux activités informatiques et multimédia impliquées dans la formation des spécialistes, dans la recherche terminologique, lexicographique et linguistique de profil.

Le projet du Département des Langues Modernes Appliquées et de son Centre pour les industries de la langues (transfert technologique et cognitif dans le domaine des industries de la langue) de l'UBB Cluj vise essentiellement, par un effort concerté des centres universitaires concernés et du Ministère de la Justice, à

[4] Il s'agit d'un paquet d'initiatives concrètes présentées à Bruxelles aux réunions SCIC-UNIVERSITES (mars 2006) et EMT (octobre 2006) par le Département LMA de la Faculté des Lettres de l'Université Babes-Bolyai de Cluj.

limiter la concurrence des personnes non qualifiées sur le marché roumain et la promotion d'une politique de la haute professionnalisation du domaine.

L'implication du Ministère de la Justice est cruciale, car c'est l'institution qui délivre à présent les autorisations de fonctionnement aux traducteurs et aux interprètes, ceci sur une simple recommandation d'un professeur de langue du candidat. Il est donc nécessaire que le ministère renonce à cette pratique et qu'il passe, avec l'appui des universités, à un système par lequel l'autorisation soit octroyée exclusivement aux personnes formées ou testées dans les centres habilités à former et à tester les traducteurs et les interprètes professionnels. L'état des choses actuel a des conséquences très négatives sur les personnes issues d'une formation universitaire dans le domaine de la traduction ou de l'interprétation, vu le grand nombre d'amateurs autorisés à offrir ces services linguistiques. Ceux-ci sont souvent préférés pour des raisons de tarifs réduits, mais aussi à cause de l'ignorance des bénéficiaires qui ne comprennent pas encore quels sont les enjeux d'une collaboration avec de vrais professionnels des services linguistiques pour l'épanouissement et la visibilité à l'international de leurs propres entreprises.

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SKILLS NEEDED BY FREELANCE TRANSLATORS IN ORDER TO ENHANCE THEIR REPUTATION ON THE TRANSLATION MARKET

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ABSTRACT. The aim of this article is to present a number of skills which may help translators to enhance their profits and become better known on the market. Therefore, our main objective is not to offer advice on theoretic aspects regarding translation techniques and strategies but to help professionals enhance their reputation on the market and acquire better communication skills. For this purpose, the article approaches three fundamental aspects: developing a brand on the translation market, advertising media and the role of IT in the translation business.

Keywords: Advertising, brand, CAT tools, Marketing

Introduction

In an ever growing dynamic business environment, selling translation services and acquiring extra skills have become essential duties in the practice of translators. Knowing how, when, and where to address prospective clients, as well as finding means of differentiating one's services from the competition, will help the translator enhance his or her reputation on the market. As we all know, in today's economy, profits are to a great extent, linked to the capacity of service providers to advertise and establish a brand on the markets they operate on. This of course, is a complex and complicated process, requiring much effort from the provider. In the first and second chapters, we present certain simple and effective methods—adapted to the peculiarities of the translation business—for developing a brand in the field of translations and media which can be used to communicate the coordinates of the established brand. The third chapter deals with the role of information technology in the translation business. It presents the skills needed by a translator in order to enhance his or her quality on the market. The chapter is divided into two sections: the first one presents specialised software for translators whereas the second one elaborates on desktop publishing software.

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1. How to Develop a Brand

The difficulty of developing a brand in the translation business lies in the fact that it is impossible to evaluate the quality of the translator's services. The client will be able to assess the quality of the work only when the translation has been handed over—provided that he or she speaks the language in which the target text is written. However, advertising will never be efficient if the prospective client is not convinced of the quality of the advertised product.

1.1. Objective quality vs. perceived quality

In order to be able to advertise the quality of a certain product or services, we have to make a clear distinction between *objective quality* and *perceived quality*.

Perceived quality is a term used in the theory of branding and it is defined by marketing expert David A. Aaker as "[…] the customer's perception of the overall quality or superiority of a product or service with respect to its intended purpose, relative to alternatives." (Aaker, 1991:85). It can be inferred from this definition that *perceived quality* does not guarantee that quality of the advertised product or service is high; neither does it prove that the product or service is unreliable.

It has been proven that perceived quality has a wide contribution to the success of any business as it can generate: reason-to-buy, differentiation from other similar products or services, a price premium, channel member interest and brand extensions (Aaker, 1991:86).

It is much more difficult to convince customers of the quality of a service than of a product. The latter is a tangible object with specific intrinsic qualities, a certain shape, package, etc. The former is intangible, with unpredictable outcomes, sometimes impossible to assess. The methods to be used in order to convince prospective customers of the quality of a service depend on the peculiarities of the service itself. Therefore, there are no pre-established rules regarding the persuasion of clients.

1.2. Enhancing perceived quality in the translation business

Enhancing perceived quality should not be too difficult a task, since the methods to be used are more often than not a matter of commonsense. The three fundamental aspects that a translator should bear in mind in order to enhance perceived quality are:

- establishing and maintaining a relationship based on professionalism with clients
- creating a personal portfolio consisting of the most important projects carried out
- the ability to cope with deadlines

Like in the case of every other business, in the translation profession, it is very important to establish a professional relationship with one's clients. This relationship has to be based on trustworthiness, truthfulness and transparency.

From the very beginning, the translator has to make sure that his or her client understands the conditions and the terms of the collaboration. It is always advisable to sign a contract with the client providing all the terms and conditions in order to avoid problems throughout the completion of the project.

Experience has shown that written binding documents are more reliable and trustworthy than verbal agreements, for the simple reason that once the terms and conditions of the collaboration are written down, there is no more room for further interpretations.

Communication is also a key issue in the relationship with clients. The translator has to keep in mind that the client is a collaborator in the sense that he or she may provide valuable information regarding the project. Henceforth, it is essential that he or she gather all the information from the client in order to draft the brief for the translation. The collaboration with the client should go on until the project is completed.

Last but not least, when speaking of professionalism, the issue of fee negotiation has to be mentioned. It is not our intention to discuss the ability of translators to negotiate, but to highlight the need to agree upon a fee from the very beginning of a project. Regardless of the negotiated fee, the translator has to fulfil his tasks with the highest degree of professionalism.

Maintaining a professional relationship with clients will enhance the reputation of the translator on the market, attracting new clients.

Having a translation portfolio is always useful, especially when the client has to be convinced of the professional skills of the translator. This is one of the most efficient means to convince prospective clients of the quality of one's work. The projects contained in the portfolio should reflect the expertise of the translator in a number of fields as well as his or her desktop publishing abilities. Nothing should be speared when it comes to the aesthetics of a project. Clients tend to be impressed by high quality graphic design.

The ability to cope with deadline has become a priority in the service business. With today's high speed means of communication, turnarounds have decreased substantially and translators have less and less time at their disposal to complete a translation. This is also due to the fact that "[…] the translator is often one of the last link in a very complex chain of events" (Nogueira, http://www.proz.com/translation-articles/articles/286/1/The-Business-of-Translating, last accessed on 22.01.2008). This how a Brazilian professional—Danilo Nogueira—explains the pressure that translators have to face in their profession. More often than not, the services of translators are required at the end of a certain process, since the latter are not regarded as an actual part of the project itself but as outsiders[1] (*Idem*). And given the fact that deadlines for projects are generally inflexible, and that the 'insiders' to projects have the tendency to

[1] This is of course a misconception. The translator should undoubtedly be an insider to any project since he or she is primarily a communicator and needs to understand the outcomes of the project in order to properly convey the message to his or her target audience. This will be the object of a future article.

disregard the initial schedule, translators are left with less time on their hands to finish up the job. Nonetheless, they need to settle upon a deadline with the client for submitting the translation which of course, must be respected by all means.

1.3. Finding an appropriate Unique Selling Proposition

This is how Barron's Marketing Dictionary defines Unique Selling Proposition (USP):

> Concept developed by Rosser Reeves, one of the founders of Ted Bates Advertising Agency, which says that advertising must offer the consumer a logical reason for buying a product that separates the product from its competitors. According to this concept, all successful advertising campaigns are based on a product's unique selling proposition. There are three basic tenets to the concept: (1) each advertisement or commercial must offer a special benefit to the consumer; (2) the benefit must be unique to the advertised brand (something the competition does not offer); and (3) the benefit must be strong enough to pull customers toward the brand.
>
> (Dictionary of Marketing Terms: 2000).

Finding a unique selling proposition is not difficult and can prove quite helpful in the 'client hunting' stage. It can generate a reason-to-buy since it is supposed to be unique and it differentiates the services from those of the competition.

During the process of finding an appropriate unique selling proposition, the translator has to identify the advantages he or she has over the competition. However, simply identifying the advantages in relation to the competition is not enough. It is very important that these advantages be relevant in the context of the market. This means to say, that prior to the identification of advantages, the translator has to carry out research in order to identify potential needs on the market.

It is recommended that the USP avoid general phrases such as: 'high quality translations' or 'the cheapest translation services'. The USP is intended to convey a strong message, capable of convincing prospects of the reliability of one's services. An example of an effective unique selling proposition may be: 'integrated translation solutions'. In a more detailed sentence this would translate: Offering A to Z services: terminological research, translation, professional desktop publishing and printing. From this USP, the client will infer that one will get all the services he or she needs contacting only one service provider. It is both cost and time efficient.

The unique selling proposition presented above is process oriented, i.e. it focuses on project management. Another strategy would entail the option for a specific domain, and the tailoring of the USP on that particular field. Such examples may include: 'translating astro-physics', or 'complete solutions for medical translations'. Since the market is already crowded with translators, the best strategy is to choose a niche market segment.

2. Media for Advertising Translation Services

Once the advantages have been identified and the unique selling proposition established, the translator should go on to communicate them to prospective clients. Choosing the right media is essential and has a direct impact upon the number of projects contracted by the translator.

Since ATL (above-the-line) media[2] are much too expensive and are probably not as efficient as one might think in this field, it is very common for translators to use BTL media to advertise their services such as: direct mailing, leaflets, brochures, Internet marketing etc.

2.1. 'Classic' advertising media

The most cost efficient medium that translators can use in order to advertise their services is probably direct mailing. However, if the addressees are not targeted correctly, this method will not have the desired impact.

Translators should select their addressees according to the identified advantages and the unique selling proposition. The selection stage should consist in creating a mini-database with all the identified potential clients for the services the translator has to offer. If the translator specialises in medical translations for instance, he or she should look for dealers of medical equipment or even academics or physicians.

Once the list with prospective clients has been completed, the translator should proceed to drafting the letter he or she wishes to address to prospects. The letter should attract the attention of the reader and try as much as possible to persuade him or her of the quality of the translator's services. Therefore, the tone of the letter has to be appealing and it should not exceed in length 3-4 paragraphs.

Experience has shown that prospects do not reply at the first offers, it is thus important that one insist and send out more than one offer to the same prospect.

A good follow up to the offers sent out would be meeting the prospective clients in person. It is probably the best way to communicate and to persuade clients since it is easier to identify their needs and adapt the offer accordingly.

Apart from direct mailing, translators may make use of other media to approach prospective clients. They can draft brochures, leaflets and flyers which they can place in various public places. They can meet their clients at various professional events (fares, conferences, seminars, workshops etc.) or they can establish a very good reputation and make use of a more informal means of advertising, *word of mouth*.

2.2. Online advertising media

Nowadays, advertising translation services has become easier and more efficient to translators thanks to the ever growing Internet. The online translators'

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[2] Above-the-line media consist of all mainstream media used for advertising such as: television, radio, the press etc.

community has increased substantially due to international online translators' portals. The most famous example of such a community is proz.com which offers hosting for both freelance translators and clients. Proz.com is more than just a 'market place' for translators, where clients can buy translation services from translators all over the world. It is a virtual community where professionals may interact, learn, inform themselves and help each other. Therefore, it has become a very useful tool for translators if they need to research terminology, or want to survey their peers regarding a professional matter.

By subscribing to such a community, the translator comes into contact with translation jobs more easily and is able to enhance his or her degree of professionalism by communicating with peer professionals.

But translator portals are not the only online means of advertising translation services. Professionals may choose to advertise their services independently on the Internet. In this case, it is compulsory that they develop a personal website which should include information about the services, fees, portfolio, fields of expertise, etc.

The following step would be to advertise their website on the Internet. Probably the most cost efficient medium to advertise online is search engines. For a fixed fee they list websites in the 'sponsored links' section, making them accessible for any prospect.

3. Using IT for Translation Purposes

It is well known that translating without the support of information technology has become impossible nowadays. All translators must be proficient users of word-processing software and of the Internet—for research purposes. This however, might not be enough if the translator wishes to have an advantage over the competition. We shall see further in this chapter the polyvalence of information technology in the translation field.

3.1. CAT Tools and terminological databases[3]

CAT (Computer Aided Translation) tools have enabled translators to save time and energy in the translation process. Thanks to this category of software the output has increased substantially and has led to a better coping with deadlines.

Beyond any doubt, working with CAT tools has become a standard nowadays in the translation world. It is therefore advisable that translators who are not familiar with the concept yet, consider take up training.

Not only do CAT tools aid translators to have a better output, but also help them in their effort to localise websites. In addition, any translated segment can be easily spotted in the personal translation digital archive.

[3] Since nowadays the translator profession cannot exist without word processing software, we believe that any translator is a proficient user of such software, hence we shall not insist on this aspect.

The range of such software is very wide allowing translators to choose the version which best suits their needs. Certain releases are even freeware and can be downloaded at any time from the Internet.

Another extremely useful tool that translators have at their disposal is databases, which they can use for terminological purposes. There are specialized terminological databases, installable and ready to use, usually included in the CAT software package. However, translators have the option of designing their own terminological database model, including fields and information at their own will. Microsoft's database developing platform Access is very well suited for this purpose. Although it is not as complex as other platforms, such as SQL or Oracle, it is easier to use and more user friendly.

The personal terminological database helps freelance translators keep track of all the terms they have ever come across and in the mean time supports them in the effort of specialising in the fields of their expertise.

3.2. Desktop publishing

If working with CAT tools and terminological databases is part of the translator 'job description', desktop publishing is an 'optional' skill which can create an important advantage as compared to the competition.

Certain projects require more than just mere translation and basic word processing. For product catalogues, leaflets, and all other advertising materials, graphic design is essential. For such jobs, in order to save time and money, translators may be required to hand in the material designed and printed out.

Therefore, professionals of the translation business should not be reluctant to include DTP in their services since more often than not they are not required to create an original design for the material to be printed out. They only have to replace the source text with the target text which they have previously produced. Further changes need to be operated only if the replacement of the source text with the target text affects the overall aspect of the layout.

Nonetheless, in order to carry out such tasks, translators have to master specialised software. There are a number of platforms used on a current basis for desktop publishing. Probably the most famous one is Adobe's package, which includes InDesign®—for book, catalogue newspaper and leaflet editing—, Illustrator®—for editing banners, advertising prints—, and Photoshop—for photograph editing. Other famous platforms include Corel (with Corel Draw® and Corel PhotoPaint®) and Quark Express®.

Although at first these programmes might sound complex, they are not at all difficult to handle and rely on common functioning principles. A user of Adobe InDesign for instance, will very easily learn how to work with Quark Express, or somebody who is accustomed with Corel Draw will have no problem with switching to Adobe Illustrator.

Conclusion

Translators need to be in constant contact with new developments in the IT world and to specialise in as many computer programmes as possible. Every extra skill will score high on every translator's CV.

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A SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF PROBLEMS AND DIFFICULTIES WITH THE TRANSLATION OF OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS

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ABSTRACT. Since only empirical research can provide accurate and reliable data about the problems and difficulties with the translation of official documents, the sociological approach and the survey as research instrument are worthwhile solutions. The article presents the research strategy and describes the progressive development of the research issues, i.e. the theoretical conceptualization and the exploratory survey which will lead to the design of the survey questionnaire intended to identify the problems and difficulties with the translation of official documents from English, French and German into Romanian.

Keywords: translation problems, translation difficulties, translation of official documents, sociological research methods

Introduction

The process of translating official documents is quite distinct from that of other text types on account of the numerous constraints on the translator. There are not only legal and ethical norms, traditions, and customs which act as objective requirements imposed by the domains in which the target text will function as a communication tool or by the translation practice, but also subjective constraints imposed by the initiator or by the client. All these limitations turn into pragmatic and textual problems to which the translator has to find solutions both at action level and at word level. Pragmatic problems, in their turn, become linguistic or textual problems, which are likely to get amplified by the differences between the linguistic systems of the two languages in contact.

Apart from leaving too little freedom in the translation of such documents, the constraints also result in some tensions, i.e. between being adequate to professional quality standards and being acceptable to the public authorities, between the fidelity to the original text necessary for document identification and the style of the translated document (Mayoral Asensio 2003:50).

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In spite of its being limited by constraints and tensions, the translator's creativity is and should be present, which was also highlighted by Mayoral Asensio (2003:51). This creativity should manifest itself in order to achieve a number of aims:

- to facilitate intercultural communication by explaining the culture-bound terms in the source document;
- to express the message clearly by omitting reiterations and forms that are irrelevant in the target language; by solving lexical and semantic gaps; by facilitating the identification of references; by achieving coherence and cohesion;
- to realize the official style in the target language by writing concisely; by using precise and homogenous terminology; by organizing the information in the target language logically and conventionally; by formatting the text according to norms.

Although all the properties and qualities of an official translation are important, acceptability is by far the most relevant and desirable since the translation loses its validity as a communication tool unless it is accepted by the public authority. When is a translated official document accepted by its receiver? When it conforms to the communicative situation in the target culture, that is it satisfies the receiver's legal, cognitive and formal requirements and when it facilitates communication through its linguistic and stylistic qualities.

Thus, the acceptability of an official translation will very much depend on the translator's competence, more exactly, on his/her capacity to solve problems, to overcome the difficulties of each translation task and to be creative.

Besides being important to intercultural communication, knowledge of these problems and difficulties is also basic to the teaching of official translation. As far as its didactics is concerned, one cannot design the teaching and learning process without defining the elements of the competence to be developed, i.e. *correlations* such as those between translation problems and general and specific strategies, or *interactions* such as those between the translation task and the translator's cognitive system. These may be defined imaginatively by knowledge transfer about other types of translation, pragmatic or literary, but the syllabus will be soundly based only on knowledge acquired through rigorous empirical methods.

These exigencies have determined us to resort to sociological methods to be able to build up the real image of the problems and difficulties raised by the translation of official documents, consisting of the practitioners' mental representations derived from their own professional experiences.

This article presents the research design and two of the initial stages of a large - scale research project. Specifically, we shall present the strategy and describe the progressive development of the research issues: the *theoretical conceptualization* and the *exploratory survey*, which will lead to the design of the survey questionnaire intended to identify the problems and difficulties with the translation of official documents from English, French and German into Romanian.

The research design

Since only empirical research can supply real, correct, and precise data about the problems and difficulties with the translation of official documents, we opted for the survey as the research instrument for identifying the problems and difficulties of which Romanian translators are aware. As for the problems and difficulties of which they are not aware, we shall resort to other research methods: parallel analyses of the source and target texts, error analyses of target texts, and experiments involving pre-translation predictions of problems/difficulties and after-translation reports of problems/difficulties and of the way they were dealt with. As strategy, we have chosen the following stages:

1. Deciding the aims of the study;
2. Conceptualization of the research;
    - 2.1. Defining the concepts from the theoretical perspective;
    - 2.2. The pre-survey: questioning respondents for exploratory purposes;
        - 2.2.1. Formulating the questions for the exploratory questionnaire;
        - 2.2.2. Selecting the respondents;
        - 2.2.3. Administering the questionnaire;
        - 2.2.4. Processing the data.
3. Formulating the survey questionnaire;
4. Selecting the sample;
5. Piloting the questionnaire;
6. Evaluating the questionnaire following the piloting stage and modifying it, if necessary;
7. Administering the questionnaire;
8. Processing the data.
9. Parallel analyses of source and target texts; error analyses;
10. Experiments with given translations;
11. Data processing;
12. Drawing up the problem inventories and lists of difficulties.

Deciding the aims of the study

The general aims of the study were decided upon with a view to acquiring the knowledge needed for communication and pedagogic purposes. Deciding them was paramount as they set up the guidelines on the practical issues to be investigated, the variables to be specified and the questions to be formulated.

The aims are the following:

I. a) to draw up the inventories of problems faced by the translators of official documents from English, French and German into Romanian at pragmatic, textual, and linguistic levels.

b) to make a list of systematic difficulties in translating such documents for the above mentioned pairs of languages.

II. to assess the adequacy and usefulness of sociological methods in translation studies.

Conceptualizing the research issues

The purpose of this stage was to prepare the survey and the questionnaire, for which we had: a) to formulate a pertinent and feasible set of issues; b) to place the issues into a precise theoretical perspective; and c) to formulate the topics and sub-topics as hypotheses.

The first action was to define the object of the research, i.e. the translation problems and difficulties, which was achieved by starting from extensive definitions or descriptions of the concepts in the translation studies literature and by completing them with our own ideas (notional elements) based on theoretical reflection.

The definitions were necessary for establishing not only the object of the research but also, more importantly, to draw up the specific issues which would point to the indicators and variables to be studied. After reviewing the literature we concluded that the key concepts capable of leading to relevant topics are: *official document, translation situation, translation requirements, target text characteristics, specific translation process, translation problems, translation difficulties*.

The concept which specifies the object of the research is the *official document, which we defined as* a professional genre which regulates, in the verbal code, a social interaction within the legal system requirements. The extension of the term includes all the professional genres with the above-stated communicative function, which are issued by the public administration, for example: certificates, diplomas, contracts, decisions, regulations, laws. The intension includes only the properties which distinguish an official document from other professional genres such as the report, memo, medical prescription, although these may also become official documents under certain circumstances, i.e. communication instruments in the legal system.

After reviewing the relevant literature (Nord 1991,1997a, 1997b), we defined the *translation situation* as the totality of factors which determine the conditions in which the translation process takes place. These factors, established in the functionalist approach are: the participants, the functions of the source and target texts, the time and place of the translation, the channel and the medium of the target text, and the motive for the translation. In the case of official documents, the participants are: the *initiator*, who may be a public administration institution or a person, *the client*, the person or organization who hires the translator, *the receiver*, the institution in the target country who will use the document as a legally valid instrument of communication, *the discourse community in the target country*, which sets down the legal validity conditions of the document within the administrative system, and the *translator*, who mediates the communication between the source text sender and the target text receiver, acting as a linguistic judicial expert.

Each of these participants may *formulate requirements* for the translation, some of which may be imposed by laws or regulations which limit the translator's freedom, but, at the same time, stipulate the precision boundaries. As a consequence, besides linguistic knowledge and skills, the translator also needs non–linguistic knowledge about the legal systems of the source and target countries, about different areas of knowledge, and about general and specific cultures.

Translation requirements are exigencies imposed by the participants in the translation process on the final product, i.e. the target text. In the case of official documents, the requirements are of *legal, ethical, cognitive, communicative and formal* nature. Some of them are *external* to the translation process, imposed by the entities that act as participants, for example a Court of Appeal as recipient of the translation of a document, others are *internal*, pertaining to the translator, his/her level of competence and creativity, or to his/her view about translation (Mayoral Asensio 2003).

The target text characteristics are *properties* and *qualities* which ensure the communicative success of the target text. The properties are defining characteristics for the target text, their absence denying a document the status of translation. The essential properties are *the acceptability* and the *dependence on the source* document either by fidelity or its informativity. The qualities are desirable attributes of the target document which facilitate communication. The qualities are *linguistic*, for example the grammaticalness or the semantic and lexical accuracy and *stylistic*, which, in the case of official documents are precision, terminological appropriateness, clarity and fluency (Superceanu 2004: 35-36).

The target text characteristics turn into requirements and during the process they may become problems and/or difficulties. The qualities will facilitate communication, but they will not favour any of the parties involved in the social interaction, while their absence may favour some of the parties or they may bring the parties damages of some kind.

We defined *the translation process* as a succession of operations performed by the translator and the interactions among them or with the factors of the translation situation. In the case of official documents, two operations are likely to create problems or difficulties: *understanding* and *interpreting* the *source document* and *rendering the message* in the target language. The correct understanding of the source message depends on the translator's legal and translational competence, while interpretation depends both on his/her competence and attitude. Interpretation always has communicative consequences since faithfulness to content and an unbiased attitude of the translator is one thing, faithfulness to the facts and data, but biased attitude in favour of a certain party at one time is another, and lack of faithfulness, i.e. an altered content and the biased attitude in favour of a party is still another.

In order to render the message into the target language the translator chooses a translation method, which may be the literal method or the communicative method, and he/she uses this method for the whole document or only for certain parts of it. The choice of a certain translation method or technique is determined by factors both external to the translation, i.e. situational ones, and internal, which pertain to the translator's general or specific competence.

Finally, *translation problems* are content and language issues arising from the differences between the target and source cultures and languages. They require the translator to find solutions conforming to the receiver's expectations and requirements so that the target text can function as a valid communication tool in the target culture and language.

The translation problems have been studied and classified by Christiane Nord (1991, 1997a, 1997 b) who distinguishes them from difficulties, since the problems have an objective nature, occurring in all translations and being determined by the differences between the communication situation of the source text and that of the target text and by the differences between the linguistic systems of the two languages in contact. According to their nature, the problems may be *pragmatic, cultural, linguistic,* and *text- specific*.

In the case of official documents, the pragmatic problems are determined by the difference between the communicative purpose of the source document and that of the target document, between the legal and ethical exigencies in the target culture and those of the source culture, and by the requirements formulated by the client or by the reciever.

The cultural problems pertain to the source culture terms. Focusing the translation on source culture concepts facilitates the identification of that particular concept upon the reception of the translation, while focusing on the functionally equivalent concept in the target culture facilitates the target text understanding. Other cultural differences in the case of official documents are the terms and phrases specific to the legal system or to the target language conventions of textual organization by titles, subtitles and text format (Mayoral Asensio 2003).

The linguistic problems due to differences between the linguistic systems of the two languages arise when translating the terms and words for which there are no total equivalents in the target language. Text - specific problems refer to grammatical or stylistic errors in the source text, to opaque abbreviations which are not recorded in dictionaries, to handwritten texts or unintelligible passages, deteriorated texts, to words and collocations highlighted by markings.

Translation difficulties are more or less complicated translation problems for which the translator makes more efforts in finding solutions. The difficulties are subjective in nature and derive mainly either from the ineffective translator's competence or from the technically inadequate conditions in which the translation is performed.

In the case of official documents, the ineffective translator's competence refers to the translator's ignorance of the legal or even ethical requirements, of the communication norms used in the administrative community, and of the judicial, economic or technical terminology. Also in terms of competence, the translator may lack the specific skills for translating official documents, may be incapable of understanding the message completely due to his cognitive gaps, to the absence of documentation sources such as specialized dictionaries, parallel, comparative or model texts, or even of specialist consultants.

The pre-survey: the exploratory questionnaire

The definitions of some of the concepts, namely *translation situation, translation requirements, target text qualities* and *translation process* make reference to causes of some of the problems and difficulties and have allowed us to break down the object of research into several general research topics as well as to formulate provisional and tentative sub-topics (the elements defining the problems and difficulties). Both the topics and sub-topics represent the contents of the questionnaire, still weakly structured at this stage, i.e. exploratory, due to the fact that the domain which we intend to deal with and analyze is little known.

Formulating the questions for the questionnaire is a laborious activity, constrained by sociological rules, which, if followed, secure the success of the inquiry. For the pre–survey stage, the techniques suggested by the sociological practice are the exploratory interview focusing on developing ideas and research hypotheses, or the exploratory questionnaire administered to a sample of respondents who answer only open questions freely. These questions will appeal to the respondents' own practice, to their behaviour during the tasks and to their mental representations of the research object. The point of this stage is to gather as much information as possible by stimulating the respondents' flow of memory.

Of the two techniques, we opted for the exploratory questionnaire because of the respondents' lack of time for the interview. The positive side of this option is that the respondents may present and elaborate on their ideas at their own pace, without being pressed for time by the interviewer, which reduces the omissions, distortions, and exaggerations. The ideas forgotten at the first reading of the questions may be presented at a second reading. The negative side of the choice refers to the researcher's impossibility to clarify some of the answers immediately or to solicit more details.

In this particular case, the purpose of the exploratory questionnaire was double:

1. to collect ideas about the problems and difficulties of official translations from English, French and German into Romanian; these ideas are to complete or confirm the sub-topics already set up through theoretical reflection and to provide the indices i.e. the multiple answers for the closed questions of the survey questionnaire;
2. to identify inadequately formulated questions, i.e. ambiguous or imprecise, which may lead to a wrong understanding of some survey questions.

The Sample

The sample for our research will be drawn from the population of official translators who translate documents from English, French and German into Romanian on a regular basis. The representative survey sample will be drawn by means of the random sampling method, starting from the register of approved translators of Timişoara Chamber of Notaries, covering three counties: Timiş, Arad and Caraş.

As the survey intends to identify the problems and difficulties with the official translations for the pairs of languages mentioned and not the attitudes of the Romanian translators to these problems and difficulties, there will not be any need to extend the research to other provinces or counties.

The representativeness of the sample will be ensured by its structure, which we have designed into three clusters according to the professional qualification of the translators:

1. translators whose speciality is philology;
2. translators whose speciality is translation;
3. translators who hold a university degree, but other than in philology or translation.

The exploratory questionnaire will be administered to twelve informants for each of the three source languages, four from each cluster.

The set of exploratory questions

The set of questions formulated at this stage is structured by topics and sub-topics derived from the set of issues evidenced by the contents of the relevant research concepts. The questions are all of the open-ended kind as they are intended to stimulate the respondents' spontaneity and freedom. Some ideas may occur in several questions for the confirmation of the answers.

1. Official documents (OD)

1. What types of texts are considered official documents?
2. Can you classify them? If the answer is "yes", what are the criteria for your classification?
3. Are the translation problems different with each group of text? If yes, what are they?
4. If no, what are the common problems?

2. The clients of official translations

2.1. Non–immigrant clients

1. What countries do the clients who ask for official translations from English (French and German) into Romanian come from?
2. Do the clients formulate any requirements for the translations? If yes, what are they?
3. Do these requirements turn into problems? If yes, which are they?
4. Which problems are difficult to solve?

2.2. Immigrant clients

1. Do the translations requested by the immigrants to Romania show translation aspects different from those of the documents requested by non – immigrants?
2. Would you characterize these aspects as problems? If yes, what are the problems?
3. Do these aspects sometimes turn into difficulties? If yes, what are the difficulties?
4. Do these clients formulate any requirements ? If yes, what are the requirements?

3. The translators

3.1. The translators' competence

1. What problems does the source text understanding and interpretation pose?
2. Are they difficult to solve? If yes, which are difficult?
3. What problems does the message expression in the target language pose?
4. Are any of the problems difficult to solve? If yes, which are they?

3.2. Translation failures

1. Do you know of any situation in which the translation of a document was not accepted by the client or by the recipient? What were the causes for its rejection?

4. The requirements for official translations

4.1. Translation norms

1. Who establishes the requirements for the translation of official documents?
2. What kinds of norm (E.g. legal, cognitive) are in force in Romania?
3. Which kind(s) pose(s) any problems and what are the problems?
4. Do any traditions operate in official translations? If yes, do you find it difficult to follow them?

4.2. Information requirements

1. What kinds of information must an official translation contain and what kinds may be omitted according to the Romanian norms?
2. Does any of these kinds pose any problems? If yes, what are the problems?
3. Are the problems difficult to solve? If yes, what are the difficulties?

5. The qualities of target texts

5.1. Qualities and standards

1. What qualities do official translations have to have?
2. Who has established the quality requirements and standards? Where do you know them from?
3. Which qualities are always difficult to achieve?
4. Which qualities are sometimes difficult to achieve? Why is that?

5.2. The translator and the quality requirements

1. Are there situations in which the translator does not manage to achieve the quality standard he/she aspires to or is expected to achieve?
2. What can hamper the translator's achievement of the required qualities?
3. Are such problems difficult to solve? If yes, what are the difficult ones?

6. Translation problems and difficulties

6.1. Translation problems

1. What problems do you face in translating official documents?
2. Could you, please, group them?
3. According to what criteria have you grouped the problems?
4. What are in your opinion the causes of the problems?
5. What are in your opinion the solutions to the problems?

6.2. Translation difficulties

1. What difficulties do you have when translating official documents?
2. Could you, please, group them?
3. According to what criteria have you grouped the difficulties?
4. What are the common difficulties with all document types?
5. What difficulties occur with some document types? Give examples.
6. What are in your opinion the causes of your difficulties?
7. How do you overcome the difficulties?

Conclusion

The research reported in this article focused on the first stages of a larger project, presenting the strategy, the general aims of the study and the conceptualization of the research through literature review, theoretical reflection, and the exploratory questionnaire. The technique adopted for the exploratory stage was the questionnaire made up of open-ended questions and structured by topics and sub-topics. One purpose of this provisional questionnaire is to collect the practitioners' ideas about their translation problems and difficulties, which will complete the survey questionnaire and will provide the content for the multiple answers to its closed questions. Another is to identify the ambiguous or imprecise questions, which may impair the respondents' understanding.

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TRADUCTEURS ET INTERPRETES A LA RECHERCHE DU MOT ... PERDU

RENATA GEORGESCU*

ABSTRACT. Translator and/or interpreter? Both professions are what the French would refer to as „métiers des langues”, indicating their relationship with the raw material (the word/idea) used to obtain the final product. Even though on the Romanian market the distinction between the two is not yet clear-cut, in the European realm this distinction is well represented: the translator is not an interpreter and the interpreter is not a translator. For this reason, the current study tries to pinpoint elements of overlap as well as elements of division.

Keywords: translation/translator, interpreting/interpreter, speaker, note-taking, active listening

Pour de nombreuses personnes, le traducteur et l’interprète agissent sur le même matériel : le mot. Précisons dès le début, pour prévenir des réactions tout à fait normales de votre part, que pour l’interprète il s’agit rarement d’un mot isolé puisque, dans la plupart des cas, il interprète une série de mots qui composent une idée par l’intermédiaire de laquelle il transmet le message de l’orateur. Cependant, si le traducteur commence par *voir* le mot, la phrase, le paragraphe puis le texte entier, l’interprète commence par *entendre* le mot, la phrase, puis le discours entier. L’interprète entend d’abord et ce n’est que par la suite qu’il voit/écrit ou écrit/voit alors que le traducteur voit d’abord pour entendre, par la suite, sa voix intérieure prononcer ce que l’œil a déjà vu. La voix intérieure est une voix connue, peut-être même aimée, qui possède un rythme et une intonation que les années ont affinée. Aucun processus d’adaptation n’est nécessaire pour l’entendre ou l’écouter car elle est toujours la même. L’interprète, par contre, entend toujours une voix inconnue, du moins pendant les deux ou trois premières minutes du discours. Une voix qui demande de sa part des efforts afin qu’il accorde ses capacités auditives dans le but d’en percevoir les inflexions les plus fines.

Heureux les traducteurs, car ils n’entendent pas les mots tousser ou parler dans leur barbe ou s’éloigner du micro ou ne pas arriver à leur fin!

Hommage à l’interprète qui réussit à ignorer les défauts de locution de l’orateur pour ne retenir de son intervention que ce qui forme le corps de mots de la phrase prononcée!

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Heureux les traducteurs, car ils peuvent s'enfermer dans leur tour d'ivoire pour être seuls avec le texte, pour l'humer et le retourner sur tous les côtés, pour en entendre encore et encore les accords!

Hommage à l'interprète qui entend une seule fois le discours de l'orateur avec, parfois, en toile de fond, les sonneries des portables «venus» à la conférence, le claquement des portes qui s'ouvrent et/ou se ferment au moment même où l'orateur a tourné sa tête dans l'autre direction!

Heureux le traducteur qui établit lui-même le moment et le rythme de la traduction en fonction de son état d'esprit ou de son inspiration!

Hommage à l'interprète qui respecte le rythme imposé par l'orateur et les heures de déroulement de la conférence imposées par les organisateurs, faisant preuve de professionnalisme et alors qu'il interprète le discours libre de quelqu'un qui trouve difficilement ses mots et lorsqu'il interprète la lecture -faite à la vitesse d'une mitrailleuse- d'un texte dont la présentation nécessiterait deux fois plus de temps!

Heureux les traducteurs, car ils peuvent consulter à tout moment les dictionnaires qui sont près d'eux, soit pour découvrir quelque signification inconnue ou oubliée d'un mot, soit pour avoir la confirmation d'une signification qu'ils avaient soupçonnée!

Hommage à l'interprète qui réussit à éviter habilement un terme totalement inconnu ou à en deviner la signification du contexte, de façon que le public ne se rende même pas compte de l'impasse dans laquelle il se trouvait!

Mais, heureux les interprètes qui peuvent demander à leur orateur des explications supplémentaires concernant certains éléments du discours qui ne sont pas assez clairs et hommage au traducteur qui doit s'imprégner du texte, en deviner tous les tenants et aboutissants afin de ne pas trahir (Ô, tradittore!) les intentions de l'écrivain!

Cette dernière affirmation concernant les interprètes n'est valable que pour dans le cas de la consécutive faite à la fin d'un discours intégral, c'est-à-dire l'interprétation qui a lieu après que l'orateur a terminé son intervention d'une durée de six à huit minutes. Ne prenons pas en considération le cas des interprètes doués d'une mémoire fabuleuse et d'une pensée si ordonnée et si logique qu'ils pourraient reproduire un tel discours sans avoir pris aucune note! Attardons-nous un instant sur l'interprète formé, non né, qui -de façon consciente- met en œuvre une certaine stratégie dans le processus de prise de notes. Qu'est-ce qu'il retient en notes de ce qu'il vient d'entendre? Les expériences faites sur des groupes d'interprètes ont démontré qu'il n'y a pas deux prises de notes identiques, à 100% identiques, même pas dans le cas de deux interprètes formés dans la même école d'interprétation, par les mêmes professeurs et ayant exercé sur les mêmes discours type. Pourquoi? Parce que, comme dans le cas du choix du moment propice pour la traduction, qui dépende de la disponibilité, de l'inspiration, du besoin d'argent ou de gloire ou de tout autre facteur invoqué par le traducteur, l'interprète note ce qui pourrait l'aider vraiment au moment de la transposition de ses notes en discours. Non pas le battement d'aile d'un mot blessé, mais les connecteurs logico syntaxiques et les mots-clés qui font avancer le discours. Certains interprètes notent plutôt les verbes, d'autres les noms, d'autres encore les sentiments exprimés par l'orateur. Chaque interprète note en fonction de raisons qu'il ne peut –souvent- expliquer, tout comme le traducteur –affirme Roger T. Bell- «traduit sans pouvoir dire pourquoi et comment».

Dans quelle langue l'interprète prend-il ses notes? Dans toutes les langues qu'il connaît et parfois dans aucune langue. S'il note dans la langue source, il pourra se concentrer effectivement sur les idées-forces du message entendu. L'effort de traduction mentale préliminaire est éliminé. Mais, il n'est jamais éliminé complètement puisque la probabilité que l'orateur prononce un mot totalement inconnu reste élevée même si le domaine du discours est circonscrit au préalable et même si l'interprète a eu le temps de se documenter, de constituer un glossaire terminologique, de discuter avec des spécialistes du domaine. D'autre part, il est préférable qu'il note dans la langue source un mot ou un concept qui ne peut être exprimé dans la langue cible autrement que par une périphrase, parce que cela lui permet de gagner un temps précieux qu'il pourra utiliser pour l'écoute attentive du reste du discours.

S'il note dans la langue cible, il n'est plus en proie à la tentation de noter le plus grand nombre de mots et il focalisera son attention sur l'essence du message. Le traitement de l'information a lieu, dans ce cas de figure, avant la prise de notes effective, c'est-à-dire après une sorte de simultanée que l'interprète fait pour lui-même, facilitant de cette manière le décodage qu'il fera au moment de la restitution du discours.

Pourtant, dans la plupart des cas, l'interprète note dans plusieurs langues, en sélectionnant parfois consciemment, d'autres fois inconsciemment les variantes les plus courtes, qui lui permettent de revenir à l'orateur et à son discours. Au fait, il ne les a pas quittés, même pas un instant, car pendant la prise de notes, il continue d'analyser et de faire la synthèse de ce qu'il entend et, surtout, de comprendre le discours qu'il entend.

Heureux les traducteurs, car les mots qui composent leurs idées sont toujours complets!

Hommage à l'interprète qui réussit à prendre des notes intelligemment, de sorte qu'il ne confonde pas –dans le processus de décodage et d'oralisation du message- les abréviations pour des mots comme concurrence/concentration, politique/politicien/politologie, informatique/informer/informaticien.

Heureux les traducteurs de génie car leur «transpiration» et leur art conduit à l'apparition d'un nouveau texte qui conserve le parfum du texte source, parfois le rendant encore plus fort.

Hommage à l'interprète professionnel qui, au prix d'heures de «transpiration» a acquis des techniques et des stratégies de communication intelligentes qui lui permettent de mettre en valeur son talent et son art: de sculpteur car, comme nous l'avons déjà affirmé, il cisèle le discours afin de le réduire à son essence. De traducteur car, à partir de signes, symboles et abréviations, il pétrit les mots qu'il prononcera. D'acteur, car l'interprète devient l'orateur même lors de l'interprétation du discours. Non seulement il s’exprime toujours à la première personne, mais son intonation, son rythme, les gestes éventuels, la manière d’être de l’orateur à travers son discours sont repris et (re)transmis au public par son interprétation.

Heureux les traducteurs arrivés à la fin de leur traduction!

Hommage aux interprètes qui savent combien vaine est la recherche d’un mot perdu! C’est peut-être pour cette raison que, dans la traduction plurilingue que représentent leurs notes, ils ne retiennent pas nécessairement des mots mais, plutôt, des idées naissantes.

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TRANSLATION, GLOBALISATION AND THE FUTURE OF ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

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ABSTRACT. The following is a critical examination of the systemic transformations in the cultures, politics and practices of translation under the pressures of global economy, multicultural language policies and the new information technologies. What I am particularly interested in observing is the relationship between the rise of professional translation and the current state of translation scholarship, and the extent to which they inform each other across the densely interdisciplinary field of translation studies. The enquiry veers therefore between aspects of the hermeneutics and the pragmatics of translation, hinging on the newly forming articulations between translation theories and translation industries. A derivative scope is that of refocusing the problematics of English as an international language in the global environment, shifting attention from translation as an interlingual to translation as an intercultural act. The thrust of my argument is that, in absence of a heightened translation consciousness, the radical transformations in global economy coupled with the new technology assisting the translation process make it easy to overlook the role of the agency of translation and remain confined to a viewing of it in purely instrumental terms. Equally, the article is an attempt to grapple briefly with the issue of the proliferation of Englishes in circulation and the continuing rift between the practices and theories of translating. It seems to me a like consideration is now long overdue.

Key words: translation, globalisation, English, foreignisation, domestication

One of the phenomena typifying the global order, in addition to the transnational framework of reference, is 'time-space compression', or else the shrinking or annihilation of distance as a result of the massive reduction in the time needed to connect various locations. As well as indicative of the logic of acceleration underlying late capitalism, this brings forth a dramatically different conception of social existence and the activities constitutive of it. It is a conception wherein space somewhat loses its ontological integrity, sliding into a mere extension of time. With the advent of instantaneous communication locality enters obsolescence, and de-territorialisation steps in as the very prerequisite of velocity. Thus, not only does the virtual medium become the primary medium, but, powered by the cyberspace environment, what appeared as a utopian project, simultaneity, forms a regular condition of social activity; increasingly the subject is defining him/herself out of the no-place.

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Consequently, by virtue of high-speed assistive technologies, the latter years have seen a duly prosperous and rapidly growing translation industry, wherein the new roles of the translators are those allocated by the market-based economy. The most immediately apparent are of course those of delivering more, to higher standards, at a faster pace. Directly responsible for the redisposition of the status of translation in the global world, outsourcing --the economic expression of deterritorialisation-- marks a seachange in the translation paradigm. Increasingly professionalized, the sphere of translating, is now oriented toward profit, issues regarding production, becoming a question of the "ably translated," a corporate business reflective of "the morality of the marketplace," manifesting the features of the corporation as a dominant form of hyper-capitalism. Under the impact of accelerated temporality, the brand of servicing the outsourced freelancer provides gets the upper hand over that of the in-house translator, a corporate translation culture emerging out of the dominant corporate structures of global economy. Against this backdrop, to which adds the Janus-faced language policies in force, the role of the professional translator mutates in several distinctive albeit conjoint ways. Rather than linguistic *per se*, the crux of the change in the translation situation is the interface between the cultures of translation, in many respects, the ultimate manifestation of the political agenda of translation. In the Anglo-American arena, a practice particularised by a twofold tendency can thus be identified. On the one hand, one notes a tendency toward foreignisation and the rendering visible of the articulations of cultural difference, consonant with the celebration of difference. This consists in an undertranslation of 'foreignness' that lays bare the particularity of the source culture text and the intervention of the translator in its rendition. On the other hand, there is domestication, which replicates methodologically the mechanisms of standardisation and homogenisation at work in the global experience. Thus, if one is to axiomatise, the translation differential lies in how concealing or revealing of the interpretation of the foreign culture indeed of the degree of transparency underpinning it the translation process is. As Lawrence Venuti aptly points out (1995), implicit in the question of the (in)visibility of the translator is an array of cultural attitudes and ideologies intimately connected with the problem of authorship, highly debated in literary translation. What is thus at stake in foreignising or domesticating, is the adoption of the foreign cultural values, the under- or overtranslation of which is bound to depend on the dominant target-culture. The extent to which a translation assimilates the foreign text, 'sending the reader abroad' or bringing the source text home to him/her is a matter of ethical choice. Whereas previously, 'managing' this dimension of strangeness will have preponderantly been the province of the individual translator and of the publishing industry s/he served, in global capitalism, institutional and more often than not, corporate interests dictate the canons of cultural texts to be translated as well as the convenient degree of acculturation and transculturation the translation experience need accommodate. Beside calling into question the very standards according to which translation work is assessed (fluency and naturalness above all), the interplay of 'strangeness' and 'naturalness' foregrounded in translating cultural difference poses significant problems pertaining to culture politics. How the foreign is received, in how assimilative and confiscating a manner defines the ethos of the target culture. The kind of double-edged situation embedded in this inspired another influential poetician of intercultural translation, Antoine Berman to speak of the *épreuve* pervading the act of translating between cultures:

> The properly *ethical* aim of the translating act is receiving the foreign as foreign… The negative analytic is primarily concerned with ethnocentric, annexationist translations, and hypertextual translations (pastiche, imitation, adaptation, free writing), where the play of deforming forces is freely exercised. (1992: 286)

Berman formulates here a vision of translation as the playground of power relations, yielding to a reading and reviewing that cannot afford to overlook the hegemonic attitudes involved. To the extent that globalisation entails processes of interdependence and interconnectedness based on mechanisms of unification and identification, the kind of local-global dynamics it is based in, can be figured as analogous to a synechdochic- metonymic relationship, whereby the part is contained in the whole, a mode of processing the political economy of culture as text. From this vantage point, the indelible mark localisation and outsourcing, especially in their self-centred American guise, leave upon the field of professional translation lies in the cultural interstices between the source culture and the foreign culture. In the global world of manufactured sameness, the right to cultural resistance appears ever harder to claim. At the crossroads, the translator as communicator is now faced with the danger of becoming subject to commodification, his/her linguistic competences catering for a value-driven arena, answering to a host of contractors and sub-contractors, rarely if at all entering cultural exchange with the end-client.

Deploring the bland, adoptive style of one prominent translator of the Russian classics, Joseph Brodsky notoriously remarked: the "reason English-speaking readers can barely tell the difference between Tolstoy and Dostoevsky is that they aren't reading the prose of either one. They're reading Constance Garnett" (2005). In its atavistic fear of its cultural 'others', the West in general, and the Anglophone world in particular, have a long history of domestication and annexation of foreign cultures. Indeed in the capacity to 'translate' difference, it would appear that the absolute fidelity to the target language in English translation practices stems from a compulsive desire to overtranslate, and in so doing, make absolutely sure the English-speaking reader always reassuringly 'finds' him/herself in translation, applying Western frameworks to translate (appropriate) non-Western cultural texts. This inevitably brings one to the issue of interdisciplinarity of translation studies in current Anglo-American contexts. An emergent discipline yet to establish its agenda, better still, an inter-discipline of sub-fields and institutional settings ranging from the linguistics and applied languages, to the comparative literature and cultural anthropology specter, the expanding and extending area of translatology gravitates on a defragmenting orbit of decentralising English studies.

As we advance into the twenty first century a distinction that is vertiginously eroding is that between ”general,” “standard English” and the public and professional Englishes around us, the functional uses, specialisms and idioms of English rather than its geographical varieties, taking the front seat. Working in the corporate business of translation forces one to reconsider the adequacy of one’s translation tools with a view to determine how adapted to the newer Englishes in circulation and the supra-national institutions these appear to be. Over the past 3 decades or so, the monolithic subject of English has liberally morphed into a series of ’Englishes as’, EIL, EFL, ESP, English as a ‘lingua franca’, or an international medium of intercultural exchange. In trying to unpack these many brands of English, one cannot but stay alert to the dimension of English as a site of power play, its dominance in the global market, and what profiles itself as the new era of English hegemony, the ‘triumph’ of English over minority languages. Of the three categorial designations attached to English: ‘world’, ‘international’, and ‘global, it is thus the ‘spread’ of English as global power language, the increase in its global usage, but also its multinational uses and abuses that stand out as the real challenge confronting the contemporary researcher.

In *Des Tours de Babel* (1985), late French philosopher Jacques Derrida, revisiting the binding inheritance and negative theology of translation, addresses the “legacy of confusion” inscribed in the act of translating. Typically, he proceeds to the causal analysis etymologically (*Ba* – ‘father’, *Bel* – ‘God’ hence translation - “city of God”) in an effort to raise awareness of the *hubris* inscribed in the scene of translation. Symbolically, translation, Derrida argues, is a site marred by the primal confusion that leaves the translator entrapped in an endless Beckettian vicious circle, caught between the insurmountable impossibility and the absolute obligation to translate. While not all translation acts are prone to the exemplary Beckettian compulsion to translate language into silence, the translator, Derrida recalls to mind, is generically and genealogically an inheritor of a prior meaning, tied to an original text. In our post-Derridean era of deconstruction, no longer does the myth of the ‘scientific’ need any demystification. Surely no self-respecting scholar, whichever disciplinary role s/he happens to fulfil, believes in translating as a form of value-free, disinterested scholarship. Yet, the imperative need to fully valorise translation as an exemplary act of self-understanding remains. One would add, it is time one rethought the continuing need for critical translation studies to take stock of the translation situation and gained new translation insight into the emerging paradigms; time we moved beyond the state of prostrating, naïve marvel at the plethora of primary and secondary meanings befallen on the ‘Globalbabel’, lest we remain forever caught in a state of limbo, waiting for the language before the fall to return to the Biblical holy city.

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ASPECTS SÉMANTIQUES ET PRAGMATIQUES DE LA TRADUCTION JURIDIQUE COMMERCIALE

RALUCA FENEŞAN[*]

ABSTRACT. The article provides a pragmatic and semantic overview of the main difficulties of commercial legal translation, attributable mainly to the nature of legal discourse.

Commercial Law is one of the most important branches of Private Law and largely used in the present-day Romanian business environment. Romanian and French Law are both derived from Roman Law and have followed a similar path over the centuries. However, differences in concepts and institutions are not incidental and dealing with them often requires some knowledge of both legal systems.

Commercial legal translation is governed by specific rules. A translator must be aware of the fact that law is a social science whose evolution is in permanent correlation with that of society and often surpassed by the latter. In this sense, an ideal translator would be a person with an in-depth knowledge of both the language and the legal field concerned.

From a pragmatic standpoint, a translation firstly depends on the nature of the text and its finality. Moreover, such extra-contextual elements as the time, place and conditions of the translating process, and the translator's personality are likely to influence the quality of a translation and reveal who and what «hides» beyond.

From a semantic viewpoint, difficulties are more easily identifiable. False friends, archaisms, neologisms, words with several meanings, specialized or common words used with a legal meaning are some of the most important characteristics of legal discourse, which make legal translation both intriguing and fascinating.

Keywords: commercial law, law systems, semantic and pragmatic usage.

1. Introduction

1.1. Le droit commercial et sa traduction

Le présent article a pour objet d`analyser, au travers d`une approche pragmatique - sémantique, certains des nombreux problèmes auxquels se heurte un traducteur à transmettre, d`une langue dans une autre, divers messages de nature juridique. Les principales difficultés dans ce domaine relèvent non seulement des particularités de la traduction spécialisée dans le sens large, mais aussi et surtout du langage juridique proprement dit, en tant que véhicule d`une discipline fort technicisée: le droit.

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Mais le droit est une science sociale extrêmement vaste, qui se ramifie en une multitude de branches d`intérêt public et privé. Il en est de même donc pour la traduction juridique, qui suit de près ses moyens. Et s`il faut en choisir un sous-domaine, nul ne serait, par son actualité et sa complexité, plus approprié que le droit commercial et sa traduction. Parmi les branches du droit privé, le droit commercial se distingue comme une science très véhiculée dans la Roumanie moderne, notamment après la libéralisation du marché à partir des années 1990 et la récente adhésion du pays à l`Union Européenne. Les majeurs changements politiques, économiques et culturels des vingt dernières années ont éveillé l`intérêt des investisseurs étrangers, qui, attirés par la position stratégique du pays, par une main d`œuvre accessible et un personnel hautement qualifié, y découvrirent un milieu favorable au développement des affaires. À remarquer aussi qu`une forte influence de la France et le français parlé à grande échelle n`ont fait qu`attirer encore plus d`investisseurs français.

L`objet du droit commercial peut être défini comme « *un ensemble de normes juridiques qui régissent d`une part le statut professionnel des commerçants et d`autre part les rapports juridiques issus des actes et des opérations que la loi considère comme des actes de commerce* » (SCHIAU 2004: 7). Ainsi, l`objet du droit commercial est donné tant par les règles applicables aux commerçants, qui définissent leur statut, les conditions d`acquisition, d`exercice et de cessation de la qualité de commerçant, que par celles applicables à l`activité de commerce plus généralement. Les investissements étrangers en Roumanie sont donc soumis à des règles précises que les intervenants sont tenus d`observer strictement. Par exemple, une entreprise française implantée en Roumanie et ayant de cette manière acquis la nationalité roumaine, aura désormais le statut d`une personne morale roumaine, devant par la suite observer la législation roumaine, non seulement commerciale, mais aussi la législation du travail, celle financière et fiscale, les lois de propriété intellectuelle, etc., car la vie d`une société est complexe et dépasse largement la sphère du commercial.

La traduction commerciale est soumise à des régimes différents, principalement selon la nature et la finalité du document à traduire. Les actes faisant l`objet de ce type de traduction sont nombreux et peuvent relever de la *législation* (le Code commercial, le Code civil qui, en matière commerciale, constitue « le droit commun », des lois commerciales spéciales comme la Loi nº 31/1990 portant réglementation des sociétés commerciales, etc.), de la pratique judiciaire appelée *jurisprudence*, de la littérature juridique appelée *doctrine* ou des *conventions* conclues entre les parties (divers types de contrats), auxquels s`ajoutent les notes informatives, les courriers d`affaires, etc.

La traduction de tels documents s`avère nécessaire notamment dans les cas suivants: (i) ils ont été établis à l`étranger sous une forme officielle et leur version roumaine est requise par les juridictions ou les autorités publiques roumaines, pour des fins d`enregistrement; c`est le cas des déclarations de non condamnation des administrateurs de l`entreprise française mère, des lettres de bonne santé financière émises par les établissements bancaires français et des extraits K-bis délivrés à cette même entreprise par le Registre français du Commerce et des Sociétés; leur traduction certifiée conforme est imposée en Roumanie par le Registre du Commerce local au moment de l`enregistrement de la nouvelle société roumaine, dont l`entreprise française est l`associée; (ii) ils ont été établis en Roumanie sous une forme officielle et leur contenu doit être porté à la connaissance des parties étrangères. Si la traduction est requise par les autorités françaises, elle suivra bien sûr le même parcours de légalisation, dans le respect des lois en vigueur[1]; mais le plus souvent, les traductions de ce type n`ont qu`un rôle informatif, comme c`est le cas d`un jugement commercial dont la traduction sert à informer la partie française du déroulement d`un litige la concernant; (iii) ils ne sont pas revêtus d`une forme officielle; c`est le cas des documents typiquement informatifs, comme les comptes-rendus d`audience dressés par les avocats à l`intention de leurs clients.

Certes, le régime différent de ces traductions entraîne des conséquences sur le plan formel et stylistique, mais ces aspects seront approfondis un peu plus loin. Ce que l`on peut ajouter à ce niveau c`est que le contexte dans lequel se développent les relations entre les parties (roumaine et française) n`exclut pas que le même traducteur effectue et des thèmes et des versions. L`exigence des organismes européens que le traducteur effectue des traductions uniquement ou essentiellement vers sa langue maternelle ne s`applique pas ici. Un autre problème qui fait surface est lié à la personne et aux compétences du traducteur, qui n`est pas toujours et nécessairement linguiste de formation. Prenons par exemple comme cadre de travail un cabinet d`avocats roumains francophones.

1.2. Deux systèmes de droit

Les ressemblances et les différences entre deux systèmes de droit ne sont pas à négliger lorsque l`on traite de la traduction juridique. Cependant, en matière de droit commercial, la Roumanie et la France ont des racines communes, d`où cette quasi-similarité des institutions véhiculées par les deux systèmes. Cela diminue de beaucoup les problèmes au niveau terminologique.

Néanmoins, les institutions et les concepts ne sont pas toujours identiques, du simple fait d`une évolution et d`une organisation différente quelquefois du système de droit en question. Par conséquent, il est possible qu`un référent n`existe que dans l`une des deux «réalités» (la « *Société par actions simplifiée* » ou « *SAS* ») ou bien, même s`il existe dans les deux, qu`il soit conceptualisé différemment ou relativement différemment or cela entraîne des implications au moins sur le plan terminologique (la « *Société Anonyme* » ou « *SA* » ressemble, dans le droit roumain, à la « *Societate pe Acțiuni* » ou « *SA* » ou bien la « *Société à Responsabilité Limitée* » ou « *SARL* » se rapproche de la forme roumaine de « *Societate cu Răspundere Limitată* » ou « *SRL* »). S`il y a des référents pour les deux paires de termes, la question se pose si les deux sont équivalents ou jusqu`à quel degré. En parcourant un manuel de droit commercial français et un autre roumain, l'on peut remarquer certaines différences. Il s`agit dès lors

[1] Voir la Convention de la Haye de 1961 relative à la suppression de l`exigence de la légalisation des actes publics étrangers, ratifiée par la Roumanie par l`OG 66/1999, telle qu`approuvée par la Loi n° 52/2000.

d`établir dans un premier abord l`outil dont dispose le traducteur pour repérer les différences et appliquer le terme correct. Mais il faut faire quelques précisions sur le traducteur lui-même. Un expert en la matière, un juriste ou un avocat, formé au droit roumain et au droit français à la fois, saisirait rapidement les différences entre les deux institutions. Mais sans l`avis d`un expert, le traducteur sans formation juridique devra effectuer des recherches dans les deux systèmes pour savoir distinguer, comme l`affirme Jean-Claude Gémar, « *ce qui constitue une servitude juridique qu'on doit respecter de ce qu'on peut utiliser librement* » (GÉMAR 1979). Malheureusement, cela ne suffit que pour résoudre (et cela partiellement…) ce problème de compatibilité des notions dans les deux systèmes.

2. Le plan pragmatique

2.1. Le droit, un phénomène social

Le contexte pragmatique fournit des éléments à la fois intéressants et essentiels pour la traduction juridique. Ce type de traduction est soumis à un grand nombre de règles et de restrictions, notamment parce que le discours juridique en général est complexe et difficile à manipuler. Cela principalement parce qu`il est strictement dépendant des concepts véhiculés par le système de droit y afférant, de sorte que le traducteur se voit souvent obligé de recourir aux sources de droit avant de se mettre au travail. Comme le fait remarquer Jean-Claude Gémar, « *le droit est un phénomène social, le produit d'une culture, il acquiert dans chaque société un caractère unique. (…) Chaque société organise son droit ou son système juridique selon la conception qu'elle en a et selon la structure qu'elle veut se donner.* » (GÉMAR 1979: 37). Les difficultés significatives découlent donc de la manière dont le langage de la culture de départ perçoit la réalité.

2.2. Repères pragmatiques

Si la pragmatique est la branche de la linguistique qui s`intéresse à l`usage du langage et le droit commercial est une branche du droit privé, largement utilisée dans les rapports juridiques de l`époque moderne, qu`en est-il de la traduction juridique, qui dépend à la fois d`une combinaison d`éléments linguistiques – particularités du langage au niveau morphologique, sémantique, syntaxique - et de certains outils extratextuels, pragmatiques, qui relèvent principalement (1) des conditions de production de l`énoncé, (2) de certains repères livrés par le texte et même (2) de plusieurs aspects tenant à la personne du traducteur?

Dans cette perspective, la traduction juridique apparaît comme une discipline indépendante, à mi-chemin entre la linguistique et la science du droit qu`elle transpose fidèlement. Elle est, d`une part, plurivalente, car, tout en observant les normes de la langue, elle explore le langage particulier d`une science donnée dont elle emprunte les concepts pour les transposer fidèlement dans une autre langue et, d`autre part, multifonctionnelle, car elle remplit plusieurs fonctions: faciliter la communication, révéler les similitudes et les différences de deux cultures, développer la culture et les sciences.

Pour savoir si une traduction est recevable dans la langue d`arrivée, le traducteur doit tenir compte d`une série d`éléments pragmatiques, à savoir le cadre dans lequel se réalise la traduction, sa fonction, son but et son destinataire.

Lorsqu`il s`agit d`un contrat entre deux sociétés étrangères, il importe de savoir qui a établi le document source, par quel droit il est gouverné et à quoi sert sa traduction. Un contrat d`achat-vente établi en Roumanie conformément au droit roumain et qui doit être signé par les deux parties devant un notaire roumain devra être parfaitement équivalent dans sa version française, s`agissant d`un document original dont le contenu doit être très bien compris par le signataire étranger. C`est pour cela que les notaires exigent que l`accord des parties soit pris en présence d`un traducteur autorisé qui doit s`assurer que les parties étrangères n`ont pas eu de problèmes de compréhension. Le traducteur doit donc identifier les éléments juridiques et linguistiques dans la langue de départ, s`en tenir strictement aux expressions qui relèvent du système de droit en question et les transposer fidèlement dans la langue d`arrivée qui est celle d`une culture différente, ce qui laisse au traducteur une liberté très restreinte quant aux choix des ressources linguistiques. En effet, plus les concepts véhiculés par la langue de départ sont difficiles à saisir, plus le choix du traducteur est limité. Sa démarche est plus libre lorsque la traduction vise non pas un document officiel, mais par exemple une notification entre les parties qui a un but purement informatif.

Un autre problème qui se pose est « la fidélité » de la traduction. À quel degré une traduction est-elle fidèle au texte source? Certains linguistes ont remplacé la notion de fidélité de la traduction par celle d'« équivalence »[2]. Parmi les nombreuses équivalences identifiées par les théoriciens, les plus importantes sont l'équivalence linguistique (au niveau sémantique), l'équivalence paradigmatique (au niveau grammatical) et l'équivalence pragmatique (au niveau extralinguistique). Si l`équivalence linguistique concerne plutôt l`identité du contenu sémantique des notions dans les deux langues, donc sur un plan contextuel, l`équivalence pragmatique a un rôle plus complexe et dépasse largement les limites contextuelles. Elle suppose une relation permanente entre le traducteur et son texte: le traducteur doit manipuler son texte à l`effet d`obtenir une équivalence parfaite sur le plan discursif. Il s`agit de saisir des aspects tels que les participants au discours (l`émetteur, le récepteur), le canal, les circonstances, l`intention du texte manipulé. Il s`agit, plus précisément, de répondre aux questions suivantes: ou? quand? comment? qui? quoi? pour qui? pourquoi? etc. Il faut donc, non seulement bien connaître le code, la langue/ le langage, mais interpréter, or un contexte peut avoir plusieurs interprétations en fonction du cadre de sa réalisation. Par ailleurs, l'obtention d`une équivalence entre le texte source et le texte cible peut être influencée par d`autres éléments extra-contextuels: conditions temporelles (les délais dans lesquels le traducteur doit effectuer son travail), spatiales (le lieu de travail), matérielles (les moyens de réalisation), de causalité et finalité (le rôle du traducteur et de la traduction).

[2] Terme introduit dans les années 1970 par la théoricienne allemande Katharina Reiss.

2.3. Conditions de production de l`énoncé

En ce qui concerne les conditions de production de l`énoncé, il faut établir certains repères matériels, en répondant à quelques questions simples: qui a établi l`acte? dans quel but? à qui s`adresse-t-il? à quoi sert sa traduction? Il s`agit d`abord de distinguer entre un texte législatif, jurisprudentiel, une convention entre les parties, un fragment de doctrine, un courrier d`affaires.

Si la loi a une force juridique supérieure, produisant des effets *erga omnes*[3], ce qui signifie qu`elle s`applique obligatoirement à tous les individus qui tombent sous sa sphère de réglementation, d`où le principe *nemo censetur legem ignorare*[4], une décision de justice n`est opposable qu`aux requérants ou aux défendeurs concernés sauf s'il s'agit d'une exception de non constitutionalité ou d'un recours dans l'intérêt de la loi, auquel cas la décision de justice est opposable *erga omnes*.

Une convention, par l`effet du principe de la relativité en matière d`actes juridiques, s`applique uniquement aux parties l`ayant conclue (*res inter alios acta aliis neque nocere, neque prodesse potest*[5]), pour lesquelles elle est obligatoire (*pacta sunt servanda*[6]). Lorsqu`il s`agit d`un contrat entre deux sociétés étrangères, il importe de savoir par quel droit il est gouverné et à quoi sert sa traduction.

Un courrier d`affaires provenant d`un avocat et adressé à son client a un rôle informatif – explicatif (par exemple le compte-rendu d`une audience devant le tribunal), alors qu`un fragment de doctrine reporte l`interprétation individuelle d`un professeur ou d`un praticien du droit sur une institution particulière.

La force juridique différente de ces actes entraîne des conséquences sur le plan de la traduction: plus le texte est contraignant, plus sa traduction doit être fidèle, cela à plus forte raison dans le cas d`une traduction certifiée qui sera déposée auprès d`une institution. Le traducteur doit donc reproduire les mêmes éléments stylistiques (par exemple formules, thermes archaïques (« *En foi de quoi, le présent procès-verbal a été conclu et signé par les parties, aujourd`hui, le .../ Drept pentru care, prezentul proces-verbal a fost încheiat şi semnat de părți, astăzi, ...* »), le même ton et même une mise en page et des soulignements identiques. Si, en revanche, le texte est moins contraignant, comme par exemple une note informative transmise par l`avocat à son client, il s`impose encore de vérifier à qui s`adresse la traduction: s`il s`agit d`un client étranger qui n`a pas de connaissances de droit, il faut insister sur la souplesse du texte d`arrivée, s`assurer qu`il est facilement compréhensible, tout en veillant à garder le sens du texte de départ. Il s`agit pour le traducteur de faire passer et accepter son message en langue cible, tout en restant fidèle au langage, au ton et au registre utilisés dans la langue source.

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[3] «À l`égard de tous».
[4] «Personne n`est censé ignorer la loi.»
[5] «La chose convenue entre les uns ne nuit ni ne profite aux autres.»
[6] «Les contrats sont la loi des parties.»

2.4. Les repères textuels

En effet, le traducteur n`est pas un simple observateur: il doit savoir interpréter le texte dans la langue source et créer un autre texte ayant un contenu sémantique et des effets équivalents dans la langue cible. Pour réussir dans sa démarche, il doit s`arrêter sur certains repères fournis par le texte même: (1) *les acteurs*, (2) *l`action* ou *le procès* (ou l`état), (3) *les circonstances*. C`est le schéma actantiel proposé par Lucien Tesnière sans son ouvrage *Eléments de syntaxe structurale*, schéma qu`il présente sous la forme d`une pièce de théâtre. À ceux-ci l`on peut ajouter, selon la tradition linguistique, le code, le canal, le message.

L`action, le procès ou l`état sont rendus par un verbe qui peut renvoyer à une action (*vendre, louer, céder*), à un processus (*subir des préjudices*), à un état (*être susceptible de modifications*) ou à une modalité (les verbes modaux: *pouvoir, devoir, vouloir* – fréquemment utilisés dans le langage juridique).

Les actants représentent toutes notions ayant un certain rôle dans le procès du verbe (agents, acteurs, objets, bénéficiaires, adjuvants/ opposants (GREIMAS 1996), instruments).

Les circonstants rendent un repère locatif, temporel, une modalité, une condition, une conséquence, une concession, etc.

Par exemple, dans l`objet d`une promesse unilatérale d`achat-vente, on peut trouver la phrase suivante:

Le promettant - vendeur S`ENGAGE À VENDRE ***au promettant - acheteur*** *et* *le promettant - acheteur* S`ENGAGE À ACHETER ***auprès du promettant - vendeur*** *le terrain sis dans l`extra-muros de la ville X, moyennant le montant Y, qui sera versé* ***sur le compte du vendeur*** *dans les délais Z.*

Dans la phrase ci-dessus, « *le promettant - vendeur* » dans la première occurrence et « *le promettant - acheteur* » dans la deuxième occurrence représentent des actants ou acteurs; « ***au promettant - acheteur*** » dans la première occurrence et « ***auprès du promettant - vendeur*** » de la deuxième occurrence représentent des bénéficiaires; les verbes « S`ENGAGE À VENDRE » et « S`ENGAGE À ACHETER » renvoient à un procès, « *le terrain sis dans l`extra-muros de la ville X* » représente l`objet, « *moyennant le montant Y qui sera versé* » sert d`instrument, « ***sur le compte du vendeur*** » apparaît comme un circonstant locatif et « *dans les délais Z* » s`impose comme un circonstant temporel.

Le code, le canal, le message ne sont pas négligeables dans la démarche du traducteur car il doit connaître les deux langues, source et cible, le langage utilisé, suivre attentivement le message communiqué par la langue source pour le rendre fidèlement dans la langue cible.

La connaissance du *référent* s`inscrit dans une perspective sémantique - pragmatique: il faut savoir de quoi le texte «parle» pour pouvoir le traduire, il ne suffit pas de parcourir un texte donné. Souvent, le traducteur se laisse tromper par les apparences, tout en croyant comprendre le sens réel.

2.5. Aspects relevant de la personne du traducteur

La traduction suppose une relation permanente entre le traducteur et son texte: le traducteur doit manipuler son texte à l`effet d`obtenir une équivalence parfaite sur le plan discursif.

Le fameux syntagme « *Traduttore... traditore!* » est toujours d`actualité, puisque l`on peut facilement deviner qui «se cache» derrière un texte, rien qu`à parcourir attentivement le texte en question. Si le degré de connaissance de la langue est le plus facilement repérable à travers le texte d`arrivée, il n`est pas moins vrai que l`on peut déceler des éléments sur la formation, la personnalité, l`état d`esprit ou même l`intérêt du traducteur.

Quel est donc le traducteur idéal? Bien sûr, une personne qui a une maîtrise parfaite de la langue et du langage, qui ne se limite pas au texte mais s`attaque courageusement à « l`au-delà ». Pour un traducteur de formation linguistique, il ne suffit pas de connaître les particularités de la grammaire ou de « bien manier la parole » si des connaissances dans le domaine font défaut.

Un bon traducteur juridique peut être également un professionnel du droit mais là aussi, la formation juridique doit aller de pair avec une bonne connaissance de la langue car les risques d`un usage impropre soit de la grammaire (pour ne prendre qu`un exemple des plus fréquents même parmi les traducteurs avisés, l`emploi du futur dans une subordonnée conditionnelle) soit, très fréquemment, du vocabulaire (par exemple la fameuse faute « *base de dates* » au lieu de « *base de données* », « *adresse* » au lieu de « *courrier* », « *ajouter* » au lieu d`« *aider* », etc.) sont assez élevés.

En bref, le traducteur juridique idéal est soit un linguiste formé également au droit soit un juriste muni de connaissances approfondies de la langue en question.

Mais les choses n`en demeurent pas là. Une traduction ne dépend pas seulement de son traducteur, mais également d`autres aspects extra-contextuels, comme les conditions temporelles, spatiales, matérielles, de causalité et finalité énumérées ci-dessus.

Certes, une traduction urgente peut être moins pressante pour le traducteur ayant suffisamment d`expérience, habitué aux urgences et pour lequel d`ailleurs le mot « *urgent* » tend à perdre son sens. Mais un traducteur débutant passera plus de temps à chercher les expressions dans les dictionnaires et à réfléchir sur les choix à faire.

Le lieu de travail du traducteur n`est pas moins important mais il est aussi vrai que chacun agit différemment sous l`emprise du stress! Quoi qu`il en soit, l`état d`esprit du traducteur laisse des empreintes sur son travail et il n`est pas rare que des paragraphes sautés, l`incohérence du texte proviennent d`une faible capacité de concentration.

Pour ce qui est des conditions matérielles, il faut dire que l`ordinateur et les logiciels de traduction sont des outils indispensables au traducteur moderne. Le temps des machines à écrire est bien passé et on ne peut plus s`imaginer leur inconvénients et défauts. Le travail du traducteur est sensiblement facilité par l`ordinateur qui lui permet de manipuler le texte à son gré, coupant, modifiant, revenant en permanence sur le texte tapé et bien sûr créant des modèles, fichiers, glossaires, bases de données facilement utilisables.

La causalité de la traduction est tout aussi importante. Le « pourquoi » de la démarche est l`une des premières questions que le traducteur doit se poser, avant de se mettre au travail. Comme déjà indiqué, une traduction varie selon la fonction qu`elle acquiert chez son destinataire.

3. Le plan sémantique

Sur le plan sémantique, les problèmes de la traduction juridique sont multiples: polysémie, termes archaïques, mots latins, néologismes, emprunts, faux amis, usage de termes spécifiques, usage de mots de la langue courante employés avec un sens juridique.

3.1. Les mots polysémiques

La polysémie est l`un des traits significatifs du langage juridique. Elle représente un effet de l`évolution dans le temps de la société, avec ses caractéristiques, besoins et problèmes, et inévitablement du droit, en tant que phénomène social. En même temps, le langage est soumis à des transformations, acquiert de nouveaux termes, en perd d`autres, ou bien les conserve en leur ajoutant de nouvelles significations, formant des mots polysémiques. A l`avis de Gérard Cornu, la polysémie s`explique par une évolution plus rapide du droit par rapport à la langue: « *Dans le langage du droit comme dans le langage courant, mais plus encore sans doute, le nombre des signifiés est incommensurablement plus élevé que celui des signifiants. Les notions juridiques sont beaucoup plus nombreuses que les mots pour les nommer* » (CORNU 2000: 108) La polysémie juridique est d`ailleurs susceptible de donner aux textes juridiques un fort effet d`ambiguïté, de sorte qu`il est impossible d`interpréter un terme polysémique isolément et non pas dans son contexte. Prenons par exemple des mots comme « *accord* », « *étude* » qui, dans différents contextes, révèlent une multitude de sens: ainsi, « *accord* » peut signifier tantôt un document, tantôt une acceptation verbale ou écrite, « *étude* », qui a le sens d'« *examen, analyse* », ou bien de « *bureau de notaire* ». Le terme « *droit* », au singulier comme au pluriel, est porteur d`un contenu polysémique encore plus riche, pouvant signifier: « *autorisation, privilège, avantage, pouvoir* » comme dans l'expression « *donner droit à* », ou bien « *part, action, biens* » comme dans « *un quota de ses droits* » ou même « *taxe* » comme dans « *droits de timbre, droits d`enregistrement* », ces derniers pouvant dérouter le traducteur roumain non avisé.

3.2. Les archaïsmes

Le langage juridique comprend aussi un bon nombre de termes archaïques légués par le latin et le grec, quelques-uns parmi ceux-ci conservés dans leur forme initiale, d`autres ayant subi une évolution au cours du temps. La plupart sont passés également en français et en roumain et font partie intégrante du droit, étant utilisés tels quels ou en parallèle avec des formes équivalentes qu`ils ont développées ultérieurement. Ainsi, dans la première classe, « *a contrario* » (au contraire), « *a fortiori causa* » (par une raison plus forte), « *ab irato* » (dans un mouvement de colère), « *ad nutum* » (sur un signe de tête), « *de facto* » (de fait), « *de jure* » (de droit), « *in casu* » (en l`espèce), « *in camera* » (à huis clos), « *prima facie* » (à première vue*).* Dans la deuxième catégorie entrent des expressions et des termes qui sont à présent tellement utilisés dans le langage juridique, que l`on ne se rend plus compte de leur origine; tels sont par exemple des termes hérités du grec ou du latin comme « *acte* », « *adjudication* », « *cession* », « *clause* », « *constitution* », « *hypothèque* », « *résolution* », « *locațiune* », « *participațiune* », « *rezoluțiune* ». Dans le cas des contrats, des documents notariés, les archaïsmes sont nombreux, exprimés par des formules introductrices « *Nous soussignés, Maître X, par la présente déclarons que Monsieur Y a comparu devant nous …* » ou bien finales: « *Dont/ de tout ce que dessus le présent acte a été établi ce jour …* » qui se traduit par « *Drept pentru care prezentul act a fost întocmit astăzi …* ».

3.3. Les néologismes

Les néologismes représentent un autre aspect important du langage juridique; il existe, en français comme en roumain, un fonds considérable de termes de provenance étrangère, surtout financiers et commerciaux, qui ne font qu`enrichir la terminologie juridique. Ainsi, l'anglais a apporté des termes comme « *budget* », « *chèque* », « *comité* », « *compte* »; l'italien a légué des termes comme « *aval* », « *banque* », « *banqueroute* », « *bilan* ». Pour ce qui est du roumain, il faut noter que la plupart des néologismes juridiques proviennent du français. Tels sont par exemple les termes suivants: « *accises* », « *accréditif* », « *apport* », « *bordereau* », « *créance* », « *déférer* », « *gage* », « *litige* », « *réservataire* », « *supplétif* », *etc.*

3.4. Les faux amis

La place des faux amis dans le langage juridique n`est pas négligeable. Des termes comme « *abattement* » (au sens de réduction), « *affectation* » (distribution), « *référé* » (recours ou décision provisoire), « *altération* » (modification), représentent de vrais pièges pour le traducteur juridique et peuvent causer de graves erreurs à moins que l`on assume les réserves qui s`imposent. Il convient dans ce cas de chercher des points de repère dans le contexte même et de consulter les sources de documentation disponibles.

3.5. Mots spécifiques/ mots courants/ mots de double provenance

Un autre aspect significatif sur le plan sémantique, c`est l`usage en parallèle dans la terminologie juridique, de termes spécifiques et de termes empruntés au vocabulaire courant. Les premiers sont caractérisés par une grande technicité et peuvent paraître aux non-initiés comme incompréhensibles. Tels sont des termes comme « *cautionnement* » (« gajare »), « *sous-traitant* » (« subcontractant »), «

usufruitier » (« uzufructuar »), « *servitude* » (« servitute »), « *mise en demeure* » (« punere în întârziere »), « *saisie-arrêt* » (« poprire »), « *dol* » (« dol »), « *nue propriété* » (« nudă proprietate »), etc. Ces termes d`origine juridique exclusive, que Gérard Cornu qualifie de « *mots qui n`ont de sens qu`au regard du droit* » (CORNU 2000: 68), parce qu`ils « *appartiennent au langage de la procédure, sont propres au langage du droit et n`apparaissent jamais dans la langue courante. Perçus comme archaïques par les non-juristes, ils sont en réalité des termes techniques qui remplissent une fonction très précise dans la langue du droit* » (HOUBERT 2005: 22). Dans cette catégorie, il y a des termes qui ne s`utilisent qu`avec certains co-occurrents, comme par exemple le verbe « *ester* » qui n`apparaît que dans l`expression « *capacité d`ester en justice* » (« capacitate procesuală activă/ pasivă ») ou l`adjectif « *irrépétible* », qui n`est utilisé qu`à propos de frais ou dépenses. D`autre part, il y a une vaste catégorie de termes de double provenance, que le langage juridique a puisés dans la langue courante et qui coexistent dans les deux langages, étant souvent polysémiques tantôt dans le vocabulaire juridique, tantôt dans celui courant. Ainsi, par exemple, les mots « *meuble* » et « *immeuble* », qui en vocabulaire courant désignent le premier une chaise, une table etc. et le deuxième un bâtiment, alors qu`en langage juridique, les deux mots forment une dichotomie, comme par exemple dans l`expression « *biens meubles et immeubles* », où ils font référence à des biens corporels (des animaux) et respectivement incorporels (une voiture, un appartement). Cependant, ils n`ont pas perdu leur sens initial, le terme « *meuble* » pouvant s`employer comme « *objet de mobilier, meuble meublant* », et le terme « *immeuble* » pouvant faire référence et à un bâtiment seul et à un ensemble formé d`un bâtiment et des terrains y afférant. Il existe aussi des termes et expressions juridiques qui ont pénétré dans la langue courante, ce que Gérard Cornu appelle « *termes d`appartenance juridique principale* » (HOUBERT 2005: 24). Ainsi, par exemple, des expressions comme: « *à tour de rôle (dans l`ordre chronologique d`inscription au rôle (registre sur lequel sont portées toutes les affaires dont une juridiction est saisie*) » (ROLAND et BOYER 1991: 57), « *mettre en cause* », « *en tout état de cause* », ou bien en roumain, « *câştig de cauză* » (gain de cause), « *în primă instanță* » (en première instance). Cette catégorie de termes ne fait qu`illustrer les rapports étroits entre le langage juridique et la langue courante, ce qui prouve que ce type de langage, même si fortement technique, devrait être accessible non seulement aux spécialistes mais aussi à tous les individus qui comprennent la langue en question et surtout qui sont gouvernés par le système de droit y afférant.

Conclusions

Le discours juridique pose de nombreux problèmes auxquels se heurtent non seulement les traducteurs, mais aussi les interprètes, les terminologues, les réviseurs, les linguistes et tous ceux qui s`intéressent au langage du droit. Ces problèmes découlent essentiellement de la spécificité du langage de droit qui est, avant tout, un langage scientifique, véhiculant ses propres notions et institutions et comportant ses propres règles et techniques. La diversité des systèmes juridiques a imprimé à chacun d`entre eux un caractère particulier, souvent difficilement décodable même dans des systèmes apparentés, mais que l`on peut manipuler à l`aide de certains éléments d`ordre pragmatique, extra contextuel.

Comprendre les problèmes posés par un type de discours, c'est une première démarche dans le processus de traduction. Des éléments comme les conditions dans lesquelles le texte est produit, certains aspects fournis par le contexte ainsi que des données sur la relation traducteur - traduction sont susceptibles de faciliter le processus de traduction.

Dans ses démarches, le traducteur dispose d`une série de moyens et outils lui permettant de s'acquitter de sa tâche. Pour s`approprier les notions importantes, il doit procéder à une documentation interdisciplinaire laborieuse, en premier lieu dans les sources de droit, puis dans des types de documents similaires au texte travaillé (les « modèles »), dans des glossaires et des dictionnaires unilingues et bilingues existants dans les librairies ou sur Internet. Malheureusement, la rareté des dictionnaires et des glossaires juridiques roumains est un problème important qui contraint le traducteur à recourir aux sources de droit ou à l`avis des experts. Une autre solution à la portée des traducteurs, ce sont les logiciels de traduction, permettant d`établir des bases de données facilement manipulables et même les forums de discussion sur Internet, créés par les associations de traducteurs.

Certainement, le traducteur idéal devrait être doté d`une double formation (linguistique et juridique), ce qui faciliterait considérablement ses démarches. Toujours est-il qu`une traduction juridique ne se limite souvent pas au domaine du droit proprement dit, mais touche une série d`autres domaines, comme l`économie, la sociologie, la philosophie, l`histoire et bien d`autres encore, ce qui ne fait que souligner le caractère interdisciplinaire du droit et la nécessité d`une recherche assidue dans des domaines « apparentés ». La pluridisciplinarité est une démarche scientifique de l`avenir; la traduction, qui tend vers elle, en est autant.

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LOS NEOLOGISMOS: ENTRE INNOVACIÓN Y TRADUCCIÓN. ESTUDIO DE CASO: LOS NEOLOGISMOS JURÍDICOS

OLIVIA PETRESCU*

ABSTRACT. The present paper focuses on various topics such as: the complexity in defining neologisms, its multiple way of innovation, creation, translation, adaptation and integration within languages, with special emphasis on legal neologisms, as depicted from the *Acquis communautaire*. The purpose of the study is to underline the multiple ways to deal with translating the new terms in a given language (more specifically, into Romanian and Spanish) and analyze the differences concerning the changes that one term or concept undergoes, when inevitable but also necessary neologisms intervene.

Keywords: neologisms, creation, translation, *acquis*, term, concept

1. Introducción a la complejidad neológica

El presente análisis parte de una doble problemática evidenciada por los neologismos en cualquier lengua, según la opinión de Jean Prouvost y Jean-Françoise Sablayrolles[1], y se propone analizar algunos neologismos en rumano y español para destacar ciertas dificultades que intervienen a la hora de traducir y armonizar los registros jurídicos europeos.

Los autores arriba mencionados estudian tanto la complejidad de fijar con precisión los límites de los nuevos vocablos acuñados, o recién admitidos en un idioma, como el múltiple proceso de formación de unidades léxicas, a nivel formal y semántico.

Paradójicamente, el lenguaje jurídico sigue preservando en la mayoría de sus estructuras unas características léxico-estilísticas bastante rígidas, entre las cuales enumeramos *el gusto por lo arcaizante*, *el apego a las fórmulas estereotipadas*, y la *redundancia expresiva léxica*. Sin embargo, nos hemos preguntado si un campo tan especializado, pero a la vez actual e imprescindible como el jurídico, no ha experimentado algunas transformaciones neológicas, una de ellas debidas a la traducción obligatoria que subyace en las actuales interacciones europeas.

2. Conceptualización y algunas consideraciones sobre neologismos

Con respecto a la dificultad de establecer "la vida" de los neologismos, cabe mencionar que, si a mediados del siglo pasado, la categoría de *neologismo* encajaba términos cuyo uso era considerado nuevo por unos 10-15 años, hoy en día

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[1] PROUVOST, J y SABLAYROLLES, J.F. (2003), *Les neologisms*. Paris: PUF.

la clasificación es menos duradera, resumiéndose a aproximadamente cinco años. Un posible argumento reside en lo efímero e instantáneo de la comunicación, lo que implica su rápida difusión y aceptación dentro de la lengua común.

Con respecto al proceso de innovación estrechamente relacionado a los neologismos, éste es un fenómeno natural en cada idioma, pero con determinaciones muy específicas, ya que alude a la necesidad humana de ingenio léxico implícito, sea mediante mecanismos formales, sea a niveles semánticos. Por consiguiente, tenemos **neologismos de forma**, es decir, palabras creadas a partir de cambios morfológicos de vocablos ya existentes en la propia lengua[2], y respectivamente, **neologismos de sentido**, o dicho de otra manera, palabras nuevas a partir de vocablos ya existentes en la propia lengua que sufren cambios semánticos o de significado[3].

Ante todo, trataremos de explicar la raíz creativa que se descubre en la producción de los neologismos y esbozar, en cuanto sea posible, las principales vías o métodos de innovación lingüística.

Está claro que el léxico y las unidades recién creadas se relacionan de manera intrínseca a las mentalidades, al universo de las cosas y a la evolución social en un momento dado. La sociedad actual vive por una multiplicidad vertiginosa de neologismos que duplica la constante expansión y el ritmo social tan acelerado. Conceptos tan generales como información o comunicación determinan contenidos lingüísticos altamente influenciados por ellos. He aquí uno de los factores decisivos a la hora de acuñar nuevos términos:

2.1. El progreso, la diversidad y la complejidad cada vez mayor de las tecnologías. La innovación técnica lleva a una novedad léxica, de tal manera que resulta un dominio nuevo, una tecnología novedosa que nace al mismo tiempo con su respectiva terminología (véase por ejemplo la cantidad de términos sobre tecnología de construcción: nombres de nuevos materiales, nuevos métodos para contrarrestar la contaminación fónica, acuática, terrestre etc.)

2.2. Los cambios de orden político y social. La terminología europea comunitaria desempeña probablemente el papel primordial, lo que ha fomentado un intercambio considerable de información y traducción. En realidad, todo el *acervo comunitario* representa una gran base de datos que introdujo y puso en circulación una gran serie de neologismos, al lado de muchos debates muy actuales de técnicas de traducción.

2.3. La influencia de los mass-media, como un tipo de barómetro con respecto al estado actual del léxico en un idioma (véase sobre todo el lenguaje publicitario que estimula también el aspecto lúdico de la creación léxica).

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[2] Por ejemplo, *aeronave* se forma de la unión de *aéreo* más *nave*; *teledirigido* se forma de la unión de *tele* y *dirigido*, según http://es.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neologismo.

[3] Por ejemplo *tío* (un pariente que resulta ser el hermano de alguno de los propios padres) se transforma en cualquier expresión para llamar la atención de la otra persona, como *chico* u *hombre*; *camello* que es un animal, también puede ser un *traficante de drogas*, Idem.

2.4. La importancia adquirida por el dominio informático. Prácticamente, la tecnología de cada empresa grande utiliza algún programa informático con sus especificidades para desarrollar sus actividades. Acaso uno de los más difundidos lenguajes informáticos es el de Windows, ya que *hoja de cálculo, fichero o ventana* son neologismos normales para cada usuario del siglo XXI.

2.5. La mentalidad "politically correct" genera muchos términos nuevos paralelos con los utilizados anteriormente, que solían tener connotaciones sexistas, machistas, discriminatorias etc. (por ejemplo, el uso del sintagma *personas con discapacidad* o *impedidos* en vez de *personas con deficiencias, minusvalías, enfermos crónicos*)

Más allá de las razones por crear neologismos, los procedimientos de formación de neologismos son sintéticamente los siguientes:

No.	**Recurso**	**Procedimiento**	**Ejemplos**
1.	Cultismo	Tomados del latín sin evolución fonética	nocturno, púrpura
2.	Semicultismo	Tomados del latín, de evolución incompleta	siglo, molde, peligro
3.	Composición	Lexema + lexema	picapiedra, biengemido
4.	derivación	Lexema + morfema	melonar
5.	Nueva palabra	Prefijos Sufijos	aeronáutica, telescopio
6.	Préstamo[4]	Adaptación	tranvía
7.	Calco	Traducción	rascacielos
8.	Lexicalización	Yuxtaposición de iniciales	Renfe
9.	Onomatopeya	Imitación	chirriar
10.	Metáfora	Semejanza	boca (del metro)

De hecho, la totalidad de las unidades léxicas se podrían agrupar en dos grandes categorías: A) el léxico[5] de la lengua común y corriente y, respectivamente, B) el léxico de los lenguajes de especialidad o el léxico especializado, donde también encajaría el léxico jurídico. A su vez, la totalidad de las unidades léxicas recién entradas en un idioma, es decir los neologismos, se dividen en dos clases: a) los neologismos que pertenecen a la categoría a), denominados **neologismos comunes** y, respectivamente, b) los **neologismos especializados**, *neologismos terminológicos o neónimos* (Pavel-Rucăreanu 2001: 52-53).

[4] Préstamo: consiste en tomar palabras y expresiones de otras lenguas e incorporarlas a la española, en este caso, por ejemplo: *fútbol: football ; informática: informatique.*

[5] Aunque el término *léxico* es equivalente con el *vocabulario*, por ejemplo, el su análisis lingüístico L. Hjelmslev no opera ninguna distinción, personalmente diferenciamos entre léxico como la totalidad de palabras o vocablos puestos a disposición por una lengua a todos los hablantes, mientras que vocabulario, más bien, significaría el conjunto de las palabras utilizadas en el proceso de comunicación por un grupo determinado de hablantes en cierta situación.

El procedimiento, cada vez más preciso y coherente para diferenciar e independizar el conjunto estructurado de los **términos de especialidad** - en otras palabras, la terminología, en general -, y su autonomía casi total con respecto a la lexicología, han llevado a unos estudios muy elaborados, entre los que se han destacado procesos comunes de formación y renovación de lexemas. En este sentido, entre el léxico corriente de una lengua y sus terminologías especializadas, se han evidenciado situaciones compartidas para introducir, prestar o formar neologismos en una lengua. Éstos provienen sea del proceso traductor, sea de la creatividad lingüística espontánea de una persona o grupo.

3. Neologismos derivados del proceso de traducción

Es el procedimiento cuyo resultado son los neologismos que proceden de préstamos (calcos o indirectos), y que denominan términos nuevos en ciertos contextos interlingüísticos. En tal caso, el neologismo recién adoptado en un idioma se debe a la labor de los especialistas en profesiones de lengua (traductores, terminólogos) o expertos en un determinado campo de especialidad.

Por ejemplo, en la terminología jurídica rumana, ***rix*** significa *alboroto, querella acompañada por pelea o injurias*, que proviene del francés ***rixe***: *querelle violente accompagnée de menaces et de coups*, que a su vez, procede del latín ***rixa***. El diccionario jurídico español lo define como *pendencia, quimera, cuestión*, proporcionando el sintagma *riña tumultuaria = pelea de personas entre sí, acometiéndose, utilizando medios o instrumentos peligrosos para la vida o integridad física de los contendientes*[6]. En este caso asistimos a la introducción de un neologismo en la lengua a través de un tipo de traducción que sirve un campo altamente especializado y dado su carácter demasiado técnico, el término se ve muchas veces duplicado por su equivalente no especializado, es decir *pelea, contienda*.

De todas maneras, podríamos hablar de varios tipos de *traducción* que recurren a recursos diversos como equivalencias, calcos, préstamos, metáforización etc. Sin adentrarnos en estos procedimientos generales que no siempre llevan a neologismos, queríamos destacar algunos de los más frecuentes procesos.

3.1. La **transposición** significa la traducción propiamente dicha de los términos. Unos estudiosos consideran que aquellos términos de especialidad que no representan neologismos en un idioma extranjero de gran difusión, no tendrían que ser adaptados *ad litteram*, tampoco tendrían que ser prestados por otro idioma, sino más bien traducidos. El español es el ejemplo perfecto en este sentido, al denominar la mayoría de los conceptos informáticos.

En cambio, el rumano ha venido funcionando al revés, al ser una lengua de reducida difusión. Por ejemplo, del inglés *utterance*, el rumano utilizaba en el siglo

[6] ARANZADI (eds) (2001), *Diccionario jurídico.* Elcano: Juan Manuel Fernández Martínez y otros VILLA-REAL, R. y del ARCO-TORRES, M.A. (2000), *Diccionario jurídico elemental*.Granada: Comares

pasado *uteranță* (RO), término que fue abandonado a favor de la influencia francesa: *énoncé* (FR), lo que ulteriormente se convirtió en *enunț* (RO)[7].

3.2. El **calco lingüístico** es un procedimiento que anula los efectos estilísticos del préstamo indirecto – de los textos, libros, artículos –, pero confiere nueva autenticación al término internacional. He aquí uno par de ejemplos en rumano, español y francés que provienen del inglés *data bank o space shuttle*: *bancă de date – navetă spațială* (RO), banco de datos – nave espacial (ES), *banque des données – navette spatiale* (FR).

Sin descartar la importancia del calco como una de las principales fuentes de rejuvenecer el léxico de un idioma, observamos que éste se ve determinado históricamente y, que en función de terminologías especializadas o léxico común, se pueden marcar algunas diferencias. Últimamente, es verdad, los calcos del léxico común suelen ser más espontáneos, mientras que las terminologías específicas trabajan con una conciencia rigurosa, sobre todo en contacto indirecto con el francés y, más a menudo, con el inglés.

3.3. La **traducción perifrástica** se refiere a la reproducción de un término en una lengua mediante una perífrasis en otro idioma. Así, del inglés *railway* han resultado *voie ferée* y *chemin de fer* (FR*), ferrocarril* y *vía férrea* (ES), y respectivamente, *cale ferată* y *drum de fier* (RO). El procedimiento reproduce de manera bilingüe nociones específicas, cuya expresión *sui generis* no puede transmitirse por calcos u otros medios.

3. 4. El **préstamo léxico** es determinado por la imposibilidad de instaurar una equivalencia entre dos sistemas metalingüísticos. Este proceso no traduce, sino transpone literalmente y luego adquiere una descripción analítica gracias al traductor. En esta situación, el analista (Mladin 2004: 5[8]) describe cómo el término griego fue tomado en latín bajo la forma *philologia*, con la que penetra otras lenguas: *filología* (ES), *filologie* (RO), *Philology* (inglés), *Philologie* (alemán), *filologija* (ruso). Utilizado con cautela, el préstamo léxico es uno de los procedimientos más exactos, dando lugar a un abanico de términos internacionales muy difundidos.

4. Neologismos formados por innovación

Este procedimiento describe la invención de un término nuevo por una persona o grupo que en su propio idioma crea un objeto o defiende una idea nueva. Como ejemplo, nos detenemos a evocar solamente el término *quark*, que fue definido por el físico M. Gel-Mann en 1964 y después, fue retomado en su discurso literario por James Joyce, siendo "una palabra que no significa nada". (Rey, 1992: 67-68).

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[7] Observamos a veces la tendencia de la terminología de mostrarse autóctona con el objetivo de preservar la diversidad lingüística (opuesta a la tendencia o deseo de internacionalización terminológica.

[8] MLADIN, C.I. (2004), *Note despre raportul dintre lexicul comun şi terminologiile speciale (Împrumutul)*: http://www.litere.uvt.ro/documente_pdf/aticole/uniterm/uniterm2_2004/cmladin.pdf

Los contextos presentes plantean hoy en día muchos debates acerca de la perdurabilidad de estos neologismos de vida efímera (Kocourek 1982: 133), no en vano esos términos fueron nombrados *peregrinismos*. En esta situación se hallan una multitud de latinismos integrados en muchas lenguas, y que han encontrado también una forma adaptada en cada idioma: de las palabras en latín: *consensus, consortium, corpus delicti* se ha llegado en rumano y español a: *consens* (RO) – *consenso* (ES) o *consorțiu* (RO) – *consorcio* (ES), *corp delict* (RO) – *cuerpo del delito* (ES).

Además, el enfoque es todavía más complicado si se trata de *neologismos de hipertraducción,* como el caso cuando se experimentó introducir el término *computator* en rumano, en calidad de calco del inglés (*computer)* - intento fracasado a favor de *calculator* (RO) o *computer* (RO) -, mientras que el español atlántico (el de América Central, México y América del Sur) sí lo hizo sin problemas, y únicamente España resistió a la adopción de anglicismos, prefiriendo *ordenador*.

5. Los neologismos del campo jurídico

Dentro del ámbito jurídico, la investigación pone de relieve tres procesos neológicos[9]:

5.1. El primero se refiere a una necesidad de cubrir tanto un vacío conceptual, como un vacío terminológico y propone la creación de nuevas unidades léxicas que acompañan conceptos nuevos y necesarios en una lengua. Aquí encajarían tanto los términos recientes que provienen de cualquier laboratorio de investigación, como también la terminología de la Unión Europea. En el área jurídica, se han impuesto nuevas etiquetas lingüísticas como: *Ombudsman* o el *Defensor del Pueblo*[10], que pueden diferir según país o región, tal como se puede observar en el siguiente cuadro.

[9] Según HERMANS, A, VANSTEELANDT, A., (1999) "Néologie traductive" en Terminologies nouvelles, no.20, diciembre ("Nouveaux outils pour la néologie), 37-42, citado por Ileana Busuioc en www.litere.uvt.ro/documente_pdf/aticole/uniterm/uniterm4_2006/ileana_**busuioc**.pdf

[10] Es un funcionario del Estado encargado de representar los intereses de los ciudadanos ante abusos que puedan cometer los funcionarios de un Estado. La figura procede de la Constitución Sueca que estableció dicha figura en 1809, para dar respuesta inmediata a los ciudadanos ante abusos de difícil solución por vía burocrática o judicial. De ahí que en diversos idiomas se haga referencia a su nombre en sueco *Ombudsman*. En los países hispanoamericanos se denomina comúnmente *Defensor del Pueblo*, mientras que en los países francófonos suele llamarse *Médiateur de la République*. Algunos países también lo han titulado *Defensor de los Ciudadanos*.

País o región	Denominación
España	Defensor del Pueblo
País Vasco	*Ararteko*
Navarra	Defensor del Pueblo
Galicia	*Valedor do Pobo*
Cataluña	Síndico de Agravios
Comunidad Valenciana	Síndico de Agravios
Aragón	Justicia de Aragón
Andalucía	Defensor del Pueblo
Castilla y León	Procurador del Común
Canarias	Diputado del Común
Colombia	Defensoría del Pueblo
Perú	Defensoría del Pueblo
Venezuela	Defensoría del Pueblo
México	Comisión Nacional de los Derechos Humanos
Panamá	Defensoría del Pueblo
Unión Europea	Defensoría del Pueblo Europeo
Rumanía	Avocatul Poporului

Notamos que en rumano se ha preferido el sintagma *Avocatul Poporului*, la carga del Defensor siendo asumida por el término *Abogado*, mientras que el genitivo "del Pueblo" permaneció igual que en español en forma y contenido.

De hecho, unos de los objetivos clave del *acquis communautaire* ha sido el de armonizar los registros jurídicos europeos para su mayor facilidad de conocimiento y uso. El mismo concepto - el acervo de la UE -, preservado en rumano bajo la forma francesa *acquis*, revela una idea muy compleja que no puede ni debe reducirse a un mero inventario de actas y documentos. Todo lo contrario, ello representa la posición política de los Estados miembros, sus objetivos y principios reguladores.

En rumano, debido al préstamo del francés y al género masculino del sustantivo, a veces tiene lugar una sustitución del término por los sintagmas: *derecho comunitario* o *legislación europea*. No podemos estar de acuerdo, aun más, reclamamos una sinonimia imperfecta, ya que los últimos términos no incluyen las directivas, toma de posiciones y acuerdos firmados a nivel europeo, por lo tanto estamos ante una confusión de significados.

5.2. El segundo proceso neológico se encuentra más a menudo y concierne aspectos derivados de la **terminología traductora**, cuando se asume la existencia de un concepto dado y sólo se manifiesta un vacío terminológico. En este caso, a cierta unidad léxica en la *lengua fuente* le corresponde el concepto ya existente en la *lengua meta*, donde se opera la "creación" de un nuevo término.

Notamos que puede haber en cada país entidades que asumen competencias traductoras y terminológicas, cuya actividad es de encontrar situaciones de vacío terminológico, pero no de conceptos y, consecuentemente proponen equivalencias en la respectiva lengua de tal país o rechazan los préstamos considerados barbarismos o calcos que no se integran en el idioma.

En este caso, los traductores son los primeros que se enfrentan con términos nuevos en la lengua fuente, a los que su trabajo les impone identificar las correspondencias adecuadas. La ventaja es que estos neologismos se encuentran en un contexto real de comunicación y aparecen en textos especializados que les asegura su legítimo y consagrado uso. Sin embargo, hay también desventajas: a causa de los plazos muy cortos para la traducción de dichos textos, los traductores no disponen del tiempo necesario para el tratamiento atento de cada una de estas situaciones neológicas y a veces, las soluciones propuestas no son las mejores. Aún más, se ha observado que la mayoría de los neologismos de traducción son sintagmas y no términos acuñados según el requisito terminológico, lo que quiere decir que se trata solamente de breves definiciones de los respectivos conceptos.

Observación: En Rumanía, la mayoría de los conceptos europeos eran parcialmente conocidos, así han podido ser adaptados con bastante facilidad. Sin embargo, han surgido unos problemas a nivel de los términos, según las normas ISO, cuando los neologismos no se han integrado o no han cobrado coherencia con respecto a la red de conceptos a la que pertenecen.

Concretamente, aunque las equivalencias se han establecido primero a nivel conceptual y luego, a nivel formal, han resultado unos neologismos que no se han adecuado o han creado paralelismos inexactos o superfluos. En esta categoría se inscriben algunos grupos como *drept* (*derecho*) y *legislație* (*legislación*) que se utilizan indistintamente; asimismo los términos *derecho comercial, derecho aduanero, derecho contractual* corren el mismo riesgo de confundirse entre sí con *legislación nacional, legislación aduanera, legislación mercantil*, con explicaciones de contenido muy flojas o que carecen de entendimiento completo de significados.

5.3. El tercer fenómeno neológico que se puede distinguir en el lenguaje jurídico, se aparta de los dos procesos anteriores –- altamente denominativos – y alude a la neología de sentido y no de forma. Se trata de palabras nuevas a partir de vocablos ya existentes en la propia lengua que sufren cambios semánticos. Esta situación ya no resalta tanto interés, salvo la audacia de crear continuamente nuevos términos (Alcaraz Varó y Hughes, 2002: 26). Unos son bastante transparentes y parecidos a los neologismos comunes, mientras que otros se vuelven sorprendentes, demasiado complicados o automáticos, según consta: de la palabra *excepción* se ha formado el neologismo *excepcionar*; del léxema *ajeno* ha resultado *amenidad*, de *causar* se ha llegado a *causación*, de predisponer al adjetivo *predisponente* y a los superfluos como *necesariedad* u *originación*, cuando ya existían *necesidad* y *origen*.

6. Conclusión

Al estudiar los neologismos y su aparición en la lengua, sea mediante innovación o creación, sea mediante las diversas formas de traducción, hay que cumplir al pie de la letra las normas ISO acerca de neología con respecto a los procedimientos completos de formación, integración, adecuación y corrección.

Asimismo, independientemente si se trata de un vacío conceptual o vacío terminológico, se impone un proceso de traducción, innovación y adaptabilidad permanente, que promueva la colaboración entre traductores y profesionales, con miras de erradicar los términos paralelos o confusos.

Por último, la coherencia y la precisión terminológica, incluso en el caso de los neologismos jurídicos, sólo se puede alcanzar si se evitan las fluctuaciones de selección, uso, transferencia interlingüística e interpretación de los textos, con arreglo a los parámetros inherentes para la comunicación y dentro de los límites convenidos a nivel internacional.

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DIFICULTADES DE LA TRADUCCIÓN CIENTÍFICA

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ABSTRACT. This paper attempts to identify some of the most frequent problems regarding the translation from Spanish into Romanian of scientific and technical texts. It presents the features of the scientific texts and it discusses the levels of interaction between the translator's linguistic competence and extralinguistic knowledge. The last part focuses on the main methodological aspects of the translation process, taking into account morphological and lexical problems, especially the terminological errors deriving from false friends and the inadequate assessment of the context.

Keywords: scientific/technical translations, extralinguistic knowledge, general vs. specialized concepts, false friends

1. Particularidades de los textos científicos

Para los traductores, los textos especializados presentan una serie de rasgos que los individualizan desde varios puntos de vista: el campo temático, la presencia de varios tipos textuales, la precisión de los términos desde el punto de vista terminológico.

Dentro de los textos especializados, los textos científicos tienen la ventaja, en comparación con los administrativos, por ejemplo, de no estar clasificados con tanta rigidez desde el punto de vista de su tipo textual en varios idiomas. A pesar de que podemos tener textos divulgativos, patentes, manuales, ponencias acompañadas de resúmenes para reuniones internacionales, esta tipología hace hincapié sobre todo en el grado de especialización del texto, no necesariamente en cierto formato impuesto por una lengua u otra.

En cuanto a su función, se considera que la función predominante es la de informar sobre una realidad extralingüística, en un estilo conciso y asegurando la propiedad de los términos. Sin embargo, las circunstancias de comunicación hacen que, en muchos textos científicos la función persuasiva sea también de suma importancia. Si tenemos en cuenta un folleto a través del cual una empresa quiere presentar las características de un nuevo microscopio electrónico, para ponerlo en venta, el traductor tiene que estar familiarizado tanto con la terminología adecuada como con los recursos apelativos de la lengua meta para poder cumplir con los requisitos del cliente. No hay que olvidar que, según la teoría del escopo de Vermeer, el principio del funcionalismo gobierna las decisiones tomadas durante el

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proceso de traducción: “[...] factores como el público al que va destinada la traducción, objetivos de la misma y características concretas de su publicación influyen en todo el proceso y determinan la elección de los medios verbales”. (Tricás Preckler, 2003: 63)

2. Competencias del traductor

2.1. El razonamiento lógico

Dadas las características ya mencionadas, el traductor tiene que mejorar su capacidad de razonamiento lógico a través del trabajo con textos argumentativos o expositivo-argumentativos. Esto le facilitará el trabajo, tanto en la fase de comprensión del texto origen como en la fase final, de revisión del resultado en la lengua término, para identificar los procedimientos usuales que aseguran la coherencia y la cohesión de un texto científico en las dos lenguas.

2.2. Los conocimientos extralingüísticos

Aunque el contacto con ámbitos tan especializados es difícil, el traductor necesita una competencia cognitiva especial sobre el área temática del texto que va a traducir. El razonamiento lógico mencionado anteriormente no es suficiente cuando se trata de unos componentes que desempeñan un papel preciso en el funcionamiento de un aparato: “El traductor que nunca ha visto el aparato sobre el que traduce, por poner un ejemplo, no puede hacerse una idea de lo que está traduciendo. Irá transponiendo una a una las palabras sin saber si tiene lógica lo que escribe o si carece completamente de sentido. [...] Y entonces se ve cómo, incluso personas con una cierta inclinación hacia lo técnico, con buen dominio de la lengua y de los recursos necesarios para traducir bien, en ocasiones no entienden lo que describen y el resultado puede ser francamente malo.” (Bonet Heras, 2004: 40)

El problema que se plantea con mucha frecuencia es el del tipo y grado de competencia al que se tiene que llegar. No es siempre posible seguir dos carreras para manejar con soltura los conceptos o identificar con facilidad la realidad que designan, la variedad de los campos temáticos hace imposible que el traductor se pueda especializar de igual manera en todos. No obstante, se considera que haría falta por lo menos una competencia *pasiva*, que permita la comprensión correcta del texto origen, sin el requerimiento de poder elaborar un texto de la misma índole. En estas condiciones, el traductor “[...] posee un conocimiento pasivo que le permite comprender el texto y trasmitirlo a otra lengua, pero carece del conocimiento activo para poder crear textos en campos semánticos determinados, competencia propia del especialista.” (Gallardo San Salvador, 1996:145).

2.3. La documentación

El debate respecto a la calidad de la traducción ha traído a colación, recurrentemente, la relación entre el traductor y el especialista que trabaja en el ámbito al que pertenece el texto. En muchos casos los técnicos desconfían del grado de precisión de una traducción científica hecha por un filólogo y los profesores de las facultades de ciencias llegan a ofrecer a sus alumnos ejemplos ridículos extraídos de traducciones improvisadas. Una de las anécdotas más frecuentes se refiere a la traducción del sintagma “campo eléctrico” por “pajişte luminoasă”, que puede ser una exageración, pero no deja muy bien parados a los traductores que no se toman la molestia de una mínima documentación previa a la traducción.

Por consiguiente, además de la competencia lingüística general en las dos lenguas, el traductor necesita saber a qué fuentes de documentación recurrir para evitar el bloqueo del mensaje. Si consideramos la traducción como un acto comunicativo, el papel del traductor se carga de una inmensa responsabilidad: al estar presente a medio camino entre dos usuarios para los que el lenguaje altamente especializado no representa ningún problema, el emisor y el destinatario, el traductor tiene que adquirir las competencias necesarias para transmitir con claridad el mensaje de uno a otro. Esto supone unos conocimientos exactos sobre la terminología requerida por ciertos contextos, acudiendo sea a glosarios terminológicos, a diccionarios mono y bilingües o a textos paralelos. Todos estos métodos pueden llevar a un resultado satisfactorio pero lo más aconsejable es trabajar junto con un especialista. Su intervención ayuda a resolver las dudas terminológicas mientras que el traductor se encarga de pulir el texto para que respete las reglas sintáctico-morfológicas y estilísticas de la lengua término. Como etapa preparatoria del proceso de traducción, el alumno tiene que tener en cuenta las siguientes etapas:

- lectura del texto original e identificación de los problemas de traducción;
- elaborar un plan con el tipo de fuentes de documentación necesarias y su ubicación;
- evaluación de la fiabilidad de las fuentes, selección de las fuentes relevantes;
- consulta con un especialista sobre las dudas terminológicas o estilísticas.

Un buen conocimiento y manejo de las fuentes de documentación es decisivo para solucionar las dificultades de traducción, elaborar unas estrategias eficaces de búsqueda y revisar los resultados.

3. Aspectos metodológicos

La enseñanza de la traducción científica supone en primer lugar concienciar al alumno sobre la necesidad de evaluar la compatibilidad entre sus conocimientos y el campo temático del texto, para decidir si acepta el encargo de traducción o no. De esta manera se fomenta la especialización del alumno en un ámbito concreto, en función de sus afinidades o de la posibilidad de consultarse con un especialista de su círculo de conocidos. Durante las clases, se incrementa progresivamente el grado de dificultad, pasando de documentos divulgativos a folletos informativos y sólo al final se pasa revista a las estrategias traductoras necesarias para manuales técnicos o textos más complejos. Este enfoque progresivo permite la evaluación del grado de la especialización de varios textos para decidir el tipo de fuentes de documentación necesarias. El peso de la terminología en un texto divulgativo, destinado a un público con pocos conocimientos sobre el tema, no llega al nivel de dificultad de una ponencia presentada en un congreso.

Durante el proceso de traducción, es posible que el alumno tropiece con dificultades relacionadas con varios aspectos, detallados a continuación.

3.1. El nivel morfo-sintáctico

Desde el punto de vista morfológico, se debe prestar una atención especial al traducir los sintagmas que incluyen preposiciones ya que en el caso de algunos instrumentos que efectúan varias operaciones o presentan ciertas características, a la preposición "de" del español le corresponde en rumano la preposición "cu":

pantalla de cristal líquido – ecran *cu* cristale lichide
el microscopio de efecto túnel - microscopul *cu* efect tunel
el cátodo de incadescencia – catodul *cu* incandescență
motores de reacción – motor *cu* reacție

El español muestra una mayor variedad en cuanto al uso de las preposiciones en el ámbito científico pero éstas se traducen al rumano, en muchos casos, por el mismo "cu":

ecuaciones diferenciales *en* derivadas parciales – ecuații diferențiale *cu* derivate parțiale
multiplicar el largo *por* el ancho – a înmulți lungimea *cu* lățimea

En cuanto a la restitución de las preposiciones, seguir las pautas de estilo de la lengua término significa prestar atención a los casos en que el rumano renuncia al uso de las preposiciones, convirtiendo la combinación de dos sustantivos en la estructura sustantivo + adjetivo u omitiendo la preposición de la asociación sintagmática. Unos ejemplos en este sentido serían los siguientes:

- la teoría *de* grupos – teoría grupurilor
- la fuerza *de* gravedad - forța gravitațională
- lámina *de* cuarto de onda – lamă sfert de undă

Puede ocurrir también la situación contraria, en la que el rumano opta por incluir preposiciones en las asociaciones sintagmáticas:

- simetría traslacional - simetrie *de* translație
- simetría rotacional – simetrie *de* rotație

3.2. Unidades de medida

Tanto en rumano como en español, las unidades de medida forman parte del sistema internacional y son apellidos lexicalizados de personalidades de la historia de la ciencia, como vatios, henrios, amperios. En pocos casos, el rumano mantuvo el apellido como tal, sin lexicalizarlo. Nos referimos a la unidad para medir la inductancia, el henrio, que se comporta en español como un sustantivo común, con marcas de plural, mientras que el rumano se decantó por una copia fiel del apellido y lo convirtió en un sustantivo invariable, "henry". En otras situaciones, la vacilación se encuentra en ambos idiomas: la unidad para medir la resistencia, el ohmio (en rumano “ohm”), recibe algunas veces marcas de plural, ohmios (rumano “ohmi”), otras no. Parece que los científicos de los dos países no se han decidido todavía por una de las variantes.

Respecto al orden de las palabras en los sintagmas que contienen medidas, el español suele colocar primero el número, seguido por la dimensión que representa mientras que el rumano empieza por la magnitud, luego menciona el aspecto cuantitativo: de 5 mm de diámetro - cu diametrul de 5 mm, de unos 9 cm de altura – cu înălțimea de aproximativ 9 cm, de unos 20 cm de anchura – cu lățimea de aproximativ 20 cm. Estos aparentes detalles ayudan a evitar expresiones forzadas, que reproducen la sintaxis de los sintagmas iniciales en la lengua término, y pueden desconcertar al destinatario.

3.3. Las siglas

Las siglas pueden formar ya parte del lenguaje cotidiano o pueden ser sólo de uso limitado, es decir, su validez queda restringida al marco de un texto concreto para evitar repeticiones molestas. Ante el número impresionante de siglas anglosajonas recientes, el traductor se ve obligado a mantener el orden de las palabras en la lengua origen, porque ya forman parte del vocabulario internacional, pero al mismo tiempo está obligado a suministrar la explicación en la lengua término.

En el caso de las siglas más antiguas, ya traducidas, el español y el rumano, han adoptado, de costumbre, el mismo orden de las palabras, al traducir sintagmas del inglés, la “lingua franca” de los avances tecnológicos de hoy. Sin embargo, hay algunas diferencias en cuanto al uso del artículo que precede ciertas siglas y que muestra el género de la entidad elegida para sintetizar el contenido. De esta manera, dos técnicas para retratar el cerebro, la resonancia magnética nuclear y la tomografía axial computerizada, se describirán es español a través de siglas con marcas genéricas, es decir, la RMN y el TAC, mientras que el rumano utiliza automáticamente el género masculino para referirse a la primera, “un RMN”, y opta por un orden de las palabras completamente distinto para la primera, que va precedida de costumbre por su explicación: computer tomograf CT.

El rumano adopta con mucha rapidez las siglas, incluso las convierte en unidades léxicas escritas con minúsculas, sin pasarlas por otros filtros idiomáticos. Por poner un ejemplo, en el ámbito de las comunicaciones, las redes LAN (Local Area Network - Redes de Area Local) han pasado al rumano como redes LAN pero también “lan”, monosílaba cómoda que llegará a perder las características de una abreviación, comportándose como una palabra más.

Ante la abundancia de siglas, es necesario aconsejar al alumno sobre dos elementos imprescindibles en la traducción de los textos que las contienen: mencionar la denominación completa de la entidad representada, la primera vez que las siglas aparecen en un documento; proporcionar la traducción de los componentes al idioma término, para que el lector se haga una idea sobre su contenido, a pesar de mantener la sigla en el idioma origen.

3.4. Las ilustraciones

Los traductores con una preparación exclusiva en humanidades no se sienten muy confortables ante esquemas, gráficos o diagramas pero son unos elementos frecuentes de los documentos sobre circuitos eléctricos, aparatos ópticos o piezas mecánicas. Si el diagrama incluye la denominación de los componentes, puede ser de gran ayuda para el traductor, dado que ofrece una idea sobre la relación lógica de los elementos del texto. Asimismo, facilita la comparación con textos paralelos, restringiendo la búsqueda a los textos que contengan diagramas similares o por lo menos parecidos. Como último recurso, lo que quede imposible de entender para el traductor, resultará obvio para un especialista, gracias justamente a las ilustraciones y las leyendas que las acompañan. Por ejemplo, en el área del electromagnetismo, la "regla del sacacorchos", al lado de un dibujo que presenta los vectores del campo eléctrico y magnético, se traducirá con facilidad por "regula burghiului", sintagma usual de los manuales de física.

3.5. La terminología

Es el aspecto que más trae de cabeza al aprendiz de traductor (y no sólo) porque las dificultades que conlleva son múltiples. Dada la velocidad del desarrollo tecnológico, sobre todo en el campo de la informática, algunos términos no llegan siquiera a traducirse sino que se adoptan como tal, en su versión en inglés. En esta categoría se encuentran, tanto en inglés como en español, palabras como hardware, software, web, spam, mientras que otros se benefician de una traducción al español como el lápiz USB, que se trasladó al rumano en su versión inglesa, stick. Otros, como el/la disquete, han pasado ya a mejor vida hasta que el español se haya decidido por su género, pero el rumano no tuvo problemas en atribuirle desde el principio el género femenino.

De los casos que menciona la profesora María Teresa Cabré Castellví (2004:105), nos vamos a fijar en las siguientes situaciones que plantean retos terminológicos:

a) Los diccionarios no mencionan un posible equivalente, en la lengua término, para la palabra buscada. En estas circunstancias, el traductor no sabe si es una falta del diccionario o si en verdad el término en cuestión no tiene todavía un correspondiente sobre el que se hayan puesto de acuerdo los miembros de la comunidad científica. El algunos casos, la misión del traductor consiste justamente en proponer un término de acuerdo con las normas lingüísticas aceptadas.
b) La palabra está presente en el diccionario pero su polisemia dificulta la toma de una decisión. La investigadora sintetiza la diferencia entre los conceptos generales y los especializados, aduciendo que la inclusión de los conceptos especializados en una estructura preestablecida les confiere un estatus especial: "Los conceptos generales son polisémicos por definición, transportan muchas connotaciones y son, dentro de unos ciertos límites de referencialidad,

> semánticamente subjetivos. Los conceptos especializados, en cambio, son precisos y básicamente denotativos, su significado se establece en virtud de su ubicación en una estructura de conceptos preestablecida a partir de un cierto consenso científico. (Cabré Castellví, 2004:103)

El problema surge cuando los límites entre concepto "especializado" y concepto "general" se vuelven borrosos, en otras palabras, ¿quién decide el grado de "especialización" de un concepto? ¿Cuál es el riesgo de que un concepto "general" se convierta en un falso amigo?

Por ejemplo, la palabra "núcleo" se podría considerar un concepto especializado en el ámbito de la física atómica, por lo tanto el sintagma "el núcleo del átomo" recibe su única traducción posible al rumano, en este contexto, "*nucleul* atomului". Sin embargo, en otro ámbito de la física, el de la electrotécnica, el mismo término, pero en otro sintagma, "bobinas con núcleo de hierro" se va a traducir con "bobine cu *miez* de fier".

A veces ni siquiera la delimitación del ámbito permite identificar el correspondiente adecuado en la lengua de traducción, sino que se tienen que explotar otras informaciones del texto para lograrlo. Pongamos el ejemplo de un texto de divulgación en que se alude al funcionamiento de unos ordenadores de los años sesenta. La referencia al tiempo es esencial, ya que, las así llamadas "válvulas de vacío"que formaban parte, por aquel entonces, de los componentes del ordenador, no eran "*valve* cu vid", sería un contrasentido, a pesar de que el diccionario indique como primera opción "valve" para válvulas, sino "*diode* cu vid". La consulta de los textos paralelos es absolutamente obligatoria en estas situaciones.

En la misma categoría de falsos amigos constituida por los conceptos generales polisémicos, encontramos la palabra "firma". Al pasar por una sustancia, ciertas longitudes de onda de la luz natural son absorbidas y dicha sustancia se puede identificar a través de las franjas del haz emergente, que llevan el nombre de "firma espectral" que no se van a traducir al rumano de ninguna manera con "semnătură spectrală" sino "amprentă spectrală". Se trata de aceptar que no siempre es posible inventar conceptos especializados para cualquier elemento nuevo de la realidad y existe siempre la posibilidad de un trasvase de los términos, como si se tratara de vasos comunicantes. Teresa Cabré eleva este fenómeno a rango de principio terminológico: "Los ámbitos de especialidad no son ni estáticos en el tiempo ni cerrados en el espacio, sino que son construcciones más o menos consolidadas de límites permeables y con capacidad dinámica. Por este principio, se asume que las áreas especializadas son permeables entre sí, lo que da pie a explicar los espacios disciplinares nuevos, la constitución de campos interdisciplinarios cada vez más comunes, con la consiguiente posibilidad de establecer la terminología asociada a un objeto, y no únicamente a recopilar la terminología propia de un campo previamente establecido en las clasificaciones temáticas[...]" (Cabré Castellví, 2004:110-111).

Conclusiones

El objetivo de la enseñanza de la traducción científico-técnica es formar a traductores que sean capaces de identificar el grado de especialización de un texto de esta índole, su tipo textual y los recursos documentales necesarios. De igual manera, se requiere que el traductor sepa encontrar rápidamente la información necesaria y pueda validar su contenido.

Desde el punto de vista lingüístico, la capacidad de generalizar los procedimientos de formación de las palabras para aplicarlos a términos nuevos asegura la coherencia del conjunto de neologismos introducidos en la lengua materna. Un buen dominio de la vertiente linguística, unido a los conocimientos extralinguísticos completados con la consulta del especialista, ofrecen la imagen de un traductor que ejerce con resposabilidad su oficio para evitar que los profesionales de varios ámbitos recurran a los libros en original.

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LES ANGLICISMES DANS LA PRESSE FRANÇAISE ET LEUR TRADUCTION EN ROUMAIN

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ABSTRACT. The translation of press articles from French into Romanian inevitably confronts with the issue of anglicisms. After having analysed comparatively several press articles, we discovered that, paradoxically, when it is about translating from French into Romanian, there is the tendency to keep anglicisms even in the target-language.

Keywords: translation of press articles, English influences in French media

1. Introduction

Dans le traitement du sujet, notre travail se focalise tant sur la partie théorique que sur la partie pratique. Nous avons choisi comme type de texte la presse. Tout au long de notre démarche nous allons analyser les occurrences des anglicismes dans la presse intellectuelle (*Le Monde*, *Le Figaro*) et la presse mondaine française (*Elle*, *Femme actuelle*). Nous n'allons pas nous contenter d'un inventaire des occurrences, mais nous allons tenter d'analyser les manières de traduire ces mêmes termes en roumain.

Nous n'allons pas insister ici sur la fréquence des mots empruntés à l'anglais; l'envahissement des anglicismes est déjà notoire dans les deux langues, de même que les nombreuses discussions concernant leur forme et emploi[1]. Les anglicismes du domaine de l'informatique ne font pas partie de nos préoccupations ici[2].

Ce qui nous intéresse se sont les anglicismes incontournables de la presse, francisés déjà depuis longtemps ou en cours de francisation, ou même ceux ayant peux de chances d'apparaître bientôt dans les dictionnaires. Pour un plus de précision, cette brève étude est centrée sur une comparaison de l'emploi de ces termes dans la presse roumaine et française et les possibilités de traduction.

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[1] Nous tenons à remarquer que, si pour le français le nombre des sites et forums dédiés aux débats autour des anglicismes est significatif, les sites roumains préoccupés par cette problématique sont très peu nombreux. Malgré quelques tentatives de réglementer l'usage des mots anglais, à présent il n'y a que les linguistes qui s'en soucient, le grand public ne faisant point attention aux mots employés.

[2] Ceci d'autant plus que l'activité de la *Commission Générale de Terminologie et Néologie* se fait pleinement sentir au niveau des emplois abusifs d'anglicismes. Nous n'analysons non plus les anglicismes qui tombent sur l'incidence de la loi Toubon.

Les exemples que nous avons repris ici sont des exemples récurrents d'anglicismes en français ; or, compte tenu des préoccupations croissantes des Français pour la pureté de leur langue, nous serions tentées de ranger ces exemples dans une catégorie que nous appellerions volontiers « la catégorie incontournable». Nous avons décidé donc de voir si nous pouvons garder le même adjectif pour qualifier les anglicismes de la presse roumaine.

Pourquoi la presse ? Le choix s'explique par le fait que les deux auteurs sont des enseignantes qui, pour des raisons d'actualité, travaillent avec ces types de textes en classe avec les étudiants. Dans presque tous les textes choisis pour les traductions ce n'était pas l'emploi d'un mot anglais qui était problématique, mais sa traduction en roumain. Vu le grand nombre de solutions proposées par les étudiants, nous nous sommes posé la question de la meilleure solution. Il fallait donc passer en revue une partie de la presse roumaine et trouver les équivalents des mots qui nous intéressaient[3]. Nos considérations vis-à-vis des occurrences dans la langue-cible seront exposées plus loin dans cet article.

2. Eléments de la théorie de la traduction

On est tous d'accord que le processus de traduire est une activité génératrice de texte. Nous n'essayons pas ici de faire un exposé de la théorie de la traduction, nous allons justement reprendre les termes-clé et les concepts pertinents pour notre démarche.

Comme l'affirme Toury (1995: 10), l'étude de la traduction est orientée vers le produit, vers le processus et vers la fonction qu'elle va remplir. Selon le même auteur (1995: 23), la traduction est un fait de la culture-cible qui se produit dans un cadre orienté vers le public-cible[4].

Selon Snell-Hornby (1995: 35), l'étude de la traduction comprend essentiellement des textes mis dans un contexte situationnel et culturel. On ne parle pas seulement de la langue, mais aussi du contexte social et de l'inter-culturalité.

Snell-Hornby (1995: 46) cite Vermeer afin d'offrir une définition de la traduction:

> Translation is not the transcoding of words or sentences from one language into another, but a complex action in which someone provides information about a text under new functional, cultural and linguistic conditions and in a new situation, whereby formal characteristics are imitated as far as possible.

[3] Toutefois, cette approche de la traduction ne veut pas nécessairement dire que nous suivons le principe selon lequel l'usage fait la norme. Les traductions que nous avons trouvées ou proposées tiennent compte surtout du type de texte, de sa fonction et du public-cible.

[4] Dans notre cas, le public-cible des textes abordés est le segment le plus large de la population, les 20-40 ans.

Selon Wills (1996: 43), les traducteurs doivent être capables d'extraire le sens du texte-source et de le rendre sans pertes de contenu dans le milieu de la langue-cible (Wills 1996: 43)[5]. Il définit la traduction comme une transaction des compétences de l'auteur du texte-source, du traducteur et du lecteur du texte-cible, où le rôle de médiateur du traducteur devient plus qu'évident :

> a bridge between two linguistic and cultural communities, but at the same time different from both the ST[6] author and the TT[7] reader(ship). (Wills 1996: 143)

Neubert (2000: 6) affirme qu'il y a cinq paramètres de la compétence en traduction: la compétence linguistique, la compétence textuelle, la compétence du sujet, la compétence culturelle et la compétence du transfert. Vu notre analyse, nous allons insister sur trois paramètres en particulier. Surtout dans le cas des textes de presse, *la compétence textuelle* joue un rôle très important. Il faut toujours identifier les caractéristiques textuelles au-delà des caractéristiques linguistiques, car les mots et les structures suivent des modèles significatifs lorsqu'ils sont insérés dans des textes ou des types de textes (Neubert 2000: 8). Elément primordial des compétences du traducteur, *la compétence culturelle* joue le rôle de médiateur entre la culture de l'expéditeur et la culture du destinataire du message. *La compétence du transfert* contient les tactiques et les stratégies de la conversion des textes dans une langue 1 en textes dans une langue 2 (Neubert 2000: 10).

Greere (2003: 15) reprend la *Skopos théorie* de Vermeer (1996) qui sert d'élément-clé dans les approches fonctionnalistes. Ainsi, la traduction est une activité où le but du texte-cible est extrêmement important, de même que la fonction que devra remplir le texte-cible dans le contexte-cible et les procédures de transfert à adopter pour le succès d'un texte-cible. C'est la fonction du texte-cible (*skopos*) qui détermine le choix des solutions de transfert[8]. L'adaptation au *skopos* est la méthode d'évaluation du produit final de la traduction.

Reiss et Nord (citées par Greere 2003: 43, 60) font l'inventaire des *types de textes*. Ainsi, selon Reiss (1971), il y a trois types de textes qui servent aux fins de la traduction : le texte informatif, le texte expressif et le texte opératif. Pour Nord (1997a), la fonction référentielle (informative chez Reiss) est décrite comme orientée vers le sujet, la fonction expressive est orientée vers l'émetteur, tandis que la fonction appellative est destinée à la sensibilité du récepteur.

[5] Les traducteurs doivent avoir des connaissances linguistiques, extralinguistiques et pragmatiques à la fois. Tout cela afin d'éviter l'échec culturel et d'obtenir dans la culture-cible le même impact que celui produit par le texte originel.
[6] ST = source text (fr. texte-source).
[7] TT = target text (fr. texte-cible).
[8] C'est ce principe qui nous a guidées dans l'approche et la validation des traductions rencontrées, de même que dans les solutions proposées.

C'est toujours Nord (citée par Greere 2003: 61) qui dresse la liste des types de problèmes potentiels de la traduction :

1. pragmatiques : résultent de la différence entre les facteurs situationnels de la culture-source et la culture-cible ;
2. culturels : le résultat des différences des normes et des conventions guidant le comportement verbal et non-verbal dans les deux cultures impliquées ;
3. linguistiques : proviennent de la spécificité des paires linguistiques;
4. spécifiques du texte (les figures de style) : sont liés à un texte-source particulier et ne peuvent pas être généralisés.

Dans son ouvrage intitulé *In Other Words*, Mona Baker insiste sur deux *types de concepts* (1992: 25) : les concepts culturels et les concepts non-lexicalisés. Dans le premier cas, le mot de la langue-source peut exprimer un concept qui est totalement inconnu dans la culture-cible. Dans le second cas, le concept peut être connu dans la culture-cible, mais il n'est pas lexicalisé (il n'y a pas de mot dans la langue-cible pour l'exprimer).

Afin de résoudre ces problèmes, nous mentionnons quelques *stratégies* proposées par Baker (1992: 30) :

a) traduire par un mot plus général afin de surmonter le manque de spécificité dans la langue-cible par rapport à la langue-source (*shampooing* - *washing*),
b) traduire par un mot plus neutre ou moins expressif (*home – settlements, mumble*),
c) traduire par une substitution culturelle – on remplace un élément avec spécificité culturelle avec un élément de la langue-cible[9] (*Cream tea expert – expert in pastry*),
d) traduire en utilisant un mot emprunté ou un mot emprunté accompagné d'une explication lors de sa première occurrence (*Cream Tea – Cream Tea*),
e) traduire par paraphrase en employant des mots avec une forme semblable à celle de la langue-source (Baker 1992: 37) (*overlooking the Hall – which overlooks the Hall*),
f) traduire par paraphrase en employant des mots avec des formes différentes par rapport à celle de la langue-source (*tangential – in a very slight degree which is like touching slightly*).

Il y a aussi une autre situation, d'une importance tout aussi grande, sinon de la plus grande importance dans notre démarche. C'est le cas des mots étrangers utilisés dans une langue-source qui ont des équivalents plus ou moins exacts dans la langue-source et même dans la langue-cible. Il s'agit des mots empruntés à une langue étrangère, l'anglais dans notre cas. Le français a adopté et modifié à son spécifique ces mots ou les a gardés tels quels. De son côté, le roumain absorbe un nombre encore plus grand de mots anglais, mais, malheureusement, ce phénomène n'est pas contrôlé par un organisme habilité.

[9] On n'obtient pas nécessairement le même sens, mais on a un impact similaire sur le lecteur-cible (Baker 1992: 33).

3. Exemples illustratifs

3.1. Les exemples les plus nombreux portent sur des mots existant déjà dans le dictionnaire, à côté de leurs équivalents français. Devant l'anglicisme inévitable, la langue recourt à la francisation. Les mêmes mots ont commencé à apparaître dans les dictionnaires roumains, surtout dans les dictionnaires de néologismes. Nous reprenons ici quelques-uns des mots les plus fréquents de la presse.

- **Design, designer**

L'Audi A3 et la BMW Série 1 se découvrent 08/02/2008 - Il entraîne en effet une contrainte majeure en termes de **design** et d'espace pour le coffre à bagages. Le toit en toile conserve donc, et en particulier en haut de gamme, ses indéfectibles adeptes ...
Minimalisme et design 09/02/2008 - Cet ordinateur portable d'à peine 1,36 kg reprend les concepts chers à la marque californienne : **un design** époustouflant et une facilité de prise en main sans commune mesure avec la concurrence. On retrouve ainsi un véritable clavier (rétro-éclairé) et un écran respectable de 13,3 pouces, là ...
La Fiat 500 avance avec succès sur la route néorétro 11/02/2008 - Esthétiquement, **les designers** ont tenté et réussi le coup du néorétro, dont la référence reste la Mini du groupe BMW. " Les styles de la Mini et de la 500 plaisent et, de surcroît, elles renvoient à des voitures qui rappellent une période heureuse des années de croissance dans les pays ...
Derniers défilés masculins de l'hiver prochain 07/02/2008 - John Varvatos est un parfait exemple de ces designers au style maîtrisé. Lundi soir, au sommet de la première tour reconstruite à Ground Zero, il a dévoilé un hiver très convenu. ... **Ses designers** Swaim et Christina Hutson associent des paletots déstructurés à grands carreaux à des costumes ... (*Le Figaro*)
Infiniti ar putea dezvolta propriul GT-R - Succesul de care s-a bucurat Nissan GT-R i-a determinat pe oficialii constructorului japonez să declare că se gândesc şi la o versiune de lux a supercarului produsă de divizia Infiniti. Shiro Nakamura, şeful diviziei globale de **design** Nissan, a anunțat cu ceva timp în urmă că o soluție pentru extinderea gamei sale de modele ar fi un coupe sau un cabriolet de lux. (*AutoMarket*)
Prezentare de modă în clubul Obsession - O fastuoasă prezentare de modă se anunță pentru această seară în clubul Obsession. **Designerul** Adrian Oianu îşi lansează la Cluj creații din colecții prêt-à-porter de rochii şi trench-uri, dupa care se va organiza un show-room cu... (*Monitorul de Cluj*)
Sunt la modă perdelele simple - **Designerii** spun că tinerii aleg perdele şi draperii în culori cât mai vii, cu modele geometrice, iar adulții le preferă pe cele cu modele discrete şi culori naturale. Specialiştii în amenajări interioare sunt de părere că perdelele şi... (*Evenimentul Zilei*)

Adoptés depuis longtemps par la langue française (surtout *design*), ces mots ne constituent plus une surprise dans un texte de n'importe quelle facture. Ce qui pourrait être surprenant est le fait que les dictionnaires français offrent une série synonymique extrêmement riche sous cette entrée. Dans chacun des exemples cités le mot anglais n'était, évidemment pas, nécessaire, les équivalents pouvant rendre le même sens. Il n'y a rien ici qui ne pourrait se dire beaucoup mieux en français.

La langue roumaine dispose de la même richesse sémantique pour traduire ce mot. Toutefois, la presse roumaine évite constamment de chercher la traduction appropriée au contexte, préférant utiliser le mot anglais. Nous remarquons quand même que le mot en roumain a reçu les marques du genre et du nombre. Utiliser l'équivalent exact dans chaque contexte supposerait de la part des journalistes un effort trop grand peut-être, d'où une nette préférence pour un mot qui, bien qu'étranger, subsume toutes les nuances sémantiques pour lesquelles le roumain utilise des mots différents. Si nous considérons que l'usage l'emporte sur l'exactitude et le détail, *design* et *designer* ne tarderont pas à éliminer progressivement leurs hyponymes dans la presse[10]. Grand nombre de traductions vers le roumain ne s'arrêtent même pas sur ce mot, recourant directement au mot anglais. Recourant à un mot plus général, la traduction rend le texte plus neutre du point de vue du contenu sémantique, mais plus fort du point de vue de la fonction appellative.

- **Brainstorming**

Attali : "le web, un outil de démocratie très considérable" 12/10/2007 - Il suffit de se connecter sur le site pour contribuer au **brainstorming** de ce groupe de 43 experts. Plus d'une trentaine de blogs ont été créés sur différents grands thèmes de l'économie : la croissance, la pouvoir d'achat, le logement... Pour chacune de ces grandes thématiques, il est ...
Rentrée : les sept flops capitaux 01/10/2007 - **Le brainstorming** est permanent au sein du service des sports de France Télévisions pour essayer de trouver l'idée qui permettrait de faire enfin décoller " France 2 Foot ", l'émission dominicale animée par Denis Balbir, achetée à prix d'or par la chaîne et dont les audiences sont pour le moins ... (*Le Figaro*)

***Brainstorming** pentru anul cultural " Bacău 600* "- Capetele luminate ale Bacăului s-au adunat la sfat ieri dupa amiază la Centrul de Cultură "George Apostu " pentru a pune la cale anul cultural 2008, cînd Bacăul sărbătoreşte, pe 6 octombrie, 600 de ani de atestare documentară, ca aşezare urbană. Furtuna de idei a fost provocată de Primăria Bacău, care pune la bătaie pentru proiecte care privesc acest an aniversar 2,5 milioane lei. În afară de aceste sume, mai pot fi accesați, prin Legea 350/ 2 decembrie 2005, 9.570 de mii de lei. Finanțare poate ... (*Ziarul de Bacău*)[11]

[10] Les seuls mots qui nous semblent concurrencer sérieusement le mot *designer* dans la presse roumaine seraient *stilist* et *creator* et ce seulement dans les cas où le contexte porte sur la mode. Dans les autres domaines il n'y a que *designer* et *design* qui s'emploient.

[11] La variante proposée par le rédacteur plus loin dans l'article est des plus originales, voire unique dans la presse : *furtună de idei*. Il va sans dire qu'il s'agit d'une traduction littérale du mot *storm*.

Pregătire pentru părinții adoptivi - Persoanele care doresc să adopte copii pot urma un program de pregătire inițiat de edilii sectorului 3. Programul constă într-un dialog de informare, moderat de un asistent social, şi ulterior au loc întâlnirile de pregătire susținute de profesionişti, angajați ai serviciului de adopție. Viitorii părinți află informațiile necesare din punct de vedere legal, administrativ şi socio-psiho-medical. Metodele de lucru folosite sunt: prezentarea, **brainstorming**, demonstrația, exerciții în grupuri mici, discuții de grup în plen şi studii de caz... (*România Liberă*)

Assez fréquent dans la presse française, le *brainstorming* a une résonnance nettement plus savante et sophistiquée que son parent français *remue-méninges*. Mais, si en français les deux termes coexistent, le roumain ne dispose pas de concept lexicalisé pour ce terme. La presse roumaine ne traduit pas ce terme, que se soit un mot neutre ou une paraphrase, elle utilise le mot anglais qu'elle investit du genre masculin, tout en évitant de l'utiliser au pluriel. Donc, dans un texte de presse, l'anglicisme utilisé par le français apparaîtra dans une traduction vers le roumain sous la même forme.

- **Briefing**

Il y a 20 ans, le krach de 1987 - 19/10/2007 - **Les briefings** du matin des grands établissements financiers se déroulent dans la nervosité. L'élément déclencheur de la panique à Wall Street reste sans conteste la publication des chiffres du déficit commercial américain, même si, durant les premières minutes de la séance, la baisse est encore...
Dans les coulisses de... la météo de TF1 19/10/2007 - **Le briefing** ne dura donc qu'une quinzaine de minutes. " Cela peut durer plus longtemps si la situation est complexe ", souligne la chef du service météo de TF1 qui s'enorgueillit d'être quasiment la seule, avec sa collègue du week-end, Catherine Laborde, à se déplacer à Météo France afin de ... (*Le Figaro*)
Şoferi sancționați în trafic - Polițiştii din Teleorman, cu atribuții pe linia siguranței traficului rutier, au aplicat în weekend peste 370 de sancțiuni pentru diferite abateri, în valoare totală de circa 32.000 de lei, transmite corespondentul ROMPRES. După cum a precizat purtătorul de cuvânt al Inspectoratului de Poliție Județean Teleorman, Adrian Ilicea, luni, în cadrul unui **briefing**, mai mult de o treime dintre şoferi au fost penalizați pentru depăşirea vitezei legale, alte sancțiuni fiind pentru neacordarea priorității, traversarea neregulamentară de către pietoni, nepurtarea centurii de ... (*Rompres*)

Primarii vecini cu Poligonul Babadag, în discuții cu americanii - În ajunul **briefingului** de presă care are loc astăzi la Baza aeriană Mihail Kogălniceanu-Constanța, americanii au invitat la discuții primarii din Babadag (Ioan Dardac), Sarichioi (Mihail Sasna) şi Jurilovca (Virgil Vlaiciu), localități situate în imediata vecinătate a poligonului, pentru ca împreună să găsească o soluție la nemulțumirile localnicilor legate de bubuiturile din timpul antrenamentelor de luptă ... (*Obiectiv*)

Largement répandu en français, le terme fait son apparition dans la presse surtout avec son acception de *réunion d'information*. Dans la presse roumaine nous avons affaire à une expression déjà consacrée, voire *briefing de presă*, le sens du mot étant nettement réduit. Le mot peut apparaître en dehors de la presse sous d'autres acceptions, mais lors de la traduction d'un article de presse français, le contexte roumain où apparaîtra le mot *briefing* doit être plus circonstancié.

Nous n'allons plus insister là-dessus, mais nous mentionnons quelques mots omniprésents dans la presse française qui apparaissent aussi dans la presse roumaine, où la traduction ne semble pas poser de problèmes, puisque la presse roumaine aussi a emprunté ces termes, avec le même sens et les mêmes contextes d'emploi. Ce sont des mots que nous avons trouvés dans presque chaque publication consultée. Nous tenons à remarquer aussi que les traductions faites par nos étudiants ont gardé les anglicismes dans la langue-cible :

- **discount, zoom, dealer, leader, high-tech, blog, boom, tuning, background, sponsor, loft, timing**

3.2. Nous avons mentionné jusqu'ici des exemples de mots qui existent déjà dans le dictionnaire et qu'on retrouve aussi en roumain, y inclus dans les dictionnaires. Mais il y a aussi des termes adoptés par le français et utilisés fréquemment que le roumain n'utilise pas ou ne connaît même pas, cas où la traduction utilise soit des mots déjà existants, soit des paraphrases avec des mots empruntés.

- **Relooker, relooké, relookée**

Timberland rhabille les ouvriers de Vinci 19/01/2008 – C'est lui qui **a relooké** les tenues de travail destinées aux 26 000 salariés de la branche construction de Vinci. Parkas, vestes, tee-shirts, laines polaires, pantalons, ceintures, sacs: tout a été repensé afin d'allier esthétique, confort et sécurité. " L'époque du bleu de travail est révolue ...
Le salon de Detroit vire-t-il au vert? 11/01/2008 - Mercedes dévoilera sa SLK **relookée**, Subaru, son nouveau Forester, Volkswagen, son coupé Passat. Detroit est enfin l'endroit où certains genres et modes se lancent. ...
Profiter des soldes sur internet 08/01/2008 - Le site de la chaîne de prêt-à-porter, Etam.com, démarre ainsi les soldes mercredi à 9h en mettant en ligne pour l'occasion un site **relooké**. " Nous disposons d'un stock spécial, dédié aux clientes du site, affirme David Horain. ...
Accor ouvre son premier hôtel à Monaco 05/12/2007 - " Il s'agit d'un Novotel dernière génération " **relooké** " par Philippe Starck, adapté au tourisme d'affaires et aux familles, explique Maxime Castellini, porte-parole de l'office de tourisme de Monaco. Cela complète bien l'offre de la Principauté et ne dévalorise pas son image. ...

Bien que le français dispose d'équivalent pour ce terme, le verbe et son participe se retrouvent dans n'importe quel article de presse. Le lecteur roumain pourrait comprendre facilement le concept, puisque le mot *look* existe déjà dans le langage courant. Pourtant, adapter ce terme au roumain est ressenti comme non-naturel; une adaptation libre circule sur les forums non-officiels, faisant partie du langage familier. La presse roumaine ne l'utilise point, employant soit des paraphrases, soit des synonymes. La traduction de l'article de presse n'utilisera donc en aucun cas le mot emprunté tel quel, sinon une paraphrase avec un mot emprunté, *un nou look*, *schimbare de look* ou un mot existant déjà dans la langue.

> Compania a anunțat în luna martie că va aloca cel puțin două milioane de euro pentru a **reamenaja** spațiul fostului magazin Univers'All (*Gândul*)
> *Ce se găseşte" dincolo "* Other Side (of Expirat, intrarea prin) Lipscani 5 0723.027.441. Mai multe cluburi s-au aflat în ultima vreme în febra renovărilor. Printre ele şi Expirat, care pe lângă **un nou look**, s-a şi mărit, adăugând ca " anexă " un nou club: Other Side of Expirat. (*Adevărul*)
> *Fotoinfo* - ***Schimbare de look*** 03. 12. 2007 - Acum, că este sigură că va deveni premier al Ucrainei, iar epoca în care era sufletul revoluției este deja istorie, Iulia Timoşenko s-a hotărât să renunțe la simboluri. Regina gazului a renunțat la coada împletită care a făcut-o celebră. (*Adevărul*)

- **Scoop**

> *Le XV de France se donne en spectacle* 09/02/2008 - Mais ce n'est pas **un scoop**, ces 80 000 supporteurs sont également impatients et versatiles. Que leurs attentes soient déçues, que le récital se transforme en cacophonie, et la sanction tombera des gradins. ...
> *Les régimes spéciaux cotiseront 41 ans en 2016* 26/12/2007 - Pour Jean-Christophe Le Duigou, en charge du dossier des retraites à la CGT, " **le scoop** de cette annonce, ce n'est pas qu'il s'agit d'une mesure sur les régimes spéciaux mais que dès 2008, un allongement de la durée de cotisation est prévu pour le privé et le public ". " Il n'y a aucune ...
> *La presse people dénonce le double jeu des stars* 19/12/2007 - Son idylle avec le président est **un** tel **scoop** que Voici et Closer devraient sortir une édition spéciale dans les prochaines heures. La championne de natation Laure Manaudou pourrait aussi défrayer la chronique si ses photos nues, façon Paris Hilton, mises en ligne, dit-on, peut-être, par un ex... (*Le Figaro*)

A l'instar de l'exemple antérieur, *scoop* est depuis longtemps présent dans les rubriques des journaux français. A différence de *relooker*, ce terme n'est pas un concept directement accessible au lecteur roumain, à l'exception des lecteurs calés en anglais. Le terme n'apparaît ni sous forme exacte, ni sous forme dérivée dans la presse roumaine. Pour traduire donc il faudra faire appel à un dictionnaire pour identifier le sens du mot et trouver ensuite l'équivalent en roumain *ştire senzațională*, *ştire de senzație, ştire la prima mână*, *ştire în exclusivitate,* etc.

Rubrique dédiée aux lecteurs - Un cetățean 24.01.08 - Nu este prima oară când un ziarist dă **o ştire de " senzație "** apoi o dezminte. Domnilor redactori şefi şi directori de publicații : la dvs. când începe reformarea sistemului?
Accident de circulație provocat de un polițist - 25.05.05 - Un eveniment rutier banal, soldat cu stricăciuni minore, petrecut vineri dimineață în apropierea localității Leorda, nu mai reprezintă de mult **o ştire de senzație.** Oarecum inedit în cazul de față este doar faptul că accidentul l-a avut ca principal autor pe agentul Bogdan S., lucrător în cadrul Postului de Poliție Vorona. (*Jurnalul de Botoşani şi Dorohoi*)

- **Customiser**

Customisez *votre papier peint* - On étoffe les fleurs du papier en y collant des pétales et des feuilles en tissu. On peut aussi les fixer avec de l'adhésif double face. La Droguerie, 9, rue du Jour, Paris-1er, et dans les merceries. On redessine les contours des fleurs du papier avec un gel-colle pailleté comme la Glitter Glue de Uhu. Dans les magasins de loisirs créatifs ou de bricolage. (*Elle*)
Customisez *votre vaisselle* - titre de rubrique (*Femme actuelle*)
Urbaines, le sens de la réplique 05/10/2007 - La 500 est à l'image de sa clé de contact que l'on pourra **customiser** au choix avec une douzaine de décors pour l'instant, à la façon des coques de téléphones portables. L'appropriation est ici beaucoup plus grande qu'avec une voiture traditionnelle. ... (*Le Figaro*)

Ce terme n'apparaît pas dans la presse roumaine. Il peut être retrouvé sur les forums, en langage familier, ou sur les sites du domaine technique sous la forme *a customiza*. Son correspondent serait *a personaliza*, *a-şi pune amprenta pe*, etc. Ne pas le traduire et utiliser la variante *a customiza* dans la presse serait forcé et non-naturel[12].

- **People**

Ce terme est un des termes les plus en vogue dans la presse actuelle française. Il fait d'ailleurs référence à la presse même, puisqu'il désigne un certain segment des publications, la *presse people*.
SMS: Carla Bruni-Sarkozy s'excuse pour sa phrase choc 13/02/2008 - Interrogée sur l'affaire du SMS publié par le site internet du Nouvel Observateur, elle livre cette réponse : " À travers son site Internet, Le Nouvel Observateur a fait son entrée dans **la presse people**. Si ce genre de sites avait existé pendant la guerre, qu'en aurait-il été des dénonciations...
Cinéma : ensemble, c'est tout 08/02/2008 - A l'heure où **la presse people** fait recette, les réalisateurs profiteraient-ils du voyeurisme ambiant pour vendre leurs films ? Les premiers exemples ne datent pas d'hier. ...

[12] Du moins pour le moment. Il serait difficile d'imposer un mot que seul un nombre très réduit de personnes utilisent.

Mondadori : en 2008 "Closer" sera rentable 08/02/2008 - Sur le marché de **la presse people**, Closer, qui a rénové sa maquette l'année dernière, a enregistré une hausse de sa diffusion de 20 % par rapport à 2006 qui lui permet de franchir le cap des 500 000 exemplaires en moyenne. Créé il y a deux ans, le titre a équilibré ses comptes en décembre et "...
L'ami retrouvé 07/02/2008 - Il adorait à la fois Dallas et Cyrano de Bergerac, avait la faculté de feuilleter, en même temps, **la presse people** et les Confessions de saint Augustin. Il avait l'âme aristocratique, et un coeur de midinette. " ... (*Le Figaro*)

Bien que le terme anglais ne pose pas de problèmes de compréhension, l'expression en soi n'existe pas dans la langue roumaine. La traduction pose un problème pragmatique : par *presa people* ou *reviste people* on ne transmet pas le message au lecteur, on risque, au contraire, de l'induire en erreur, puisque le rapprochement de ces termes ferait penser plutôt à la revue *People*. Les exemples incluant *people* que nous avons cherchés sur Internet font d'ailleurs en totalité référence à la revue, une seule, pas à une catégorie. Pour le moment, la presse roumaine utilise *presă mondenă* ou même *tabloide*. L'utilisation de *people* avec ce sens est, pour le moment, complètement inconnue. Les exemples mentionnés sont des cas très rares où la traduction d'un article de presse devra s'occuper aussi de la traduction d'un anglicisme.

3.3. Pour ce dernier point nous allons nous occuper des mots qui n'apparaissent pas dans les dictionnaires, mais qui sont employés fréquemment et obéissent aux règles grammaticales du français. Nous n'allons retenir que deux exemples incontournables.

- **Oscarisé,-e**

Une fresque érotico romanesque dans le Shanghaï des années 1940 15/01/2008 - Ang Lee, cinéaste né à Taïwan, installé aux États-Unis depuis trente ans, **oscarisé** pour Le Secret de Brokeback Mountain est revenu sur la terre de ses ancêtres pour tourner Lust Caution dans les studios de Shanghaï. " Un tournage épuisant parce qu'il fallait sans arrêt se battre. J'ai failli ... (*Le Figaro*)
De vrais faux acteurs pour les ordinateurs 21/11/2007- Le producteur Steve Starkey accompagne Robert Zemeckis depuis vingt ans dans ses aventures cinématographiques et technologiques, de Qui veut la peau de Roger Rabbit ?, dans lequel les humains côtoyaient des personnages de cartoons, au très **oscarisé** Forest Gump, où Tom Hanks croisait Kennedy,... ...(*Le Figaro*)
Affleck, les égouts et les couleurs 26/12/2007 - Il a adapté son roman favori, Gone Baby Gone de Dennis Lehane, également auteur de l'**oscarisé** Mystic River de Clint Eastwood. Il a choisi son frère Casey comme comédien principal et a, en conformité avec le roman, situé l'action de ce polar noir comme la cheminée à Boston. ... (*La Libération*)

Concept accessible au lecteur roumain, tout comme *relooker*, ce terme n’existe pourtant ni dans la presse, ni dans le langage familier (*a oscariza*). La presse roumaine emploie souvent des syntagmes ayant ce sens : *câştigător/oare al/a unui Oscar, premiat/ă cu Oscar*. Bien qu’omniprésent dans la presse roumaine, le terme Oscar n’a mené à aucune invention langagière. La traduction devra donc tenir compte de ce fait et trouver d’autres moyens d’expression[13] :

> *Lost in translation* - Lost in Translation” (tradus pentru ecranele româneşti „Rătăciți printre cuvinte”) - filmul care va fi distribuit de EVZ pe DVD miercuri, 16 ianuarie - a fost **premiat cu un** Oscar pentru scenariu original şi a fost nominalizat de Academia Americană de Film pentru Cel mai bun actor într-un rol principal (Bill Murray), pentru Cel mai bun regizor (Sofia Coppola) şi pentru Cel mai bun film. (*Evenimentul Zilei*)
>
> Potrivit unui articol Associated Press, există însă şi alți actori care aproape că nu au mai fost văzuți pe marile ecrane după victoria de la Oscaruri. Halle Berry, Faye Dunaway şi Liza Minnelli au **câştigat Premiul Oscar** pentru Cea mai bună actriță, iar imediat după au primit Premiul Razzie (" Zmeura de aur "), versiunea opusă Oscarurilor, care " premiază " cele mai proaste filme sau prestații actoriceşti. (*Evenimentul Zilei*).

- **Fashion**

> *La presse féminine lâche du leste* 11/02/2008 - Voici affirmée une version féminine : personnalisation de la rédaction, nos Juliettes (référence à Shakespeare, sic) se mettent à nu " en partageant leurs fantasmes et expériences culturelles, leurs envies **fashion**, leurs coups de coeur shopping et culturels ". Il y a Claire " la féline ", ... (*La Libération*)
>
> ***Fashion** addict* - titre de rubrique (*La Libération*)
>
> ***Fashion** cruella* - Dommage que ce documentaire trépidant joue les paillettes plus que l’info fouillée. Un rapide écho sur son enfance anglaise - son journaliste de père, surnommé « Charly le glaçon » tant il était froid, continue à animer sa conférence de rédaction alors qu’on vient de lui annoncer la mort accidentelle de son fils de 10 ans - explique peut-être qu’elle ne s’embarrasse pas de sentiments, et qu’à 58 ans, elle soit toujours «la dame du premier rang» aux défilés. Petit pantin en jupon **fashion** qui excelle à manipuler qui veut bien l’être. Cercle vicieux. Non, diabolique. (*Le Nouvel Observateur*)
>
> *L’iPhone, c’est l’iPod de demain* - Maintenant, si l’iPhone est présenté comme aussi révolutionnaire, c’est du fait d’Apple. Les produits de cette marque sont réputés pour leur design, très " **fashion** ", autant que pour leur ergonomie, leur facilité d'utilisation. Par ailleurs, notez la qualité de leur service marketing. (*Le Nouvel Observateur*)

[13] Pour la petite anecdote, nous précisons que notre recherche sur Internet a mené quand même à un seul résultat. En fait, rencontrant quelque part le mot en question, l’auteur d’un message posté sur un forum se pose d’une manière nettement ironique la question de la justification de cet anglicisme, affirmant que l’adjectif participial créé en roumain, *oscarizat,* désignerait par sa sonorité un traitement brutal appliqué à une personne!

Présent surtout dans les rubriques mondaines, beauté, société et mode des journaux, ce terme, équivalent de *mode, être à la mode*, *dernier cri*, etc. semble être utilisé par des rédacteurs qui ont pleine conscience de l'origine anglaise du mot. Le contexte où il apparaît est toujours empreint d'une nuance d'ironie ou qui désire nettement transmettre une idée de sophistication.

La presse roumaine en échange utilise ce terme surtout dans des expressions qui ont référence directe au monde de la mode et qui sont copiées directement de la langue anglaise : *Fashion Week*, *fashion addict*, *low cost fashion*, etc. Le terme *fashion* n'est pas utilisé en tant que synonyme de *être à la mode*, *être dans les tendances*, etc., et il n'a aucunement une valeur adjectivale, ni même dans les publications spécialisées dans le vestimentaire. La presse préfère les expressions synonymes *a fi la modă*, *a fi în tendințe* ou même une autre paraphrase qui utilise des mots empruntés, *a fi trendy*, *a fi în trend*. Avec cette acception, le terme *fashion* n'est pas encore entré dans le langage courent des rédacteurs.

Les seuls exemples où le terme apparaît avec valeur adjectivale sont tirés du domaine de la téléphonie mobile et ils sont extrêmement rares. N'oublions pas aussi que dans ce domaine les anglicismes sont très fréquents, tout comme dans le domaine de l'informatique.

> Nokia 7900 Crystal Prism, un **fashion** redefinit - Nokia 7900 Crystal Prism este ultimul telefon **fashion** finlandez (nu ultima noutate, ci un 7900 reinventat), ale cărui forme în relief şi culori poartă amprenta designer-ului Frederique Daubal. (Gândul)
> Samsung şi Armani vor produce un telefon **fashion** - Samsung se concentrează din ce în ce mai mult pe segmentul **fashion** de telefoane mobile. După mai multe modele precum U600 prezentat ieri, producătorul coreean a încheiat un parteneriat cu Armani pentru dezvoltarea unui nou telefon **fashion**. (Gândul)

4. Conclusions

Le nombre et la fréquence des anglicismes varient en fonction de nombreux facteurs, parmi lesquels les catégories d'âge, l'environnement, l'éducation, la spécialisation et, évidemment, les médias. Sans insister sur cette présence qui nous met mal à l'aise, nous devons remarquer que l'invasion des anglicismes semble être déjà arrivée à son fin, ce qui s'expliquerait par la présence de plus en plus forte de réviseurs compétents. Sans prétendre être des spécialistes dans les mécanismes psychologiques et sociaux de l'apparition et propagation des anglicismes, il nous semble que, par rapport aux années précédentes, il y a assez peu de mots anglais qui s'imposent. Malheureusement, la résistance de la langue roumaine aux anglicismes est nettement moindre. Il nous semble évident que dans le contexte culturel de notre pays, les médias font la règle en matière d'anglicismes.

Après avoir rapidement passé en revue les anglicismes les plus fréquents dans la presse française et roumaine et vu nos résultats obtenus en classe avec les étudiants, nous pouvons affirmer que, lorsqu'il s'agit de traduire des anglicismes du français vers le roumain, la tendance est de garder les anglicismes dans la langue-cible. De nombreux anglicismes possèdent des équivalents français ou romains. Leur emploi ne provient donc pas du manque de concept lexicalisé en français ou en roumain, mais l'unification du vocabulaire rend plus à l'aise la transmission des connaissances des domaines qui ont une évolution très rapide. Il ne faut pas négliger non plus la tendance à utiliser des mots à sens général et des mots tout simplement plus courts que leur équivalent dans la langue-cible, de même que la fonction appellative du texte, où l'effet des anglicismes est nettement pris en compte. Si l'on regarde de plus près la presse roumaine, nous allons tout de suite remarquer la présence excessive des anglicismes, par rapport à la presse française[14].

En outre, il est à remarquer le fait que, tant dans le cas de la culture française, que dans le cas de la culture roumaine, il arrive seulement dans très peu de consulter des dictionnaires pour voir le sens d'un mot anglais. La médiatisation excessive de l'anglais, surtout dans le cas des jeunes et d'un segment de la population entre 20 et 35 ans, leur permet de comprendre tout de suite ce que les anglicismes en question expriment sans qu'ils aient besoin de faire des efforts pour trouver un mot correspondant en français ou en roumain.

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[14] Il arrive même qu'un terme français soit traduit par un anglicisme en roumain, mais ceci constituera l'objet d'une autre étude.

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VALORI E FUNZIONI DEL PASSATO PROSSIMO E DEL PASSATO REMOTO (ITALIANO E ROMENO A CONFRONTO)

ANAMARIA COLCERIU*

ABSTRACT. The paper sets out to illustrate the equivalents of two verb tenses (simple past tense and present perfect tense) in translating from Italian into Romanian with regard to their function within specific verbal paradigms. With this end in view, we compare the usage of the tenses in question in a corpus of literary, historical-bibliographic and media texts.

Keywords: translation practice, Italian tense passato prossimo, Italian tense passato remoto, verbal paradigms, functions

La traduzione, secondo una nota definizione, consiste nel trovare le equivalenze tra la lingua di partenza e la lingua d'arrivo a livello sintattico, semantico e pragmatico. Si tratta, allo stesso tempo, di un approccio linguistico (che riguarda le equivalenze sintattico-semantiche) e di un approccio discorsivo-testuale e funzionalista, che riguarda anche e soprattutto l'aspetto pragmatico.

L'equivalenza non dovrebbe essere percepita, però, nei termini della sinonimia. Siccome ogni lingua ha una propria visione del mondo, la sinonimia "secca" non esiste. Ci resta la prova più difficile, quella della negoziazione del senso (cf. Eco 2003: 9-56), attraverso tutte e tre le tappe elencate prima.

A seconda dell'appartenenza delle due lingue (alla stessa famiglia linguistica o a famiglie differenti), la negoziazione può riguardare solo alcuni aspetti culturali (i primi che differiscono anche nel caso di due lingue parenti) o estendersi addirittura a livello delle strutture formali (morfo-sintattiche).

Il nostro lavoro si propone di mostrare qual è il comportamento dei sistemi verbali di due lingue appartenenti alla stessa famiglia (le lingue romanze) - l'italiano e il romeno - all'interno del processo della traduzione, partendo dalla domanda: per quanto riguarda il sistema dei tempi verbali delle due lingue, un'equivalenza formale corrisponde o no ad un'equivalenza semantica? Vedremo che, nonostante si tratti di due lingue con sistemi (e paradigmi) temporali quasi identici, non sempre un'equivalenza semantica implica un'equivalenza formale. D'altro canto, nel contesto di una corrispondenza funzionale delle forme temporali italiana e romena, il cambiamento, nella traduzione, della forma verbale del testo di partenza (l'italiano) porta ad un cambiamento di significato nella lingua d'arrivo (il romeno), il che contravviene alle regole e ai principi della traduzione.

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1. Equivalenza dei tempi verbali nell'italiano e nel romeno

La maggior parte dei tipi discorsivi presenta, generalmente, un'equivalenza verbale, formale e semantica, tra il romeno e l'italiano. Passiamo in rassegna i tratti semantici dei due sistemi verbali. I parametri temporali a seconda dei quali viene costruito l'intero sistema sono: il presente, come momento del discorso, il punto di riferimento e l'avvenimento. All'interno del sistema verbale si creano due serie di relazioni, che danno vita a due assi: passato, presente, futuro (rapporto punto di riferimento - presente) e anteriorità, simultaneità, posteriorità (rapporto punto di riferimento - avvenimento) (cf. Uricaru: 2003). Ci soffermeremo in questa sede solo sui valori di due dei tempi passati, il passato prossimo e il passato remoto, delineando i contesti in cui appaiono e descrivendo il loro comportamento nel passaggio dall'italiano al romeno.

1.1. Passato prossimo e passato remoto; appartenenza a due paradigmi diversi

A seconda della presenza o dell'assenza di un rapporto con il momento dell'enunciazione, possiamo parlare di due paradigmi verbali: quello del discorso (cf.. Benveniste: 2000) o del commentario (cf. Weinrich: 1964) e quello della storia (Benveniste: 2000) o del racconto (Weinrich: 1964).

L'enunciazione, in quanto realizzazione concreta di una frase da parte di un soggetto (parlante) determinato, in un certo luogo e in un certo momento (Ducrot, Schaeffer: 1996, 470), appoggia su tre istanze deittiche: *io, adesso, qui* (deissi personale e spazio-temporale). L'*io* partecipa all'evento o ne è testimone. *Io*, e il suo correlativo discorsivo *tu*, i deittici temporali e quelli spaziali, sono le forme "autobiografiche" per eccelenza (cf. Benveniste: 2000, 228). La terza persona ha qui solo un ruolo oppositivo rispetto alle prime due persone, segnando l'assenza dei terzi dal contesto enunciativo.

All'interno della storia, la terza persona domina in assoluto, la prima e la seconda sono del tutto assenti. La storia (il racconto) è incentrata sulla narrazione, sull'evento accaduto in un passato ben delineato, oggettivato. Il tempo verbale specifico del racconto è il passato remoto, tempo dell'avvenimento, che esclude la presenza del narratore (cf. Benveniste: 2000, 230). Il corrispondente del passato remoto sul piano discorsivo è il passato prossimo, che offre l'informazione temporale ('si tratta di una cosa passata') e qualcosa in più. Questa carica semantica supplementare è dovuta al suo continuo rapportarsi al momento dell'enunciazione, ad un presente proteiforme, al continuo susseguirsi di *adesso* e *qui*.

Il passato prossimo, l'imperfetto e il trapassato prossimo, a cui si aggiunge un tempo prospettico (il futuro nel passato, reso attraverso il condizionale passato) sono i tempi esclusivi del racconto. Il discorso può fare uso di qualsiasi tempo verbale, tranne il passato remoto, le cui caratteristiche escludono una relazione con il presente dell'enunciazione.

1.2. Passato prossimo e passato remoto: funzioni identiche a quelle degli stessi tempi verbali del romeno ('perfectul compus' e 'perfectul simplu')

Nei contesti in cui l'italiano e il romeno utilizzano i due paradigmi con funzioni e significati equivalenti, è necessario far corrispondere a un passato prossimo 'perfectul compus' e al passato remoto 'perfectul simplu'.

L'inizio di un famoso racconto di Dino Buzzati, *I sette messaggeri*, rappresenta un campione testuale idoneo a illustrare il passaggio dal presente al passato prossimo e poi al passato remoto, dal piano dell'enunciazione al piano della storia, in un andirivieni caratteristico dei testi letterari. "*Partito ad esplorare il regno di mio padre, di giorno in giorno vado allontanandomi dalla città e le notizie che mi giungono si fanno sempre più rare*" (Buzzati: 2001, 3). E' il primo paragrafo del racconto che delinea la situazione enunciativa: *io*, *adesso*, *qui*, il momento di una delle soste contemplative del personaggio-narratore. "***Ho cominciato*** *il viaggio poco più che trentenne e più di otto anni* ***sono passati****, esattamente otto anni, sei mesi e quindici giorni di ininterrotto cammino.* ***Credevo****, alla partenza, che in poche settimane* ***avrei*** *facilmente* ***raggiunto*** *i confini del regno, invece* ***ho continuato ad incontrare*** *sempre nuove genti e paesi; e dovunque uomini che* ***parlavano*** *la mia stessa lingua, che* ***dicevano*** *di essere sudditi miei*" (Buzzati: 2001, 3). Si tratta di un passaggio dominato da verbi al passato prossimo e all'imperfetto, ai quali si aggiunge un futuro nel passato ('avrei raggiunto'), elementi appartenenti al paradigma verbale specifico del piano enunciativo. Il quarto paragrafo segna il passaggio verso il mondo della storia propriamente detta, degli eventi oggettivati sullo sfondo di un passato racchiuso tra i propri confini. "*Ma più sovente mi tormenta il dubbio che questo confine non esista, che il regno si estenda senza limite alcuno e che, per quanto io avanzi, mai potrò arrivare alla fine. Mi* ***misi*** *in viaggio che avevo già più di trent'anni, troppo tardi forse. Gli amici, i familiari stessi* ***deridevano*** *il mio progetto come inutile dispendio degli anni migliori della vita. Pochi in realtà dei miei fedeli* ***acconsentirono*** *a partire*" (Buzzati: 2001, 3). E la serie dei verbi al passato remoto continua ('mi preoccupai', 'scelsi', 'mi accorsi' ecc.). Il passaggio verso il mondo della storia è quasi impercettibile. Nello stesso paragrafo, un periodo con verbi al presente e un verbo al futuro ('tormenta', 'non esista', 'si estenda', 'avanzi', 'potrò arrivare') viene seguito immediatamente da frasi con verbi al passato remoto. Siamo di fronte ad una frase ridondante, che riprende l'informazione di due paragrafi prima: "*Ho cominciato il viaggio poco più che trentenne*" rispetto a "*Mi* ***misi*** *in viaggio che avevo già più di trent'anni*". Il traduttore potrebbe essere tentato a usare in romeno il passato prossimo ('perfectul compus') come prima. Lo può trarre d'impaccio solo una buona conoscenza dei valori semantici e del funzionamento testuale dei due tempi del passato, che gli rendano chiaro il cambiamento del piano enunciativo e l'importanza del mantenimento del passato remoto nella lingua d'arrivo (nel romeno).

Conoscere il valore semantico delle diverse forme verbali aiuta a rendere le sfumature di significato spesse volte percepibili solo da parte di un lettore attento. (Sono però le sfumature a fare la differenza tra un ottimo traduttore e un buon traduttore!).

2. Passato prossimo e passato remoto nei saggi storico-biografici

L'uso dell'uno o dell'altro paradigma verbale è dovuto, poi, anche ad esigenze storico-sociali e stilistiche. L'italiano parlato registra ancora forme di passato remoto nell'Italia meridionale (vedi 'perfectul simplu' del romeno meridionale), mentre è scomparso del tutto dalla lingua colta degli italiani settentrionali.

Nell'italiano scritto, il passato remoto è usato nei saggi storico-biografici, nella letteratura, nel linguaggio giornalistico, nelle didascalie dei dialoghi (Serianni: 1989, 479). Se nel contesto letterario l'equivalenza dei tempi verbali non crea difficoltà, la traduzione di un saggio storico-biografico o di un articolo giornalistico ci porta ad una strada diversa.

A volte, a seconda del tipo testuale, malgrado la similitudine dei paradigmi e dei valori dei tempi verbali dell'italiano e del romeno, una funzione può essere attribuita a forme temporali diverse. I saggi storico-biografici italiani utilizzano come tempo verbale prediletto il passato remoto (con un'eccezione, sulla quale ci soffermeremo in seguito).

> Francesco Petrarca <u>nacque</u> ad Arezzo nel 1304. Figlio di un notaio fiorentino esiliato per motivi politici, fin da piccolo <u>fu costretto</u> a seguire i lunghi spostamenti del padre, che lo <u>portarono</u> prima in altre città toscane e poi ad Avignone, in Francia, dove all'epoca si era trasferito il Papato. Il suo primo maestro <u>fu</u> il dotto Convenevole di Prato, al cui magistero <u>seguirono</u> gli studi giuridici, presto oscurati dalla passione per i classici greci e latini. (www.icdonlorenzomilani.it/materiali)

> Critico e saggista, scrittore e semiologo di fama internazionale, Umberto Eco <u>è nato</u> al Alessandria il 5 gennaio 1932. Nel 1954 <u>si è laureato</u>, all'età di 22 anni, all'Università di Torino, con una tesi sul pensiero estetico di Tommaso d'Aquino. Nel 1956 <u>ha pubblicato</u> «Il problema estetico in San Tommaso» (volume edito in una seconda edizione riveduta e accresciuta nel 1970)". (www.italialibri.net/autori/ecou.html)

Nel primo frammento notiamo tutta una serie di verbi al passato remoto (alternati con un verbo al trapassato – 'si era trasferito'), mentre nel secondo, le vicende biografiche vengono elencate per mezzo di verbi al passato prossimo. Un tratto caratteristico dell'italiano moderno è l'opposizione tra 'è nato' (passato prossimo), usato nella biografia di una persona vivente, e 'nacque' (passato remoto), usato nelle biografie dei defunti, non importa quale sia la distanza nel tempo rispetto al presente. Una spiegazione, basata su argomenti semantici, potrebbe esserci: il passato remoto, in quanto tempo verbale che indica azioni racchiuse in un passato circoscritto, è la forma migliore per descrivere un'esistenza compiuta, racchiusa anch'essa tra due confini (la nascita e la morte). La biografia di una persona vivente indica sempre un percorso che parte dalla nascita per "sfociare" nel presente, senza aver raggiunto ancora il margine, la chiusura del cerchio.

Il romeno, invece, non fa questa distinzione: sia che si tratti della biografia di una persona scomparsa, sia della biografia di una persona vivente, il tempo verbale utilizzato è il passato prossimo.

> S-a născut la Lancrăm, lângă Alba Iulia, fiind al nouălea copil al unei familii de preoți. Copilăria i-a stat, după cum mărturiseşte el însuşi, "sub semnul unei fabuloase absențe a cuvântului", viitorul poet – care se va autodefini mai târziu într-un vers celebru "Lucian Blaga e mut ca o lebădă" – neputând să vorbească până la vârsta de patru ani.
> (http://ro.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lucian_Blaga)

> S-a nascut la 1 iunie 1956 in Bucuresti. Dupa terminarea liceului ("Dimitrie Cantemir" din Capitala), a devenit student la Facultatea de Limba si Literatura Romana a Universitatii din Bucuresti, pe care a absolvit-o in 1980. Intre 1980 si 1989 a fost profesor de romana la o scoala generala, apoi functionar la Uniunea Scriitorilor si redactor la revista Caiete critice.
> (http://www.librariilehumanitas.ro/author)

Abbiamo, dunque, da un lato (in italiano), due forme che hanno la stessa funzione (con una sfumatura di significato aggiuntiva, ma non assolutamente necessaria), e, dall’altro, un’unica forma che ricopre una sola funzione, con un’unica carica semantica.

3. Passato prossimo e passato remoto nei testi giornalistici

Nei testi giornalistici italiani appaiono tanto il passato prossimo, quanto il passato remoto, con funzioni simili (come lo si dimostrerà in seguito) a quelle che compiono nei testi letterari. Passiamo in rassegna alcuni esempi.

> **LONDRA** - Torna l'allarme terrorismo a Londra dopo che due autobombe sono state scoperte a distanza di parecchie ore. La prima è stata disinnescata dalla polizia britannica ad Haymarket, nel centro della capitale, nella mattinata di venerdì. Successivamente sono scattati altri allarmi per alcuni veicoli sospetti: si è rivelato infondato quello che aveva portato alla chiusura di Fleet Street, mentre un altro ordigno è stato rinvenuto all'interno di un'auto che si trovava in un parcheggio nei pressi di Park Lane. (“Corriere della sera”, 29 giugno 2007)

> **ATTENTATI DEL 2005** - Londra ripiomba dunque nell'incubo terrorismo a pochi giorni dal secondo anniversario degli attentati suicidi del 7 luglio 2005 contro autobus e convogli della metropolitana londinese, in cui furono uccise 52 persone e ferite oltre 700. (“Corriere della sera”, 29 giugno 2007)

Si tratta di due brani dello stesso articolo, che raccontano fatti avvenuti nel passato. L'uso del passato prossimo[1] (nel primo brano) e del passato remoto (nel secondo) potrebbe essere collegato alle due distanze temporali: nel primo caso si tratta di qualcosa avvenuto tre settimane prima, mentre nel secondo caso, di vicende avvenute due anni prima. Analizziamo altri brani per vedere se questa congettura si possa confermare o no.

> **GLI ANNI DELLA DITTATURA** - Pinochet fu presidente de facto del regime militare in Cile (1973-1990) e per quasi 25 capo di uno dei più temuti eserciti dell'America latina. Giunse a dichiarare: «In Cile non si muove una foglia senza che io lo sappia». Il suo allontanamento dalla presidenza cilena coincise con un referendum popolare che lui era sicuro di vincere il 5 ottobre 1988. Ma il risultato lo sorprese e amareggiò: il 42% disse sì alla sua permanenza e il 55,2% rispose invece no, e così il 10 marzo 1990 Pinochet uscì dalla Moneda, lasciando il posto al presidente democristiano Patricio Aylwin.
>
> **ARRESTI DOMICILIARI** - Liberato il 12 gennaio 2006, il 30 ottobre scorso Pinochet è stato posto nuovamente agli arresti domiciliari per i crimini della prigione segreta di Villa Grimaldi. Dieci giorni dopo è stato liberato dietro cauzione, ma il 27 novembre un giudice ha ordinato il suo arresto e gli arresti domiciliari per la vicenda della «Carovana della morte». Dal 3 di questo mese Pinochet era stato ricoverato nell'ospedale militare di Santiago del Cile per infarto. Le sue condizioni negli ultimi giorni sembravano essere migliorate, tanto che si era parlato di dimetterlo. Oggi la morte. ("Corriere della sera", 12 dicembre 2006)

Si tratta di un articolo che parla della morte del ex-dittatore cileno Augusto Pinochet, all'interno del quale vengono elencati gli avvenimenti più significativi della sua vita, in un brano storico-biografico strutturato sul paradigma del passato remoto. L'ultimo paragrafo del brano biografico (il secondo frammento) usa invece verbi al passato prossimo. Questo cambiamento di prospettiva sarà dovuto al cambiamento di distanza temporale? Si parla di fatti avvenuti nel 2006, e dunque più vicini al momento dell'enunciazione rispetto alle vicende del 1975-1990. Però, il passato remoto viene utilizzato anche quando si tratta degli anni 2000:

> Nel gennaio 2002, il giudice Juan Guzman, oggi in pensione, lo rinviò a giudizio [...] Ma un'intervista concessa da Pinochet ad una televisone di Miami nel dicembre 2003 riaprì il dibattito sulla lucidità dell'ex generale [...] E' proprio per i reati di evasione e frode fiscale ed uso di passaporti falsi che nel 2005 il giudice Carlos Cerda rinviò a giudizio l'ex generale [...] ... il 24 novembre 2005 il giudice Victor Montiglio annunciò il suo rinvio a giudizio per la cosiddetta Operazione Colombo. ("Corriere della sera", 12 dicembre 2006)

[1] In combinazione con un presente, un imperfetto e un trapassato.

Risulta abbastanza difficile stabilire, solo in base alla distanza temporale, il confine tra l'uso del passato remoto e quello del passato prossimo (cf. Serianni: 1989, 478-479). La soluzione migliore sarebbe quella di valutare i due paradigmi prendendo in considerazione il momento dell'enunciazione. Il passaggio dalla situazione enunciativa alla storia biografica propriamente detta risulta chiarissimo anche dagli elementi paratestuali: l'occhiello[2], il titolo, il sottotitolo.

L'occhiello accenna alla storia biografica: "*Dopo il colpo di stato che destituì Allende, fu al potere dal 1973 al 1990*". Il titolo ("*Cile: è morto il generale Augusto Pinochet*") e il sottotitolo ("*L'ex dittatore si è spento all'età di 91 anni per le conseguenze dell'infarto che lo aveva colpito il 3 dicembre scorso*") raccontano i fatti in stretto collegamento con il momento (presente) dell'enunciazione. Il brano che riporta informazioni sulle ultime vicende della vita di Pinochet ("*Liberato il 12 gennaio 2006, il 30 ottobre scorso Pinochet è stato posto nuovamente agli arresti domiciliari per i crimini della prigione segreta di Villa Grimaldi. Dieci giorni dopo è stato liberato dietro cauzione, ma il 27 novembre un giudice ha ordinato* [...]"), malgrado faccia parte della storia, della biografia del dittatore defunto (una storia conclusa), è legato al presente dell'enunciazione: l'articolo è incentrato, infatti, sui funerali dell'ex dittatore cileno, avvenuti il giorno stesso in cui era scritto l'articolo.

Il testo giornalistico romeno utilizza invece, in ambedue i casi, il 'perfect compus' (il passato prossimo), il 'perfect simplu' (il passato remoto) essendo il tempo della finzione narrativa per eccellenza.

Un articolo che racconta quanto avvenuto durante gli attentati terroristici di Londra, come il brano italiano di sopra, contiene solo verbi al passato prossimo ('perfectul compus').

> **Englezii nu-şi vor reveni curând din şocul trăit ieri-dimineață, când cel puțin şapte explozii de origine teroristă au lovit cu furie capitala.**
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> **PRIMA LOVITURĂ.** Coşmarul a început la ora locală 8:49, cu o deflagrație puternică la stația de metrou Aldgate. Martorii spun că au văzut imagini greu de descris. Imediat după zgomotul infernal produs de explozie, "răniți clătinându-se pe picioare" au început să iasă la suprafață, acoperiți de sânge şi moloz. Sarah Reid, o studentă în vârstă de 23 de ani, a scăpat cu viață din infernul de la Aldgate. Ea a povestit că, în vreme ce fugea, pe şine, de la locul atentatului, a văzut, în fugă, un vagon de metrou făcut bucăți, al cărui acoperiş fusese smuls în întregime de explozie. („Jurnalul național", 7 iulie 2005).

Tranne ad aver puntato sui valori e sulle funzioni del passato prossimo e del passato remoto in alcuni tipi di testo dell'italiano e del romeno e sul loro comportamento

[2] In un articolo, l'occhiello rappresenta la frase di lunghezza non superiore a una riga, e di giustezza e corpo inferiori al titolo che la segue.

durante la traduzione, il nostro percorso ha avuto anche l'intenzione di mettere in luce la necessità di conoscere i valori semantici dei diversi elementi della frase e di acquisire le competenze che consentano l'analisi e la produzione delle varie tipologie testuali. L'apprendimento di una lingua straniera dovrebbe essere sempre raddoppiato da un percorso linguistico teorico basilare, che faciliti la comprensione del funzionamento delle diverse categorie del testo/discorso.

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METHODES ET ALGORITHMES DANS LES PROCESSUS DE CATEGORISATION ET D'EXTRACTION DES INFORMATIONS

MANUELA MIHĂESCU*, **SANDA CHERATA****

ABSTRACT. Data (texts) structure and formats are major factors in their handling and querying. Processing the information contained in various texts implies performing actions on documents parameters, as well as using a controlled language. Once created, the documents may be subjects of automatic procedures based on linguistic processes such as: classifying/categorization, automatic summarization, information extraction, information retrieval, machine translation, etc. This paper presents some aspects of natural language processing and modeling implied in applications of great interest in documents processing: searching/ retrieval, information extraction and categorization.

Keywords: natural language processing, classifications, information retrieval

Les nouvelles technologies, notamment celles qui sont impliquées dans la communication, ont permis l'approche d'une grande quantité d'information, cependant que l'accès à celle-ci suppose de moins en moins de difficultés pour l'utilisateur. Cela étant, une nouvelle perspective sur les méthodes de traitement a dû être envisagée.

Dans les processus de traitement de l'information les signes, surtout les signes linguistiques (écrits ou oraux), ont un rôle principal parce que, par leur biais, «l'information devient objet d'analyse» (Golu, 1975: 160) et, par leur combinaison, on peut rendre, plus facilement, le contenu quantitatif et qualitatif de celle-ci. De plus, le développement d'Internet et des technologies web a mis à la disposition des utilisateurs une vaste quantité d'information, la plupart sous forme de signes linguistiques organisés dans des textes/documents[1].

Grâce aux recherches les plus récentes dans le domaine de traitement du langage naturel, on peut réaliser, sur les documents, plusieurs opérations comme: l'annotation, l'extraction d'informations pertinentes et la création des bases de connaissances structurées (l'ingénierie de la connaissance). De vraies technologies de recherche/découverte d'information, d'extraction et de catégorisation de celle-ci se sont développées dans un intervalle de temps en somme assez court.

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[1] Le terme *texte* désigne ici un ensemble de données plus ou moins structurées, cependant que le terme *document* s'applique à un ensemble de données structurées.

Les techniques utilisées dans ces processus se basent non seulement sur des modèles des grammaires génératives (grammaire des constituants, grammaire transformationnelle, grammaire d'unification, etc.), mais aussi sur des modèles mathématiques (surtout le modèle de la chaîne Markov et le modèle Markov caché), dans lesquels la structure des séquences s'établit, à partir d'un état initial, - et en appliquant des règles et des contraintes, par des choix successifs (le cas de l'analyse syntaxique), ou, par une analyse structurelle (analyse morphologique). Lors de la recherche d'information on utilise fréquemment aussi les méthodes statistiques qui sont très efficaces (si l'on parle de grands corpus de textes).

Le langage, représentation et concepts

Considéré comme un système de signes et de règles, le langage peut être analysé autant au niveau du signe de codification (niveau informationnel - statistique), qu'au niveau des règles de combinaison de ces signes, par les relations syntaxiques, sémantiques et pragmatiques (niveau relationnel). En accord avec les théories linguistiques, le langage humain peut être caractérisé (Chomsky, 1969, 1996; Vasiliu, 1970 ; Saussure, 1998) par:

- les signes (unité de base) qui constituent le langage et qui ont un caractère arbitraire; ils sont des signes de nature symbolique (caractère arbitraire du lien entre signifiant/signifié);
- le mode de combinaison/recombinaison entre ces signes (l'aspect syntaxique et morphologique), très important pour la construction du sens;
- le caractère relationnel des signes linguistiques; la plupart des mots sont polysémiques;
- des règles de composition (de ces unités) par lesquelles les mots s'organisent en proposition; le nombre de propositions correctes (ou acceptées/acceptable) est théoriquement infini.

À partir de ces principes, les recherches sur le traitement du langage peuvent avoir deux perspectives (Jackson, Moulinier, 2002): la première est basée sur les théories linguistiques traditionnelles qui étudient le langage employant les modèles des grammaires génératives et transformationnelles (recherche sur les règles par lesquelles les signes se combinent pour construire des énoncés). L'autre perspective est celle des analyses statistiques qui établissent des règles en retrouvant des modèles (reconnaissance des formes) à partir des probabilités des occurrences, utilisant de grands corpus. Cette méthode est considérée, parfois, comme une méthode empirique.

Conformément aux théories formelles, on peut analyser le langage par les signes linguistiques dont il est constitué. La modélisation de ces signes est faite par la grammaire, «l'instrument formel qui définit la relation entre le contenu et le sens d'une phrase», par des analyses syntaxiques et sémantiques, c'est-à-dire, par la combinaison et le calcul des interprétations. Dans la plupart des cas, ces règles sont traitées indépendamment d'éléments à traiter. Les modèles qui sont créés peuvent ainsi être appliqués au langage naturel. De plus, comme la linguistique formelle ne peut pas expliquer, à elle seule, la structure du langage, des *techniques d'inférences* (Tătar, 2003) ont été incorporées pour interpréter (en fait *calculer*) la signification des représentations. Ces techniques sont utilisées en relation avec les déductions logiques, la logique des prédicats, des méthodes de réduction, les formalismes sémantiques, etc.

Le traitement du langage naturel réfère aux technologies (logiciels et matériels) utilisées par des ordinateurs pour l'analyse et la synthèse du langage humain écrit et parlé. Si pour les langages artificiels, qui ne posent pas de problèmes d'ambiguïté ou d'influence des facteurs extralinguistiques, on peut créer facilement des grammaires formelles, dans le cas du langage naturel la situation est plus compliquée. Là on peut parler d'ambiguïté à tous les niveaux (lexico-morphologique, syntaxique et sémantique), mais aussi de dépendance du contexte, de *subjectivité*, d'*intentionnalité*. C'est pour cela que, dans les nouvelles recherches, on prend en considération tous ces facteurs en combinant les modèles génératifs avec les modèles mathématiques.

Les modèles mathématiques

Ces modèles[2] utilisés pour le traitement du langage sont basés, en général, sur des méthodes statistiques, ayant une grande efficacité, particulièrement pour l'étude du langage parlé (la synthèse ou la reconnaissance de la parole). Dans le domaine du langage écrit, ces modèles sont développés à la suite de l'apparition des corpus (de grands ensembles de textes) numérisés.

L'un des modèles les plus connus est le *Modèle Markov*[3] qui est utilisé, en général, pour la description de l'état d'un système dont la future évolution dépend des états précédents.

Dans les analyses grammaticales on utilise fréquemment le *Modèle Markov caché*~~,~~ (MMC) ou HMM – (*Hidden Markov Model*); celui-ci a un grand degré d'abstraction, incluant une structure cachée (avec des paramètres inconnus) qui peut être déterminée «par les paramètres observables». Le modèle est utilisé en général pour mesurer la probabilité qu'un système se trouve dans un certain état, la durée de cet état et aussi la probabilité de transition d'un état à l'autre. Dans les cas d'analyses linguistiques, le modèle Markov caché est utilisé pour la représentation de l'unité linguistique et le calcul de la probabilité d'une séquence particulière (par l'algorithme de Viterbi), aussi bien que pour retrouver l'ensemble d'états le plus probable et les probabilités des sorties pour chaque état (Manning, Schütze, 1999).

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[2] «Les modèles mathématiques de la langue sont des constructions qui retiennent certains aspects relationnels des phénomènes linguistiques» (Vraciu, 1980: 323).

[3] Le processus Markov est un processus aléatoire, dynamique, qui décrit l'état d'un système dont l'évolution future dépend strictement de l'état antérieur (Manning, Schütze, 1999).

Le Modèle Markov dans l'analyse syntaxique

«Syntax is the structure of the visible (or audible) forms of language» (Winograd, 1987). Dans sa définition la plus simple la syntaxe pourrait être considérée comme une analyse des mots (les constituants de base), et notamment, de la succession des mots (Cole, 1996), ou bien comme «un algorithme qui sait générer des séries d'éléments acceptables ou non-acceptables» (Eco, 2007: 236). On peut affirmer que pour être acceptables (corrects) certains mots sont conditionnés par d'autres. Une modalité de quantifier cette règle est celle d'utiliser une liste de *n-gramme*[4] qui est simplement une succession de *n* éléments. Si on prend n=2, on obtient des *bi-grammes*. Le plus souvent utilisé, pour les strategies de recherche des propositions correctes du point de vue lexical, c'est le *tri-gramme* (n=3) (Cole, 1996). Le principe de *n-gramme* est que le *n*-ième élément d'une suite ne dépend que des *n-1* ièmes qui le précèdent. Ainsi, dans le traitement d'un texte, si on identifie un certain mot, on dispose, grâce aux *bi-grammes*, par exemple, de la probabilité d'apparition du mot qui le suit immédiatement.

En utilisant ces méthodes de probabilités et de co-occurrence des mots pour des grands corpus, on peut retrouver la modalité d'organisation des mots en proposition. L'avantage de cette méthode est qu'elle couvre une grande diversité de langages en acceptant un vocabulaire étendu.

Une analyse syntaxique complète ne se réduit certainement pas à la modélisation de la succession des mots (Cole, 1996). La linguistique moderne considère que la syntaxe est une partie de la cognition (qui inclut aussi des processus cognitifs), et que, par ailleurs, la structure grammaticale est une «prémisse de la signification». Le modèle *n-gramme* n'est pas suffisant pour une analyse complète. Ainsi, intégre-t-on dans l'analyse syntaxique: le traitement des classes grammaticales (catégorie qui précise la fonction du mot dans la proposition), des règles de combinaisons, mais aussi, des méthodes de probabilité et stochastiques (Brown, P.F, et coll., 1992 ; Perraud, F., et coll., 2003). Le modèle MMC est fréquemment utilisé dans le système de reconnaissance de la parole (Manning, Schütze, 1999 ; Gales, Young, 2008), de reconnaissance des écritures manuscrites (OCR - *Optical Character Recongnition*), de même que dans les situations telles: la catégorisation, la transcription lexicale, la reconstruction de texte, etc.

Les modèles utilisés dans l'analyse sémantique

«*Semantics is the systematic relation between structures in a language and a space of potential meanings*» (Winograd, 1987). En ce qui concerne la sémantique du langage naturel il y a des recherches qui étudient la signification, la relation entre le mot et le sens du mot. L'objectif de ces études est de faire de sorte

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[4] Le *N-grame* constitue une sous-séquence de n-caractères, d'une suite de caractères (non espacés) (http://en.wikipedia.org). Le modèle est utilisé à large échelle dans les analyses statistiques du langage.

que les ordinateurs puissent déceler la signification correcte d'un mot, d'une proposition ou d'un discours.

À la différence de la syntaxe qui comprend la spécification d'un alphabet et des règles pour construire des énoncés corrects, la sémantique d'un langage peut être définie comme un «modèle» où elle peut être exprimée mathématiquement par une fonction qui «donne une valeur à une expression» (Moechler, Auchlin, 2005).

Montague affirme, par ailleurs, qu'il existe des ressemblances entre le langage naturel et le langage formel, dans le sens qu'on peut appliquer le principe de compositionnalité sémantique[5] pour le deux types de langages.

La description sémantique du langage peut être associée à un automate à l'état fini qui permet de préciser les conditions de «vérité» pour chaque élément du langage. L'analyse des propositions plus complexes peut être faite à partir des constituants de base que sont les mots et les morphèmes.

Les modèles de combinaison des constituants sont déterminés par la structure syntaxique. Il y a plusieurs applications qui sont basées sur les théories de Montague, qui associent pour chaque expression deux caractéristiques: l'expression et le sens de l'expression dans la phrase d'un côté, et de l'autre, une valeur de «vérité» d'une phrase (intentionnalité et extensionnalité). La sémantique du langage naturel (à la différence des langages artificiels) «n'est pas isomorphe avec la syntaxe», ce qui lui confère une certaine ambiguïté. Une phrase ambiguë, c'est une phrase dont la structure de surface est le produit d'au moins deux structures profondes» (Vasiliu, Golopenția, 1969; Moechler, Auchlin, 2005: 114). Les ambiguïtés peuvent donc apparaître à tous ces niveaux.

Pour la résolution des ambiguïtés lexico-morphologiques on emploie les méthodologies de désambiguïsation du sens du mot (*Word Sense Disambiguisation*) qui incorporent des techniques de catégorisation, et plus récemment, des techniques d'apprentissage inductif.

Le problème de désambiguïsation lexicale comporte différentes situations (Tătar, 2003 ; Mihalcea, Pedersen, 2005; Jurafsky, Martin, 2008). La plus simple est celle qui se réfère aux mots polysémiques, cas où on utilise des techniques de classification. L'algorithme employé pour la classification des mots polysémiques (verbes ou substantifs) calcule la probabilité d'apparition d'un mot dans un contexte considéré «le plus important».

Il y a des situations où l'apparition d'un mot est conditionnée par la présence d'un autre; par exemple dans un document structuré, le sens d'un mot est, en général, le même dans le document entier. Dans ce cas on peut facilement introduire des contraintes et des règles de combinaison. Un autre type de situation est celui où un mot est toujours accompagné par un autre mot, le «mot ciblé», ce

[5] Principe de compositionnalité: «Le sens d'un énoncé dépend du sens de ses parties et de la façon dont celles-ci sont combinées dans l'énoncé» (http://www.sir.blois.univ-tours.fr/~antoine/enseignement/tal/crs_semantique.pdf)

qui donne la possibilité de déterminer le sens, en fonction de la succession, la distance et la relation syntaxique. Le mot *co-occurrent* le plus fréquent est considéré la *collocation* la plus pertinente.

Les nouveaux systèmes de désambiguïsation du sens des mots emploient des techniques d'apprentissage inductif (Tătar, 2003) à partir des corpus de données désambiguïsées et annotées. Ces techniques permettent d'extraire, pour un mot donné, tous les contextes annotés avec le sens correct, en utilisant les *attributs contextuels*. Ces attributs peuvent être: des *collocations* – liées par un rapport de proximité syntaxique mais aussi par des positions bien déterminées à gauche ou à droite (en mesurant la distance entre deux éléments) ou des *co-apparitions* (*co-occurrences*) liées par un rapport de relation syntaxique mais avec une distance relative entre les mots. Dans ce cas on peut choisir comme attributs les plus fréquents *n* co-apparitions (co-occurrences) d'un mot.

On peut définir des «multi-ensembles» de mots, en calculant la probabilité de l'apparition d'un mot dans un certain contexte. Par exemple, pour le mot «mémoire», conformément au dictionnaire on peut y avoir plusieurs sens. Alors, on peut définir un ensemble avec les éléments: *écrit*, *sommaire, idée,* etc., qui donne le sens *s1*, et un autre ensemble d'éléments: *ordinateur*, *logiciel*, *données*, etc. qui peut donner un autre sens *s2*. Si le mot «mémoire» apparaît dans le même contexte que le mot ordinateur, on peut affirmer qu'il y a une grande probabilité que le sens du mot soit *s2*. La constitution des multi-ensembles peut être automatisée en employant les dictionnaires électroniques disponibles.

En ce qui concerne l'ambiguïté syntaxique, les situations les plus fréquentes sont celles qui se réfèrent aux subordonnées relatives et aux syntagmes prépositionnels. On peut déterminer, à l'aide des calculs probabilistiques, si un substantif ayant une signification établie est sujet ou complément pour un certain verbe. De plus, avec ces méthodes on peut déterminer la structure des syntagmes nominaux qui contiennent plusieurs syntagmes prépositionnels. Par exemple, pour le syntagme «machine à laver les pommes de terre à tambour» la structure attribuée sera [[machine [à laver les pommes de terre] [à tambour]]] et non l'autre variante [machine [à laver les pommes de terre [à tambour]].

Dans les analyses des propositions simples ces méthodes et modèles mathématiques ont une grande efficacité. Par contre, pour les propositions plus complexes, – les phrases, – d'autres problèmes spécifiques au langage naturel interviennent tels, par exemple, *l'anaphore*. Les problèmes de la résolution de l'anaphore ont une grande importance notamment dans le domaine de la traduction automatique, de la recherche/l'extraction des informations (pour l'indexation des documents), du résumé automatique, etc. Les algorithmes (Carbonell, Brown, 1988 ; Lappin, 1994 ; Mitkov, 1994 ; Mitkov, 1995) sont basés sur des méthodes traditionnelles (syntaxiques et sémantiques) qui sont combinées avec des méthodes plus récentes de la pragmatique et de la théorie du discours.

Processus de catégorisation et extraction des informations

L'information contenue dans un texte/document doit être présentée sous une forme intelligible pour que le texte/document soit facilement et correctement perçu. Dans l'exploitation de celui-ci il y a plusieurs étapes: la création, le traitement, la distribution et l'utilisation. Parmi les applications informatiques qui peuvent être utilisées dans le cas des documents, la *catégorisation* et l'*extraction* des informations sont très importantes et surtout, d'une grande actualité dans les recherches textuelles.

Le processus de catégorisation des textes

La catégorisation est l'un des processus fondamentaux de l'activité cognitive qui se manifeste dans l'activité du langage, notamment dans celle du raisonnement (Sarrasin, 2005). D'après Moechler et Auchlin (2005:51) la catégorisation signifie, en fait, l'assignation d'un objet (ou processus) à une classe d'objets (processus) ou à un ensemble de classes. Pour être catégorisés les objets ou processus doivent contenir toutes les propriétés de la classe (condition nécessaire et suffisante).

Les catégories peuvent être structurées selon une hiérarchie avec plusieurs niveaux: des niveaux généraux (donc plus abstraits) et des niveaux subordonnés (plus spécifiques). Les études ont montré que, parmi ces niveaux, le niveau de base est le plus utilisé parce qu'il contient le plus grand nombre d'attributs[6]. Il y a des recherches très sérieuses dans le domaine des sciences cognitives qui étudient la modalité par laquelle le cerveau humain utilise les processus de catégorisation pour les concepts dans divers contextes et la manière dont ces processus pourraient être automatisés (appliqués aux ordinateurs) (Sarrasin, 2005; Delacour, 2001).

À partir de cela, on peut considérer la méthode comme un groupement des informations dans les différentes catégories, en fonction du degré de ressemblance ou en fonction du type d'association.

Dans le domaine de la technologie de l'information, la catégorisation est définie comme le «processus d'attribution des objets à une ou plusieurs classes ou catégories», avec le plus grand taux de réussite possible.

Le modèle vectoriel est l'un des modèles couramment utilisé. Un document peut être considéré comme un vecteur d'attributs, et le processus d'interrogation est à son tour un vecteur d'attributs (Manning, Schütze, 1999; Jackson, Moulinier, 2002; Tătar, 2003). Pour le cas du texte/document on peut définir un *modèle de classe*[7] (avec les paramètres de la classe) et aussi une *procédure* (qui fait par exemple la sélection pour la classe). L'algorithme de recherche des informations utilise une méthode de comparaison: il compare son vecteur d'attributs avec le vecteur du document et désigne une liste de documents «appropriés». Les calculs

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[6] «Ce niveau de base se manifesterait en raison du fait qu'il maximise le potentiel informatif des concepts» (Sarrasin, 2005).

[7] Modèle de représentation des données le plus convaincant.

sont influencés par la fréquence de l'apparition des termes ou, par contre, par le nombre réduit d'apparitions.

Au début, les méthodes de catégorisation des textes étaient conçues sur la base d'un ensemble de règles élaborées manuellement (*knowledge engineering*); les règles étaient sous la forme (Jackson, Moulinier, 2002, Tătar, 2003):

if *<formule Booléen sous la forme (AND, OR, NOT) >* ***then*** *<catégorie>*

Avec le développement d'Internet, dans les techniques du processus de catégorisation ont été introduites des techniques d'apprentissage automatique (*machine learning).* À partir des différentes catégories de documents on peut créer, par ces méthodes, un classificateur propre, par un processus inductif d'observation des caractéristiques de l'ensemble des documents (qui sont préalablement classifiés). La classification automatique des textes consiste à attribuer une catégorie à chaque texte. Après la méthode dont les classes sont générées la classification peut être : supervisé (les groupes des documents ou classes sont calculé automatiquement par un expert), ou une classification non supervisé (les groupes des documents sont calculé automatiquement par la machine).

La catégorisation s'applique aux situations de classification des textes (documents) en fonction du sujet, à l'identification des informations qui appartiennent à certains auteurs, à la désambiguïsation du sens du mot, à la détection des courriels non sollicité (*spams*), à l'identification de la langue d'un texte écrit, au processus de recherche des informations, etc.

L'extraction des informations

À la différence des techniques de recherche de documents, le processus d'extraction des informations se réfère à l'extraction des *données essentielles* contenues dans les documents et les textes divers. Par ces méthodes on peut créer des classifications complexes des documents qui contiennent un certain sujet, on peut créer des ensembles de documents qui contiennent certains concepts, on peut générer des bases de métadonnées, on peut extraire certaines informations des pages web spécialisées ou moins spécialisées.

Ces méthodes sont basées sur des techniques d'analyse des mots associée avec des contraintes linguistiques, pour l'identification des mots clés, mais il y a aussi des systèmes qui utilisent de graphes conceptuels. Ces systèmes doivent avoir une grande rapidité de traitement des mots si on veut appliquer cette technologie aux grands ensembles de textes semi ou non structurés. Les modèles utilisés sont ceux des automates à l'état fini, des grammaires indépendantes du contexte, de la reconnaissance des modèles et de la modélisation statistique (Jackson, Moulinier, 2002).

Les méthodes ont certes évolué avec le développement des documents électroniques disponibles en ligne et la constitution des grands corpus (surtout les corpus de documents scientifiques), et récemment des corpus de textes commerciaux (moins structurés).

Les données linguistiques sont organisées en bases de données spécifiques qui font appel aux bases de connaissances, bases de données annotées (représentées sous forme d'automates). Les automates sont décrits par des algorithmes qui peuvent servir à construire des systèmes d'interrogation ou systèmes de dialogue.

Ces méthodes contiennent les étapes suivantes (Cole, 1996): 1. *identification des artéfacts des textes*, des mots clés, noms propres, dates, lieu, etc., par une méthode d'écrêtage (*text skimming*) – (parcourir très rapidement un texte pour l'identification des idées principales); 2. utilisation *des contraintes linguistiques;* 3. *utilisation des bases de connaissance*s pour l'identification des contenus.

Soit, par exemple (Tătar, 2003), un texte spécialisé (domaine des affaires), dont on peut extraire des informations sur le partenariat, par les étapes suivantes: identification du nom des compagnies, identification des mots clés qui décrivent les affaires (en utilisant des bases de connaissances – et sachant, par exemple, que les fusions impliquent deux partenaires). On peut extraire des informations sur chiffres les d'affaires, relations, partenariats, etc. structurées sous diverses formes.

L'identification de certaines expressions du texte, pour diverses langues, est basée sur des méthodes de filtrage par modèle (motif) (*pattern matching*), en utilisant des *expressions régulières*[8].

Les analyses grammaticales peuvent être raffinées par l'introduction des lexiques, thésaurus, bases de données organisées en catégories (pour une analyse sémantique primaire). Les techniques nouvelles utilisent l'apprentissage automatique à l'aide des algorithmes qui doivent découvrir la structure des données. Ainsi, de grands corpus de textes sont analysés, segmentés et annotés. À partir de cela sont générées des règles de comportement pour les algorithmes.

Par exemple (Jackson, Moulinier, 2002:109), la proposition:

'The parliament was bombed by Carlos.'

peut être annotée:

"The <TARGET>parliament</TARGET> was
<ACTION>bombed</ACTION> by <PERP>Carlos</PERP>"

Avec ces étiquettes un logiciel pourrait créer un modèle:

"NOUN was PASSIVE-VERB by NOUNGROUP"

Comme méthodes alternatives on utilise les modèles statistiques qui emploient des processus d'analyse statistique et probabilistique.

Le processus d'extraction des informations peut être utilisé aussi pour le traitement des ontologies[9] (identification des diverses relations des données et extraction des informations).

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[8] Une *expression rationnelle* ou *expression régulière* est «une chaîne de caractères que l'on appelle parfois un motif et qui décrit un ensemble de chaînes de caractères selon une syntaxe précise». (http://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/)

[9] Ontologie (dans le domaine de l'informatique) est «un système de représentation des connaissances» (http://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki)

Un logiciel très connu est *Tipster* – un système d'extraction des informations de la presse britannique et japonaise. Il y a aussi *Crystal, Palka, Hasten* (Muslea, 1999), des logiciels automatisée, qui utilisent l'extraction des informations à partir des algorithmes. *MindNet* est un logiciel de représentation des connaissances qui, basé sur un analyseur grammatical et sur des dictionnaires, encyclopédies ou corpus de textes, peut construire des réseaux sémantiques. Le processus, entièrement automatisé fait une analyse de chaque phrase et établit des graphiques sémantiques et d'autres calculs de probabilité.

Conclusions

L'article présente quelques méthodes et techniques employées dans le processus de catégorisation et d'extraction des informations. Ces modèles, considérés techniques de «modélisation des information» sont basés, en général, sur des théories linguistiques d'analyse du langage (syntaxiques et sémantiques) mais aussi sur des méthodes statistiques, probabilistes. La description et la mise en œuvre de ces techniques ne se limitent pas au domaine de l'informatique. Ces processus sont essentiels pour le domaine de la traduction automatique, mais également pour les systèmes d'aide à la traduction. Les techniques contiennent des analyses grammaticales, des recherches et des modalités de classification des éléments, afin de créer des *modèles d'analyse translinguistique* et, récemment, des analyses statistiques de pointe pour la sélection et la réorganisation des mots conformément à l'ordre des mots de la langue cible.

La formation et l'évolution du langage sont toujours associées par des liens étroits et complexes au processus de raisonnement, au processus de *construction* et/ou d'*élection* d'une variante plus pertinente (optimale) parmi les infinités des alternatives. En conséquence, les processus de *catégorisation* et d'*extraction* des informations, considérés comme processus fondamentaux de l'activité cognitive, sont essentiels.

L'analyse de ces travaux rend possibles les études complexes de l'activité cérébrale sur les divers modes de représentations des données et, notamment, des connaissances.

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'CONSTRUCTION' ET *'DECONSTRUCTION'* DE L'EQUIVOQUE DANS L'AUDIOVISUEL

CRISTINA VARGA[*]

ABSTRACT. The present study proposes to investigate the mechanism of the ambiguity and of the double meaning in the field of the audiovisual translation. In the beginning, the paperwork presents a general background; it focuses on the different linguistic perspectives studying the problem of the text translatability as settled by *Jakobson, Coseriu* or *Hjelmslev*. Taking as point of start Coseriu's definition of the translation: «*to reproduce the same reference and the same sense with the means (properly speaking, with the significations) of another language*», this article moves forward and focuses on specific aspects of problematic translations (ambiguity and double meaning) illustrated with a corpus composed by the 21 James Bond movies. It points out that, in the case of audiovisual translation, the transfer of meaning can't be accomplished completely in all situations. The responsibility of the subtitler is to decide which sense of an ambiguous or double meaning text has to appear on the screen.

Keywords: subtitling, subtitles, double meaning, audiovisual translation, translatability.

Introduction

La traductibilité est habituellement définie comme: «*the capacity for some kind of meaning to be tranferred from one language to another without undergoing radical change*»[1] et sa problématique a été abordée en premier lieu d'une perspective linguistique par des auteurs comme Jakobson, Coseriu, Hjelmslev etc., dans leurs approches sur la création du sens dans une langue et sur son transfert d'une langue à une autre. Des théories comme la théorie rationaliste et celle relativiste, selon lesquelles tout contenu sémantique est transférable dans un autre système de signes, ont ses limites. Elles sont remises en question par d'autres prises de position dans la linguistique générale qui mettent en évidence les situations où le transfert complet du significat d'une langue source vers une langue cible est impossible. Burge, par exemple, cite le cas de l'autoréférence[2] de la langue dans un texte à traduire, comme

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[1] Mona Baker (ed.), (1998), *Encyclopedia of Translation Studies*, Routledge, London, p. 273.

[2] Un exemple d'autoréférence peut être illustré par la situation où, dans un texte, on suggère un mot on le décrivant. Dans notre corpus, un exemple d'autoréférence le constitue une réplique du film *The Man with the Golden Gun*: *"There's a useful four-letter word, and you're full of it."*

exemple de situation où l'on a un problème de traductibilité. Dans ses études, E. Coseriu se concentre davantage sur l'aspect du signifiant et du signifié et de leurs multiples possibilités d'interprétation selon le contexte de l'actualisation d'un sens ou d'un autre niveau significatif dans un texte[3]. Selon E. Coseriu, la traductibilité n'est pas un problème qui apparaît au niveau de la langue historique, entre une langue source et une langue cible, mais un problème de sens qui s'actualise à un moment précis, dans un contexte précis. Selon lui, «*no es posible una traducción, sino únicamente una adaptación*» (Coseriu: 1977: 231) complète la définition qu'il propose pour l'acte de traduire: «*to reproduce the same reference and the same sens with the means (properly speaking, with the significations) of another language*»[4].

Considérer la traductibilité comme une catégorie dynamique a ouvert une perspective nouvelle: «*Instead of asking what is translatable, one might also ask what kind of translation satisfies criteria of translatability*»[5]. Roman Jakobson[6] (1959) introduit un nouveau concept pour aborder la problématique de la traductibilité: '*equivalence in difference*' et une nouvelle perspective sur la traduction. Selon lui la traduction peut être: *intralinguale* (à l'intérieur d'une même langue: paraphrase ou résumé); *interlinguale* (entre deux langues) et *intersémiotique* (entre deux systèmes de signes) ce qui lui permet d'affirmer la validité de l'adaptation comme procédé légitime dans la traduction.

Quand on parle de traductibilité, on parle aussi d'interprétation, et quand on parle d'interprétation, on parle de subjectivité. Ainsi la traduction est le résultat d'un acte de communication qui passe par le filtre de la subjectivité du traducteur.

L'objectif de notre étude est d'aborder le problème de la traductibilité de l'audiovisuel et d'en discuter les limites dans le cas des textes où l'interprétation multiple est la principale difficulté pour le traducteur. L'analyse des fragments de l'audiovisuel à base d'un corpus de films[7] nous permet d'identifier structures textuelles, mécanismes linguistiques et situations de communication où se manifeste un problème de traductibilité. Cette analyse pourra servir pour mieux comprendre la modalité de fonctionnement des 'textes' polysémiques et de permettre aux traducteurs, une fois identifié le type de texte et sa structure interne, de trouver des solutions dans des situations concrètes de traduction.

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[3] Il observe les différents sens qui s'actualisent quand on utilise l'expression: «*I'm out of my depht*» dans un texte qui traite sur la natation ou dans un texte d'un contenu plus abstrait. Il observe aussi que le meilleur transfert de sens dans ce cas est par l'utilisation des équivalents qui ont la même signification dans la langue cible.

[4] Cf. *Encyclopedia of Translation*, p. 274.

[5] Mona Baker (ed.), (1998), *Encyclopedia of Translation Studies*, Routledge, London p. 275.

[6] Jakobson, Roman (1959) 'On Linguistic Aspects of Translation', in R. A. Brower (ed.) *On Translation*, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, pp. 232-39.

[7] Le corpus choisi est constitué par les fameux films qui ont comme personnage principal à James Bond. Il s'agit d'un corpus de 20 films, chacun comportant approximativement 1000 lignes de sous-titres.

Traduire l'équivoque

Si on commence par l'aphorisme de Jakosbon '*there is no signatum without signum*', toute traduction est simplement un transfert de *signum* d'une langue source à une langue cible et cette procédure est universelle. Donc chaque traduction consiste à trouver un équivalent dans le plan du '*signum'* pour un même '*signatum*'. La limite de cette affirmation, dans le cas de la traduction, est représentée par la situation où le '*signatum*' est interprétable et active simultanément plusieurs sens. La polysémie, le double entendu d'un message, la possibilité d'interprétation multiple du sens d'un texte, la présence des *implicites*[8] dans un texte, permettent au traducteur d'utiliser sa compétence encyclopédique pour compléter le savoir linguistique, qui dans ce cas n'est pas suffisant.

L'équivoque, tel comme il est défini par le *Trésor de la langue française* est:

> *Subst. Fém. A. Vx. Calembour, jeu de mots (parfois sur les tabous). B. Péj. Double sens ou sens multiple d'un mot choisi en raison ou en dépit de son aptitude à prêter à des interprétations diverses. C. P. ext. Situation d'incertitude d'ambiguïté qui laisse hésitant.*

Selon le *Grand Usuel Larousse* l'équivoque comme substantif est:

> *1. Possibilité d'interpréter diversement un énoncé, un mot, ambiguïté. 2. Ce qui manque de clarté, est susceptible d'appréciations diverses, de créer la confusion.*

Selon le *Dictionnaire des synonymes* le substantif *équivoque* peut être exprimé comme:

> *ambigu, incertain, douteux, obscur, louche, nébuleux, indécis, confus, ténébreux, suspect*

Selon les différentes définitions des dictionnaires, *équivoque* peut être entendu comme une ambiguïté involontaire – c'est le cas des acceptions comme: *ambigu, incertain, douteux, obscur, louche, nébuleux, indécis, confus, ténébreux, suspect;* ou volontaire, dans le cas de certains genres discursifs, comme ceux de l'humour, utilisant le double entendu de manière intentionnée pour ironiser, critiquer ou ridiculiser.

La perspective sur la traduction de ces deux types d'équivoques mentionnés est différente. Elle dépend de la finalité de chaque texte. Si le texte est ambigu à cause de l'utilisation d'un mot, une expression ou une phrase dont le sens laisse place aux interprétations, le traducteur doit «'comprendre' un 'texte', puis, dans une deuxième étape, 'réexprimer' ce 'texte' dans une autre langue»[9]. Marianne Lederer, dans son livre, rejette l'idée de l'existence des difficultés pour le traducteur en ce qui concerne les ambiguïtés et affirme que, pour chaque cas concret d'un discours «*il n'y a d'ambiguïtés qu'en l'absence des compléments cognitifs pertinents qui habituellement viennent compléter les significations phrastiques*»[10].

[8] Marianne Lederer, La traduction aujourd'hui, Paris, Hachette, 1994, p. 34. "*La comprensión embrasse celle des* ***présupposés*** *et des* ***sous-entendus****, qu'on peut classer sous le terme général d'implicites.*"
[9] Marianne Lederer, *idem*, p. 13.
[10] Marianne Lederer, ibid., p. 31.

Nous considérons que l'affirmation de Marianne Lederer est valide en ce qui concerne la première catégorie d'équivoque celui où l'ambiguïté apparaît de manière involontaire dans un texte. Mais on n'est pas d'accord avec son affirmation:

> «On peut également affirmer que l'univocité n'est pas due à une désambiguïsation mais qu'elle est immédiate. La psychologie expérimentale a démontré en effet qu'on ne saurait comprendre deux significations simultanément, les différentes significations ne peuvent qu'être successives dans le temps, et ne peuvent apparaître que si l'on s'arrête de lire un texte pour réfléchir aux différentes significations possibles de la phrase et des mots que l'on a sous les yeux». (Lederer: 1994, 31)

Notre réserve en ce qui concerne cette affirmation est liée au fait qu'elle est limitée seulement au texte écrit qui est linéaire et qui, par sa linéarité, nous oblige à activer en certains cas plusieurs sens de manière successive. D'autre part, cette affirmation est aussi réductionniste. Elle ne fait pas référence à la présence des équivoques comme modalité d'expression dans un texte. Utilisé comme une figure de style dans un certain type du discours, l'équivoque peut activer simultanément deux ou plusieurs sens à la fois.

Donc, si pour les textes où l'équivoque est involontaire il faut bien comprendre l'intention de l'auteur pour traduire avec précision, dans le cas des textes ayant l'équivoque comme finalité, le traducteur doit appliquer une stratégie différente. Il s'agit de 'reconstruire' l'ambiguïté du texte dans la langue cible afin d'en conserver les nuances critiques/ironiques et les sens multiples. Souvent une 'reconstruction' complète est impossible à réaliser et le traducteur se voit obligé à adapter la traduction et à 'perdre' du sens complet pour en conserver le message principal.

Dans ces études de linguistique appliquée, Terry Winograd (1983) fait une classification de plusieurs types d'ambiguïtés, expliquant aussi les causes de leur apparition. Il distingue:

- ambiguïté due à la polysémie du mot: *She walked towards a* ***bank****.*
- ambiguïté due à l'homographie des catégories grammaticales différentes (*context-free grammar*): *Time flies like an arrow*.
- ambiguïté due au contexte: *George thinks vanilla.*[11]

Elles peuvent apparaître dans n'importe quel contexte, mais dans le cas des textes où elles sont utilisées intentionnellement, il faut considérer la classification de Winograd comme une classification des procédés de réalisation des équivoques. Elle peut servir dans l'analyse du mécanisme des textes plurisémantiques.

Double sens et équivoque

Bien que synonymes, quelques-uns des termes mentionnés ci-dessus ont été utilisés comme base pour différentes distinctions au niveau logique, psychologique

[11] Le contexte est relevant pour le sens. Dans la phrase antérieure on pose la question : '*Do you know what kind of icecream Haj likes? George thinks vanila.* Terry Winograd, op. cit., p. 93.

ou linguistique. Une distinction entre *double sens* et *équivoque* est faite par Marie-Claude Casper, qui souligne que le *double sens* et *l'équivoque* peuvent se matérialiser de formes différentes à plusieurs niveaux discursifs: *lexical, phraséologique ou textuel*. Selon l'auteur, le *double sens* et *l'équivoque* se matérialisent au niveau discursif par différentes formes. Le double sens se matérialise comme *malentendu* ou *quiproquo* et l'équivoque par l'intermède du *mot d'esprit*. La distinction qu'elle opère entre les deux notions consiste à considérer *l'équivoque* comme un effet du *double sens*:

> «Le «double sens» fait surgir deux significations possibles dans un ou exclusif. L'équivoque quant à elle, est un effet du «double sens» dans le maintien à part égale de deux interprétations différentes. Dans l'équivoque, le «double sens» ne se signale pas par un ou exclusif mais bien par un et de simultanéité. C'est bien dans cette modalité particulière qu'est le maintien des deux voies interprétatives que l'équivoque trouve sa pertinence.»
>
> (Casper: 2003)

À partir de cette distinction, on peut traiter de manière différente le *double sens* et l'*équivoque* dans la traduction. Si dans le premier cas le traducteur peut créer un *double sens* dans une autre langue, même si n'est pas le même que dans la langue source (car selon l'algorithme de Casper A**or**B un des sens est passif), dans le cas des équivoques (qui fonctionnent selon l'algorithme A**et**B), la structure est plus difficile à 'reconstruire'.

Si l'on accepte que *l'équivoque* constitue le vrai problème quand on traduit, une approche plus détaillée de ce phénomène nous permettra de mieux comprendre son mécanisme.

Béatrice Priego-Valverde[12], dans son analyse de l'humour comme facteur '*opacisant*' du discours familier, analyse le mécanisme discursif qui est à la base des blagues réalisées à partir de l'équivoque. Citant Greimas (1966) et Morin (1966), elle affirme que l'équivoque dans les textes humoristiques est basé sur une incongruité mise en évidence par l'utilisation de deux éléments discursifs dénommés «*connecteur*» et «*disjoncteur*». Le premier est un élément qui relie entre elles deux «*isotopies*»[13]. Il s'agit, dans notre cas, de deux sens qui s'actualisent au moment d'une interaction verbale dans une situation de communication.

L'auteur nous présente une suite de séquences où l'interaction des deux locuteurs active deux sens d'une même séquence discursive. Dans l'exemple choisi, dans un premier moment s'actualise le sens propre, pendant que la deuxième isotopie sera actualisée dans la réplique de l'interlocuteur au moment de la prise de parole. Selon l'auteur, l'humour résulte du fait que le deuxième sens activé est le moins approprié à la situation, qu'il introduit une «*incongruité*» par l'intermède d'un «*disjoncteur*» dont le rôle est celui d'activer le deuxième sens.

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[12] Priego-Valverde, B. (2001): «C'est du lard ou du cochon?»: lorsque l'humour opacifie la conversation familière, *Marges linguistiques, nr.*,
(www.revue-texto.net/marges/marges/Documents%20Site%200/09_ml112001_priego_v_b/09_ml112001_priego_v_b.pdf (consulté le 17.02.2008).

[13] A.J. Greimas. (1966) *Semantique Structurale*. Paris. Larousse, p. 71.

L'auteur souligne que le «*disjoncteur*» est l'élément fondamental à la création du sens double, car il dirige l'interprétation de l'énoncé vers un deuxième sens, créant un nucléé générateur de sens pour l'énoncé. En citant Patrick Charaudeau, l'auteur attribue à cet élément discursif la double fonction d'un «embrayeur», parce qu'il dirige l'interprétation du sens – et celle d'un «désembrayeur» qui permet de suspendre la première isotopie sans l'annuler. Le résultat est un texte qui, dans un premier moment de la communication semble 'sérieux', mais qui, dans un deuxième moment, après l'intervention du «disjoncteur», se révèle plus riche de sens dans le registre comique.

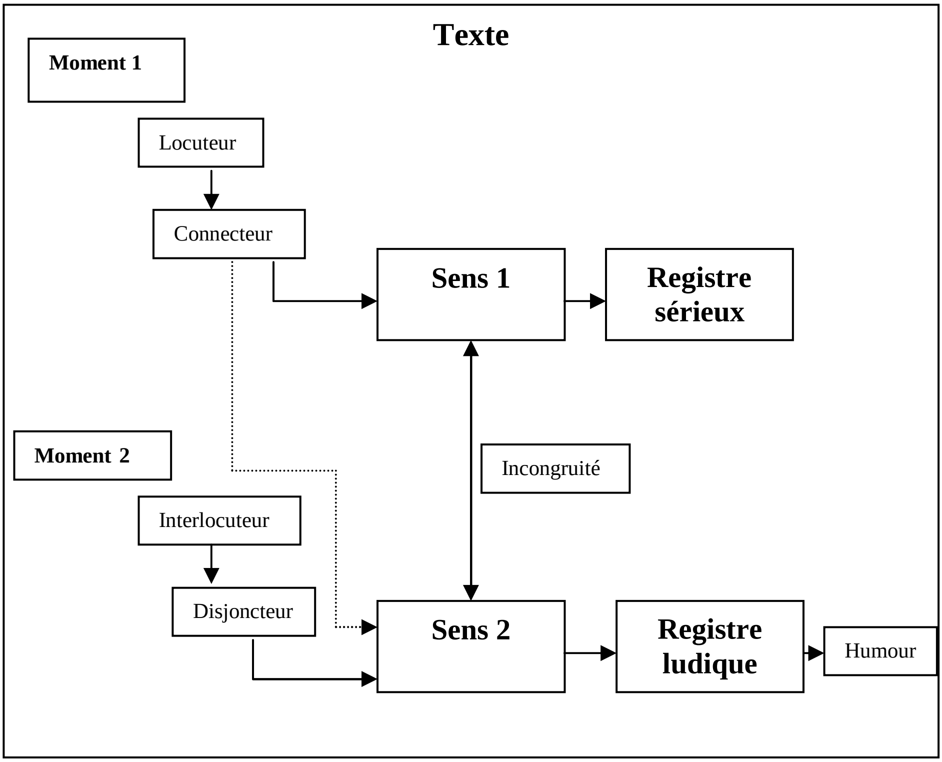
Double sens dans l'audiovisuel

On peut considérer le modèle de Béatrice Priego-Valverde comme valide pour aborder l'analyse de l'équivoque dans l'audiovisuel. Celui-ci englobe toute la problématique présentée au-dessus, qui décrit de la dimension textuelle d'un matériel multimédia. À notre avis, il faut développer le modèle qui, dans ce cas, est limité à la dimension textuelle et en faire un qui puisse servir à la description des séquences interprétables dans l'audiovisuel.

Dans notre analyse, nous ne trouvons pas nécessaire de maintenir la distinction entre *double sens* et *équivoque*, telle comme conçue par Casper. Pour ce qui suit, nous considérons que les deux notions sont des aspects d'un même phénomène linguistique.

Si on analyse le modèle décrit par Priego-Valverde, on observe qu'il est décrit dans les termes d'une situation de communication, dont les éléments fonctionnent comme descripteurs: *contexte général, canal de communication, locuteurs, registre, sens activé.*

En premier lieu, on peut observer que son modèle est un modèle linéaire, dû au fait qu'il décrit une séquence textuelle. À cette linéarité de la structure décrite, on ajoute une forme d'organisation bipolaire: on observe deux interlocuteurs, deux moments conversationnels, deux sens, deux registres. Tous ces éléments son perceptible de manière séquentielle – le récepteur se rend compte de la construction du sens graduellement, comme dans le schéma suivant:



En ce qui concerne la description de cette situation dans l’audiovisuel, l’activation d’un deuxième sens dans un contexte multimédia fonctionne d’une manière différente, car le «connecteur» et le «disjoncteur» peuvent être non seulement des éléments textuels, mais aussi multimédia (texte, son, vidéo, image). Donc, un message peut être transmis seulement par le canal textuel, et, dans ce cas, on peut utiliser pour l’analyse le modèle de Priego-Valverde ou le message peut être transmis simultanément par plusieurs canaux, cas dans lequel on doit observer quelle est la forme d’organisation discursive du message.

Traduire l’équivoque dans l’audiovisuel

Pour examiner les structures d’organisation discursive des équivoques dans l’audiovisuel, on a choisi comme corpus d’exemples l’une des plus célèbres ‘séries’ de long métrages, célèbre pour la pléthore de messages plurivoques qu’y apparaissent. Il s’agit des films qui ont comme personnage principal l’agent 007 – James Bond. Des 21 films réalisés jusqu’à présent dans cette ‘série’, nous avons choisi les exemples les plus représentatifs pour chaque situation, afin d’essayer d’en décrire les éléments spécifiques.

Comme dans le cas du modèle de Valvedre on identifiera le «*connecteur*» et le «*disjoncteur*», les moments de l'activation du sens, les participants, les registres de la langue et des éléments spécifiques au contexte multimédia. Le but de cette description est de réussir à mieux comprendre le mécanisme de formation des équivoques en vue de la traduction vers une autre langue de l'audiovisuel.

Selon le canal de communication du message, on peut avoir comme éléments de base: le texte, l'image/vidéo et le son. Il y a des situations où les plusieurs sens d'un message sont activés par un même canal ou par plusieurs. Tous les canaux qui y participent pouvant activer différents sens.

On peut identifier une première situation, identique à celle du modèle de Priego-Valverde, où les deux sens sont activés par un élément textuel. C'est le cas des noms propres de la plupart des personnages de la série James Bond qui ont une double fonction: noms propres et éléments lexicaux, constituant des calembours ou jeux de mots. On y distingue plusieurs catégories de noms polysémiques.

Calembours basés sur la sonorité, comme, par exemple, les noms à résonance orientale: *Hai Fat, Chew Mee*[14] qui au-delà de leur sonorité sont porteurs d'un signifié dans la langue source. Calembours basés sur la sonorité du nom: *Melina Havelock, Octopussy, Miss Moneypenny, Xenia Zirgavna Onatopp, Dr. Molly Warmflash, Penelope Smallbone*. D'autres noms sont reliés à des symboles culturels: *Fiona Volpe, Christmas Jones.* Un cas spécial est celui du nom du personnage *Solitaire* qui a une triple valence: nom propre, élément qui suggère le statut marital du personnage et son statut professionnel – elle présage le futur à l'aide du tarot.

Noms qui définissent le caractère d'un personnage:

> *Dr. No, Mrs. Whistler, Dr. Holly Goodhead, May Day, Necros, Sharkey, Ed Killifer, Gustav Graves, Mr. Kil, Le Chiffre, Renard, Miranda Frost.*

Noms à signification sexuelle:

> *Honey Ryder, Kissy Suzuki, Pussy Galore, Donald Pleasence, Plenty O'Toole, Midnight, Bonita.*

Même si l'utilisation des noms sous forme de calembour est un procédé ordinaire dans les films Bond, ils ne représentent qu'un aspect marginal qui n'implique pas le processus de la traduction.

La première catégorie d'équivoques présents dans les films de James Bond et qu'on veut mettre en discussion est celle qui se ressemble à la structure décrite par Priego-Valverde. Par exemple, dans la scène où Pussy Galore se présente comme:

"*I'm the* ***personal*** *pilot of Mr. Blofeld.*"

la réponse de James Bond est:

"*And just how* ***personal*** *is that?*"

On peut reconnaître le mécanisme décrit avant qui se base sur un «*connecteur*», dans ce cas le mot «*personal*» et un «*disjoncteur*», le mot «*how*». Comme dans les exemples de Priego-Valverde l'équivoque se réalise seulement au niveau textuel, le canal visuel et audio n'ayant aucune contribution à sa réalisation.

[14] *The Man with the Golden Gun* (1974), directeur Guy Hamilton.

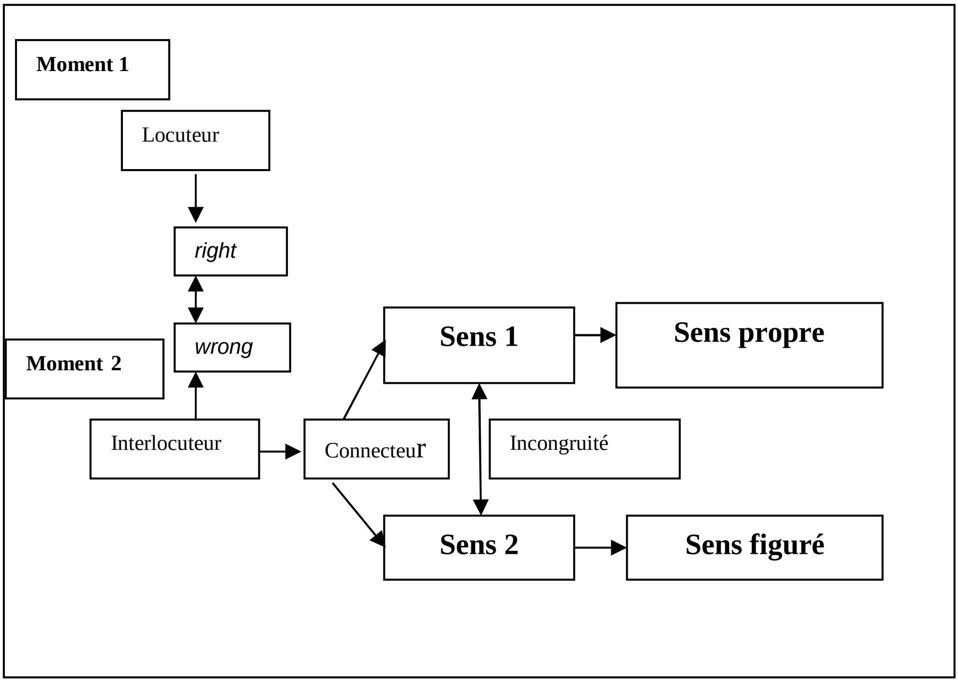
Une variante du modèle de l'équivoque est illustrée par une autre scène: dans une confrontation entre Blofeld et ses multiples sosies avec James Bond, celui-ci tue un d'eux. Pour vérifier s'il a tué le vrai personnage négatif et pas un alias, il oblige le chat de Blofeld, qui portait un signe distinctif (un collier de diamants), à se réfugier dans les bras de son maître. Cette scène est complétée par un court dialogue. Blofeld lui dit:

"*Right idea, Mr. Bond.*"

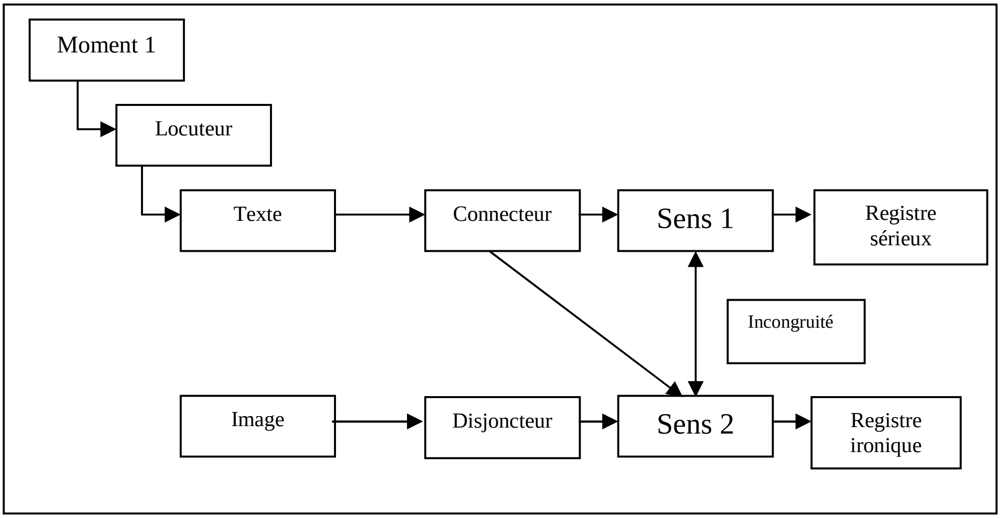
et James Bond lui répond:

"*But wrong* ***pussy***".

On observe une structure symétrique du dialogue organisée autour de l'opposition *right-wrong* et qui est le nucléé générateur de l'équivoque dans cette situation. «*Pussy*» active deux sens suggérés par le contexte visuel: un sens propre – «pussycat» et un autre, dépréciatif, qui fait référence au caractère de Blofeld, suggéré précisément à cause de l'utilisation de la forme courte du mot «pussycat».



Une autre forme de l'organisation linguistique de l'équivoque est celle illustrée par l'exemple suivant. Il s'agit de l'affirmation ironique du début du film *Goldfinger*: "*I thought I'd find you in good hands*". Expression qui généralement est comprise en sens figuré et qui fait partie de la catégorie des métaphores quotidiennes décrites par George Lakoff et Mark Johnson dans *Metaphors We Live By*. Cette séquence textuelle fonctionne comme «*connecteur*» dans cette situation de communication. L'élément qui a le rôle du «*disjoncteur*» est une image. Cet élément canalise l'interprétation du sens qui, dans ce cas, est le sens littéral. La scène nous présente le héros dans un hôtel de luxe, au bord de la piscine pendant qu'une jeune fille très jolie lui fait un massage. Pour ce qui est de la description du contexte général de la situation de communication, on a un seul locuteur qui active un seul sens, mais qui à cause de la simultanéité des canaux de communication celui-ci devient un 'texte' où les deux sens sont valables et ne s'annulent pas l'un l'autre. Donc le 'texte' active un sens figuré, l'unique sens qui connaît cette expression et qui signifie: «*être bien pris en charge*»[15], pendant que l'image joue avec la métaphore et illustre le sens littéral de la phrase, car le héros se trouve vraiment «*entre de bonnes mains*». Le schéma d'une telle situation de communication sera le suivant:



On observe une situation analogue dans le cas de l'énoncé: "*Hit me!*", qui active un sens en concordance avec le contexte visuel de la scène. L'action a lieu dans un casino d'Istanbul à une table de jeu de cartes où un personnage demande une carte disant : "*Hit me!*". Le «connecteur» dans cette scène est un texte qui, interprété littéralement, entraîne comme réponse un geste. On voit James Bond qui frappe le locuteur, comme réplique à ce qu'il a dit. La même situation d'un seul locuteur, un seul texte et double sens, est rencontrée dans la scène du jeu de golf du film *Goldfinger,* quand celui-ci demande à James Bond:

"What's your game Mr. Bond?"

[15] selon l'Encyclopédie éléctronique: www.linternaute.com (http://www.linternaute.com/expression/langue-francaise/516/etre-entre-de-bonnes-mains/ - dernière consultation, 17.02.2008).

Dans la situation d’un jeu de golf serré, la question est absolument normale, mais elle se justifie aussi dans la situation d’un agent secret qui poursuit un infracteur international. Le «connecteur» est le mot «jeu» qui a multiples valences est le «disjoncteur» est le contexte général du film.

Une situation plus complexe réside dans l’exemple formé par une suite de trois expressions complétées par le contexte visuel, une structure peu courante. Dans une scène du film *Diamonds are forever*[16], où le héros est mis dans un cercueil que ses adversaires déposent sur la bande glissante du crématoire. Les deux assassins présentent en guise d’hommage au «défunt» les répliques suivantes: *“Very moving”, “Heart warming”, “Glowing tribute”*. Le mécanisme de l’humour macabre dans cette situation, est d’activer le double sens de manière sequencielle, en jouant avec les différents registres de la langue. Le point d’origine du discours est bien déterminé: on voit un hommage au défunt et le texte à traduire est formé par des expressions qu’on utilise en contexte funéraire. Le double sens est activé simultanément et marque les moments les plus importants de la scène. La première réplique accompagne le mouvement du cercueil vers le four du crématoire, la deuxième et la troisième se synchronisent avec le moment de l’ouverture de la porte du four et l’allumage du feu. L’oscillation continue entre les deux plans, réel et funéraire, est la source de l’humour macabre dans ce cas.

Le cas le plus complexe du point de vue de la structure de l’équivoque est celui d’un nom propre qui a triple valence de sens. Comme il s’agit d’un nom propre, il est normalement intraduisible. Pour le traducteur le problème est compliqué, car il est impossible de transférer vers une autre langue les trois sens activés et qui sont tous entrelacés: en premier lieu il s’agit du nom d’un bar ; le sens principal «Bottoms Up !» défini par Encarta comme «*used as a drinking toast (informal)*»[17] et celui du sens propre qui indique un mouvement d’une certaine partie du corps, sens qui est suggéré par le canal visuel où on voit exactement le mouvement mentionné pendant que les deux personnages principaux toastent disant «*Bottoms up* !» dans le bar avec le même nom.

La dernière catégorie d’équivoque qu’on peut rencontrer dans cette série de films est formée par de jeux de mots qui combinent l’homophonie, l’intertextualité et la simultanéité visuelle. Parlant avec Q, le spécialiste qui crée pour lui l’équipement d’espionnage, James Bond prend un sandwich et pour confirmer ce que Q lui avait dit avant il répond: “*Alimentary, Dr. Leiter*”. Tout d’abord on identifie un jeu de mots entre «*Elementary, my dear Watson*», la réponse fameuse de Sherlock Holmes[18]. Et une homophonie presque parfaite entre «*elementary*» et «*alimentary*». En plus, elle est complétée par le geste de prendre en main le sandwich qui renforce le sens ludique de la réponse.

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[16] *Diamonds are forever* (1971), directeur Guy Hamilton.

[17] Encarta – encarta.msn.com/dictionary_/bottom.html (last visited on 17.02.2008)

[18] Wikipedia - http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sherlock_Holmes - “It does appear at the very end of the 1929 film, The Return of Sherlock Holmes, the first Sherlock Holmes sound film, and may owe its familiarity to its use in Edith Meiser's scripts *for The New Adventures of Sherlock Holmes* radio series. The phrase was first used by American actor William Gillette though.” (consulté le 18.02.2008).

Une situation de communication similaire apparaît en *Golden Eye*[19], quand, après une explosion dans une conduite de pétrole, le personnage féminin Christmas Johnson demande à James Bond: "*By the way […] what's the story between you and Elektra?*". Sa réponse: "*It's strictly plutonic now.*" est aussi un équivoque basé sur la ressemblance entre *plutonic* et *platonic* en anglais, qui relie un peu l'histoire d'amour entre les deux personnages avec l'aventure de la récupération d'un nucléé de plutonium.

Conclusion

Analyser les structures linguistiques sur lesquelles se base l'équivoque est un aspect d'une importance essentielle pour le traducteur de l'audiovisuel. Catégorie de traduction pleine de restrictions de temps et espace, la traduction de l'audiovisuel (sous-titrage et doublage) est aussi une activité complexe du point de vue linguistique. Une analyse du matériel audiovisuel à traduire comme situation de communication peut offrir au traducteur la possibilité d'évaluer le mécanisme linguistique, qui est à la base des structures phrastiques d'un film.

Pour ce qui est des textes polysémiques qui jouent avec de multiples interprétations du sens, elles sont une présence continue dans les matériaux multimédias et constituent un phénomène complexe qui peut se présenter sous une grande diversité de formes. Leur inventaire et la présentation de leur structure interne peuvent aider le traducteur à utiliser le même mécanisme pour reconstruire la même structure dans la langue cible sans appeler vraiment à une traduction proprement dite, mais en utilisant d'autres alternatives qui sont à la portée du traducteur: *équivalence linguistique, adaptation culturelle* et *interprétation sémiotique*.

Pour revenir au problème de la traductibilité des séquences de l'audiovisuel à plusieurs sens, on constate que l'analyse du discours nous permet une vision plus large sur une scène comme un tout entier. Une telle conception du message polysémique donne plus de liberté au traducteur qui, par la déconstruction sémique d'une unité de traduction (dans le cas de l'audiovisuel une scène) en ses éléments basiques, peut en reproduire la structure dans une langue cible par un processus inverse de reconstruction sémique.

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[19] *Golden Eye* (1995), directeur Martin Campbell.

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