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Prefazione
Editorial Preface

Marella Magris & Helena Lozano Miralles

Università di Trieste

This issue of RITT is the second volume of the proceedings of the session "Translation teaching: bridging theory and the profession", organized in 2010 by the Scuola Superiore di Lingue Moderne per Interpreti e Traduttori of Trieste within the conference "Emerging topics in Translation and Interpreting".

In the first volume, particular emphasis was placed on the role that different linguistic, cognitive and cultural models can play in order to bring translation theory and training closer together. This second part is organized around three main topics: the interactions with the professional world, the impact of new technologies and the importance of corpora and terminography in specialized translation.

In the opening paper, Marco Fiola points out that translation scholars, educators and employers have not yet succeeded in finding a common ground that would be beneficial to future translators. After exploring the reasons for this persisting mutual distrust and focusing in particular on different views of translation quality, Fiola suggests that a better understanding of the dynamic multicompetence and of the social role of translators might contribute to a rapprochement between academia and industry.

The paper by the next two authors, Betül Parlak and Alev Bulut, follows a similar line of reasoning: it discusses how translation training institutions can contribute to make the profession more visible and to solve some problems which affect the translation market place, such as unfavourable working conditions, exploitation of student translators and above all plagiarism. Borrowing

some concepts from the field of sociology and basing their description on their own experience in Turkey, the authors show how the creation of an "action network" comprising academics, professional organizations and students may bring benefits to all parties involved.

Also Fiorenza Mileto pleads for more cooperation by showing through her personal experience how teaching and professional activity can take advantage of each other. The author, herself a professional, a trainer for companies and a university teacher, identifies three main areas as fundamental for the development of future translators: competences, tools and methodology. She further describes the implementation of a constructivist teaching model (Project-Based Learning), which has proven successful in better preparing students for the translation market.

The importance of academic education in the development of translational skills is the central idea of the next paper by Mitra Shahabi, Gilda Tataei and Maria Teresa Roberto. The authors postulate that people sharing the same linguistic competence reach different performance levels if exposed to different types of translation education. In order to verify this hypothesis, they developed a test measuring performance in 4 main domains: cognition, production, naturalness and translation techniques. The results show that, indeed, subjects who had attended a translation course improved their translation skills and did better than the control group.

The following two papers, by Erik Angelone and Kyriaki Kourouni, both advocate for an increased didactic application of technology-based methodologies initially developed for experimental research. Erik Angelone describes the advantages of this approach within the context of process-oriented training. After an overview of the main existing methodologies, the author focuses on screen recording and proposes three activities, i.e. the analysis of information retrieval efficacy, of the immediate post-pause activity and of problem solving at the textual level, which have been tested with some students and have demonstrated their effectiveness in enhancing problem awareness. Also Kourouni's paper revolves around the use of new technological tools in the translation classroom. The author illustrates the criteria which were considered in a research project aimed at analyzing the performance of undergraduate students using different methodologies, i.e. eye tracking, screen recording and keystroke logging. Her major concern was to identify a tool that would allow both to achieve direct benefits for the students and to ensure experimental validity.

The didactic potential of e-learning is explored by Emmanuela Meiwes, who develops a cooperative translation activity using the Moodle platform. The principle behind this project is "co-translation", a term coined by the author in analogy to "co-writing" and designating a collaborative translation carried out by students in a partially virtual learning community. The author continuously monitored the experience and concluded that this kind of activity can sensitize students to translation problems and help them to develop various competences.

Among the technologies already widely used by translators, a special place is occupied by Translation Memories, which are the subject of the next paper by Adrià Martín-Mor. In his research, the author tries to ascertain whether the use of these CAT tools influences the translated texts, focusing on the aspect of linguistic interference. In particular, the paper describes the results of a pilot study, which have led to some changes in the methodology and seem to suggest that the software indeed exerts an influence on the behaviour of translators and on the translated texts.

Paola Valli presents her PhD research project which investigates the relation between translation problems and language combination analyzing the use of a specific tool, i.e. a multilingual concordancer, within the framework of translation at EU institutions. After briefly sketching the translation services and the CAT tools available to EU translators, the paper describes the concordancing software, which offers optimal conditions for a large-scale study, and the methodology adopted for a pilot study within the research project.

The following two papers both deal with corpora. Tamara Mikoli Ju ni illustrates the usefulness of monolingual and parallel text collections in translation teaching, not just in order to provide solutions to lexical problems, but also to guide the student's stylistic and syntactic choices. As the author shows through examples concerning the phenomenon of nominalization in Slovene and Italian, corpora can help identify areas of divergence between two languages and suggest possible translation options, also in relation to different text types.

Gianluca Pontrandolfo's paper is a survey of existing specialized corpora of legal language. Focused on three languages (English, Spanish and Italian) and with a strong emphasis on the subject area of Criminal Law, the survey is addressed to both researchers and translators and is conceived as a practical guide so as to allow rapid consultation. The paper stems from the author's PhD research project, aimed at a qualitative and quantitative analysis of legal phraseology, an aspect that has not been studied systematically so far.

The last three contributions deal with terminology and terminography, very important "building blocks" in the training of future professional translators.

In his paper, Christian Vicente discusses the role of terminology in specialized translation and specifically tackles some "myths" (such as the biunivocal relationship between terms and concepts) that are still widespread in translation teaching. Drawing on examples from various domains, the author shows how "real" terminology sometimes departs from idealized principles, and points out that future translators should be aware of the problems posed by instability, inaccuracy etc. in order to ensure translation quality through a "soundly critical attitude" towards terminological issues.

Alessandra Lombardi and Costanza Peverati present an ongoing project aiming at the development of a multilingual terminological and textual database for the field of tourism. Taking as their starting point an analysis of typical inaccuracies that can be found in translations of tourist texts, they stress the impor-

tance of providing the translator with rich conceptual/encyclopedic, linguistic and stylistic/textual information. One of the most interesting features of the new database is the focus on phraseology, which is considered one of the key aspects for the production of natural-sounding and effective translated texts.

In the last paper, Katia Peruzzo describes the preliminary results of her PhD research project on the terminology of a specific legal subfield, i.e. the standing of victims in criminal proceedings. The analysis of a corpus of EU texts allows her to identify the main characteristics of legal terminology employed in a multi-judicial setting, namely conceptual asymmetries leading to various degrees of equivalence, polysemy and synonymy. From a terminographic point of view, the complexity observed in the "real" behaviour of terms calls for new solutions that could benefit from the integration of ontological methods.

The issue is completed by a review and a homage to two scholars who have made the history of translation: Eugene Nida and Peter Newmark.

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Translator education: for a praxeological approach

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Abstract

In an economy in which the private sector and academia increasingly consider cooperation in research and training as the logical choice in the name of efficiency, it is puzzling to note that translation, a field of research and study aimed at building bridges over cultural differences, has been failing so miserably at creating the type of rapprochement and mutual understanding that is so desperately required to ensure that the needs of a growing industry and field of research are met. This paper is an attempt to understand why translation scholars and translator employers have such strong views about each other and how these views are the symptom, not the cause, of such mutual misunderstanding. It will be argued that the reason why this gap exists is that the roles, responsibilities, and expectations of each party are not clearly defined, and that the success of the (life-long) pedagogical endeavour rests in the establishment of a climate of trust and cooperation between academia and the translation industry. In conclusion, we will suggest a number of initiatives that might help alleviate the situation.

1. Introduction

Historically, the social role of translators has been to act as *communication engineers*, that is to build the necessary bridges over cultural and language chasms, thus enabling groups and individuals to communicate. In fact, one can presume that, without translators, the world would be a much different place. How can

we ignore the fundamental contribution of translators as creators of writing systems and national languages, writers, disseminators of knowledge and faith?[1] Indeed, one cannot overemphasize the role of translation as agent of change in the course of world history.[2]

However, precisely because translators have this well-deserved reputation of bridge builders, it is the more disconcerting to see how difficult it seems for translation scholars, including translator educators and translator employers, to find the necessary common ground to come together and define their particular roles, responsibilities and expectations with respect to the education and training[3] of translators. On the one hand, many translator educators feel that translation curricula must comprise a significant portion of theoretical content, and on the other translator employers feel that new translation graduates are ill-prepared for the labour market and translation schools should make more room for real-life translation knowledge (Canadian Translation Industry Sectoral Committee 1999: 19). However, it would not be fair to assume that all translator educators and translator employers are polar opposites; in the past years, some attempts have been made by translation scholars to develop didactical and pedagogical tools aimed at recreating workplace situations in the classroom, while many translation employers have developed continuing education programs, recognizing the fact that translation graduates are not trained once and for all upon graduating. Nevertheless, a feeling of mutual dissatisfaction persists and a high level of suspicion continues to divide these two groups (for further examples, see Pym 2001). In the following pages, we will attempt to explore the sources of this mutual mistrust, or misunderstanding, in order to understand it and propose ways to alleviate it. We are arguing for a praxeological approach to translation pedagogy and practice.

The points that we will touch upon in the following pages include whether theory and practice are mutually exclusive in translation; the usefulness of translation theories and other theoretical contributions to translation pedagogy and practice; the source of mutual dissatisfaction between translator educators and translator employers; the reasons why theory has such a bad reputation in

1 For a more detailed list, see Delisle & Woodsworth (1995).

2 Take the following example: "On July 28, 1945, two days after the Potsdam Declaration, the Japanese Prime Minister Kantaro Suzuki declared at a press conference that the Potsdam Declaration was 'a thing of no great value,' and added: 'We will simply *mokusatsu* it.' In Japanese *mokusatsu* is a rather ambiguous word, rather untranslatable into English, and 'certainly not by a single word, for there is no English equivalent. Regrettably [...] the junior State Department official in charge of translating the Japanese reply lacked the necessary linguistic sophistication, and missed the subtle subtext of the reply altogether. Instead, he reached for a Japanese-English dictionary and translated *mokusatsu* by the closest single-word English equivalent, which happens to be 'ignore': 'We ignore the Potsdam Declaration." Which was also interpreted by the press in the United States and the United Kingdom as 'We reject it'." (Santoyo 2006: 37).

3 We make a distinction between education and training. Education refers to the acquisition of basic practical skills and conceptual knowledge, while training refers to the acquisition of advanced, on-the-job practical and behavioural skills. Other authors (including Bernardini 2000) have made similar, but slightly different, distinctions before us. Pym (2002; 2004), for example, makes the distinction between training (learning the skills of translation) and others forms of learning *about* translation.

the translation industry, and why practice is such a bad word in academic circles; what implications these firm positions have for translation and translation studies; whether universities are the best place to teach professional translation; and finally what can be done to solve this impasse.

2. Practice and theory: are they mutually exclusive?

One is tempted to agree with van de Snepcheut's aphorism, stating that in theory, there is no difference between practice and theory. But in practice, there is. Indeed, one could argue that theory and practice are inseparable and that sound practice and grounded theory inform each other. In translation programmes, the main objective is to educate students who, eventually, will be able to work as professional translators able to apply the knowledge they will have acquired in translation schools to the resolution of translation problems on a daily basis. Translation scholars argue that, in order for translators to accomplish their tasks effectively and efficiently, the latter must be able to apply a certain practical knowledge, but also to call upon cognitive skills in order to make the appropriate pragmatic choices in the accomplishment of their tasks. These cognitive skills can be acquired over time and through the rigorous practice of translation under the supervision of professional translators. In other words, they are likely acquired in the "doing", in the "translating". Therefore, one could argue that, if these cognitive skills are acquired in the practice of translation, why do translation schools not focus on the practice of translation? Pushed to the extreme, why are there translation schools? These questions raise the issue not only of the relevance of formal translator education, but they often place translation scholars on the defensive vis-à-vis the role of theory in translation curricula.

First, no one will deny that translation curricula have but one main goal, and that is to impart cognitive and practical skills to students, in order to prepare them for the practice of professional translation. However, it provides but one approach to a learning endeavour. Indeed, there are other ways to learn: one can learn on one's own, or learn by imitation. Arguably, university curricula provide a methodical approach to learning about translation and translating, and to acquire in as efficient a manner as possible a broad scope of skills and a depth of knowledge that can only be acquired over a very long period of time by the self-taught translator, as translation knowledge goes far beyond linguistic knowledge. Based on research in educational psychology, it is possible to classify knowledge into three different, yet interdependent, categories: declarative ; procedural and conditional knowledge.

Table 1 details the three categories of knowledge associated with any type of activity, for example professional translation. Specifically, it explains what each category of knowledge entails, how it is acquired, and which kind of activities promotes the development of such skills. When applied to translation, Declarative Knowledge involves the ability to reflect on and to discuss translation, as well as justifying translation choices. This kind of knowledge is not easy to demonstrate, therefore it may be considered "theoretical", but it is nevertheless a crucial part of translation competence, and translation teaching, as translation

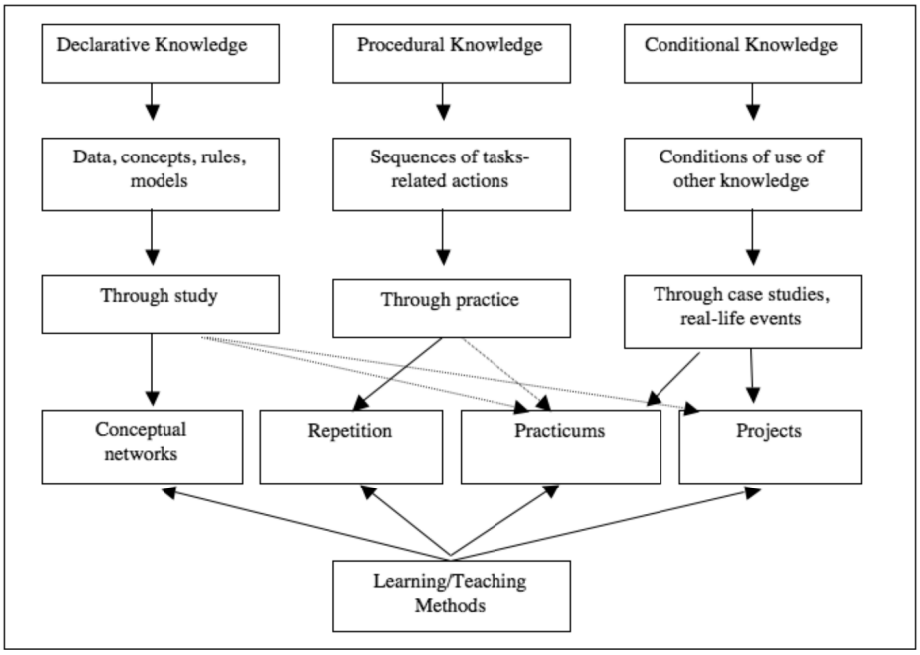

Table 1. Knowledge Categories (adapted from Schraw 2006: 247)

involves the application of conceptual knowledge that goes far beyond linguistic knowledge.

Procedural knowledge involves the ability to perform a task, and to perform it consistently well. It is the ability to "do" something, that is to say to do it well, quickly, consistently, professionally, ethically, rapidly, etc. It is related to performing a given task, sometimes so effortlessly that it seems automatic, and because it is almost automatic, it becomes virtually unconscious.

Conditional knowledge is related to making choices and strategizing, that is the ability to choose the appropriate procedure given a set of circumstances. It is the ability to discern the factors that will determine which approach, process, solution, macro- and microstrategy is most appropriate to a given translation problem or to a specific communication goal.

To those three categories of knowledge, a fourth can be added. It is what Kiraly (2000: 13, 49; see also Musacchio 2004 for a similar description) calls "translating competence", that is the social skill which is essential to the professional practice of translation. Whereas the first three categories make up the "know-how" of the translator, this social skill involves behavioural competence, or how translators should interact with other agents in order to accomplish their tasks successfully in a social context.

These are the categories into which falls all that translators must know, as one is not more important than another, and they continually evolve over time:

translation competence does not involve a static set of skills. It is instead a dynamic multicompetence, and translation curricula involve teaching all four of these skills. Aiming at imparting all of these skills in a comprehensive manner, in a relatively short period of time, would be utopian. One cannot expect translation curricula to prepare translation students to meet all the needs of the translation industry, no more than hospitals can expect newly graduated medical students to know all that there is to know about every medical condition. In the day-to-day practice of translation, hardly a day goes by that translators do not hone their skills: one never stops learning how to be a better translator. However, universities have a crucial role in teaching the fundamental knowledge based on which all other skills will be acquired throughout the translator's life, and this also includes the ability to conceptualize and to analyze, two skills that are clearly not strictly concrete by nature but are acquired through practice and through theorizing that practice. In translation, theory and practice do, and must, coexist.

3. Theory for theory?

One of the factors leading to theory being so decried by translator employers may be the fact that the industry misunderstands the purpose of theoretical content in translator education, or that it feels that there is simply too much theory and not enough practice. Translation is not a matter of replicating behaviours, but a highly demanding cognitive process. Nevertheless, it may be argued that the role of *fundamental theory courses* is not fully justified, or is at the very least misunderstood by the industry. It may be true of other professions, but it certainly is the case in highly professionalizing curricula such as those aimed at training professional translators. If one were to play the devil's advocate for a second, one would posit that, while these fundamental courses are an absolute necessity in the preparation of future translation scholars (i.e. those students who intend to continue on and become future translation scholars who will be responsible for training the translators of tomorrow), one could also argue that the type of theoretical knowledge imparted in fundamental theory courses may not be of much use to those whose goal it is to become professional translators. Hence, the negative attitude that the industry might have toward what is perceived as *theory for the sake of theory*.

However, because future translators and future translation scholars study side by side in the same classes, their distinct aspirations may cause one "stream" to overlap over the other, and lead some aspiring scholars to say that there is too much "practical" content in translation curricula, and some aspiring translators – and translator employers – that there is too much "theoretical" content in translation curricula. Ideally, undergraduate programmes would train the future translators of tomorrow, while graduate programmes would train the future scholars of tomorrow. This is not as simple as it may seem, especially in the paradigm of the Bologna Protocol, where professional translator training occurs mainly at the graduate level. In Canada, where professional translators are trained mainly at the undergraduate level, one might think that there is no

debate on the role of theory in translation programmes. In fact, as we indicated previously, industry representatives felt that recent translation programme graduates were ill-prepared because of course content that was too theoretical (Canadian Translation Industry Sectoral Committee 1999: 27). Such statements, however, are so vague that translator educators are left wondering how much theory is enough, or rather how practical can translation programmes be while remaining university programmes. One more crucial question for translation programme managers would be: "What *must* we teach?" and not "What *can* we teach?" Finding the answer to this question requires a thorough examination of the goals of translation programmes, more specifically what translation programmes are supposed to teach in order to prepare the future translators of tomorrow. In other words, what is to be defined is the didactics of translation (cf. Fiola 2003). It may be useful at this point to make the distinction between didactics and pedagogy: didactics being the "theory of teaching", or the study of what happens in preparation for teaching, while pedagogy is the "art or science of teaching", or the study of what happens inside the classroom. For example, curriculum design relates to didactics, while the delivery of classroom activities relates to pedagogy. Both are equally important as the former is the direct application of the latter, and the latter is informed by the former.

The didactics of translation is related to translation theory in the sense that, since translation is an activity, translation teaching flows from the observation of that activity (*translating*) or of the end result of that activity (*the target text*); therefore, Descriptive Translation Studies and Applied Translation Studies, as demonstrated eloquently by researchers such as Scarpa, Musacchio and Palumbo (2009), are crucial parts of the reflection on, and the application of, translator education. It is through *in situ* analysis that the translation process can be broken down descriptively and turned into a number of learning objectives, which in turn become translation programmes that meet the needs of students and of the industry. This descriptive analysis of the translation process can be achieved in a variety of ways, as there are several ways to theorize and to build knowledge. Here are a few examples, each with one case in point. Because of the limited space allowed in this paper, we are providing these cases as mere illustrations.

First, hindsight or *a posteriori* observations have long been used to develop knowledge and theories. The works of Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) are a good example of *a posteriori* observations that were then hypothesized as translation processes. Their so-called "processes" (*procédés* in French) are based on the analysis and description of linguistic features that the authors had noted in their analysis of samples of good and bad translations. Their work, often presented as a translation method, reads more like a set of principles, not rules, based on their observation of stylistic differences between English and French in a bilingual translation context.

Second, it is also possible to learn by doing, basically through trial and error. When used in the translation classroom, this approach is fairly innocuous. However, it may be far more problematic when used by naïve dilettantes who decide that, because they know two languages, they can translate. Those would-be translators, in reality, do not know yet how complex translation is. Psychologist Maslow (1972) would posit that these people have not yet realized what

they do not know, but have only reached the first of four levels of competence (unconscious incompetence-conscious incompetence-conscious competence-unconscious competence) (see *conscious competence theory* by Maslow). It is also the kind of translation knowledge that one acquires over the years, working under the supervision of a seasoned translator.

Third, we learn by speculating using either a deductive or inductive approach, from evidence to theory, or from theory to evidence. Conceivably, this form of knowledge acquisition method is better suited to research in translation studies than the practice of translation, although it mirrors almost identically the two main approaches to terminological research: semasiological (going from the term to the concept) and onomasiological (going from the concept to the term).

In the end, we theorize to understand, and in translation, the reasons why we try to understand stem from our desire to explain phenomena, to replicate processes and to prepare students to do both.

4. Industry and Academia: mutual dissatisfaction?

Because the translation industry is calling for radically practical translation curricula, and because translation schools are advocating for sound curricula including practice and theory, the time may have come for both sides to look at striking a balance between theory and practice and look for *practical principles* anchored in *theory* and *theoretical principles* founded on *practice*. Thus far, a majority of theoretical principles and models have been flowing directly from descriptive translation studies based on literary studies, which translator educators have tried in turn to apply in the classroom, with relative success. But, literary translation can only tell part of the story. Fortunately, a handful of translation scholars in Europe have demonstrated an interest for, and the relevance of, research on translation pedagogy based on descriptive approaches focusing on professional (non-literary) translation, and they are beginning to be heard in other countries with a rich translation tradition, such as Canada. These researchers are part of, but are not limited to, those new poles of research centered in Barcelona, Granada, and Trieste. Researchers involved in these movements are not trying to discredit theoretical research based on literary translation, but are instead dedicating much of their work to (re)claiming the fair share of attention that must be paid to sound empirical research in translation studies. It is hoped that their efforts will help bridge the gap between the industry and academia, a gap that is due, at least in our opinion, to mutual misunderstanding.

We believe that part of the misunderstanding between academia and the industry is that each side has its own view on quality, i.e. how the quality of work is assessed and what specific features are taken into consideration in quality assessment by educators and by employers respectively. For example, a "good" translation student is someone who will meet the learning objectives adequately and consistently. These objectives have to do with the quality of translation as we conceive it in translation classes: a methodologically sound approach, pragmatically founded and justifiable choices, high quality of the language used, and academic integrity. Consciously or not, educators teach in a way

that leads students to aim not only for quality, but for perfection, a view that sometimes contradicts the objectives set by translator employers. In fact, translation employers seek translators who will be able to provide a satisfactory translation in as short a period of time as possible, for as low a price as possible. Their view of quality has to do both with performance and risk management (i.e. produce the best translation possible in the shortest amount of time and at the lowest cost possible). Hence, if this is true, translations by translation students and professional translators are assessed based on very different schemes. It is likely the case, as it is not uncommon for a very good translation student to perform poorly initially in their first place of employment, and it is also possible for average students to be highly appreciated by employers. These views on quality are not diametrically opposed, but there appears to be a conceptual gap that needs bridging when it comes to defining the idea of "quality".

Part of the problem may also stem from the fact that today's translation graduates are hired to replace seasoned professionals, regardless of the fact that it takes time to achieve quality, and that quality (especially that relating to human resources) improves over time. In Canada, those who were hired upon the adoption of the *Official Languages Act of 1969*, also known as the beginning of the Golden Age of translation in Canada, are now retiring *en masse* and need to be replaced. Because it hasn't hired very many translators over the past decade or so, the industry is now looking for translators who can readily replace seasoned translators and can translate thousands of words day after day. They also want translators who can translate as part of a team and can use all that technology has to offer to make the translation process more efficient. Ultimately, they want translators who can provide them with translations that meet their standard of quality, that is to translate quickly and efficiently. They need these translators right now, and expect academia to fill the role both of educators and trainers (providers of translators with fundamental knowledge *and* the equivalent of on-the-job experience acquired over many years).

But, just as all translation scholars do not see translator education in the same eye, translator employers may espouse a variety of views when it comes to translation quality. In fact, we posit that the translation industry is comprised of three main groups: translation services providers (TSPs), translation services purchasers, and in-house translation services. TSPs know what translation is, and their main goal is to provide the best translation services at the most competitive prices. Their concept of quality translator will be based on efficiency, with profitability in mind. Translation services purchasers, for the most part, are not well versed in the requirements associated with translation, but they want translators to help them achieve their goals, which can be varied. Some might want to meet a legal requirement, while others might want to promote a product in a certain market from which they are separated by a language barrier, etc. Finally, in-house translation services will expect high-quality translations and the issue of cost may not be as prominent for them as it is for TSPs. Therefore, the notion of efficiency will be different for these three categories of employers, and it is this context that translator educators must take into consideration when they prepare future translators.

In summary, for translator educators, good translators have an extensive knowledge of both working languages and a variety of text types, demonstrate academic integrity (i.e., do not seek to pass someone else's work for his or her own), and have an ability to translate well (i.e. with style, as style is rewarded for it distinguishes the very good from the good, and the good from the merely good enough). Also, in some cases, translator educators will value students who demonstrate abilities for graduate studies.

As for translator employers, a good translator uses the appropriate level of language, produces translations that are appropriate (i.e. trigger no complaint by translation users, although their level of tolerance for language errors might be higher than translator educators), fulfill any legal requirements, and are produced just-in-time (delivered in a timely fashion). The idea of quality in this case requires striking a balance between the projected use, resources available and time versus output, in other words to provide the best quality translation possible, for the intended purpose, using the resources available, as quickly as possible, for the best price possible, involving the lowest factor of risk possible for the user.

5. Professional translation as a university subject

About half a century or so ago, professional translation was elevated from a course topic to full-fledged programmes in universities around the world. These programmes were, at the beginning, located for the most part in linguistics or language studies departments. As translation was elevated to a distinct focus of education and field of research, it has been distancing itself from its professional roots and, some would argue, from its core purpose. The debate surrounding the so-called over-theorization of translation curricula begs the following question: should translation be taught at the university level?

Most would argue that only a university education can provide translators with the breadth and depth of knowledge required to bridge the communication gap sometimes between very high-level experts. There is little doubt, if any, that that kind of translation skill can best be learned in university, as students are not only taught procedural knowledge, but also declarative and, perhaps most importantly, conditional knowledge. However, because of a different understanding of what translation entails, some in Canada, including the Government of Canada's Translation Bureau, are wondering if there shouldn't be levels of competencies in translation, and are advocating for the creation of programmes for "para-translators" on the model of *paralegals*. This implies that there are several levels of translation, or at least translation quality, based not only on quality of transfer and language, but rather based on the use of the translation (Scarpa 2008: 213-215). While it is easy to agree with Scarpa's view, a case can also be made that only professional translators have the required pragmatic skills and conceptual knowledge to discern what type of translation is required of a given text, based on the purpose of the translation, including the needs of the clients. The reason many rely on on-line software to translate their

texts is that they believe that translation is a simple matter of language, involving a change in "code," and not a communication process that cannot be carried out appropriately by mere bilinguals. What distinguishes professional translators from bilinguals who translate is the ability to analyze a situation of communication, to separate the two language-cultures at stake, to design a macrostrategy aimed at producing a translation that meets the communication needs, then to apply a series of microstrategies aimed at achieving that goal (see Scarpa 2008). Translators are professional communication problem solvers, and this requires extensive multidisciplinary knowledge that can best be obtained through a sound humanistic education, as translation is part science, as it involves knowledge, but it is also, at least partly, art, as it involves the application of choices, although these choices are less conditioned by the will to express one's style than by the communication needs. In sum, the artistic part involved in professional translation does not equate to artistic licence.

One cannot make the argument in favour of teaching translation at the university level without insisting on the crucial importance of graduate programmes in translation. Without graduate translation programmes, future translator educators would have to get their education somewhere else, therefore not in areas of studies that are primarily concerned with translation and translation quality, let alone professional translation. Certainly one can argue that some excellent translation professors come from such fields of studies as linguistics, literature, philosophy, etc. But translation studies is no longer considered as a field of interest somewhat related to other ones: it is its own *bona fide* field of research, and it now has its own graduate programmes that focus on fundamental and applied research, which have direct implications for the market and on the way we think about translation. All of this attests to the maturity of translation studies as a discipline and of translation as a profession.

6. What now, but more importantly, what next?

The role of translation schools is crucial, as they are responsible for educating future translators and, through their graduate programmes, future translator educators. When translation employers make the argument that new recent school graduates are ill-prepared for the real world, they imply that the industry would be better served if translators received a more practical education. Translation schools cannot, however, replace the crucial role of the industry in the ongoing training of recent graduates, as the significance and extent of what recent graduates have yet to learn upon graduation is considerable. And although translation schools have tried, with some success, to emulate real-life situations in the classroom, nothing will replace real-life experience gained on a daily basis. To the same extent, fundamental education is best provided by that translation schools as part of a comprehensive learning endeavour. Although translation schools can indeed be more effective in developing curricula that weave together theory and practice into a praxeological philosophy, the industry must also recognize that translation curricula cannot ever replicate the workplace environment in which one is able to gain valuable procedural and conditional

knowledge. Translator employers should also acknowledge that translators are highly qualified, interlinguistic and intercultural communication specialists, and that part of the translators' competence lies in their ability to use all three categories of knowledge to solve communication problems.

In addition, translation schools can argue that they are best positioned to use a variety of sound pedagogical approaches aimed at meeting each student's learning style, and at providing students with the ability to think critically. The social role of the translator must also be well understood, and one way of reaching that objective is to stop looking at them as simple operators, but instead as real agents of change whose aim it is to bring members of society closer together. In addition, they must be allowed to participate in the development of their profession, also through research aimed at finding new working methods and new technological tools that could make translation easier to perform and more reliable. It must be clear that the role of translation schools is not only to train translators who can meet today's needs, but translators who will still be competent to face the challenges of the translation industry 40 or even 50 years from now.

Unfortunately, the value of a good theoretical foundation in translation curricula remains largely invisible to the translation industry. But translation scholars can certainly make a sound case for the place of theory in translator education, as it is closely linked to the quality of learning and, ultimately, to the quality of translation that graduates and seasoned translators alike can produce in a variety of circumstances.

One question remains for translation scholars: is the theoretical base of this multicompetence that is translation best provided solely by translation scholars, or would it benefit from an interdisciplinary approach between a diversity of fields, such as sociology, linguistics, computer science, anthropology, business, etc.? That is a crucial issue that graduate programme administrators must reflect on carefully.

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The symbolic power of academic translator training institutions: The case of the Translation Studies Department at Istanbul University

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Abstract

Translation teaching, which is supposed to bridge "the theory" and "the profession", is often attacked by practitioners for its passivity and inertia. This critical attitude is seen in Turkey too, within the scope of various arguments. Yet, those who criticise academia seem to forget that translator training as an institutionalised academic activity has the power to change certain "malpractices" in the translation marketplace. In this study, we focused on the problems of the Turkish translation market and the symbolic power of the Translation Studies Department at Istanbul University in struggle with them. We used examples from our contribution to several initiatives on institutionalism and professionalism in literary and technical fields of translation/interpreting. Our contribution is primarily based on a descriptive approach aiming to collect the empirical data on the subjects to bring the related parties together in order to be able to discuss the issues from all points of view. We hope to have created a positive interaction as such, which has improved the translation practice and led to some changes in our country's translation market place for the better.

1. Introduction

Translation Studies (TS) as an independent academic discipline has made much progress in conceptualising its "subject-matter" (i.e. translation in all its components) with insightful studies and papers by pioneering TS scholars. The direc-

tion in translation research today seems to move towards interdisciplinarity and various emerging types of translation. This approach provided us with a wider theoretical framework and a large pool of concepts borrowed from neighbouring disciplines. But as we all know, borrowing concepts from other disciplines requires a comprehensive knowledge of the theoretical frameworks and the historical contexts behind the theories in question. If we fail to understand the concepts which seem to be useful in defining our cases adequately, the arguments to be based on them may also fail.

In this paper, we aim to discuss the role of academic translator training institutions in making the profession more visible and contributing to the resolution of some of the fundamental problems related to translation in society at large. To be able to describe our case, we borrowed some concepts from the field of sociology, namely the concepts of "symbolic power", "action network" and "symbolic interactionalism". Our discussion is based on our own experience as scholars of Istanbul University's Translation Studies Department actively collaborating with certain actors in the Turkish translation marketplace who are facing the following problems:

- the problematic status of the translation profession;
- the devaluing misperception of translation as an activity which can be exercised by anyone who knows a source language on top of his/her mother tongue;
- the lack of a professional organisation which represents translators and seeks to safeguard their intellectual property;
- the gap between TS scholars and practitioners;
- unfavourable working conditions (working hours, low rates) and the lack of standardised working agreements;
- the financial crisis in the publishing industry;
- the exploitation of student translators in the translation marketplace;
- translation plagiarism, which turned out to be a "tradition" in our country especially in the translation of classical works.

While some of the above problems, such as the problematic status of the profession, poor working conditions, the lack of legal regulations and the gap between TS scholars and practitioners, can be defined as common issues all over the world, others, such as plagiarism, the special status of the publishing industry and the exploitation of student translators in the translation marketplace, can be listed as local, i.e. national, problems.

In the process of defining our approach, we decided to take up translation sociology as a sub-research area of TS and made extensive use of Andrew Chesterman's works on the issue. Chesterman (2006: 11) discusses translation sociology from various conceptual points of view and maps out the main regions of trans-

1 Chesterman does not explicitly mention the role of translator training institutions in the sociological context in the process of professionalization probably because of the problematic status of the "profession" itself and the lack of concrete relations and cases. He mentions the "pedagogical assessment" of translations in Memes of Translation though, under the title of "Translation as Theory" (2000: pp. 138-142).

lational spatial contexts in addition to textual context as follows:[1]

- cultural context: focus on values, ideas, ideologies, traditions etc.
- sociological context: focus on people (especially translators), their observable group behaviour, their institutions etc.
- cognitive context: focus on mental processes, decision-making etc.

In an insightful paper titled "Bridge concepts in translation sociology", Chesterman states that "sociological research includes such topics as the translation market, the role played by the publishing industry and other patrons or agents, the social status and roles of translators and the translator's profession, translation as a social practice, and what Toury called the translation event" (Chesterman 2007: 173). This line of research focuses mainly on people and their observable actions, based on the idea that "if translation sociology places people centre-stage, and uses a causal model, it can also highlight genuine human agency and give space to the translator's subjectivity". Chesterman (2007: 175) further states that the "social level of translation" can be linked to "the Aristotelian concept of the final cause", i.e. "the skopos (translator's aim to earn a living; client's requirements)". He discusses similar translational problems from the point of view of translation ethics in another work titled *Memes of Translation*
– even if he does not explicitly mention the role of academic translator training institutions in the process of making the profession visible (Chesterman 2000: 169-170).

If we accept translation sociology as a sub-field of TS research, then we, as staff members of an academic institution, might contribute to existing research by describing our experiences with concepts borrowed from sociology and reaching certain conclusions about the role of translator training institutions in the process of professionalism. Since academic institutions create the opportunity – via their staff members and relations with the outside world of professional practice – to collaborate as "action networks", they might exercise a symbolic power in improving the existing situation.

In Turkey, translator training dates back to the beginning of the 1980s. Currently, translator training programs are available at 12 state and 14 private universities. Our Department was established in 1993 on the initiative of the German Division. In 2000, English and French Divisions were added to the Department. Our Department has always been open to developing relations with the professional organisations and the academic staff acted as the founding members of almost all of the associations that will be exemplified here. This is mainly because our staff members are basically practicing translators themselves who are aware of the importance of establishing links with the translation marketplace through traineeships and developing the standards and working conditions of the profession both for their own benefit as practitioners as well as for their students', i.e. the future translators. This point seems to be in accord with the study carried out by the prominent TS scholar David Katan on "translator/interpreter profiles as subjective models of reality" and its impact on "teaching for the profession" (Katan 2010).

2. Our situation

2.1 Relations with professional organisations

Professional organisations of translators started to appear in Turkey quite late, i.e. at the end of the 1990s. This seems natural, though, when we think of the problematic status of the profession and the delay in the establishment of the academic translator training institutions as late as the 1980s. The professional associations of translation that we will mention to describe our current situation are the Translation Association (founded 1999), the (Literary) Translators' Society (2006) and the Association of Translation Companies (2008).

2.1.1 The Translation Association (CEVIRI DERNEGI)

The Translation Association was founded in 1999 with the purpose of bringing together all the parties in the world of translation in Turkey as a result of a series of meetings held on the initiative of a group of TS scholars and translation company owners. The Translation Association is a member of FIT (International Federation of Translators). Our relations with the Translation Association include many activities, ranging from workshops and seminars to civil society initiatives such as running and contributing to national and international campaigns against violations of translators' rights and the celebration of the International Translation Day each year (Sep. 30th) by honouring a Turkish translator with membership in gratitude for his/her services in the field (see www.ceviridernegi.org for more about the Association).

The series of academic activities held in cooperation with the Translation Association started with the meeting titled "Being a Translator in Turkey" (2001).[2] The international colloquium[3] organised by Istanbul University in cooperation with the Translation Association and FIT, which accompanied the FIT Annual Board Meeting prior to it, was a good example of the cooperation between academia and civil society serving the ends of promoting both the profession itself and its academic training.

One of the rare examples of the cooperation between the state, civil society and the university is the Voluntary Relief Interpreting project (Afette Rehber Çevirmenlik/ARC) which was also started at the end of 1999 following the devastating earthquake in the Marmara Region in Turkey. The group was initially

[2] See Eruz (2003: pp. 134-144) for a list of academic activities held by our Department along with a discussion of the importance of cooperation with the sector and the civil society in academic translator training.

[3] International Colloquium of Translation: Translation in all its Aspects with Focus on International Dialogue, Oct. 19-21, 2009.

formed by the students and scholars of Istanbul University, who were also active in the foundation of Translation Association. The ARC Commission was formed within the Association in order to be able to sign a protocol with the Governorate of Istanbul, Directorate of Civil Defence. The protocol was signed in April 2001 to facilitate the mobilisation of voluntary interpreters to be embedded with the foreign search-rescue and relief teams at times of disasters such as earthquakes.

In this triangular model of cooperation, the university represented the aspect of training in keeping with its universal role of serving the public through informing and raising awareness.

Articles and academic publications by ARC members on the theoretical background and the practices of the group represented still another social contribution by academia in terms of observing, describing and explaining the phenomena for public service and use in community interpreting settings.[4]

2.1.2 The (Literary) Translators' Society (CEVBIR)

The foundation of CEVBIR is a good example of an academic contribution to "professionalization". The initiative of literary translators began in 2004 with the creation of a virtual community through an e-mail group which was formed with the aim of discussing the problems of literary translators and finding solutions through group synergies. The initiators of the group were professional literary translators who compiled the e-mail addresses of translators through several electronic sources in the publishing industry. When we received invitations to join the group, those who invited us probably did not know that we were also working as TS academics in the field of translator training, i.e. a group they had some negative opinions on. These opinions were eventually revealed in the e-mail group on several occasions.

The e-mail discussion group finally decided to found an association of translators to protect the literary translators' property rights. At that point, in 2005, we organised a *Forum* at our university to discuss the "professional problems" of translators who worked in all domains of translation: from literary translation, interpreting and subtitling to technical translation. *The Translators' Forum* created a forum for discussion for people that until then did not even want to know of each other. We can say that we played a key role in bringing together all the parties which were trying to solve translators' professional problems on their own.

CEVBIR[5] was founded in 2006 and is a member of CEALT (European Council of Literary Translators' Associations). As soon as the Society was founded we started to organise activities together with the professional translators in

[4] See Bulut & Kurultay (2001) for the status and the role of Translation Association in the process of the foundation of Disaster and Emergency Interpreting Volunteers as an example of the collaboration between the academy and the State; also see Doğan, Bulut, Kahraman (2005) for the sociological aspects of disaster interpreting as a type of Community Interpreting.

[5] For more information see www.cevbir.org.

CEVBIR in order to discuss the problems of translation and translators, which gave us a chance to get to know one another better. The prejudices began to disappear. In those years, the biggest issue in the sector was translation plagiarism, which was seen as an editorial practice in the translation of the classical canon. A group composed of TS scholars and professional translators worked together to report on this malpractice in all its components and published papers on some of the cases that were taken to tribunals.

We organised a major meeting in 2006 to discuss translation ethics. We invited academics, professional literary translators and representatives of professional organisations. This created a new occasion for us to take the issue of translation plagiarism to newspaper columns and literary magazines. A volume of *Proceedings* (Parlak 2008) was produced so as to serve as an academic guide for future research on the subject.

CEVBIR has working committees for different issues, as is the case in all professional organisations. We have taken part in these committees and organised further meetings, seminars and colloquiums which gave us the chance to break the ice and bridge the gap between academia and the profession.[6] The gap had already been bridged from our point of view, but we needed to know what the practitioners thought about the situation. That is why we sent a questionnaire to the members of CEVBIR in preparation for the present paper.[7]

The answers to the questionnaire revealed that the gap was now narrower and the professional translators appreciated our participation in the group. They seemed to draw a sharp distinction between our group and other academics, though. They were waiting for an initiative on our part to bridge the gap with them and other translator training institutions. Our initiatives seem to have helped change their minds about academia. They began to see our students as their "future colleagues" and decided to change the charter of the Society to include student translators and others who work in translation fields subject to property rights, such as subtitle writers and drama translators. They still think, though, that they do not need to be acquainted with translation theories in order to translate and that academic training is not necessary for literary translators.

[6] To bridge this gap, CEVBIR (The (Literary) Translators' Society/ Kitap Cevirmenleri Meslek Birligi) held a series of meetings on the status and the improvement of the interaction between academics and practitioners. The first meeting of the series was initiated by Turgay Kurultay (January 2008), followed by a forum with the participation of Alev Bulut and Bilal Colgecen based on an internet dialogue between the two upon the introductory review of Emma Wagner and Andrew Chesterman's *Can Theory Help Translators?* (a dialogue between a practitioner and a theoretician) on the Forum page of CEVBIR by Alev Bulut.

[7] The following are the questions included in the questionnaire: 1. Do you think that academic translator training is necessary for literary translators? 2. Do you think that academic translation training is necessary for literary translators? 3. Do you think that translation theories are useful to translate? 4. Do you think that academics have played an active role in the founding of translator organisations? 5. Do you think that academics have had an active role in the visibility of CEVBIR? 6. What do you think about their interventions in the e-mail group? 7. What do you think about their contribution to organisational activities? Do they play a passive or active role? Can they be more effective?

2.1.3 State/Ministry of Culture and Tourism (The 5th Publishing Congress)

Under the heading of the relations with the State, we will refer to the commission reports of the 5th Publishing Congress.[8] This was a good example of the interaction between the university, the civil society/NGOs, the State and the publishing sector hosted by the State. We were invited to a Congress organised by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in Ankara in December 4-5, 2009 as representatives of TS scholars and literary translators. We discussed the problems of the publishing sector in sub-commissions. In the closing session reports by the commissions were read and voted on. As expected, the discussions were heated since there were different parties whose interests were conflicting on certain issues. It is in this context that we could find a chance to use our "symbolic power". At crucial moments, we intervened in the discussion and our intervention changed the final voting in some cases. Some of the decisions that we contributed to under the titles of "expanding the publishing sector", "plagiarism" and "academic publishing" are as follows:

1. Promoting the recognition of the publishing industry by means of raising the quality of the translating and editing processes.
2. Underlining the importance of editing courses in the translation curriculum at universities.
3. Prevention of illegal photocopying and illegal/pirate publications.
4. Promoting the publication of original works and text books for university education as well as quality translations of international works.
5. Establishing a permanent committee, with the cooperation of the Ministries of Education and Culture and TS Departments of universities, to work on cases of "translation plagiarism".

3. Conceptualising the case: The role of academic translator training in constructing the "profession"

Based on the above experiences, we can evaluate the role of academic institutions in making the profession more visible. Universities have a respected status in Turkish society just as they do in the rest of the world. Yet, the university is no longer the ivory tower of knowledge that it used to be in the positivistic era of scientific research, due to new hierarchies. In the social constructivist era of education, a university is supposed to play a role in the improvement of social and professional standards. When it comes to the TS Departments, the role and responsibility of universities are even more important and indispensable in the struggle with poor working conditions and the lack of standardised working agreements.

[8] For more information, see http://www.ulusalyayinkongresi.gov.tr/Sonuc__bildirgesi.html.

Thus, translator training in the social constructivist era needs to define itself as a process of social upbringing in the sense that the translators receiving academic education should not fall behind the practitioners who learn through "apprenticeship". In social and constructivist pedagogy, theory is not seen in separate terms from the practical field it refers to (Kiraly 2000). Academic translator training, as well as any other academic field, is a social construct in organic relation with the society it lives in. It is constructed and constructs at the same time.

The role of academic translator training institutions in a society can be defined by the concepts of "symbolic power" and "institutional habitus". This symbolic power, in Pierre Bourdieu's (1991: 164) terms, is "that invisible power which can be exercised only with the complicity of those who do not want to know that they are subject to it or even they themselves exercise it".[9] Institutions can use their symbolic power in bringing all interested parties together to discuss problematic issues, find solutions and act collectively.

The human model in translation used to be static and based on loyalty. We knew, though, that the "silent slaves" always had a symbolic power to manipulate and change things at the textual level. What we needed was the translators breaking their silence and acting in an organizational culture to make a profession that was ignored for ages more visible. The visibility issue, as Chesterman (2000: 169) points out, "also concerns the translator's role in society, the translator's status and power". But without an institutional "symbolic" power and collaboration with professional organizations, it is too difficult to make a contribution to issues such as the translator's role and their status and power in society. Individual visibilities of translators create their individual "symbolic powers", yet the visibility of a profession and its recognition in a society require a more extended form of power which can only be obtained by "institutional identity". The experiences above reveal quite well that the university has exercised its "symbolic power" in gathering the related parties together to be able to discuss the translational problems of the country.

We have always adopted and still adopt the descriptive approach[10] that scientific research requires us to have, but our descriptivism does not keep us from acting against some macro-level translation problems and contributing to improving the condition of professional translators. Description is not a neutral act; it contributes to see what a situation is like, what could be done about it and how positive changes can be obtained. For that reason, we claim that an academic translator training institution needs to struggle to be visible for the sake of its students and be able to change the traditional points of view about the field, in practice and theory.

[9] See Bourdieu (1991: pp.163-171) for a detailed discussion of the concept of "symbolic power" within the frame of symbolic instruments in a society, that is: structuring structures (art, religion, language), structured structures (means of communication) and instruments of power (social classes, ideologies).

[10] See Chesterman (1993) for a discussion on the need for descriptiveness in the analysis of translational behavior.

The "symbolic power" which we claim to have is not a magic wand, of course, changing all negative aspects in a second. It is more like something of a moral, institutional and intentional nature: the key concepts here are "relation", "dialogue", "dynamic presence" and "redefining the role of the translator in a society". From this point of view, the symbolic power which we claim to have is more similar to the one in Hallett's (2003:129) objective approach which was built upon and implemented in the analysis of organisational cultures with reference to Bourdieu's "practice" and "symbolic power".[11] Hallett moves from practice into interaction, symbolic power and the emergent negotiated order, stressing the complementary contributions of theorists of practice and theorists of interaction.

4. Conclusion

As staff members of the TS Department at Istanbul University, we have tried to create an action network comprising professional translation organizations (bureaus/companies), academics and students. This network has created a "symbolic interactionism" which served to make the profession more visible.

Our relations and experiences as TS scholars allow us to state that translator trainers, in case they are active members of the professional world themselves, can contribute to the process of training the future translators in various respects:

- as translational role models with the capacity of academic guidance
- as activists trying to make visible a "profession" ignored for long
- as pioneering academics-practitioners showing the way for social responsibility, and thus contributing to the social value and the ethical sphere of the profession.

The above mentioned statements refer to both sociological and cultural contexts producing professional values and contributing to the visibility of translators in the society. The presence of TS scholars in a professional organisation might not be enough to fight the misconceptions about translation and translation theory in a society. The interaction, however, makes a meaningful contribution to the field both as a profession and a research area. One important contribution of the close ties or at least the interaction between academia and professional organisations was the fact that the meetings and workshops initiated by academics proved more fruitful in reaching common goals such as the improvement of the translation market and of translators' working conditions and professional standards, for the benefit of both practitioners and trainees.

In conclusion, we can say that our activities and actions as reported on in this paper can be seen as efforts to "bridge the gap" between translator training institutions and practitioners in the social constructivist era and from the viewpoint of translation ethics, institutionalism and professionalism.

[11] See also Bourdieu (1988) for a detailed discussion on "Academia" as a workplace with specific roles and relations of power; Bourdieu (1989) for a discussion of the social space and symbolic power; Bulut (2002) for the discussion of the interaction of the academia and the field in the Turkish case.

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Professionisti in prestito alla docenza

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Abstract

In more than 10 years of professional activity as translator I have tried to continually challenge the skills that define my professional profile. This includes taking advantage of my experience as trainer for companies and professionals, and as teacher for university students. My experience has given me an advantageous perspective on the evolution of the translation sector and the professional profiles involved. I see three fundamental aspects to the development of the professional translator: specific competences, ability in using tools and methodology. Tools are no longer limited to dictionaries, corpora, glossaries and technological supports. Language itself is now an instrument, and education has to take this into account. My courses are focused on methodology, not only on functionalities of translation technologies. I advise students to be flexible and proactive in using such tools, in order to be prepared to embrace the constant evolution of this profession. Academic institutions should also be more dynamic. In addition to responding to market demands, efforts should be made to trace flexible profiles in order to produce adaptable professionals. A didactic strategy toward building a bridge between university and job market might include tracking the professional activity of post-degree students assisting them with professional placement while collecting information that is useful toward the development of strategic teaching curricula.

1. Introduzione

Quando ho iniziato a lavorare come traduttrice non avrei mai pensato che prima o poi avrei insegnato ad altri il mestiere che stavo imparando, perché sottovalutavo un aspetto fondamentale: si impara a tradurre principalmente traducendo. Chiunque lavori per un LSP (Language Services Provider) o nel dipartimento linguistico di enti o aziende sa che alla fine si diventa tutti un po' insegnanti, quando traduciamo ma, soprattutto, quando rivediamo le traduzioni altrui: la differenza sta nell'approccio, che non è didattico, ma professionale.

Il lavoro del traduttore si caratterizza proprio per le fasi di traduzione e revisione, che generano naturalmente uno scambio di saperi e competenze tra professionisti e questo contrasta con il concetto che molti hanno del traduttore come artista isolato. Uno degli aspetti più interessanti del nostro mestiere è l'approccio collaborativo alla traduzione che si è diffuso con l'introduzione di Internet e dei programmi di traduzione assistita, soprattutto quelli di seconda generazione, ovvero strumenti come Similis, che integrano un motore di analisi linguistica, usano la tecnologia dei chunk per segmentare i testi e sono in grado di generare automaticamente dei glossari.

2. Insegnare ai professionisti

Ho fatto le prime esperienze di insegnamento di traduzione assistita come formatore e addetta al supporto tecnico per l'apposito software sviluppato da Star International, azienda presso la quale lavoravo anche come traduttrice e coordinatrice di progetto. Ho iniziato a insegnare seguendo gli schemi e i protocolli concepiti dalla società specificamente per i professionisti o i clienti che richiedevano formazione.

Per diventare trainer autorizzati di questi strumenti di traduzione assistita non basta conoscere nei minimi dettagli il software: è necessario partecipare a sessioni intensive di specifici programmi di addestramento (*train the trainer*) in cui non solo viene insegnato come e cosa spiegare, ma anche come preparare le presentazioni, le sessioni di formazione e i materiali per i corsi. Inoltre, nelle prime lezioni da trainer si viene affiancati da un tutor che assiste alle sessioni di formazione in aula e *on the job* e valuta l'operato del trainer, apportando i dovuti correttivi in base alle policy aziendali.

Lo scenario tipico in cui mi sono trovata spesso a insegnare è quello di un'azienda o un ente che dispone di procedure traduttive ben stabilite e consolidate (basate in genere su dizionario e Word) nonché di un prezioso patrimonio linguistico disperso tra file, documenti stampati e tradizione orale affidata ai dipendenti. In genere si decide di introdurre l'uso dei programmi di traduzione assistita prima di tutto per risparmiare tempo e denaro, ovvero per sfruttare al meglio le funzionalità di riutilizzo dei vecchi materiali riducendo così i tempi della traduzione, e in secondo luogo per sistematizzare tutte le informazioni linguistiche che "aleggiano" senza regola nell'ufficio e che spesso sono patrimonio personale di pochi.

Inserire l'uso dei programmi di traduzione assistita in un simile contesto è molto difficile per due aspetti fondamentali:

- rigidità da parte di coloro che partecipano al corso (in genere si tratta di professionisti esperti e molto competenti);
- necessità di preparare e riutilizzare l'asset linguistico preesistente.

Il know-how dei dipendenti e l'asset linguistico rappresentano un grosso vantaggio e allo stesso tempo un grosso handicap. Questo preziosissimo tesoro linguistico, che potrebbe essere valorizzato e condiviso anche grazie all'introduzione degli strumenti di traduzione assistita, soccombe alle esigenze dettate da tempi e costi. La preparazione dei materiali preesistenti richiede un investimento iniziale i cui frutti non si vedono immediatamente, perché si tratta di un processo ben diverso dal passare dalla macchina da scrivere elettrica al computer. Inoltre se prendiamo in considerazione anche il picco della curva di apprendimento nelle prime fasi, un'innovazione come questa potrebbe sembrare poco vantaggiosa. Tempi e costi iniziali non aiutano in genere l'introduzione di questi strumenti, perché le aziende o gli enti che affrontano un investimento nel costo del programma e della formazione dei dipendenti desiderano vedere immediatamente i risultati. Nella maggior parte dei casi ci si limita a sfruttare le potenzialità minime dei programmi introdotti pur di ottenere subito qualche risultato misurabile da un punto di quantitativo e soprattutto economico.

L'approccio migliore per introdurre questi prodotti in contesti simili sarebbe invece quello di ripensare le procedure di traduzione e gestione dell'asset linguistico in funzione prima di tutto delle specifiche competenze dei professionisti coinvolti e quindi delle funzionalità del programma, a partire dal formato dei file in cui si lavora per arrivare alla gestione delle memorie e ai controlli di qualità.

Oltre alle competenze tecniche sarebbero necessarie anche solide basi di teoria linguistica e traduttiva, che in genere finiscono purtroppo per soccombere alla pratica professionale, così come mi è capitato di vedere in alcuni ambienti in cui le traduzioni venivano curate da persone molto competenti nel settore specifico ma prive di preparazione come traduttore.

In occasione di queste giornate di formazione mi sono spesso trovata a utilizzare non solo le mie conoscenze tecniche, ma anche le competenze linguistiche e organizzative maturate come coordinatrice di progetto e di risorse umane all'interno delle società presso cui lavoravo.

Nonostante le tendenze del mercato attuali siano quelle di garantire trainer di ambienti di traduzione che facciano solo i trainer e traduttori che facciano solo i traduttori, mi sono sempre avvantaggiata della possibilità di usufruire delle competenze di entrambi i ruoli e della grande opportunità di assistere da una prospettiva privilegiata all'evoluzione del settore e delle figure professionali coinvolte.

Nello stesso periodo ho iniziato a partecipare a numerosi convegni e seminari di settore e ad avere i primi contatti con le università, perché le società che producevano software per la traduzione assistita ritenevano fosse necessario introdurre i professionisti alla traduzione assistita "da piccoli", prima cioè che venissero avviati al mestiere.

Ricordo ancora quando, nel 2002, insieme ad altre società, partecipai proprio presso l'Università di Trieste a due giornate di informazione/formazione sugli ambienti di traduzione. Allora rappresentavo la Star International e l'atmosfera che si respirava nelle aule era di grande interesse e allo stesso tempo di forte sospetto per qualcosa che voleva "automatizzare e spersonalizzare" il lavoro del traduttore.

Poco dopo, quando ormai avevo maturato una certa esperienza come trainer di ambienti di traduzione, è arrivata anche l'opportunità di insegnare nei corsi di traduzione specializzata e traduzione assistita presso l'università. Grazie ad alcuni colleghi professionisti a loro volta prestati all'accademia sono stata introdotta alla docenza e ho iniziato a insegnare prima in un master professionalizzante in localizzazione, per poi passare a un programma di formazione avanzata per la laurea specialistica in traduzione.

La prospettiva cambiava totalmente: il contatto con gli studenti ha ribaltato il mio punto di vista e ho iniziato a vedere i programmi di traduzione assistita con occhi nuovi. Il primo vantaggio che ho riscontrato rispetto ai corsi che tenevo per i professionisti è stata la totale assenza di abitudini e pregiudizi che condizionano i professionisti navigati, il che mi ha consentito di proporre l'effettiva integrazione degli strumenti di traduzione nel processo di lavoro e la diversa visione di un progetto che questa impone. Al tempo stesso mi sono trovata di fronte alla difficoltà di contestualizzare l'uso di questi programmi per evitare che l'apprendimento dei principi della traduzione assistita non si riducesse a una mera ripetizione meccanica di operazioni senza un vero obiettivo da raggiungere.

3.1 Adozione del PBL

Per il motivo sopra accennato, in collaborazione con il collega che cura il corso di localizzazione, abbiamo tentato un primo esperimento di applicazione dei principi del *Project-Based Learning* (PBL, cfr. Kiraly 2005), un modello della pedagogia costruttivista per la didattica in aula che pone l'accento sulle attività di apprendimento a lungo termine, interdisciplinari e rivolte allo studente. Questo approccio è destinato generalmente a situazioni complesse in cui è necessario il coinvolgimento attivo degli studenti, che sviluppano la comprensione degli argomenti trattati organizzando il proprio lavoro e gestendo il proprio tempo. Nel PBL agli studenti viene chiesto di "fare squadra", di lavorare insieme, assumendosi una responsabilità sociale, e di trovare soluzioni a problemi reali, mentre le loro scelte si concretizzano in un prodotto finale che rappresenta quanto hanno appreso.

Abbiamo così proposto l'esecuzione di un progetto strutturato per permettere agli studenti di simulare condizioni che rispecchiano il mondo professionale in ambiente protetto e sintetizzare la loro esperienza di apprendimento in un prodotto concreto. Gli studenti sono spinti a superare l'idea di essere ricettori passivi delle informazioni trasmesse loro dall'insegnante o dai libri di testo, lavorano con una prospettiva e un obiettivo diversi, ed evitano di concentrarsi solo sull'esame e sulle possibili strategie per superarlo con il minimo sforzo e il massimo profitto.

Abbiamo ritenuto necessario che gli studenti conoscessero il mercato, comprendessero e valutassero l'ambiente di lavoro, sviluppassero propensione al lavoro di gruppo e imparassero a rispettare le scadenze, abituandosi, nel contempo, a identificare gli aspetti tecnici e le competenze da sviluppare.

Per ridurre l'impatto con la realtà operativa, ancorché simulata, ho pensato di insegnare i principi della traduzione assistita servendomi di progetti già svolti e concessi a scopo didattico da alcune società con le quali ho collaborato in qualità di traduttrice o trainer di ambienti di traduzione, così da inserire anche piccole difficoltà o imprevisti per stimolare di volta in volta competenze e capacità dei singoli studenti o del gruppo di lavoro.

La scelta del modello didattico PBL si è rivelata efficace soprattutto nel rispondere a un'esigenza dettata dal mercato e dall'evoluzione tecnologica che ha investito l'industria della traduzione negli ultimi anni.

4. Tecnologia e traduzione: un mercato in evoluzione

Alla luce delle esperienze vissute finora nei diversi ambienti in cui mi sono trovata a lavorare, credo che il profilo del professionista sia destinato a evolversi su tre punti fondamentali: competenza specifica, capacità nell'uso degli strumenti e metodologia.

Il concetto di traduzione specializzata e le metodologie di insegnamento di questa materia non possono più prescindere dalle opportunità e dalle prospettive formative offerte dalle memorie di traduzione. Gli strumenti, in particolare, non sono più solo i dizionari: a essi si sono aggiunti glossari e corpora elettronici e vari supporti tecnologici; la lingua stessa è già diventata uno strumento al pari degli altri e la formazione deve rivolgersi all'uso proficuo di essa. La necessità di affiancare alle competenze linguistiche le conoscenze specifiche in alcuni settori e l'esigenza di comprendere l'argomento che si sta traducendo hanno trasformato Internet in un enorme corpus da cui attingere termini in contesto. La traduzione assistita, le memorie di traduzione e le applicazioni per la gestione della terminologia hanno completato questo percorso.

Il concetto di dizionario tende a sparire e a essere sostituito dal glossario, non inteso nel senso classico del termine (una risorsa cui ricorrere per colmare una lacuna) ma come strumento necessario per applicare la terminologia obbligatoria, che definisce il prodotto e/o il cliente. Il senso dello strumento si stravolge completamente nel momento in cui si deve usare il glossario non per cercare termini inconsueti, ma per servirsi delle risorse di cui si dispone e delle proprie conoscenze in modo diverso, adatto al contesto traduttivo.

Così, nei miei corsi, mi sforzo di introdurre gli studenti all'uso sistematico dei supporti tecnologici, non dal punto di vista funzionale, ma metodologico. Un traduttore ha bisogno di acquisire molte competenze per adattare stile, registro, terminologia al progetto su cui sta lavorando, per usare gli strumenti richiesti, per poter consegnare la traduzione nei tempi e nei modi che gli vengono imposti, per poter dare il meglio anche con argomenti che non gli sono del tutto familiari o congeniali. Un traduttore non può essere un tuttologo, ma deve poter garantire competenza e affidabilità nel suo lavoro: non gli basterebbe una vita per specializzarsi in tutti gli argomenti con cui viene chiamato a confrontarsi quotidianamente, ed è all'esperienza che deve affidarsi. Col tempo e la pratica, infatti, affina la capacità di ricerca, la metodologia di lavoro, l'abilità nel trovare rapidamente le soluzioni ai problemi che incontra.

Il traguardo che propongo agli studenti è di imparare a essere flessibili, elastici, reattivi, pronti a servirsi di ogni innovazione con un atteggiamento proattivo a cominciare dal proprio *modus operandi*, perché gli anni dell'università devono essere spesi per imparare ad adattarsi alle esigenze di un mestiere in costante mutazione in modo da riuscire poi ad adattarsi all'ambito di lavoro e al contesto di riferimento, per non essere ossessionati dalla caccia agli errori propri e altrui, imparando invece a prevenirli servendosi degli strumenti a disposizione.

Alla fine, il traduttore diventa un po' esperto della materia e il revisore diventa anche un po' insegnante e questo travaso di competenze finisce per diventare soprattutto un trasferimento di esperienze e astuzie.

5. Experiential learning e traduzione

È proprio qui che credo si possa vedere un punto di incontro tra università e mondo del lavoro che potrebbe giovare a entrambi. Da un lato abbiamo asset linguistici considerevoli che potrebbero costituire materiale didattico prezioso per la traduzione specializzata, dall'altro menti fresche e operose pronte ad applicare le teorie e le competenze che hanno acquisito con lo studio. In mezzo ci sono i programmi di traduzione assistita che possono essere utilizzati come punto di raccordo tra queste due esigenze. Si potrebbe creare, ad esempio, una sinergia tra aziende che hanno bisogno di preparare i propri materiali per poterli riutilizzare con i programmi di traduzione assistita e gli studenti che hanno necessità di avere un primo contatto con il mondo del lavoro e di operare con linguaggi specialistici di settore e problemi reali.

Ed è qui che si potrebbero introdurre e sfruttare i principi dell'*experiential learning*, applicando i quattro elementi fondamentali del modello proposto da David Kolb e Roger Fry (Kolb & Fry 1975; Kolb 1984, 1993; Kolb *et al.* 1974): esperienza concreta, osservazione e riflessione, elaborazione di concetti astratti e verifica in nuove situazioni. Apprendere riflettendo sul lavoro svolto realmente, apprendere da osservazione diretta e interazione, non solo assorbendo principi teorici esposti sui libri o su fredde presentazioni in PowerPoint. L'insegnante deve diventare una sorta di facilitatore e aiutare gli studenti a

immergersi completamente nell'esperienza, stimolandone le capacità e indirizzandone gli sforzi.

Quando vado a fare formazione nelle aziende, obiettivi ben delineati e contesto di applicazione ben definito e condiviso dai partecipanti riducono significativamente i tempi di apprendimento canalizzando energie e sforzi, ma al tempo stesso tolgono tempo alla sperimentazione e all'innovazione, mentre il potenziale dell'asset linguistico accumulato viene dimezzato dalla mancanza di risorse e tempo.

Quando entro in classe, sento gli studenti fremere dal desiderio di iniziare a mettere in pratica ciò che hanno imparato e al tempo stesso li vedo persi di fronte alle potenzialità e alla complessità degli strumenti di traduzione che stanno imparando a usare ma che non sono in grado di contestualizzare all'interno di un contesto lavorativo o di un workflow traduttivo. E penso a quante energie e quante competenze si stanno sprecando!

Sarebbe auspicabile, in questo senso, un maggior dinamismo da parte delle istituzioni accademiche nel proporre l'offerta formativa, non per rispondere solo alle esigenze di un mercato pure in continua evoluzione, quanto per tracciare profili flessibili, per insegnare agli studenti ad adattarsi, per stimolare e sviluppare in loro "multiple intelligences" (Gardner 1999).

Capita che in ambito professionale si rimproveri ai neolaureati di essere troppo rigidi e difficilmente adattabili. Talvolta, dalla prospettiva del datore di lavoro, la capacità di lavorare in gruppo o di apprendere rapidamente nuovi sistemi di lavoro prevale su eccellenti competenze linguistiche, oppure un approccio più flessibile e proattivo viene preferito a un atteggiamento metodico ma rigido. D'altra parte, spesso le aziende cercano profili impossibili di neolaureati specializzati, con almeno un paio di anni di esperienza, massimo venticinquenni!

Questa esperienza di insegnamento ha cambiato il mio approccio alla professione, rinnovandolo e dandogli nuovo impulso. Gli studenti spesso mi obbligano con le loro domande a ripensare aspetti della routine lavorativa che ormai davo per scontati e a rivederli sotto una nuova luce. Quando mi si presenta un nuovo problema linguistico o tecnico sul lavoro sono sempre curiosa di sottoporlo anche a loro perché so che potrebbero darmi una soluzione o una chiave di lettura a cui io non avevo pensato.

Per iniziare a creare un ponte tra università e mondo del lavoro si potrebbero seguire i neolaureati per un periodo di tempo, non solo per assisterli nell'orientamento e nell'inserimento nel mercato del lavoro, quanto per raccogliere informazioni utili a ri-orientare i programmi di insegnamento.

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Translation studies as academic education

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Abstract

People with the same linguistic competence and background show different translation abilities and performances if subjected to different types of translation education. The paper reports on a study conducted to test this hypothesis. In the study, 20 subjects (the experimental group) were selected homogenously in terms of their general English skills, their educational background, and their familiarity with the practice of translation. They were given a pre-test so as to be evaluated on their language and translational skills, in the four domains of cognition, production, naturalness, and translation techniques. The subjects attended a course during which they became familiar with the basics of translation. A post-test (post-test 1) was administered to the subjects to check their improvement. The results showed that their performance had improved. A new test was administrated, with new (unseen) texts and the results again showed an increase in performance (post-test 2). This final test was given to a new group of subjects (control group) selected using the same criteria as the experimental group. The subjects who had taken a brief translation course (the experimental group) stood head and shoulders above the second (control) group.

1. Introduction

1.1 Overview

Translation is practiced with different levels of performance. The reason for these differences is obvious: the degree of linguistic competence differs in people due to their particular experience of language. Two people with identical language experience (e.g. bilingual twins) may show different translation performances. In such cases, there might be several factors involved, e.g. the level of interest in translation, the mental capacity of different individuals and their inherent linguistic abilities. One aspect, however, has frequently been overlooked in considering differences in translation performance between individuals and that is the role of "academic translation education". The hypothesis examined here is that people with the same linguistic competence and background show different translation abilities and performances if subjected to different types of translation education. A translator is someone who, apart from knowing the target and source language, is aware of the particulars and subtleties of translation. A translator should know the techniques and strategies of translation and be aware of the nature and type of the translation task s/he is carrying out. Knowledge of the purpose and mastery of the subject matter are also essential. Translation education means gaining insight into the nature of languages and cultures and also the knowledge of the proper skills, strategies and techniques to transcode one language into another in the most appropriate way; this is not possible unless one is academically (or through professional experience) educated to be a translator. In this study, it is assumed that translation is more than an intrinsic talent: it can be taught; the improvement in translation performance is directly related to the amount of education and practice one gets; and, finally, this improvement is measurable. The authors do not have the intention to deny the fact that, being an art (as well as an academic subject), translation requires a certain amount of talent, but that applies to half of the definition of translation and its nature as an academic discipline should be a central point of attention.

1.2 Translator training

What skills are needed to enhance translating abilities? And how can one became a good translator? Extensive reading of different translations of different kinds of texts should be taken as the first step because, as Razmjou (2004) states, translating requires active knowledge, while analyzing and evaluating different translations requires passive knowledge. She adds that receptive skills should be developed before the productive ones; i.e. by reinforcing their passive knowledge, students will eventually improve their active knowledge. Receptive skills improve the students' language intuition and make them ready for actual translating. Razmjou (2004) lists other issues that translation students should be informed of: a) the different genres in the source and target languages: genres implicitly transfer culture-specific aspects of a language; b) reading recently published articles and journals on theoretical and practical aspects of translation; c) writing skills: the ability to write fluently and

correctly in both languages; d) language intuition; e) culture, customs, and special settings of the source and target language speakers; f) reference materials (dictionaries, encyclopedias, and the Internet) and learning how to use them; g) the syntax, discourse and various figures of speech of the languages involved; and finally a systematic treatment of translation education.

1.3 Academic training of translators

Academic training should deal with writing skills or cultural sensitivity. Students should carry out much translation homework. The homework should then be analyzed and discussed. Students' errors should be taken seriously and dealt with as collaborative translation revision during class. Translation students should work on the subject field(s) that they have background knowledge of and should develop their knowledge of the specialised domain in which they aim to translate professionally. It is also recommended that the translation be from a foreign language into the student's mother tongue, since professional translators usually translate into their native languages.

2. Methodology

2.1 Subjects

2.1.1 The "experimental group"

Individuals with no or few comprehension problems in English (upper-intermediate to advanced learners of English) were selected as appropriate subjects for this study. They were all university students from B.A./B.S. programmes with little or no experience in translation. This body formed the experimental group who attended the translation course. They were given a translation test at the beginning of the course and two at the end, to check the rate of improvement in their translation skills.

2.1.2 The "control group"

A second body of 20 subjects was selected, applying the same selection criteria used for the experimental group; the only difference was that this group did not attend the course, but was given the translation test only as control, in order to compare results.

2.2 Test battery

The tests, namely pre-test, post-test 1, and post-test 2, consisted of a group of texts purposely selected in order to test the subjects on a variety of genres and registers and to see the type of strategies the subjects would adopt when faced with problems that were patent in the genres represented by the chosen texts.

2.3 Procedure

2.3.1 The homogeneity test

The "Oxford Proficiency Test" (O.P.T.) was administered for the purpose of determining homogeneity. It consists of two parts: a "listening test" and a "grammar test" each with 100 multiple-choice questions. Each part of the test takes 30 minutes, totaling 60 minutes, and the maximum score is 200, but 125 to 145 was considered as the acceptable range to make the subjects eligible to take part in the experiment. This range equals 5 to 6 on the IELTS score.

2.3.2 Pre-test

The pre-test consisted of 8 texts of different levels of difficulty, register and styles. Each text presented different problems and therefore different translation strategies to adopt. The texts were chosen so as to be in accordance with the linguistic competence of the subjects.

2.3.3 Content of teaching

The teaching for the experimental group mainly revolved around the most frequent techniques and strategies in translation (cf. Fahrazad 2005, Leonardi 2000, Kenny 1998, Mahmoodzadeh 2004, Manafi Anari 2001, Mollanazar 2003, Sarhadi 2005) so as to raise the awareness of the subjects to translation as a skill with its own technical subtleties and intricacies. Teaching was focused on the following aspects: a) proper use of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries; b) collocation; referential, connotative, and pragmatic meaning; literal versus idiomatic meanings; c) syntactic differences between Persian and English; d) extra-linguistic elements such as time, place, and culture; e) concepts of style, register, and different textual genres; f) theories related to equivalence in translation; g) overt versus covert translation; over-translation and under-translation.

The subjects were also given home assignments to have further practice out of class.

2.3.4 Evaluation procedure

The translations in all the tests were examined and assessed based on an adaptation of the model proposed by Farahzad (1992) in relation to the four domains of "cognition", "production", "naturalness", and "translation techniques". The aspects which were checked in the evaluation of the translation tests are as follows:

1. Cognition:
   a) lexical accuracy in terms of correct recognition of the meaning and function of lexical items

b) syntactic accuracy in terms of correct recognition of structures and tenses and their function
c) the number of illegitimate omissions due to lack of recognition.

2. Production:
   a) lexical accuracy in terms of appropriate choice of equivalents for a lexical item, considering meaning and function
   b) syntactic accuracy, in terms of appropriate rendering of tenses and grammatical structures.

3. Naturalness:
   a) appropriate use of cohesion and coherence
   b) appreciation and application of register and style
   c) the feeling of originality in terms of considerations for Persian fragmentation, socio-cultural elements, time of translation and degree of differentiation (all, if necessary).

4. Translation techniques:
   a) appropriate use of the required type of translation (literal/word-for-word, and free)
   b) appropriate use of shifts and adjustments.

Marking was based on a range of 1 to 5, in which each number would represent, respectively, "very weak", "weak", "acceptable", "good", and "very good".

Table 1 shows the results obtained for one of the subjects.

Texts	Cognition	Production	Naturalness	Translation techniques	Row total
One	2 of 5	2 of 5	3 of 5	1 of 5	8 of 5
Three	4	3	2	2	11
Five	3	3	4	3	13
Seven	4	3	2	4	13
Colum total	20 of 40=50%	18 = 45%	19 = 47.5%	17 = 42.5%	74.160=46.25%

Table 1. The results of pre-test of one of the subjects

The results of all the tests were examined so as to establish comparisons on a longitudinal basis:

1. Each column was compared to see how much progress each subject made in the different four domains.
2. Each row was compared to see how much progress each subject made in different types of texts.

3. The total of all columns for all subjects from the pre-test was compared to the corresponding total in post-test 1 to find out the overall progress of all subjects in different domains.
4. The total of all rows for all subjects from the pre-test was compared to the corresponding total in post-test 1 to find out the overall progress of all subjects in different types of texts.
5. The total of all columns and all rows was compared in both tests for each subject to check total individual progress.
6. The overall total (the total of all columns and all rows) was compared in both tests to check total overall progress.

2.4 Post-test 1

At the end of the course, which comprised twenty two-hour sessions (on over two and a half months), a second test was given to the subjects. The test was in fact the same as the pre-test to which the subjects were exposed at the beginning of the course. The aim of this test was essentially to check the advancement of the subjects in translation performance.

2.5 The results

Table 2 shows how the results in the pre-test compare with those in post-test 1: it reveals the rate of students' improvement in translation in the last row.

In order to simplify the analysis of results we found it better to compare the maximum and minimum scores for each domain and the related rate of improvement (Table 3).

The results are quite convincing in supporting the initial hypothesis. The subjects' improvement in the two domains of cognition and production of English texts were those that changed the least (average = 10%); this is probably due to the the fact that a period of over two months of education with the purpose of teaching translation can not result in drastic changes in language competence as such. The highest scores are associated with improvement in translation techniques (average = 26.25%) and the second highest with improvement in naturalness (average = 17.75%). This is logical, as the focus of the translation course was on basic techniques used in translation. The score for naturalness is understandably lower compared to that for translation techniques because the subjects could not be expected to instantly gain mastery of the culture and subtleties of a foreign language.

2.6 Post-test 2

The previous experiment, however convincing, may raise the question that the texts used in both pre- and post-tests were one and the same, which may have negatively affected the results. Therefore, another test needed to be performed in order to support the results of post-test 1, as doubt could be cast on the

Domain	SUBJECTS																				Average
	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12	S13	S14	S15	S16	S17	S18	S19	S20	
Cog. 1	20	32	30	28	27	20	26	30	28	18	30	27	20	26	31	19	28	21	30	28	25.95
Cog. 2	24	33	33	32	34	24	30	34	30	30	32	34	25	30	33	24	30	30	34	32	30.4
Prod. 1	18	32	26	26	23	21	26	32	30	20	25	24	21	25	32	18	30	20	32	25	25.3
Prod. 2	28	33	28	31	27	24	32	36	34	30	28	28	22	32	35	26	34	30	36	32	30.3
Nat. 1	19	26	22	27	19	17	18	28	22	17	22	19	17	18	26	18	22	17	28	27	21.45
Nat. 2	23	27	24	34	25	24	24	36	30	26	24	25	24	24	30	22	30	24	32	34	27.1
T.T. 1	17	19	20	19	14	17	18	24	22	18	20	16	17	18	20	17	22	18	24	21	19.05
T.T. 2	26	27	25	32	26	25	28	34	32	26	25	26	25	28	27	25	32	26	34	32	28.05
Pre-test total per person	74	109	98	100	83	75	88	114	102	73	97	86	75	87	109	72	102	76	114	101	
Post-test 1 total per person	101	120	110	129	112	97	114	140	126	112	109	113	96	114	125	97	126	110	136	130	
Pre-test total % per person	46.25	68.18	61.25	62.5	51.88	46.88	55	71.25	63.75	46.63	60.63	53.75	46.88	54.38	68.13	45	63.75	47.5	71.25	63.13	
Post-test 1 % total per person	63.13	75	68.75	80.63	70	60.63	71.25	87.5	78.75	70	68.13	70.63	60	71.25	78.13	60.63	78.75	68.75	85	81.25	
Rate of improv. % per person	16.88	6.78	7.15	18.13	18.12	13.75	16.25	16.25	15	24.37	7.5	16.88	13.12	16.87	10	15.63	15	21.25	13.75	18.12	

Table 2. The results of pre-test and post-test 1

Max. & Min.	pre-test	Post-test 1	Improvement by number	Rate of improvement (%)
Min. Cog.	18 of 40	24 of 40	6	15%
Max. Cog.	32	34	2	5%
Min. Prod.	18	22	4	10%
Max. Prod.	32	36	4	10%
Min. Nat.	17	22	5	12.5%
Max. Nat.	28	36	8	20%
Min. T.T.	14	25	11	27.5%
Max. T.T.	24	34	10	25%
Min. Total	72 of 160	96 of 160	24	15%
Max. Total	114	140	26	16.25%

Table 3. Maximum and minimum scores for each domain

reliability of these results. The third test employed previously unseen source texts. This test was given to both the experimental and control groups, and was named "post-test 2" and "control test" respectively. The results (Table 4) and the average for each domain were obtained in the same manner as for pre-test and post-test 1.

Domain	SUBJECTS																				Average
	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12	S13	S14	S15	S16	S17	S18	S19	S20	
Cog.	24	33	30	32	32	24	30	36	30	30	32	32	26	30	30	28	30	28	30	30	29.85
Prod.	30	30	30	32	30	24	30	26	32	32	32	28	24	32	34	27	32	30	32	38	30.25
Nat.	25	30	30	30	28	28	28	38	30	26	30	28	28	28	30	25	30	30	34	34	29.5
T.T.	30	27	28	32	28	25	28	36	34	26	28	28	26	27	28	25	32	32	34	32	29.3
Total	109	120	118	126	118	101	116	146	126	114	122	116	104	117	122	105	124	120	130	124	
Rates %	68.13	75	73.75	76.75	73.75	63.13	72.5	91.25	78.75	71.25	76.25	72.5	65	73.13	76.25	65.63	77.5	75	81.25	77.5	

Table 4. The results of post-test 2

This time, in order to simplify the analysis of results, the comparison carried out is based on the average of all the 20 subjects on pre-test, post-test 1, and post-test 2 (Table 5). Although there is a slight decrease for Cognition (2%) in post-test 2 – which could be explained by the fact that subjects had totally new texts to translate – the results can still seem to provide evidence that the subjects who were taught translation improved their overall translation skills.

Domain	Average 20 Subjects		
	Pre-test	Post-test 1	Post-test 2
Cog.	25.95 of 40	30.4 of 40	29.85 of 40
Prod.	25.3	30.3	30.25
N.T.	21.45	27.1	29.5
T.T	19.5	28.05	29.3
Total	96.2 of 160	115.85	118.9

Table 5. The results of pre-test, post-test 1, and post-test 2

2.7 Control test

As there is a slight possibility that the subjects who attended the course could have done well in post-test 2 without getting any training in the field of translation, another group of 20 students were chosen through O.P.T. and the same post-test 2 was given to them. Table 6 shows the results.

In comparing the results for post-test 2 (Table 4) and those for the control test (Table 6), it is clear that the subjects who were exposed to the translation course performed better in translation-related skills.

Domain	SUBJECTS																				Average
	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12	S13	S14	S15	S16	S17	S18	S19	S20	
Cog.	20	20	17	23	26	29	21	18	25	22	19	19	20	21	19	21	17	18	20	20	20.8
Prod.	20	20	20	21	24	25	22	18	25	20	21	18	18	18	20	20	2	21	28	19	21
Nat.	20	18	17	20	20	22	20	17	20	19	21	18	18	21	20	18	19	19	24	22	19.7
T.T.	18	18	18	20	19	20	21	18	21	19	18	17	17	20	17	18	19	22	20	21	19

Table 6. The results of Control test

3. Conclusion

In this experiment the aim was to examine the role of formal education in translation performance. The attention was fixed only on general aspects of translation. Therefore, the criteria for evaluating performance were the four broad domains of "cognition", "production", "naturalness", and "translation techniques". Four tests were administrated: Pre-test and post-test 1 (based on the same source texts), post-test 2 (with new source texts), and a control test (with the same texts as in post-test 2 but new group of subjects). The results were satisfactory. Almost all the subjects showed improvement in almost all the domains tested. The subjects clearly showed improvement in both post-tests and also showed superiority in their translation skills compared to the subjects in the control group.

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The place of screen recording in process-oriented translator training

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Abstract

This paper explores the utilization of screen recording as a learner-centered methodology aimed at fostering the translator's problem awareness and problem solving capacities. Along with keystroke logging and eye-tracking, screen recording is generally held in high regard within the research community as an unobtrusive tool geared towards the documentation and empirical analysis of translator behavior, such as decision-making and strategy execution. Of the three, only keystroke logging has consistently made its way from the research lab into the classroom for training student self-awareness of comprehension, transfer and production processes (cf. Alves 2005; Göpferich 2009; Hansen 2006a, 2006b; Jakobsen 1999; Lee-Jahnke 2005). Here, we will provide a brief overview of some of the preferred methods of process-oriented translator training to date, followed by a discussion of how screen recording fits into the bigger picture. Finally, we will outline a series of concrete problem awareness training activities in which students critically analyze their own screen recordings, both in isolation and in conjunction with comparable screen recordings produced by professional translators working with the same texts.

1. An overview of process-oriented translator training

Instead of approaching process-oriented training from the perspective of a single definition, we feel it is more conducive to elaborate on what it sets out to accomplish, namely, the enhancement of process knowledge (Shreve 2009). This

involves efficacy in monitoring ones progress when completing a task, evaluating ones performance, and keeping problems at bay as they arise. One of the primary objectives of process-oriented translator training involves honing the student's metacognition, or conscious, heightened, and strategic awareness of *how* one translates. In terms of concrete learning outcomes, students should be able to more successfully recognize problems, delineate their scope and nature, and ultimately understand how to best go about solving them. Early advocates of such performance-analytic training include Jääskeläinen (1990), Lörscher (1991), Gile (1994), and Kussmaul (1995).

Despite process-oriented training's existence in translation pedagogy for the past thirty years, training today still tends to be biased in the direction of the final product, or, more specifically, the quality of the final product, thereby neglecting the processes going into its creation (Dam-Jensen & Heine 2009: 1). In predominantely product-oriented training environments, translation students are guided to see where errors were made and the types of errors made, but are often not encouraged to re-examine their own decisions, strategies and behaviors that likely led to the errors in the first place. Furthermore, recent studies have indicated that student problem reporting often lacks detail (Göpferich 2008: 36), pointing towards shallow understanding of the nature and scope of problems encountered. Professional translators, on the other hand, seem to have a more firmly established capacity for recognizing cues in the text that indicate translation difficulty (Shreve 2002) and tend to exhibit strategic problem solving behavior more frequently and successfully than students (Angelone 2010; Angelone & Shreve 2011). Even when students recognize that a problem has in fact occurred, they are likely less cognizant than professionals as to what might be triggering it. Ultimately, due to faulty problem recognition and delineation, what students assume to be problematic often really is not, and, even worse, what really is problematic often goes unnoticed.

As trainers, we need to get our students to become better aware of the problems they encounter, or, as proposed by Dam-Jensen and Heine, "see themselves not only as learners, but also as thinkers and problem solvers" (2009: 1). This is where screen recording holds great potential, providing learners with real-time audio-visual documentation of their translation behavior and overall performance from both process- and product-oriented perspectives. Screen recordings render problems encountered in the form of observable indicators, such as extended pauses in screen activity, information retrieval from various computer-based resources, and revision behavior. We will illustrate these notions in greater detail over the course of this paper, but first we will review some of the most influential process-oriented training methodologies to date.

2. Process-oriented training methodologies

2.1 Integrated Problem and Decision Reporting

One of the pioneers of process-oriented translator training is Daniel Gile, who introduced the Integrated Problem and Decision Reporting (IPDR) model over

thirty years ago (2004: 3). Students are asked to keep a running log of problems encountered while translating, the steps taken to solve them, and their rationale for doing so. Having students report on problems and decisions over the course of a translation stimulates focused attention on the salient features of the task. Focused attention, in turn, may help the translator become aware of certain patterns in problem areas, as defined by a particular textual level (e.g. lexis, collocation, syntax, cohesion) and a particular locus, namely comprehension, transfer, or production. Over the years, IPDR has become a commonly-used pedagogical activity among trainers dedicated to enhancing process awareness. Figure 1 provides an excerpt from a student's IPDR log. The text to be translated (German into English) was a résumé. Students submitted their logs along with a draft version of the target text, and both were then discussed in tandem in class.

The IPDR model is particularly ideal in a heterogeneous training environment, where students bring different levels of language proficiency, levels of experience, and background knowledge, as each log is personalized according to the needs and behaviors of the individual learner. Through IPDR logs, learner autonomy is at the fore, as are opportunities for more targeted feedback from the trainer.

One of the potential drawbacks of IPDR is the assumption that students are in fact consciously aware of the problems they encounter in translation to the extent that they can accurately report on them. For example, a student might report a lexical problem (at the one-word level) when in reality the problem was more at the collocational level. A second drawback involves requiring students to break away from the translation task at hand to document their problems, strategies, and rationales. It is necessary to have them do so since this information would likely no longer be in their working memory if entry is postponed until post-task completion. Nevertheless, the natural "cognitive flow" of translation is likely to be interrupted if reporting is concurrent with translation. Despite these two inherent issues, Gile's model is to be lauded, as it is, in essence, the first of its kind when it comes to problem-awareness training activities.

	Problem encountered	Strategy used	Rationale for doing so
1	*Lebenslauf* appears at the top of the ST.	I left this out of the translation.	TL parallel texts suggest that this isn't used as the opening to a U.S. EN-language résumé.
2	*Abschluss: Dipl.-Kaufmann*	Explicitation used; MBA equivalent	Culture/univ. system-specific degree; If the person is applying for a job in the U.S., additional information is needed to obtain equivalence.
3	...		

Figure 1. A translation log excerpt in conjunction with an IPDR task

Aware of the potential dangers in assuming students are capable of reporting on their problems, Gyde Hansen designed the Retrospection with Replay and Immediate Dialogue (R+Rp+ID) model, which makes use of the *Translog*[1] software application to capture all of the student's keystroke, pause, and revision behavior during the translation process. This is then saved as a file that can be re-played and analyzed post-task. With R+Rp+ID, the bulk of problem awareness training takes place in the form of a dialogic retrospective session. Students are asked to reflect on thought processes, problems, and strategies employed when SDs (sources of disturbance, Hansen 2006a: 2) appear in protocols documenting their performance. SDs include such indicators as extended pauses, deletions, revisions, and cursor repositioning. It is important to note here that an SD is not a problem per se, but rather an indicator of heightened cognitive awareness in a general sense. When students have the opportunity to focus on such episodes of heightened cognitive awareness, as opposed to exclusively on errors in a more restricted sense, they are encouraged to reflect not only on what went wrong, but also on what went right in translation. The role of the trainer is to ask targeted questions so that students reflect critically on problems encountered and strategies that were or could have been employed to avoid errors.

Unlike an IPDR task, R+Rp+ID does not ask the student to reflect on and document problems concurrently with translation, thereby mitigating interruption in natural flow. That being said, it is crucial for the retrospective session to immediately follow translation so that the processes are still relatively fresh in the student's working memory and retrievable for analysis. Figure 2 provides the screenshot of a keystroke log containing multiple sources of disturbance. Each asterisk represents a three second pause. The mouse icon represents a mouse click. Arrowed boxes containing an 'x' represent deletions.

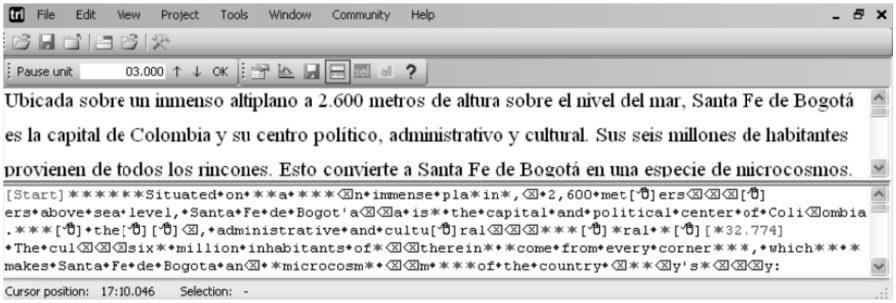


Figure 2. SDs in a keystroke log file

1 See www.translog.dk for additional information on this product and its applications in cognitive process research.

In terms of concrete R+Rp+ID learning activities, students could be asked to closely examine the distribution and duration of extended pauses as potential indicators of problems. In Figure 2, for example, a nine-second pause precedes 'immense plain', potentially indicating some sort of transfer or production problem at the collocation level. Without having access to such a protocol, the student may assume, from intuition and memory, that the translation of the Spanish adjective 'inmenso' posed problems. In fact, 'immense', as found in the student's TT, is a valid English equivalent. The heart of the problem here is at the collocation level, in that 'vast plain' would serve as a stronger collocation than 'immense plain' in this context.

2.3 Eye-tracking approaches

As a methodology for exploring cognitive processes in translation, eye-tracking rests on the eye-mind assumption (Just and Carpenter 1980), positing that eye movements reflect cognitive effort and attention. Unlike keystroke logging, eye-tracking has yet to make its way into the translator training arena. However, it has become a standard methodology in translation process research, used recently to explore such phenomena as coordination of reading and writing processes (Dragsted 2010), the impact of time pressure and textual complexity on visual attention (Jakobsen & Jensen 2008), and translation memory processing (O'Brien 2007).

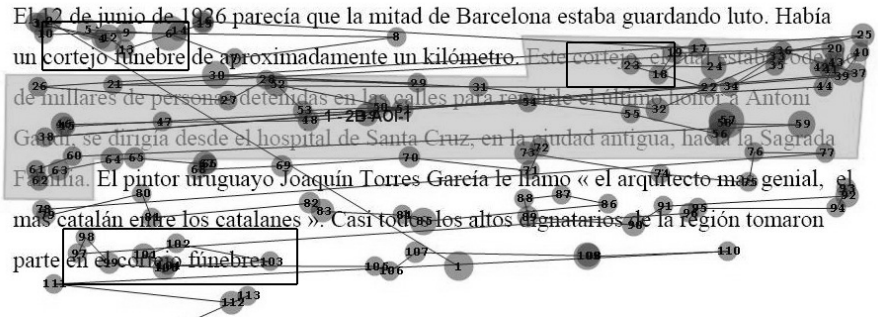


Figure 3. A gaze plot, captured using eye-tracking technology

Eye-tracking is an unobtrusive methodology for capturing visual attention, or what the translator looks at on the screen (fixation points), for how long (fixation durations), and in what sequence (saccades connecting fixation points). Figure 3 renders a student's gaze plot, showing all fixation points and saccades occurring during the course of a sight translation activity. Figure 4 provides a student's heat map, documenting the areas on the screen (here within the ST) looked at most based on the longest fixation durations. The brighter areas re-

present "warmer" colors, or areas looked at longer. The darker areas represent "cooler" colors, or areas looked at more briefly.

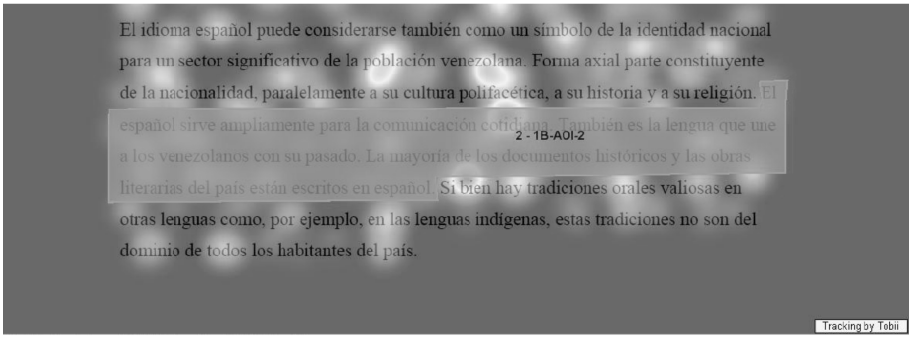


Figure 4. A heat map, captured using eye-tracking technology

In the future, eye-tracking research will likely be extended in more of a pedagogical direction. For example, longer fixation durations might signal problem areas in translation. Self-analysis of gaze plots and heat maps could therefore be utilized as a point of departure in problem recognition training. Eye-tracking software also allows for the creation of a collective heat map, rendering the gaze duration patterns in a given text for the class as a whole. Analysis of such collective heat maps can provide the trainer with empirical evidence of textual properties that proved to be challenging or problematic for multiple students.

Although eye tracking technology has come a long way in recent years, its price, highly complex data output, and dependency on the presence of someone to calibrate pupils and load viewing stimuli have impeded a smooth transition from the lab into the classroom. Unlike Translog and BB Flashback Express (screen recording software to be discussed below), eye-tracking technology cannot be downloaded as a software application and installed on any given computer. Instead, cameras are built in to a specialized monitor that costs upwards of 40,000 US dollars.[2] This certainly is not the type of tool that students could work with at home on their own time, and it does not offer the same opportunities for self-regulated learning that keystroke logging and screen recording do thanks to their relative portability. The pedagogical impracticality of eye-tracking should by no means undermine its robustness as a powerful research methodology for analyzing cognitive processes in translation.

2.4 Screen recording approaches

The remainder of this paper will focus on screen recording as a pedagogical tool in translator training. Screen recording software,[3] downloadable onto

2 Current price for the Tobii eye-tracking monitor, the tool of choice in eye-tracking research in translation.

3 For example, BB Flashback Express: www.bbsoftware.co.uk.

practically any computer, records an avi-file of all on-screen activity during the course of a translation task. In other words, anything the translator does on the screen is recorded by an unobtrusive application running in the background. Like keystroke log files, screen recording videos can be played back and closely analyzed post task completion.

With screen recording, trainers and trainees can directly observe the locus and manner of look-ups, particularly in conjunction with sources of disturbance. Students have a direct window into the problems they encountered, rendered via pauses in screen activity, deletion and revision behavior, direct or indirect articulation in corresponding audio data (if screen recording co-occurs with thinking aloud), and online information retrieval. More importantly, they have visual access to the strategies executed (or not) in response to the problems, and can reflect on the following: Was problem solving successful or faulty? Were problems even recognized in the first place (i.e., did sources of disturbance co-occur with errors as indicated in the translation product)? Were reliable resources utilized? Did the textual level of the error match the textual level of information retrieval? These are the types of questions that could either be addressed during a trainer-guided retrospective session or by the students on their own.

Relatively little has been written to date on screen recording applications in translation. Dam-Jensen and Heine discuss screen recording in the context of a general overview of how all of the aforementioned methodologies can be integrated in process awareness training. They recommend having students reflect on a maximum of 15-20 minutes worth of screen recording content so not to overtax their retrospection capacities (Dam-Jensen & Heine 2009: 16). They also feel that screen recording files may be too complex for students to analyze on their own without trainer guidance. While we fully agree with the need for initial guidance, we feel that basic problem awareness training using screen recording can ultimately take the form of student-driven, autonomous learning and serve as a fundamental component of a process-oriented translator training curriculum. Anthony Pym is one of the early proponents of basic screen recording for translator training. He utilized it to have his students become better acquainted with their personalized translator style and workflow tendencies by having them determine how many seconds they spent on 1) documentation (web searches and information retrieval), 2) translation/drafting, and 3) revision (Pym 2009: 144). Pym also had his students examine changes in screen activity reflecting their comprehension, translation, and revision patterns under time pressure, an important variable in the world of professional translation and often underestimated in training contexts.

We strongly feel that screen recording, thanks to its user-friendliness and preservation of ecological validity, offers the greatest potential of the three methodologies presented in this paper as a pedagogical tool for process-oriented translator training. It provides students with the 'freedom' to translate naturally, using all computer-based resources they normally would in their unique translation environments. The real-time, visual rendition of translation made possible by screen recording reduces the student's dependency on a trainer to help make sense of complicated forms of data. Students can quickly grasp what

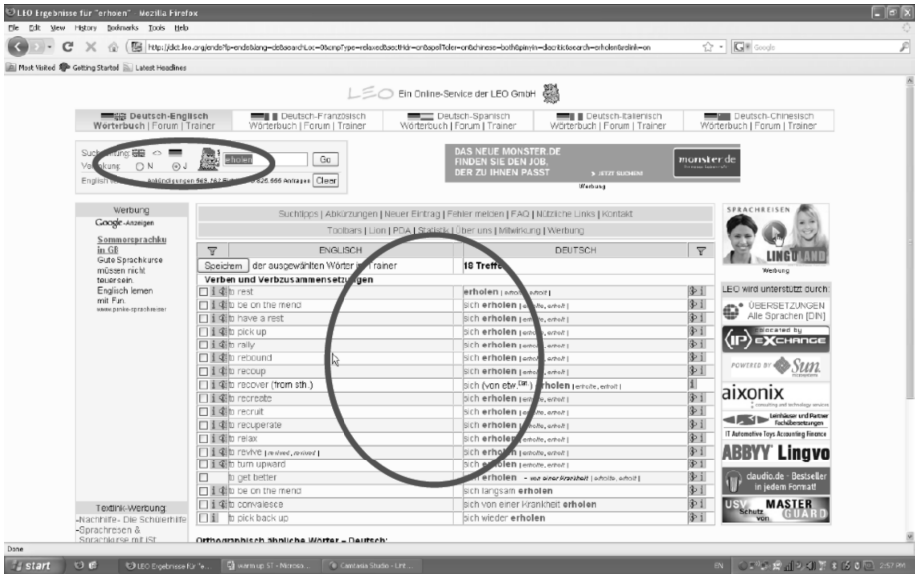
to look for in their videos and become more autonomous learners. In the next section of this paper, we will present a series of process-oriented training activities using screen recording. In each, students either self-reflect on their own processes or on those of professional translators engaged in the same tasks.

3. Screen recording activities for training problem awareness

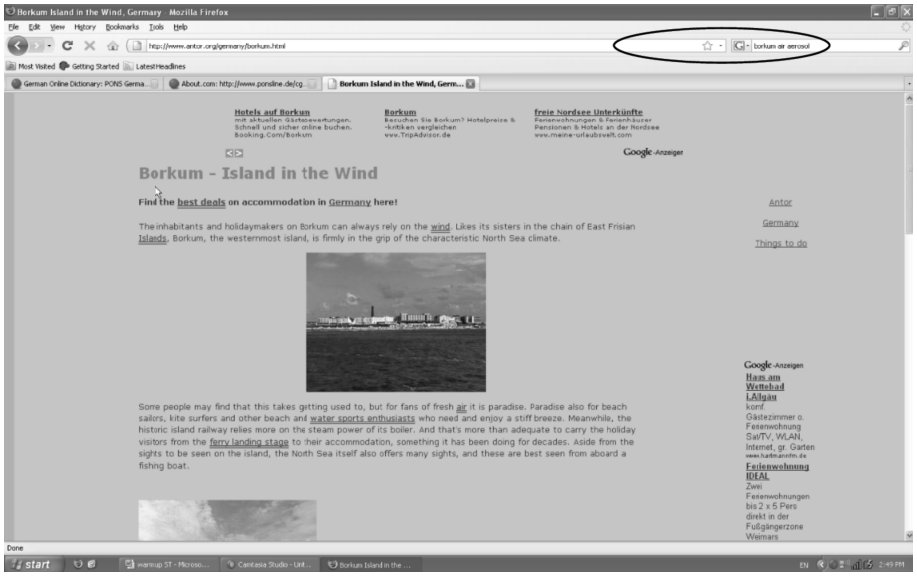
The screen recording data described in these activities was generated by two students in the first semester of the M.A. in Translation program at Kent State University and two professionals with over ten years of experience as full-time translators. They were asked to think aloud while translating a 70-word excerpt from a travel guide for the North Sea island of Borkum from German into English. Hence, problem recognition and problem solving tendencies were triangulated using a dual methodology of screen recording and concurrent verbalization. Upon task completion, the translations were graded and errors in the respective target texts were marked up. As a follow-up learning activity, the students were then told to critically examine screen activity for indication of source text miscomprehension, faulty look-up strategies, or complete lack of cognizance that a problem had occurred for each documented error. They were also asked to critically analyze the screen recordings of professionals, making note of information retrieval strategies, immediate post-pause behavior, and effective problem solving tendencies in a general sense.

3.1 First activity: Analysis of information retrieval efficacy (or lack thereof)

This activity involves a student reflecting on his own work. Many of the errors in the student's translation product strongly suggested word-for-word translation. The student insisted that he was translating in chunks at the collocation level and he could not understand why such errors were occurring. His screen recording shows that while accessing various online bilingual dictionaries, he kept verbally repeating the two-word collocations causing problems, but then entered each word independently in the search query box when retrieving TL equivalents. The student then spent a one-minute span reviewing TL equivalents for the two words in isolation, and ultimately encoded a faulty collocation. Interestingly, he was unhappy with this solution and the recording captures him saying: "This is no good, but I will come back to it later". Unfortunately, he never did. Having him sit down and watch the video revealed two important phenomena that would have otherwise gone unnoticed: 1) there was no denying the fact that he was translating at the word level, and 2) there was no extensive holistic evaluation of the TT upon completion of the task. New-found problem awareness through screen recording will hopefully catalyze heightened attention to these issues in the future. Figure 5 provides a series of screen shots from the student's screen recording indicative of word-for-word translation. The problematic collocation here was 'aktiv erholen' (EN: 'active relaxation'):

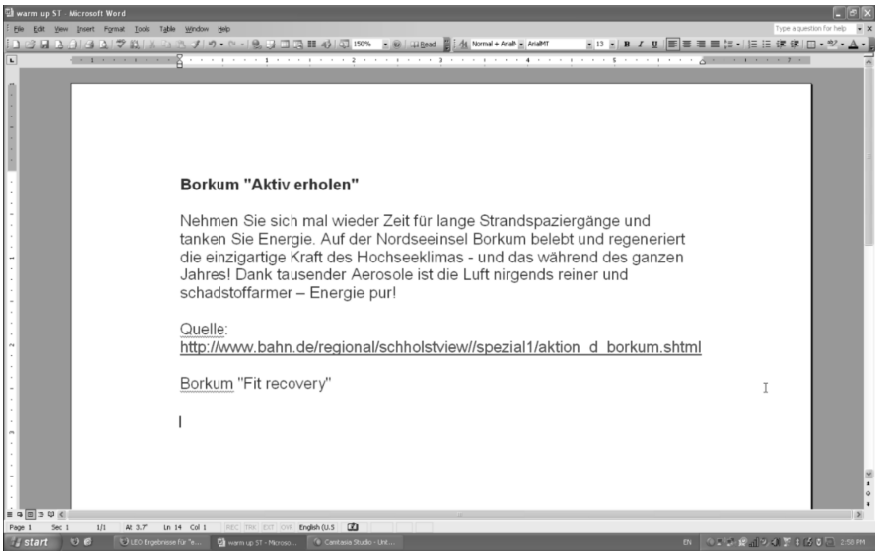


5a



5b

Figure 5. Word-for-word translation and problematic information retrieval

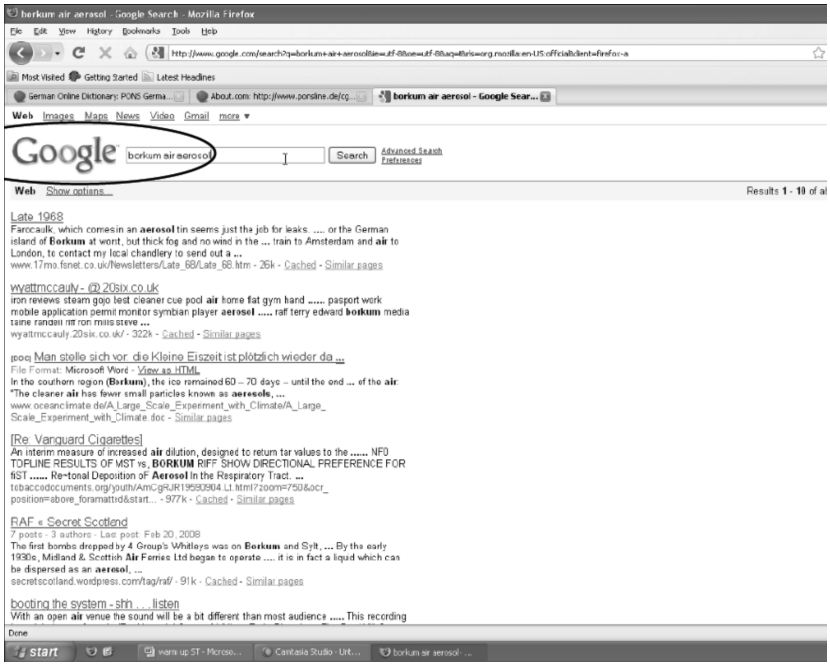


5c

3.2 Second activity: Analysis of immediate post-pause activity

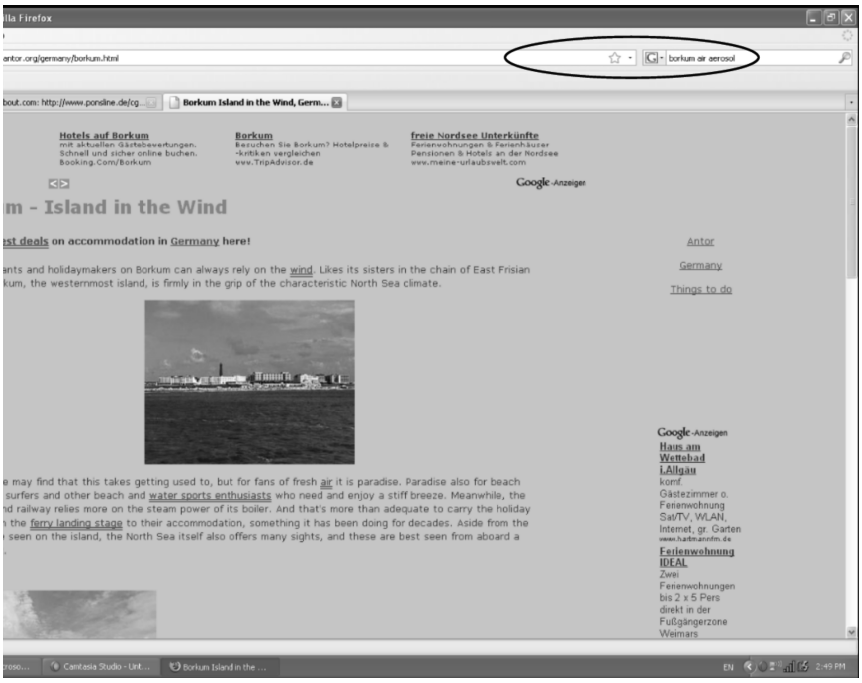
This activity involves the students closely analyzing the screen recordings of professional translators, making note of the screen activity and articulations immediately following extended pauses as indicators of heightened cognitive awareness and strategy execution. In the example illustrated here, an extended pause occurred when the translator encountered the ST collocation 'tanken Sie Energie' (En: recharge your batteries). When encountering this same collocation, both students quickly turned to bilingual dictionaries for assistance in an attempt to retrieve one-word equivalents for the collocation's two constituents, leading to awkward TL constructs. When watching the screen activity of the professional, the students see a 30-second pause in screen activity post problem recognition, indicated via direct articulation. Rather than turning to online resources as a post-pause default strategy, the professional instead deverbalized and proposed a series of target language solutions, rendered as follows: "*re- something, rejuvenate… o…recover, re-something…recharge your batteries…there you go*". The professional successfully engaged in solution generation, followed by solution evaluation, and ultimately solution encoding without once turning to online resources for external support. Many online dictionaries would not even propose "recharge your batteries" as a collocation equivalent. Putting external information retrieval on hold and instead working through the problem mentally turned out to be an effective, time-saving strategy. The professional's problem solving took only 20 seconds, in comparison to the (faulty) student problem solving described in the first activity, where 1.5 minutes were needed before encoding an incorrect TL equivalent for a collocation. In retrospect, the student was bogged down by extensive dictionary usage whereas the professional trusted her instincts.

Here, once again, the students are asked to closely analyze the professional translator screen recordings, this time focusing on the textual level of information retrieval. In this case, the professional encountered a difficult ST term, 'Aerosole', which one might assume could be translated as 'aerosoles'. However, as the professional's verbalizations note, the term 'aerosole' tends to take on a negative connotation in English, semantically linked with environmental pollution – not exactly appealing in a travel guide. Rather than turning to technical glossaries, the professional instead, after saying "what is the author trying to say here", focused on the air in which the aerosol is contained. Using Google, she entered a string of thematically-related search words (Borkum+air+aerosol) in retrieving SL and TL parallel texts that describe the air on Borkum as being a fresh particulate mist. Figure 6 offers a series of screen shots exhibiting this strategy. Like the professional described in the second activity, here too the translator engaged in deverbalization to transfer the connotative meaning and author intent. Neither of the students utilized multi-keyword searching in retrieving a TL semantic and connotative equivalent for the problematic term, instead "forcing" the awkward cognate.



6a

Figure 6. Multi-keyword information retrieval for a term based on semantic properties



6b

4. Conclusion

Translation trainers interested in enhancing the process awareness of their students have often found themselves wondering how the powerful tools talked about in the context of process-oriented research can be made adaptable for the classroom. Eye-tracking is far from being classroom-ready. The plethora of complex data would run the risk of overwhelming the students (let alone the trainers!). Keystroke logging holds greater pedagogical promise and, like screen recording applications, is available for free. This likely explains why keystroke logging has become a methodology of choice in process-oriented translator training.

So what does screen recording offer that keystroke logging does not and how can screen recording complement keystroke logging in providing students with a more holistic picture of their processes and behaviors? We feel its greatest strength lies in its capacity to play back translation phenomena in a highly visual manner, in essence mirroring the actual task. Students can see exactly what they saw on the screen while translating, from the problems encountered and the resources utilized to the ebbs and flows of target text generation. Screen recording poses practically no restrictions on which resources can be utilized and students do not find themselves in an undesirable position of having to decipher abstract data in an unfamiliar user interface. Restrictions are kept to a

minimum, from the perspectives of cost, what can be done on the computer during video capture, and, most importantly, who can make sense of the data. In process-oriented translator training, screen recording has the potential to lead the way in ultimately ushering in a similar spirit of triangulation as found in the research community, with students taking charge of their learning through tool-enabled problem awareness.

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(Killing) two birds with one stone: Tools for translation process research and the translation classroom[1]

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Abstract

Many translation process researchers emphasize the possible didactic applications of their empirical findings. At the other side of the fence, translator trainers make theoretical claims based on classroom activity, events and (personal) experience or empeiria. *In this article, we focus on technology-based methodologies, such as keystroke-logging, screen-recording and eye-tracking and we single out certain widely used corresponding tools. We provide an example based on a research project with a pedagogical focus where the performance of undergraduate students of translation is analyzed. The purpose of this article is not to advocate any single perfect solution, but to provide food for thought and motivate researchers, trainers (and program developers) to engage in fruitful dialogue and bridge gaps within the framework of ecological validity.*

1. The setting

The purpose of the research project was to investigate effects of time on translation product quality within a pedagogical framework and attempt to relate such translation and time management phenomena to the learning styles of a group of undergraduate translation students in the School of English, Aristotle University. From a methodological point of view, 54 students during

1 The author would like to thank Professor Arnt Lykke Jakobsen for his valuable advice.

their third year of studies (the equivalent of approximately two class units) participated. Students formed a relatively homogeneous sample in terms of background knowledge and expertise. They were asked to translate four comparable texts of diverse topics under gradually stricter deadlines, while free to use online resources. While additional profiling and product-related data was rather non-problematic to collect mostly by means of interviews and questionnaires, the process-related aspect deserved some more thought. On the purely research side, triangulation, the combination of different methodologies in a single research study, as underlined by many researchers (Jakobsen 2006, O' Brien 2009, Alves 2003, Hansen 2003, etc.), was a *sine qua non*, if one were to draw any valid conclusions. On the pedagogical side, there was the intention to strive for events that would also leave something for the university classroom *per se*, either in the form of easy replication by other trainers or even direct benefits for the students. In other words, there was a conscious turn toward ecological validity, whereby "an empirical investigation should be linked in an adequate way to the real-world phenomena it wishes to make claims about" (Halverson 2009: 85 in note). As a result, the search for a tool that would help converge these two lines of action started.

2. Tools

According to available translation literature, the main methodologies used to capture translation process were (and still are) keystroke-logging, screen-recording and eye-tracking, with many researchers opting for a combination of at least the first two.[2] As far as keystroke logging is concerned, Translog seems to be the most commonly featured software program and, at a lesser extent, Inputlog. Camtasia (now Camtasia Studio) dominates experimentation based on screen recording, although Pym (2009) also mentions BB FlashBack. Finally, software programs compatible with Tobbii eye trackers, like Clearview and lately Tobii Studio, appear in most of the studies that include eye tracking. With the exception of Tobii Studio, all these tools were considered for the above mentioned study.

2.1 Eye tracking

2.1.1 Clearview

Clearview is commercial software provided by Tobii Technologies. It registers eye movements over various forms of stimuli including Web pages and Windows desktop and it is Windows-based (Duchowski 2003: 104). It generates a large amount of data, among others a data file where eye position is logged per millisecond. The number, sequence and frequency of eye fixations is also recorded and presented in the form of gaze plots and hotspots.

2 For a detailed analysis, see Göpferich (2008).

2.2 Screen recording

2.2.1 Camtasia

Camtasia (Studio) is a commercial software suite for recording, editing and sharing screen videos. It runs in the background and records every type of screen activity, such as internet searches.

2.2.2 BB FlashBack

BB FlashBack Screen Recorder is also commercial software. It comes, however, in various versions. The simplest one, BB FlashBack Express, comes as freeware. This freeware version is fully functional as far as recording is concerned but offers no annotation/editing options and limited file sharing features (Blueberry software website, 2011). It generates one video file, where keystrokes are also displayed, if the function "capture keystrokes" was selected before the recording process.

2.3 Keystroke logging

2.3.1 Translog

Translog is a computer program, offered as freeware for academic research purposes. It was originally conceived for research purposes and developed by Arnt Lykke Jakobsen and Lasse Schou from the Copenhagen Business School with the ambitious aim to "increase the power and accuracy of direct observation" (Jakobsen 1999: 9-10). Translog keeps a log of all keyboard activity, including mouse actions, while typing a translation. Thanks to Translog, we can study the typing process itself in real-time as well as all the editing that goes into writing a translation, how much time is spent on what translation tasks, and the connection between time delay and information processing (Jakobsen 1999: 9).

Translog offers audio recording and play-back functions. It may also be used in conjunction with eye-tracking software.

2.3.2 Inputlog

Inputlog is another freeware program that enables researchers to log and analyze writing processes in Windows. It was created by Mariëlle Lejiten and Luuk Van Waes with the support of the University of Antwerp. It records keyboard and mouse activity in several Windows-based programs and plays back the recorded session at different speeds. It may integrate speech recognition data (Dragon Naturally Speaking, Nuance). Added benefits of Inputlog include: a) identification and logging of all the windows that the writer opens in different programs: for example, it logs the URL of websites during internet searches; b) XML-based output files. Thus, files may be exported to SPSS for statistical analyses (Van Waes *et al.* 2009: 41-44).

3. Selection considerations

3.1 Clearview

The School of English had a Tobii 1750 eye tracker and Clearview software available for research purposes. There were limitations to its use as it was often booked by staff and doctoral students of the School; we would have to spend a considerable amount of time in order to collect data.[3] After dealing with the practical issue of room availability, however, there was the complexity and the load of eye tracking data generated by the program, what O'Brien (2009: 260) refers to as "data explosion", acknowledging the challenge. What would be feasible for a group of researchers seemed too daunting a task for a single person to assume. Another consideration was that, according to the hypotheses of the study, we would have to use an eye tracking software concurrently with a keystroke logging program, that is another large set of data, difficult to handle. Adding to this the distance from the above-mentioned aims of the study, namely to strike a balance between the theoretical/research component and direct class applications and benefits, we decided to exclude eye tracking altogether from the study and try to combine a keystroke logging program with a screen recording program.

3.2 Translog/BB FlashBack-Inputlog/Camtasia- BB FlashBack

Ten students experimented with Translog along with a trial version of BB FlashBack. From that same group, five also experimented with Inputlog along with a 30-day trial version of Camtasia. Later on, the same ten students experimented with BB FlashBack. The difference this time laid in that the "capture keystroke" option was enabled. As a result, the program functioned as both a screen recorder and a keystroke logging tool.

Students were later asked to evaluate the three alternatives to, essentially, the same methodological approach. All of them ranked BB FlashBack as more user-friendly, more pleasant and less invasive, many commenting that a) they were translating like they would at home/in the School's computer lab, b) that the timer on the BB FlashBack bar (Fig. 1, the only evidence of the software because it runs in the background) actually helped them keep track of time during the exercise.

Figure 1. BB FlashBack taskbar

3 This is especially valid when taking into account that conclusions from these trials would inform decisions concerning an experiment including 54 participants who would have to translate four texts each.

Translog/BB FlashBack scored higher than Inputlog/Camtasia. However, according to some students, and although they enjoyed watching the play-back of their sessions, they felt less than comfortable "jumping in and out of the program" during the translation process. This came as a surprise because Translog does seem to cater for ecological validity. Many subjects from Jakobsen's experiments had indicated that a) "they forgot they were part of an experiment", b) they "felt that writing a translation in Translog was very similar to writing an ordinary translation" (Jakobsen 1999: 15). In addition, Translog

> also turned out to be popular as an educational aid and was utilised as a new means of teaching translation in a process-oriented manner. Colleagues both at CBS and abroad (e.g. Don Kiraly and Hannelore Lee-Jahnke) eagerly grasped this opportunity for introducing a new approach to translator training (Mees 2009: 23).

This reaction from the students could be attributed to the fact that the group consisted of undergraduate students whose computing skills were much below ECDL level. Another reason could be that, although they did not spend much time getting acquainted with Translog, the time spent until they started using BB FlashBack *again*, this time on its own, was significantly less.

3.3 BB FlashBack: Pros and cons from the point of view of the researcher

Although students had shown a preference toward BB FlashBack as a stand-alone tool, we still had to examine whether BB FlashBack video/Translog files or BB FlashBack video files (with activated keystroke logging function) would serve better our research needs. The widespread use of Translog within the translation research community meant that at least a part of experimental results and findings deriving from our study would be easily juxtaposed/interrelated or even extrapolated.[4] On the other hand, it also meant that we would need an additional program (a screen recorder) to make up for activity taking place outside Translog, such as consultation processes. We would have to work on two logs per student per text in order to cross-reference data. This implied a total of 216 video files and another 216 Translog files for our experiment. At this point, the size and complexity of Translog files should also be mentioned.

The BB FlashBack keystroke logging function is much simpler and it would certainly not suit the researcher who investigates, for example, students' pauses in-between typing and wishes to interpret their duration and location. For the purposes of the study described above, however, it would, first of all, cover the need for triangulation: data from either students' products or retrospective questionnaires can be cross-referenced against *either* screen activity or text production activity. An added bonus is that this happens on the basis of a single file. As a result, data management is greatly simplified and triangulation is not hampered.

4 For a list of publications based on Translog data, see Schou *et al.* (2009: 43-48).

Users may actually open the Key Logging Window and view a display of keys pressed while the movie was recorded (Fig. 2). Every item comes with its own timestamp, always in relation to the start of the movie. Users may toggle with two views: a) *Raw*, where all key presses are shown in a sequence, b) *Sentence*, grouping together keystrokes into words for enhanced readability. A time-saving element in terms of the study described in the beginning is the *search* function: users may even search for a specific word in the Key Logging Window and jump to the frame in which it was typed (BB FlashBack help file, 2011). Finally, keystroke logging data may be exported, in either raw or sentence format, to XML.

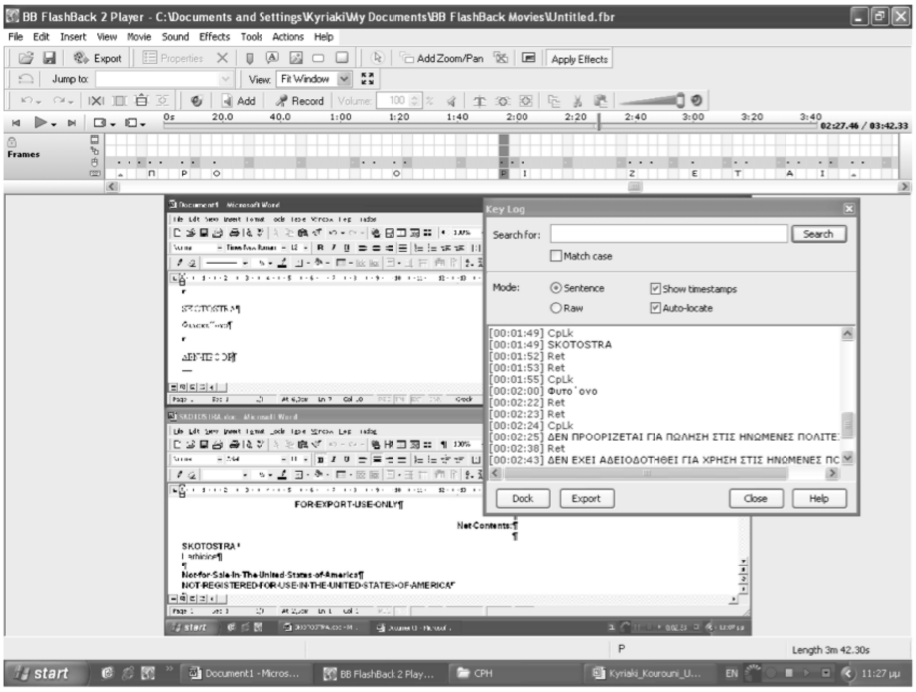

Figure 2. BB FlashBack Sentence key log

Carefully weighing our options, we decided to sacrifice direct comparability of findings and fine(r)-grained keystroke analysis in favor of ecological validity, increasing effects in the actual classroom. By bringing the experiment closer to the natural student (working) environment, the aim was to strengthen "the relationship between scientific enquiries and the world of everyday life" (Halverson 2009: 85).

After the experiment and outside class time, an optional meeting with the first group of students took place in order for me to receive informal feedback about the task as a whole. 19 out of 25 students showed up. There was a variety of reactions, concerning their own performance: from skepticism to expressions of surprise to reflections toward self-improvement. It seems that BB FlashBack had already functioned as a process-awareness-raising software, an immediate by-product of experimentation.

4. Some final thoughts

We cannot expect all experimental research to have a direct practical application in the translation classroom nor all classroom events to provide extrapolating results. To the extent we can achieve this, though, it is worth trying. The ideal would be to have a "one-fits-all" tool and we hope to have voiced a clear plea for software flexibility and inter-operability.

> Unfortunately, the observation software currently available on the market is not tailor-made for cross-usage and there are hardly any systems to be found that can provide combinable data. Combinable and trianguable data "at a click" would be desirable in both classroom settings and research proper – since very often one method used and evaluated alone cannot give insightful results. Today, however, triangulation is still a hands-on rather than an automatized job (Dam-Jensen & Heine 2009: 8).

We selected an approach/tool in harmony with our objectives, arguing that we may enjoy a valid experiment along with immediate didactic benefits with one single tool. We do not ignore other constraining variables that may come into play (age, background, expertise of students) and we do realize the limitations of the proposed course of action in regard to other settings. We still hope, however, to encourage researchers to test similar approaches in cases of research with a pedagogical focus and to spark a dialogue between researchers, classroom practitioners and even program developers in view of "synergetic refinement" (Jakobsen 1999: 11). At the same time, we would like to move away from the pessimism expressed by Pym (2009: 135): "The direct use of research in the classroom should thus be considered of qualitative interest to the individual student rather than quantitatively valid as a way of producing knowledge of the general".

Given that advances in technology provide trainers and researchers with flexible, non-invasive and user-friendly programs, at the same time more fine-tuned to our purposes and more comprehensive in scope, we have reasons and hope to believe that *direct use of process research in the classroom will be one day considered of qualitative interest to the individual student and of relatively high quantitative value to the international researcher, contributing to the body of knowledge of the general.*

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Tradurre in/a rete: un percorso collaborativo di apprendimento

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Abstract

The aim of this contribution is to describe the theoretical bases and possible applications of learning paths in the distance made feasible thanks to new technologies, in order to give a critical evaluation of a specific cooperative translation program realized on an e-learning platform. We suggest a web-based translation path, as experiences of co-writing do (Trentin 2008), through a collaborative strategy which takes place in a (partially) virtual learning community. This learning path on the Moodle platform of the E-studium project of the Università degli Studi di Perugia has been tested during a German language translation course. On-line (e-activity) cooperative activities are intended as follows. In the first place, a 3 or 4 student group is supposed to carry out a complete translation: beginning from an individual, strictly personal, attempt of translation regarding different parts of the text, the group as a whole will carry out a final version thanks to a mutually reasoned revision of the single efforts. Secondly, a cooperative gathering of auxiliary material is encouraged, whereas, in the third place, a cooperative construction of a highly specific glossary of terms, which has been highlighted and identified during the whole activity, will take place. The Moodle platform allows a complete monitoring of all activities carried out during the process. A detailed analysis and interpretation of the monitoring on one hand and a survey submitted to the students at the end of the learning activity on the other, represent the first step towards a critical evaluation of the formative activity which has been realized.

1. La sostenibilità didattico-formativa di percorsi collaborativi di apprendimento

Dietro il titolo *Tradurre in/a rete* si nasconde un progetto didattico di traduzione collaborativa (a rete) realizzato sulla piattaforma di e-learning (in rete) della Facoltà di Lettere e Filosofia dell'Università degli Studi di Perugia. Nel mio contributo vorrei presentare questo progetto e dimostrare il valore didattico di una tale proposta formativa.

1.1 Il *co-writing*

Il nostro progetto *Tradurre in/a rete* prende l'avvio dalla lettura di uno degli ultimi libri di Guglielmo Trentin (2008) dal titolo *La sostenibilità didattico-formativa dell'e-learning*.

In questo volume, Trentin presenta il *co-writing* (CW), la scrittura a distanza e a più mani di un documento elettronico, come importante strategia collaborativa di apprendimento in rete e spiega il valore didattico di tale strategia con queste parole:

> Appare evidente come i processi di *co-writing* offrano un'eccellente occasione non solo per esercitare abilità di lettura e scrittura […], ma anche per stimolare la riflessione, la condivisione di conoscenze, lo sviluppo del senso critico, in sintesi, la costruzione di nuove conoscenze e abilità attraverso un processo a forte connotazione sociale. (Trentin 2008: 152)

Particolarmente interessante è la sua riflessione sul valore della distanza nei processi di scrittura in generale e possiamo aggiungere di traduzione in particolare: "Proprio la distanza […] spesso amplifica, agli occhi degli studenti, l'esistenza di interpretazioni multiple relativamente a uno stesso argomento di studio o di confronto" (Trentin 2008: 153); inoltre, la sostenibilità didattico-formativa dell'*e-learning* in generale "è commisurata alla sua capacità di curare l'alfabetizzazione tecnologica degli studenti e di garantire apprendimenti rilevanti per il mondo reale/professionale" (Trentin 2008: 56). Va quindi tenuta in considerazione "l'importanza stessa di abituarsi alle tecniche del *co-writing*, sempre più richieste nel mondo del lavoro" (Trentin 2008: 153).

Con questo quadro didattico, Trentin si colloca all'interno del paradigma costruttivista-sociale di una didattica mediata dalle nuove tecnologie di informazione e comunicazione. Aspetto determinante di questo paradigma è la costruzione di ambienti di apprendimento che permettano dei percorsi basati sulla cooperazione e la collaborazione dei partecipanti.[1]

1 Per un approfondimento delle premesse didattiche di un apprendimento mediato dalle nuove tecnologie si rinvia a Meiwes (2010). Il paradigma didattico costruttivista-sociale è oggi considerato uno dei tre paradigmi presenti nella progettazione didattica di processi di apprendimento mediati dalle nuove tecnologie. L'approccio costruttivista negli ambienti di e-learning è legato in Italia agli studi di Trentin (1998, 2001, 2008), Varisco (1998, 2002), Calvani & Rotta (1999, 2000) e Calvani (2005).

1.2 La *co-translation*

Proponiamo quindi, alla stessa stregua del *co-writing*, un percorso di traduzione a più mani, ovvero *co-translation*, come strategia collaborativa in una comunità d'apprendimento (parzialmente) virtuale. Considerando la traduzione un processo costruttivo complesso, "un'operazione", citando la definizione che ne danno Delisle *et al.* (2006: 143), "di trasferimento interlinguistico e interculturale, che consiste nell'interpretazione del senso del testo di partenza e nella produzione di un testo d'arrivo con l'intento di stabilire una relazione di equivalenza tra i due testi",[2] essa ha, presumibilmente ancor più della scrittura, bisogno di momenti di riflessione applicati sia alle singole fasi del processo traduttivo sia all'attività traduttiva in se stessa su un piano 'metatraduttivo'. Un lavoro cooperativo di traduzione può, a nostro avviso, rendere espliciti questi processi, stimolare la riflessione nonché la progettazione del compito di traduzione, attivare un senso critico verso gli altri e verso se stessi e quindi apportare nuove conoscenze e abilità.

2. Progetto di un percorso di traduzione collaborativa in rete

2.1 Premesse didattiche

La sperimentazione del percorso su una piattaforma di e-learning (Moodle) del progetto *e-studium* della Facoltà di Lettere e Filosofia dell'Università degli Studi di Perugia,[3] è stata inserita nell'anno accademico 2009/2010 in un corso di traduzione universitario di Lingua Tedesca che prevede sia lo studio di aspetti teorici della traduzione sia esercizi pratici di traduzione verso e dalla lingua straniera. I due moduli, con complessivamente 72 ore di didattica in aula, sono rivolti agli studenti iscritti al primo anno dei Corsi di Laurea magistrale in Lingue straniere.

Gli studenti coinvolti nel progetto sono di madrelingua italiana e hanno buone conoscenze del tedesco come lingua straniera (livello B2); inoltre conoscono, da insegnamenti antecedenti, la piattaforma di e-learning dell'Università, hanno dimestichezza con i principali programmi di elaborazione testi e di comunicazione sincrona come la chat, nonché un'idea della struttura e del funzionamento di un wiki attraverso la conoscenza della enciclopedia online Wikipedia.

2 Possiamo, per quanto riguarda la traduzione, parlare di un'operazione complessa in quanto, come sottolineano Reiß e Vermeer (1984), qualsiasi teoria della traduzione è 'doppiamente' allacciata sia a una teoria ermeneutica di comprensione testuale sia a una teoria costruttiva di produzione testuale. Hönig (1997: 50-59) mette invece in evidenza la complessità del processo traduttivo in quanto processo mentale, ipotizzando la presenza e la collaborazione di due spazi di elaborazione distinti: uno spazio controllato (*kontrollierter Arbeitsraum*) e uno spazio non controllato (*nicht kontrollierter Arbeitsraum*).

3 Il corso è consultabile all'indirizzo http://estudium.unipg.it/newlettere.

2.2 Progettazione

Nella fase di progettazione sono stati definiti la finalità del corso, i suoi principali obiettivi didattici, i contenuti e, in particolare, la metodologia didattica.

2.2.1 Finalità

Finalità del corso è lo sviluppo integrato della competenza traduttiva degli studenti attraverso percorsi cooperativi di traduzione a distanza, attivati sulla piattaforma di e-learning *e-studium*, e lo studio propedeutico e integrativo di testi legati alla teoria e metodologia della traduzione.

2.2.2 Obiettivi

I principali obiettivi formativi sono:
- migliorare le competenze linguistiche nelle due lingue coinvolte (sintassi e lessico generale);
- conoscere aspetti teorici e metodologici della traduzione;
- conoscere il codice deontologico dei traduttori;
- conoscere, applicare, riflettere e confrontarsi su strategie e procedimenti di traduzione;
- ampliare le conoscenze di mezzi ausiliari per la traduzione;
- migliorare le competenze e le abilità informatiche;
- stimolare il lavoro cooperativo.

2.2.3 Contenuti

I contenuti riguardano da una parte la teoria della traduzione e dall'altra i testi previsti per il percorso di traduzione cooperativa. I temi legati alla teoria della traduzione sono le teorie generali della traduzione (Reiß & Vermeer 1984, Hönig 1997, Koller 2006, Nord 1988), gli ausili per la traduzione (Kautz 2002, Albrecht 2005), problemi specifici di traduzione come presupposizioni e fraseologismi (Albrecht 2005) o *culture specific items* (CSI, Markstein 1999) e la gestione della terminologia (Stolze 1999, Magris *et al.* 2002).

Il contenuto principale del percorso cooperativo di traduzione prevede invece cinque compiti di traduzione riguardo agli ambiti comunicativi della letteratura, della critica letteraria e del turismo. Vengono stabiliti la direzione della traduzione, dalla e/o verso la lingua straniera, e gli specifici compiti di traduzione: la traduzione di un testo letterario (il libro per l'infanzia *Paul Plantschnase* di Franziska van Almsik[4]) e di un articolo enciclopedico, sull'opera della scrittrice tedesca Christa Wolf[5] dal tedesco all'italiano, così come la traduzione della

4 van Almsick F. (2009) *Paul Plantschnase am Meer*, Freiburg, Herder.
5 Kresimon A. (2008) "Wolf Christa", in *Die Zeit, Der große Kulturführer, Literatur*, Hamburg, Zeitverlag & Bibliographisches Institut & F.A. Brockhaus AG, pp.782-785.

home page di un albergo[6] e la pagina *web* di due agriturismi[7] dall'italiano al tedesco. La scelta didattica di proporre testi provenienti da vari ambiti comunicativi e in ambedue le direzioni, cioè verso e dalla madrelingua, è finalizzata sia a stimolare la riflessione sulle adeguate strategie di traduzione dei testi proposti, sia a spostare l'attenzione degli studenti dai problemi di correttezza linguistica verso problemi più strettamente legati alle problematiche traduttive.

Per ogni compito di traduzione vengono definite le finalità e fissati gli obiettivi, ad esempio: *Preparate una proposta di traduzione per la pubblicazione del libro Paul Plantschnase in Italia. La traduzione deve essere adatta alla lettura del libro a bambini in età prescolastica*.

2.2.4 Metodologia didattica

Presentiamo ora la metodologia didattica fornendo contestualmente degli esempi nonché le valutazioni e riflessioni fatte a conclusione del percorso didattico sulla base di elaborazioni statistiche fornite dalla piattaforma stessa, di una lettura critica dei testi prodotti e di un questionario rivolto agli studenti alla fine del corso.

La parte propedeutica e integrativa, riguardante aspetti teorici e metodologici, è stata impartita integralmente in aula basandosi sulla lettura e discussione dei testi e temi proposti.

Data inserimento: 19 aprile 2010
Nome: Lanari Alice
ITALIANO: aria condizionata
Morfosintassi: n. f.
Fonte: "La Casella"
Definizione:
Fonte
Contesto:
Fonte
DOMINIO

TEDESCO: Klimaanlage
Morfosintassi: n. f. pl. -n
Fonte
Definizione: ein Apparat, der die Temperatur und die Feuchtigkeit der Luft in einem Raum regelt.
Fonte
Contesto:
Fonte

Figura 1: Esempio da glossario bilingue

6 Hotel *Da Angelo*, http://www.hoteldaangelo.com.
7 Agriturismo *San Giorgio*, http://www.bellaumbria.net/agriturismo-Sangiorgio/home-ita.htm, e agriturismo *La Casella*, www.lacasellaagriturismo.com.

La parte collaborativa a distanza prevede invece come attività in rete (*e-activity*), oltre ai percorsi collaborativi di traduzione, la costruzione cooperativa di un glossario tematico con l'inserimento di parole individuate durante il lavoro di traduzione. Gli studenti sono quindi invitati a raccogliere in modo sistematico in un database strutturato informazioni sul comportamento morfosintattico, lessicale e pragmatico delle singole unità lessicali (vedi Fig. 1). Alla fine del corso tutti i dati inseriti vengono esportati in un file *excel* per ulteriori elaborazioni (ad esempio per la stampa).

Per ogni compito di traduzione, svolto in gruppi separati, è prevista invece la costruzione di un wiki.[8] L'attività wiki in Moodle consente a singoli studenti o a gruppi di studenti, a secondo di quanto stabilito dal docente, di creare un documento in modo 'collaborativo', ovvero consente a ciascuno sia di aggiungere contenuti, sia di modificare i contenuti esistenti inseriti da altri (cfr. Falcinelli & Milani 2007: 35). La piattaforma memorizza inoltre tutte le versioni del documento elettronico.

Nella fase di revisione gli studenti possono pertanto sia utilizzare la struttura del wiki modificando la pagina iniziale e/o aggiungendo delle nuove pagine con commenti e/o domande alle varie parti del testo, sia confrontarsi all'interno di ogni gruppo in diverse chat tematiche sulle proposte di traduzione. Per ogni compito di traduzione è stato inoltre creato un forum che offre uno spazio per domande e commenti sull'organizzazione del lavoro. La prima pagina del corso online è riportata nella Figura 2. Ogni compito di traduzione si conclude in aula, dove le proposte di traduzione elaborate all'interno dei singoli gruppi vengono presentate, confrontate e commentate dal docente.

Per andare ora nei dettagli del percorso collaborativo seguiamo di nuovo Trentin (2001: 96), che indica alcune questioni chiave da tener presente quando ci si accinge ad adottare strategie collaborative per la conduzione di un percorso di apprendimento in rete. In relazione al nostro progetto, riteniamo di particolare importanza le seguenti:

1. Qual è la dimensione adeguata dei sotto-gruppi per raggiungere gli obiettivi stabiliti?
I sedici studenti del corso hanno formato quattro gruppi di quattro studenti, numero definito ideale anche dagli studenti stessi. Tutte le attività in rete, tranne la costruzione del glossario bilingue, si svolgono all'interno dei singoli gruppi.[9]

8 "Un *wiki* è un sito web (o comunque una collezione di documenti ipertestuali) che viene aggiornato dai suoi utilizzatori e i cui contenuti sono sviluppati in collaborazione da tutti coloro che vi hanno accesso. La modifica dei contenuti è aperta, nel senso che il testo può essere modificato da tutti gli utenti (a volte soltanto se registrati, altre volte anche anonimi) procedendo non solo per aggiunte, ma anche cambiando e cancellando ciò che hanno scritto gli autori precedenti. Ogni modifica è registrata in una cronologia che permette in caso di necessità di riportare il testo alla versione precedente; lo scopo è quello di condividere, scambiare, immagazzinare e ottimizzare la conoscenza in modo collaborativo. Il termine *wiki* indica anche il software collaborativo utilizzato per creare il sito web e il server" (Wikipedia, consultato il 14/06/2010).

9 La scelta didattica di mettere a disposizione, per la stesura del glossario, un unico database per tutti i partecipanti del corso si basa sull'idea di offrire agli studenti un'attività cooperativa che unisca tutta la classe. Gli studenti stessi hanno espresso nella scheda di valutazione che avrebbero preferito anche per questa attività la separazione nei gruppi stabiliti.

Figura 2: Prima pagina – Struttura del percorso

2. *Come strutturare le attività affinché sia favorito un alto livello di partecipazione da parte di ogni singolo membro del gruppo?*
Valutando le diverse strategie di *co-writing* individuate e descritte da Trentin (2008: 180 ss.), come

- la stesura a cura di uno degli autori, in cui "il documento viene redatto da una sola persona sotto la direzione dell'intero gruppo";
- la scrittura sequenziale, in cui "ogni componente del gruppo, a turno, agisce sul semilavorato apportandovi il proprio contributo";

- la scrittura parallela, in cui "il lavoro complessivo viene scomposto e ripartito fra i vari membri del gruppo, i quali potranno poi lavorare, con sufficiente autonomia, sulla propria parte specifica";
- la scrittura in reciprocità che "prevede che ciascun componente del gruppo lavori, contemporaneamente e in regime di forte indipendenza, su ognuna della parti del prodotto complessivo […]";

ho proposto per il percorso di traduzione cooperativa delle strategie miste che si sviluppano in tre fasi:
(1) la fase di stesura di una proposta di traduzione (come semilavorato);
(2) la fase di revisione e discussione;
(3) la fase di stesura finale.
Per le due traduzioni dal tedesco in italiano, ogni gruppo di lavoro divide quindi il testo in parti, assegnando a ogni membro del gruppo il compito di fornire entro un determinato termine una proposta di traduzione per la propria parte (scrittura parallela):

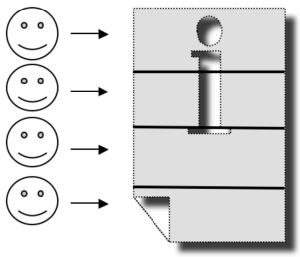


FIGURA 3: Prima proposta di traduzione (ted. → it.)

Nella fase di revisione tutti i membri del gruppo lavorano invece reciprocamente sul testo intero:

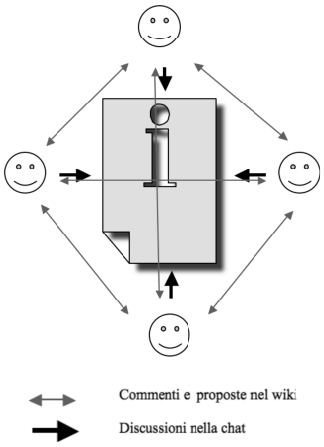
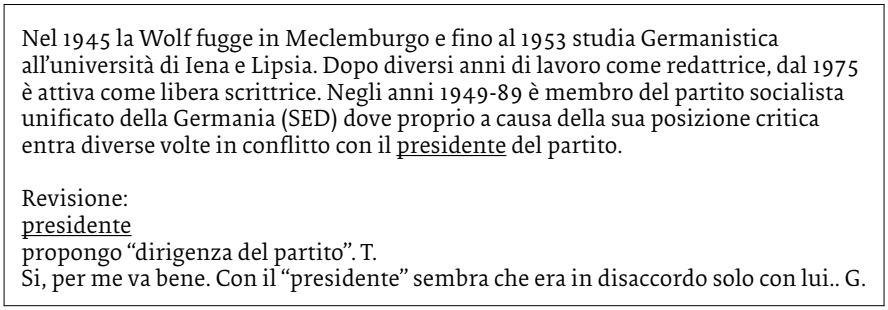


FIGURA 4: Revisione reciproca (ted. → it.)

Sono previste le due modalità di comunicazione già accennate prima:

a) una modalità di comunicazione asincrona, in cui la proposta di traduzione viene commentata (con domande, commenti, proposte) da un altro membro del gruppo aggiungendo una nuova pagina al wiki;


Nel 1945 la Wolf fugge in Meclemburgo e fino al 1953 studia Germanistica all'università di Iena e Lipsia. Dopo diversi anni di lavoro come redattrice, dal 1975 è attiva come libera scrittrice. Negli anni 1949-89 è membro del partito socialista unificato della Germania (SED) dove proprio a causa della sua posizione critica entra diverse volte in conflitto con il presidente del partito.

Revisione:
presidente
propongo "dirigenza del partito". T.
Si, per me va bene. Con il "presidente" sembra che era in disaccordo solo con lui.. G.

Figura 5: Esempio di pagina commento wiki

b) una modalità di comunicazione sincrona in una chat con forte interazione tra i membri del gruppo. Nella discussione chat gli studenti eseguono attività organizzative (*ok io finisco i commenti e forse oggi pom faccio il glossario*), individuano problemi (*ja, wir müssten dasselbe Wort benutzen; aber in der Schwimmsprache sagt man "battere le gambe"*), propongono delle strategie di soluzione (*ich suche im Wörterbuch; e l'inglese non ci dà una mano?*), s'informano sull'attività di ricerca *(ich habe im Wörterbuch "pè pè" gefunden; weil ich habe viele website kontrolliert, und ich habe diesen Typ von Zimmer nicht gefunden!*), attivano conoscenze riguardo al loro sapere enciclopedico (*porta del leone* vs. *porta dei leoni*) e linguistico (*fantasma* vs. *chimera*; *Paolino Pesciolino* o *Paolino il Pesciolino*) e danno spazio a dei momenti creativi (la *granchietta Frieda* diventa la *granchia Franca*).[10]

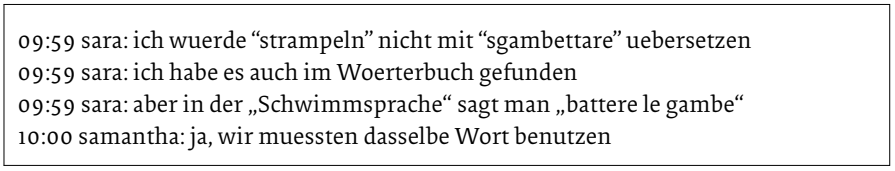

09:59 sara: ich wuerde "strampeln" nicht mit "sgambettare" uebersetzen
09:59 sara: ich habe es auch im Woerterbuch gefunden
09:59 sara: aber in der „Schwimmsprache" sagt man „battere le gambe"
10:00 samantha: ja, wir muessten dasselbe Wort benutzen

Figura 6: Esempio di sessione chat (da Plantschnase)

10 Si precisa che tutti gli esempi di chat vengono citati letteralmente senza correzioni.

Per la stesura finale del prodotto, ogni membro del gruppo cura di nuovo la propria parte del testo integrale.

Per le due traduzioni in tedesco invece non si suddividono i testi. Ognuno mette a disposizione una proposta di traduzione dell'intero testo visibile a tutto il gruppo.

Nella fase di revisione, per la quale sono previste di nuovo le due modalità di comunicazione asincrona e sincrona, tutti i membri del gruppo intervengono sull'intero testo per arrivare in fase di stesura alla definizione di un unico testo condiviso.

Attraverso il processo di revisione reciproca i quattro testi, che all'inizio presentavano errori lessicali e grammaticali, si sono trasformati in un unico testo decoroso e proponibile.

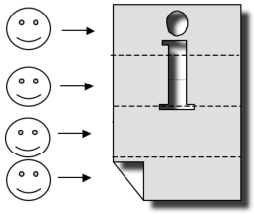


Figura 7: Stesura individuale della proposta finale (ted. → it.)

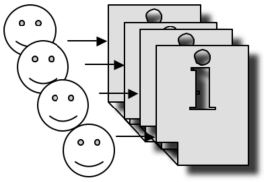


Figura 8: Prima proposta di traduzione (it. → ted.)

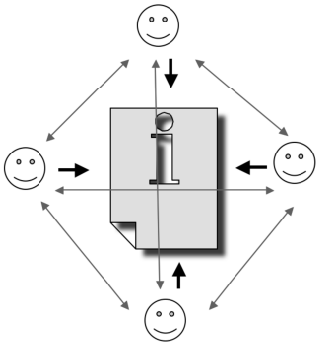


Figura 9: Revisione reciproca e stesura a cura di uno degli autori della proposta finale (it. → ted.)

3. Quali sono le reali possibilità che i corsisti siano disponibili a fornirsi reciprocamente feedback e come favorire tale processo?
È stato importante affrontare il problema e fornire il linguaggio adatto per avanzare delle proposte di modifica o indicare delle alternative (ad. es.: *propongo […]*).

4. Come motivare tutti i partecipanti e creare un senso di gratificazione per favorire il processo collaborativo?
Oltre a un'organizzazione trasparente e una descrizione dettagliata dei compiti che ogni membro del gruppo deve svolgere entro determinati termini, sono due i fattori che favoriscono, a mio avviso, il processo collaborativo. Il primo riguarda il fatto che tutte le attività degli studenti sono monitorate sia attraverso le possibilità elettroniche della piattaforma stessa sia attraverso il tutoraggio e la presenza a distanza del docente, ad esempio nelle sessioni di chat. Il secondo, didattico-psicologico, sta invece nella specifica proposta didattica orientata alla costruzione di un prodotto da esporre in seguito in classe.

3. Conclusioni

Considerando i nostri obiettivi didattici possiamo concludere che, per quanto riguarda le traduzioni verso la madrelingua degli studenti, il percorso formativo li ha sensibilizzati a intraprendere determinate scelte linguistiche, mentre nel caso delle traduzioni verso la lingua straniera, grazie alle correzioni reciproche, esso ha comportato e favorito dei miglioramenti della competenza linguistica straniera sia a livello lessicale che grammaticale/strutturale.

La scrittura parallela, sperimentata nella proposta di traduzione del libro per l'infanzia, ha da una parte permesso l'esperienza di un lavoro collaborativo di traduzione e, dall'altra, ha condotto alla consapevolezza che questa stesura a più mani deve basarsi su un lavoro accurato di omologazione del lessico e dello stile.

Attraverso il confronto, gli studenti hanno ampliato le loro competenze nell'uso degli ausili come la consultazione di dizionari online, la lettura di testi informativi e il lavoro con testi paralleli. Rimane il desideratum di raccogliere i riferimenti dei testi – elettronici e non – consultati, ad esempio in un forum.

Le discussioni sulla presenza di un linguaggio tecnico nel libro dell'infanzia oppure sul cambiamento del sesso degli animali protagonisti del libro, che nelle due lingue hanno generi grammaticali differenti (*der Seestern Anton* diventa *la stella marina Tonina*), le discussioni e le ricerche sui titoli dei libri già pubblicati in italiano della scrittrice Christa Wolf, le difficoltà nel tradurre *Stasi-Informantin* oppure *Hühnergott,* o ancora le domande nate da una lettura più attenta del testo di partenza (Perché la Wolf fugge nel Meclemburgo? Dove sta Landberg/Warthe?), le ricerche sul 27 settembre, giorno scelto dalla Wolf nella sua pubblicazione "Ein Tag im Jahr 1960-2000", l'impegno – nelle traduzioni dei testi in ambito turistico – di prendere e mantenere la prospettiva del potenziale turista tedesco a cui è rivolta la traduzione: queste domande, ricerche, discussioni e riflessioni sono le tracce che documentano lo sviluppo del senso critico degli studenti e la costruzione di nuove competenze e abilità legate alla loro attività traduttiva.

Il percorso didattico di traduzione a più mani come strategia collaborativa in una comunità d'apprendimento virtuale è quindi risultato valido e proficuo per ambedue le direzioni di traduzione.

Resta tuttavia auspicabile un'integrazione maggiore delle riflessioni teoriche affrontate in aula nell'attività di revisione e un lavoro più accurato e costante riguardo alla stesura del glossario bilingue.

Per concludere vorrei riportare alcune valutazioni del valore didattico da parte degli studenti:

> "Il confronto è più stimolante e meno noioso"
> "Nello scambio di idee si correggono i propri punti deboli e si individuano quelli degli altri"
> "È stato utile concentrarci su particolari termini nel domandarci se fossero i più adatti alla nostre esigenze. Da queste riflessioni emergevano le varie sfumature di significato dei termini"
> "Attraverso lo scambio di opinioni è più facile che delle cose rimangono impresse"
> "Potevamo 'correggere' a vicenda i nostri errori e in un certo senso 'scoprire '" che è in noi"
> "La comprensione di quei meccanismi che ci portano ad optare per una parola piuttosto che per un'altra"
> "Nel confronto con le mie colleghe emergevano varie risorse da cui sono state attinte le nostre traduzioni (google.de, dizionari ecc.) di cui io stesso ho imparato a fare uso"

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Le tecnologie della traduzione e il loro effetto nei testi. Design sperimentale e risultati preliminari di uno studio con strumenti CAT

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Abstract

Among Computer-Assisted Translation tools, translation memories are one of the most used programs by freelance translators and translation agencies. The function of this software is to store snippets of text in which the source text is divided together with their translations. Our research is aimed to test if the use of this software affects the final translated texts compared to other texts translated without memories, focusing on the phenomenon of linguistic interference, traditionally considered a translation universal.

1. L'interferenza linguistica e gli universali della traduzione

Il fenomeno dell'interferenza linguistica è stato considerato tradizionalmente un universale della traduzione, ossia una delle caratteristiche che compaiono in tutte le traduzioni indipendentemente da fattori quali la combinazione linguistica, il momento storico, il traduttore ecc. Tuttavia, la natura di questo fenomeno non è oggigiorno per niente chiara poiché non vi è un consenso unanime tra i ricercatori al riguardo.

Toury (1995: 272) ha definito l'interferenza come "phenomena pertaining to the make-up of the source text [which] tend to be transferred to the target text", e l'ha situata concettualmente tra le sue leggi universali della traduzione (legge dell'interferenza). Baker (1996: 243), al contrario, nell'elencare e individuare i potenziali fenomeni universali della traduzione, esclude esplicitamente l'inter-

ferenza linguistica: "[universal features of translation are] features which typically occur in translated text rather than original utterances and *which are not the result of interference* from specific linguistic systems." (il corsivo è nostro).

La prima domanda, quindi, riguarda l'essenza stessa del fenomeno: si tratta di un universale che compare in tutte le traduzioni, oppure la presenza di manifestazioni di interferenza linguistica impedisce la realizzazione degli universali?

Un secondo quesito concerne le manifestazioni del fenomeno. Secondo Toury (1995: 252) le interferenze possono acquisire forme positive o negative secondo il loro grado di adeguatezza alle norme della lingua d'arrivo, per cui "After all, even though they do reflect features of another text, in another language, the results of *positive* transfer are hardly discernible from normal target-language productions." (corsivo dell'originale).

Questa considerazione ha portato Toury e altri ricercatori a usare due diverse denominazioni per riferirsi ai due tipi di interferenze: *trasferimento* per quella positiva e *interferenza* per quella negativa. La distinzione è ancora in uso oggigiorno, anche se il cosiddetto "nuovo approccio dell'interferenza" mira all'abbandono di questa dualità, difende la neutralità dell'interferenza (Eskola 2004: 83-99) e, come aveva già fatto Toury (1995), affida ai fattori socioculturali il compito di determinare l'accettabilità delle interferenze.

In questo studio il fenomeno è osservato dal punto di vista della somiglianza formale, assegnando l'etichetta "traduzione vicina" alle traduzioni che non introducono alcuna modifica formale rispetto all'originale, e l'etichetta "traduzione lontana" a quelle che hanno subito qualche cambiamento. Questa decisione è stata presa secondo il principio di oggettività che deve reggere qualunque ricerca, dato che, a nostro avviso, quello adottato è il metodo meno soggettivo possibile per affrontare la questione dell'interferenza.

In ogni caso bisogna sottolineare che anche in questo studio si esclude dall'analisi dell'interferenza il piano dell'accettabilità, e pertanto tale studio non è focalizzato solo su traduzioni *scorrette*, dato che, in linea con Toury, un'interferenza può anche rispettare le norme della lingua d'arrivo.

In sostanza, l'interferenza linguistica, che costituisce la variabile dipendente della nostra ricerca, è ancora un fenomeno piuttosto sconosciuto. Questo studio, pur non avendo come obiettivo la definizione di interferenza linguistica, ma solo la ricerca dell'effetto degli strumenti CAT sul fenomeno, fornirà comunque dati importanti da triangolare con altre investigazioni sulla natura dell'interferenza.

2. Gli esperimenti del progetto TRACE

Il progetto TRACE, sovvenzionato dal Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte[1] e realizzato dal gruppo di ricerca Tradumàtica della Facultat de Traducció i d'Interpretació dell'Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB), punta a individuare differenze nelle traduzioni effettuate con e senza l'uso degli strumenti

1 Progetto HUM-04349-FILO, 2006-2010.

CAT, allo scopo di determinare quale effetto abbiano tali strumenti sui testi finali. Nel caso che ci riguarda, lo studio sull'interferenza linguistica, l'ipotesi di studio da verificare è stata formulata come segue: nelle traduzioni in cui gli strumenti CAT non vengono usati, l'interferenza linguistica si manifesta in maniera diversa rispetto ai testi tradotti con strumenti CAT.

È stato portato a termine un esperimento con più di cento soggetti disegnato su basi varie e solide per garantire così l'isolamento di variabili estranee che avrebbero potuto avere un'influenza sui risultati globali.[2] Una di queste fasi preliminari è stata lo studio pilota: uno studio con le caratteristiche dell'esperimento finale a cui però hanno partecipato solamente diciotto studenti di laurea magistrale. Proprio grazie a questo studio pilota sono state individuate alcune mancanze metodologiche e diverse incompatibilità tra le versioni dei programmi (v. § 3).

2.1 Variabile indipendente

Con lo scopo di testare se l'uso delle suddette memorie abbia degli effetti sui testi tradotti in confronto ad altri tradotti senza tali ausili, nella nostra ricerca sono stati previsti tre scenari con diversi gradi di presenza di questi strumenti. Il primo scenario è costituito da un semplice elaboratore di testi come Microsoft Word. Il secondo scenario è costituito da MS Word associato alla memoria di traduzione di SDL Trados, Translator's Workbench, una combinazione di stru-

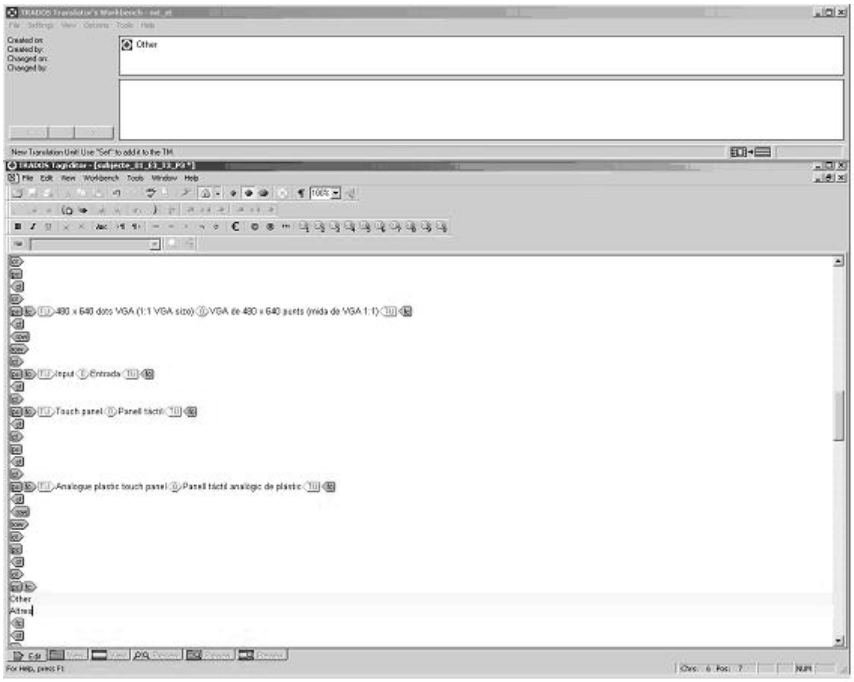


Figura 1. Istantanea della schermata di TagEditor con sopra Translator's Workbench

2 Per una analisi più approfondita del disegno sperimentale, si veda Torres-Hostench *et al.* (2010).

menti che ormai da anni costituisce il metodo di lavoro quotidiano di tanti traduttori. Il terzo scenario è rappresentato dall'editore di tag ('etichette') di SDL Trados, TagEditor, in combinazione con la memoria di traduzione Workbench.

Tra gli scenari previsti all'interno del gruppo di strumenti CAT, ci sono anche differenze per quanto riguarda l'informazione visiva offerta. È la cosiddetta funzionalità WYSIWYG, presente sempre di più in alcuni prodotti informatici, che permette all'utente di vedere su schermo il formato che si sta usando. Nel caso dello scenario 3, come si può osservare nella Figura 1, l'elaboratore di testo usato non ha la funzionalità WYSIWYG, ma invece sostituisce il formato del testo con delle catene di testo dette etichette o *tags*.

Nella Tabella 1 si rappresentano i tre scenari con le loro caratteristiche.

Tabella 1. I tre scenari con le loro caratteristiche

Scenari	Segmentazione automatica	Informazione sul formato
SCE1: MS Word	-	+
SCE2: Word + Workbench	+	+
SCE3: TagEditor + Workbench	+	-

2.2 Variabile dipendente

Come già detto, il fenomeno dell'interferenza linguistica rappresenta la variabile dipendente del nostro studio, ed è stata suddivisa in nove categorie, in base a ricerche precedenti e manuali di traduzione (riportiamo tra parentesi il codice che useremo più avanti nelle figure): ortografia e punteggiatura in un contesto linguistico (O1), ortografia e punteggiatura in un contesto non linguistico (O2), falsi amici (L1), trasferimento (L2), morfosintassi (M), convenzioni testuali (C), conoscenze enciclopediche (E), coerenza (Ca) e coesione (Co).[3]

2.3 Variabili controllate

È evidente che per garantire l'affidabilità dei risultati ottenuti bisogna tenere sotto controllo alcune variabili, come ad esempio il profilo dei soggetti, i testi, la randomizzazione di testi e strumenti, l'uso di memorie. Il fatto di non controllare queste variabili potrebbe causare l'intrusione di variabili estranee, dovute ad esempio all'esperienza dei soggetti.

3 Franco Aixelá (2009: 75-88); Orozco Jutorán (2006: 123).

I soggetti

Attraverso liste di distribuzione specializzate e contatti con diverse agenzie di traduzione, sono stati convocati più di 100 soggetti per le prove, tra i quali ne sono stati scelti 90 (v. § 2.3.3) che avevano i requisiti richiesti, ovvero: traduzione come attività professionale principale (in base alla dichiarazione dei redditi), combinazione linguistica inglese-spagnolo, esperienza professionale compresa tra 2 e 5 anni, competenze tecnologiche con strumenti CAT ecc. In seguito, nelle sessioni di traduzione, sono stati scartati i soggetti che si sono rilevati poco adatti allo scopo dello studio (mancanze nella competenza tecnologica, domande elementari ecc.) .

I testi

I dati su cui si basa la ricerca sono stati estratti dalle traduzioni realizzate da ogni soggetto, che in ognuno dei tre scenari descritti ha lavorato su un testo diverso.

In una prima fase sono stati scelti tre testi secondo le ipotesi di studio (genere testuale, tema ecc.), da cui è sorta una prima proposta di indicatori su cui basare la ricerca.

Successivamente sono stati selezionati i punti più interessanti, rappresentativi del fenomeno che costituisce la variabile dipendente, ed è su questi punti che sono state osservate le differenze fra i tre scenari. In seguito sono state eseguite due fasi di verifica esterna. Nella prima fase, costituita da un piccolo esperimento che abbiamo denominato "studio prepilota", i tre testi sono stati inviati a tre agenzie di traduzione, come se si trattasse di un semplice incarico. Le nove traduzioni ricevute hanno fornito informazioni sulla validità degli indicatori prescelti e hanno anche permesso di individuarne di nuovi. Nella seconda fase di verifica esterna, gli indicatori sono stati sottoposti tramite un questionario alla valutazione da parte di docenti universitari di traduzione. I professori hanno quindi esaminato la validità di ogni indicatore per misurare la variabile dipendente.

Infine, i testi sono stati ridotti a 500 parole, prestando attenzione a non eliminare passaggi di testo necessari a preservare la coerenza testuale. In questo modo i tre testi sono stati resi comparabili quantitativamente.

Inoltre, per evitare un possibile "effetto di apprendimento", nelle sessioni di traduzione i testi sono stati ordinati in maniera randomizzata.

Randomizzazione

Come anticipato, l'ordine di comparsa dei testi e degli strumenti è stato randomizzato al fine di minimizzare qualsiasi effetto di apprendimento. Poiché la variabile indipendente dello studio è l'assenza o la presenza degli strumenti CAT, sono state previste tutte le combinazioni possibili tra i tre programmi studiati (vedi Tabella 2).

Tabella 2. Randomizzazione della posizione degli strumenti

Posizione iniziale	Posizione intermedia	Posizione finale
S1	S2	S3
S1	S3	S2
S2	S1	S3
S2	S3	S1
S3	S1	S2
S3	S2	S1

Le combinazioni di testi, al contrario, sono solo tre. In questo modo si garantisce che ogni testo compaia almeno una volta in ogni posizione riuscendo inoltre a ridurre la mole dell'esperimento: coprire tutte le possibili combinazioni di testi farebbe incrementare esponenzialmente il numero di soggetti, rendendo la ricerca ingestibile.

Moltiplicando dunque le sei combinazioni di strumenti per le tre combinazioni di testi, si ottengono i 18 soggetti necessari per coprire un'intera serie dell'esperimento. Infatti, mentre lo studio pilota è stato eseguito con un'unica serie di 18 soggetti, nell'esperimento finale sono state utilizzate cinque serie, per un totale di 90 traduttori.

La memoria di traduzione

Solitamente il tipo di progetti coinvolti nell'esperimento include una memoria di traduzione, che sia del traduttore o dell'azienda. In questo caso però, siamo stati costretti a limitare l'informazione contenuta nella memoria per evitare di influenzare il comportamento del traduttore con le proposte fornite. Di fronte al bisogno di rispettare la naturalità del progetto senza interferire nelle traduzioni dei soggetti, è stata fornita una memoria di traduzione senza contenuto.

Altri fattori da registrare

La maggior parte dell'informazione che verrà analizzata proviene dagli indicatori tradotti. Tuttavia, altri dati sono stati raccolti in modo che i risultati statistici possano essere triangolati, ovvero messi a confronto. Ad esempio, sono stati registrati tutti i processi di traduzione per mezzo di programmi di registrazione della schermata, della tastiera e del mouse. Inoltre, sono state ottenute informazioni sulla durata dei processi di traduzione (in minuti) e sui siti consultati. Tramite un questionario è stato chiesto di esprimere il livello di soddisfazione nei confronti della propria traduzione. Nel seguente paragrafo tratteremo di questi argomenti nello specifico.

Descriviamo qui di seguito gli strumenti utilizzati nello studio pilota e nell'esperimento finale per raccogliere i dati, oltre ai testi (v. § 2.3.2).

Registrazione dello schermo

I processi di traduzione sono stati registrati grazie al programma di registrazione dello schermo BlueBerry Flashback Recorder. Questo software può essere utilizzato in modalità invisibile. Inoltre, i file prodotti hanno dimensioni piuttosto ridotte, fattore da valutare in progetti dove si gestisce una grande quantità di file.

È necessario far presente che il suddetto programma dispone di un modulo di registrazione delle attività della tastiera e del mouse, ma che nelle sessioni di verifica del software condotte dai ricercatori questo modulo si è rilevato inefficace per i nostri bisogni, a causa dei problemi di incompatibilità con caratteri propri di lingue diverse dall'inglese.[4]

A nostro avviso è assolutamente fondamentale conservare al massimo tanto la validità ecologica durante l'esperimento, quanto l'etica della ricerca; ed è appunto per questo motivo che ogni soggetto è stato informato alla fine della sessione dell'obiettivo dello studio ed è stato invitato a cedere liberamente i propri dati perché fossero trattati anonimamente per fini di ricerca.

Registrazione dell'attività di tastiera e mouse

Tutte le azioni compiute sulla tastiera o sul mouse sono state registrate col software Inputlog (Leijten & Van Waes 2006), sviluppato nel campo della ricerca sulla traduzione. A differenza di altri programmi disponibili sul mercato, forse più conosciuti negli studi sulla traduzione, Inputlog può agire in modo invisibile e registra tutta l'attività della tastiera e del mouse indipendentemente dai programmi in esecuzione (elaboratori di testi, risorse Internet, ecc.).

Memoria di traduzione

Le memorie di traduzione sono state usate in due dei tre scenari coinvolti, perciò nell'esperimento costituiscono da un lato un database straordinario di segmenti allineati, e dall'altro una sorta di *backup file* (in altre parole, una copia di sicurezza) di fronte a possibili problemi di perdita o danneggiamento dei testi tradotti.

Questionario post-traduzione

Alla fine di ogni sessione, ai soggetti è stato richiesto di compilare un questionario su diversi aspetti, quali la difficoltà del testo tradotto e la soddisfazione ri-

4 In risposta ad una nostra comunicazione, l'azienda proprietaria del programma si è mostrata disponibile a risolvere il problema nelle prossime versioni.

spetto alla propria traduzione. Tutto ciò, oltre a fornirci dati sulla comparabilità dei testi a livello di difficoltà, ci permetterà di individuare correlazioni tra la soddisfazione e le variabili dell'esperimento, gli strumenti e l'interferenza.

3. Risultati dello studio pilota e discussione

Lo studio pilota ci ha portato a due tipi di risultati: sulla metodologia della ricerca e sull'effetto degli strumenti sull'interferenza. In primo luogo, la stessa realizzazione della prova ci ha permesso di introdurre delle modifiche metodologiche nell'esperimento. In secondo luogo, i dati ottenuti dalle traduzioni sono stati analizzati statisticamente, in modo che i risultati permettano non solo di aggiungere modifiche metodologiche, ma anche di trarre conclusioni preliminari sull'oggetto di studio del progetto.

Bisogna comunque sottolineare che, trattandosi di uno studio pilota, le interpretazioni dei risultati sono da considerarsi provvisorie, poiché spesso, a causa delle dimensioni ridotte del campione osservato, i dati raccolti non permettono di arrivare a delle conclusioni solide.

3.1 Risultati metodologici

Le piccole modifiche effettuate nella metodologia dell'esperimento finale grazie allo studio pilota riguardano aspetti assai pratici, quali la consegna dei file, i programmi usati o la pianificazione delle sessioni.

In primo luogo si è dimostrato necessario un cambiamento nel sistema di consegna dei file. Mentre gli studenti mandavano le loro traduzioni via e-mail man mano che finivano, nell'esperimento finale le traduzioni sono state raccolte direttamente dai computer dei soggetti una volta che questi avevano lasciato l'aula. L'uso dell'e-mail avrebbe potuto rendere i materiali dell'esperimento più facilmente accessibili ai professionisti della traduzione, potenziali partecipanti alla prova, cosa che avrebbe costituito una fonte di variabili estranee incontrollabile.

Una delle modifiche più importanti introdotte nell'esperimento riguarda l'uso dei differenti programmi di raccolta di dati. Nelle sessioni dello studio pilota sono emerse delle incompatibilità tra il terzo scenario e il software di registrazione della tastiera. In questo scenario, dunque, non sono state raccolte tali informazioni.

Altre modifiche metodologiche introdotte nell'esperimento finale in base ai risultati dello studio pilota riguardano la pianificazione delle sessioni. Il tempo riservato a ogni traduzione, ad esempio, è stato ridotto da un'ora e mezza nello studio pilota a un'ora e dieci minuti nell'esperimento, giacché gli studenti non avevano fatto uso di tutti i minuti disponibili. Inoltre, anche la distribuzione interna delle sessioni è stata modificata. Lo studio pilota si è svolto in due giorni per problemi d'incompatibilità oraria degli studenti: i soggetti hanno tradotto due testi la prima sera e il testo seguente l'indomani. Come vedremo più avanti, questa distribuzione ha provocato delle variabili estranee nei risultati, per cui le

sessioni dell'esperimento sono state sempre programmate in un unico giorno (di mattina o di sera, a seconda della disponibilità dei traduttori).

Infine, uno degli obiettivi più importanti dello studio pilota era quello di verificare la validità degli strumenti di misura usati, in altre parole, i testi. Nell'osservare gli indicatori tradotti dai soggetti, quelli poco informativi (ovvero quelli per cui non c'era variabilità nelle traduzioni) sono stati individuati e scartati dall'elenco di indicatori analizzati, allo scopo di rendere i risultati più informativi e generalizzabili.[5]

3.2 Procedimento statistico

Posteriormente alla realizzazione dell'esperimento pilota, i dati raccolti sono stati elaborati e analizzati statisticamente dal Servei d'Estadística della UAB. L'interpretazione dei risultati statistici, com'è stato già detto, fornisce due tipi di conclusioni: da una parte, apporta altri elementi all'elenco di modifiche metodologiche da effettuare in vista dell'esperimento finale, dall'altra, permette di estrarre delle conclusioni preliminari sull'oggetto di studio del progetto.

Per interpretare correttamente i risultati seguenti, bisogna ricordare che le traduzioni sono state analizzate secondo il principio *vicino/lontano* (v. § 1).

3.2.1 Risultati riguardanti la validità del disegno sperimentale

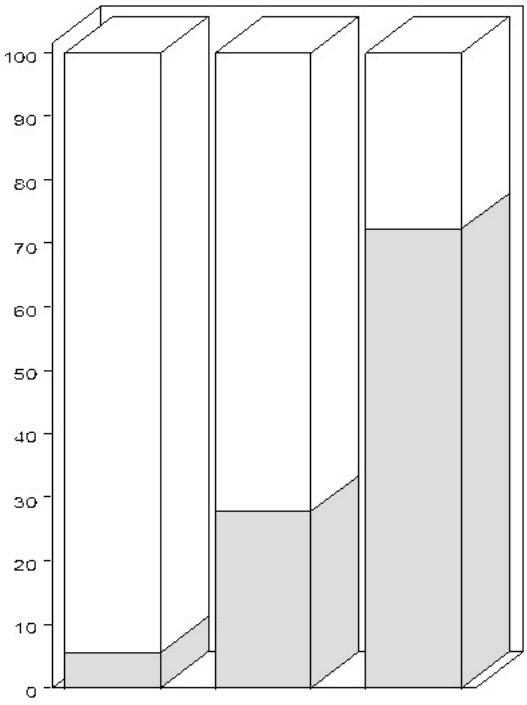
I testi

L'analisi statistica ha evidenziato delle differenze nei risultati di interferenza, dovute non all'influenza degli strumenti CAT ma ad alcune inadeguatezze del disegno sperimentale. Come già detto, lo studio pilota è servito a verificare gli strumenti di misura usati e a controllare potenziali differenze nei risultati di interferenza dovute alle caratteristiche testuali. Ad esempio, in una delle categorie in cui si è operazionalizzata la variabile dipendente (quella della coesione), i risultati mostrano differenze rilevanti.

Come vediamo nella Figura 2, il terzo testo dà luogo a molte più traduzioni lontane rispetto agli altri due testi, fatto che dimostra una mancanza di comparabilità tra gli strumenti in questa categoria.[6]

5 Questi risultati sono stati successivamente confermati con i dati dell'analisi statistica.

6 Nonostante questa mancanza, non sono state effettuate modifiche nella categoria di coesione nell'esperimento finale, poiché la logica ci fa supporre che nella prova con i traduttori professionisti si otterranno dei risultati più comparabili tra i tre testi. Infatti, i primi risultati dell'esperimento finale che stiamo ottenendo confermano questa tendenza.



Legenda

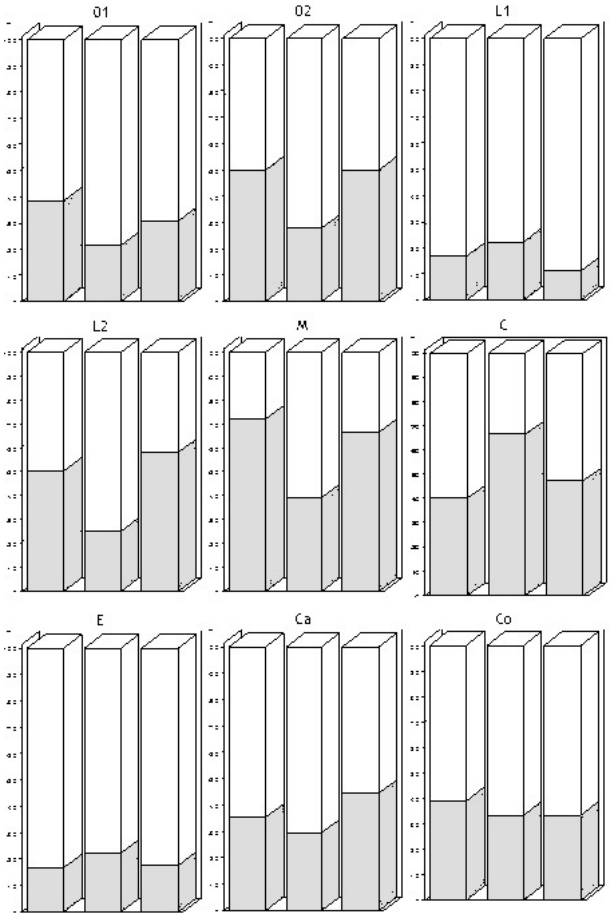
Asse X: testo 1, 2, 3
Asse Y: percentuale
Bianco: traduzione vicina
Grigio: traduzione lontana

FIGURA 2. Distribuzione dell'interferenza nei tre testi (categoria Co)

La posizione

La distribuzione interna delle sessioni ha provocato differenze nei risultati non attribuibili allo scenario. L'analisi statistica bivariata, anche se non presenta differenze significative per quanto riguarda la posizione in cui vengono tradotti i testi, mostra una tendenza divergente della posizione due, e infatti è in questa posizione che si ottengono sempre i risultati più alti o più bassi. Bisogna ricordare che, a causa delle incompatibilità orarie dei soggetti, le due prime posizioni appartengono al primo giorno e la terza all'indomani.

È dimostrato quindi che programmare le sessioni in giorni differenti può dare luogo a un problema metodologico. Questo risultato ha rafforzato l'idea che, per non danneggiare la validità ecologica, nell'esperimento finale le tre traduzioni devono essere elaborate nello stesso giorno.



Legenda

Asse X: posizione iniziale, intermedia, finale
Asse Y: percentuale
Bianco: traduzione vicina
Grigio: traduzione lontana

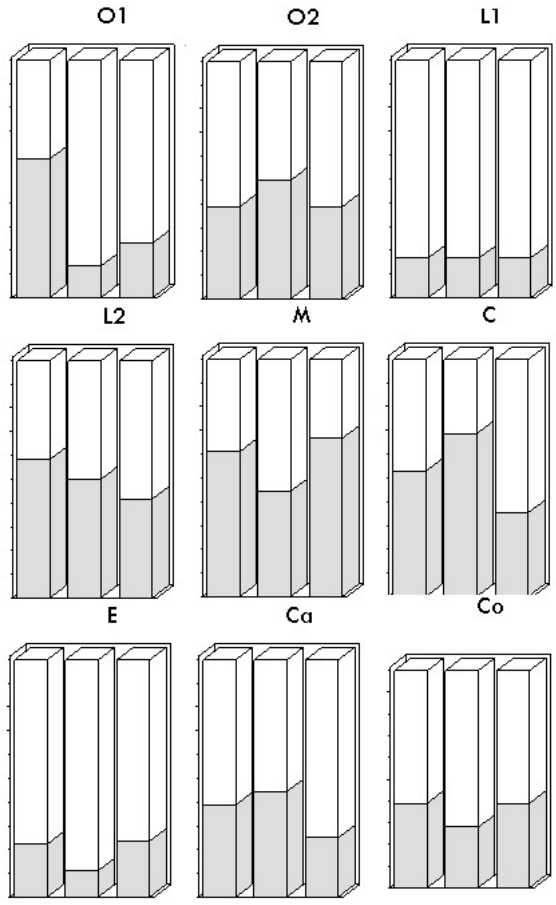
Figura 3. Distribuzione dell'interferenza secondo la posizione

3.2.2 Risultati riguardanti le ipotesi di ricerca

I risultati dell'analisi statistica permettono anche di tracciare delle conclusioni preliminari sull'oggetto di studio. Questi risultati riguardano soprattutto il rapporto tra la variabile dipendente e quella indipendente.

Gli scenari

Per quanto riguarda l'ipotesi principale del nostro studio ("nelle traduzioni in cui gli strumenti CAT non vengono usati, l'interferenza linguistica si manifesta in maniera diversa rispetto ai testi tradotti con strumenti CAT"), l'analisi statistica presenta differenze significative solo nella categoria O1 (Figura 4).



Legenda

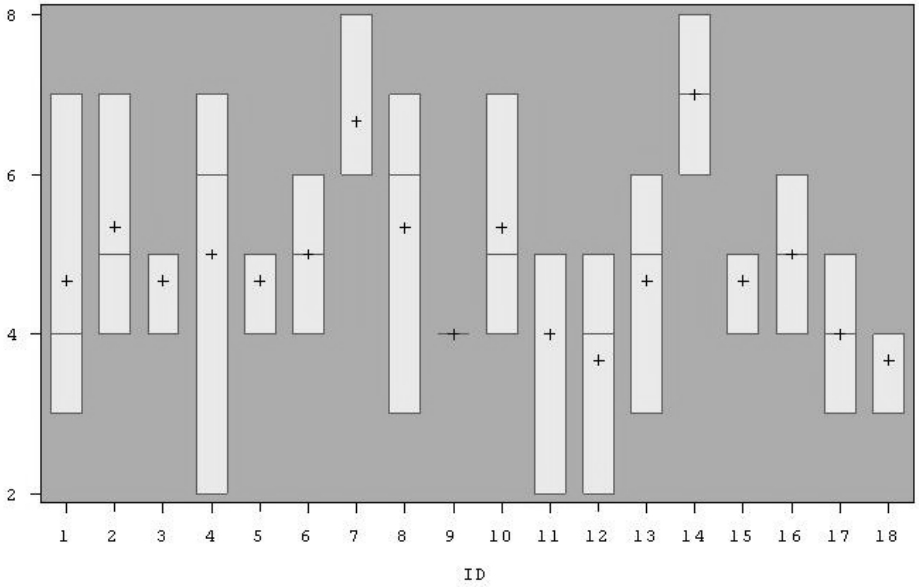
Asse X: SCE1, SCE2, SCE3
Asse Y: percentuale
Bianco: traduzione vicina
Grigio: traduzione lontana

FIGURA 4. Distribuzione dell'interferenza secondo lo scenario

Nella categoria O1, le traduzioni lontane nello scenario 1 sono in numero significativamente superiore rispetto a quelle negli altri due scenari. Si può osservare tuttavia come il secondo strumento (Translator's Workbench) presenti una tendenza divergente. È in questo scenario infatti che si ottengono sempre i risultati più alti o più bassi. Questo porta a domandarsi se è possibile che gli scenari 1 e 2 provochino tendenze diverse nell'interferenza. Bisognerà quindi aspettare i risultati dell'esperimento finale per verificare queste ipotesi.

Il profilo

Sono state eseguite delle analisi addizionali al fine di individuare quali variabili hanno un'influenza sulla variabile dipendente. I risultati statistici mostrano che ci sono sottili differenze nella distribuzione dell'interferenza secondo i soggetti (Figura 5).



Legenda

Asse X: Soggetto
Asse Y: indicatori di traduzioni vicine

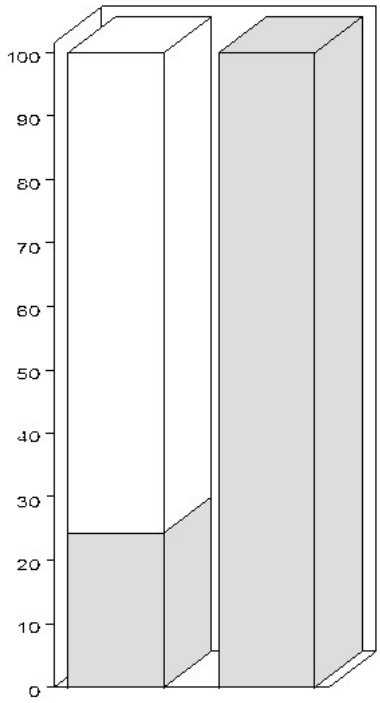
Figura 5. Quantità d'indicatori tradotti in modo vicino secondo il soggetto

Grazie a quest'analisi possono essere individuati i traduttori più esposti alle interferenze: i soggetti 7 e 14 presentano un numero maggiore di traduzioni vicine. Anche se le differenze non sono significative, questi risultati suggeriscono diversi livelli di tolleranza all'interferenza da parte dei traduttori.

L'uso preliminare di altri strumenti

Allo scopo di chiarire se esista un possibile effetto di apprendimento nell'uso degli scenari, dovuto al loro ordine, si sono osservate le differenze delle traduzioni fatte con ognuno degli scenari quando questi sono in posizione iniziale o in una qualsiasi delle altre posizioni.

La rappresentazione grafica mostra come lo scenario 1 (MS Word) in posizione 1 provoca il 100% delle traduzioni lontane nel caso della categoria O1; invece quando è in un'altra posizione la percentuale di traduzioni lontane è molto più bassa. Bisogna ricordare che probabilmente la dimensione del campione condiziona questi risultati, a causa dei pochi dati disponibili. L'ipotesi suggerita da questi risultati è che l'uso di un programma con segmentazione automatica prima di un programma senza segmentazione automatica abbia un'influenza sull'interferenza linguistica. Quest'ipotesi dovrà essere testata nell'esperimento finale, date le conseguenze che potrebbe avere nel campo della didattica.



Legenda

Asse X: SCE1 in posizione iniziale (no/sì)
nella categoria O1
Asse Y: percentuale
Bianco: traduzione vicina
Grigio: traduzione lontana

Figura 6. Percentuale di traduzioni lontane secondo la posizione dello SCE1 nella categoria O1

4. Conclusioni

Per quanto riguarda lo studio pilota, è opportuno sottolineare la validità di questo tipo di prove per testare la metodologia di uno studio più complesso. Questa fase, assieme alle altre compiute dall'inizio dell'esperimento, garantisce la validità metodologica dell'esperimento finale, giacché la maggior parte dei problemi sono stati individuati nelle fasi precedenti. Inoltre il fatto di aver eseguito uno studio pilota assicura la validità degli strumenti di misura utilizzati (i testi).

Alcune ipotesi formulate in base ai risultati preliminari dello studio pilota dovranno essere testate nell'esperimento finale. In primo luogo, quella che riguarda l'oggetto di studio della ricerca: il rapporto tra strumento e interferenza. I risultati appena presentati mostrano delle differenze significative nella categoria O1, nella quale lo SCE1 ottiene più traduzioni lontane. Inoltre, è stata individuata una tendenza divergente dello strumento 2 (SDL Trados Translator's Workbench) in combinazione con l'elaboratore di testi.

D'altra parte bisogna anche tenere conto del possibile influsso che gli strumenti usati nelle traduzioni precedenti possono avere su quelle successive. In

attesa dei risultati dell'esperimento finale si potrebbe ipotizzare che gli strumenti con segmentazione automatica influiscano sulle traduzioni fatte successivamente con degli elaboratori di testi. È però tutt'altro che irrilevante il fatto che nel primo scenario i traduttori abbiano fatto più traduzioni lontane (il 100% nel caso degli indicatori O1).

Per quanto riguarda il progetto, confidiamo che possa aprire nuove linee di ricerca e contribuire agli studi sulla traduzione, ad esempio apportando nuovi dati sull'interferenza come universale.

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Translation practice at the EU institutions: focus on a concordancing tool

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Abstract

Translation has always played a major role within the European institutions because it provides the basis for democracy and communication among the Member States and between the EU and its citizens. The enlargements brought about changes in the internal organization of the institutions – including translation services and their workflow – to respond to the new challenge of accommodating 23 official languages. A greater need for translation support was met thanks to a growing number of shared tools and resources developed over time, such as centralised web-based applications and meta-search engines. This paper focuses on one specific tool available to translators working at the EU institutions, i.e. an internally developed multilingual concordancer. Concordancers are widely used by translators but little information is available about them in terms of tool evaluation or user behaviour. This article presents a PhD research project aimed to partly fill this gap by investigating the relationship between concordance searches (seen as manifestations of translation problems) and language combination within the EU translation services.

1. Introduction

This paper presents a PhD research project aimed at relating translation problems to language combination. The study draws on a dataset of hundreds of thousands of search logs retrieved from a specific web-based translation aid – a multilingual concordancer – which logs the queries submitted by EU staff translators.

In the first part of the article, background information about the translation services at the EU institutions (Section 2) and a description of the relevant Computer-Aided Translation (CAT) tools (Section 3) are provided. Section 4 gives a brief account of previous studies on translation tools and concordancers and sketches current scenarios where findings from this study may fit, while Section 5 deals in greater detail with the research project.

2. Translation services at the EU institutions

Given the political role multilingualism plays in maintaining a democratic basis within the European Union, dedicated translation services are available in a number of EU institutions. The largest is found at the European Commission (EC) that, with some 1700 translators, is known to be the largest translation service in the world. After the 2004 and 2007 enlargements, the European Parliament (EP) almost doubled in size, rising from 410 (Wagner *et al.* 2002: 15) to 750 translators (Kowalska 2010).

The main subject domains for translation at the EU institutions are politics, law and economics but just about any topic can be dealt with and some degree of specialization is often required in each service (Wagner *et al.* 2002: 44). For instance, the Treaties are translated by the translators at the Council of the EU; the EC and the EP deal mostly with legislative and legislation-related texts; the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions are also involved in the legislative process because they present opinions on the draft legislation that have to be translated as well. Translators at the Court of Auditors are specialized in translating the annual and special reports about the EU financial resources and budget. Translators mostly deal with documents written in English, the most common source language even before the EU enlargement in 2004 (Dollerup 2001: 31).[1] A special translation service can be found at the Court of Justice, where French is still the main working language. Staff translators have to be specialized in law and trained as lawyers because they translate judgements and orders and the opinions of the Advocates-General. A small number of lawyer linguists can also be found in other institutions, namely the Commission, the Parliament, the Council and the European Central Bank (Wagner *et al.* 2002: 15ff.).

The European Commission deserves special attention as it has a complex internal organization and covers a wide range of text types. A whole Directorate-General is dedicated to translation (DGT) and a separate unit is specialized in Web publications. Documents can be divided into three main groups: incoming, outgoing and internal (DGT 2009a: 54,55; EC 2010: 47). Documents produced by DGT can be divided into two main types: legislation-

1 A special case is that of parliamentary questions to the Commission and/or the Council because these institutions can be addressed in the MEP's native language, which makes the language range potentially much wider. According to the same principle, amendments to legislation can be presented in the MEP's mother tongue. Both types of text are translated by the Parliament.

related, that is texts with specific EU terminology and usually available in all 23 official languages, and communication documents (printed material or website content) aimed at EU citizens, which will be adapted to the national context of each Member State (EC 2010: 47,48).[2] The enlargement brought about an urgent need for reorganizing the translation service of the EC, which went back to a language-based system integrating the pre-existing thematic organization (DGT 2009a: 47). This means that translators are grouped on the basis of their native language rather than by domain expertise.

The structure of the translation division at the European Parliament is more straightforward: Directorate A deals with support and technological services for translation, and Directorate B ("Translation and Terminology") is divided into 23 language units, one for each official language, plus one Terminology Unit. The language regime at the EP is more balanced: there are no procedural languages – as is the case at the Commission with English, French and German – although a small group of languages are used for *pivot* translations, English undoubtedly being the most common. In 2009, about 80% of the source documents handled at DGT were written in English by non-native speakers (DGT 2009a: 56).

One very important aspect of translation for the European institutions regards the language policy in terms of directionality: translators are expected to translate into their mother tongue. This means that in each language unit, translators will be native speakers of the language they translate into.

3. Available CAT tools at the EU institutions

When it comes to translation support, the European Commission is arguably the most advanced and active among the EU institutions. The Commission has been using electronic resources for many decades. These resources are not intended exclusively for translators, and can also provide useful support (e.g. for documentation and administration purposes) to any person working at the EU institutions. Most of these tools have been developed internally or customized to meet the specific needs of the complex EU machinery (e.g. Euramis and Quest) and therefore are generally not available to freelance translators or outside contractors, to whom an increasing volume of translation work is outsourced. Back in 2004, Drugan (2004: 13) reported about multilingual document management and workflow at the EU institutions anticipating that 50% of all EU translations would be sent to external translators by 2007.

2 DGT translates the following document types: legal acts and preparatory documents; Commission decisions and communications; international agreements; policy statements; publications; technical studies; answers to written and oral parliamentary questions; correspondence; speeches and speaking notes; briefings and press releases; minutes; (financial) reports; working documents; internal administrative matters and staff information; scripts and captions for films and other promotional material; correspondence with ministries, firms, interest groups and individuals, and web pages (DGT 2009b: 3).

Technological aids that are more targeted to translation tasks can be attributed to one (or more) of the following categories (Lönnroth 2008): translation memories, terminology, machine translation, voice recognition software, workflow and transmission and web content management systems. Furthermore, libraries, the Internet and the intranet provide very useful resources for finding reference or background material and retrieving all necessary supporting documents.

Given that a considerable part of the written production of the institutions builds on existing legislation, documents to be translated generally do not contain just new or unseen text but they also quote previous legal texts, meaning that the translation task involves considerable searching, copying and pasting to ensure consistency. This is one of the reasons behind the large-scale adoption of computer-assisted translation software programmes, both commercial and proprietary.

Translation tools currently used at the Commission include terminology tools, translation memory technology (an EU-customised version of SDL Trados Translator's Workbench), a customised rule-based Machine Translation (ECMT) engine and voice recognition systems, which are increasingly popular but generally limited to a small number of languages. Furthermore, Internet search engines have become an indispensable resource but many internal web-based tools have also the advantage of performing optimized searches in relevant domains, which allows a more efficient filtering of information and results.

Computer aids are made as user-friendly as possible, so that user interaction is reduced to a minimum. Training sessions for users are organised on a regular basis so as to improve tool adoption and acceptance, maximize software performance and bring users up to date with the latest developments. However, an excessively wide range of computer aids can also have negative effects for the translators and the workflow in general. Not everyone is tech savvy, and the impact of new learning curves can slow down the translation activity and increase the risk of inappropriate use of the tools, which can result in processing problems or lost information. These possible drawbacks notwithstanding, on-site interviews with DGT staff highlighted that "[…] the introduction of Euramis concordance features[3] and IATE[4] to build on and share terminology resources were generally mentioned as positive developments […]" (Drugan 2004: 19).

3 See sub-section 3.1.

4 IATE (Inter-Active Terminology for Europe) is the EU inter-institutional terminology database and contains entries in all the official languages. IATE has been used in the EU institutions and agencies since 2004 for the collection, dissemination and shared management of EU-specific terminology (http://iate.europa.eu) [last accessed: January 2011].

EURAMIS stands for European Advanced Multilingual Information System. This system was originally developed by the European Commission in 1995 and is currently available to other institutions, namely the Council, the Court of Auditors, the Court of Justice, the Committee of the Regions, the European Economic and Social Committee, the European Parliament and the Translation Centre for the Bodies of the European Union. To access the system, users need to enter their log-in details so that correct access rights can be assigned, given that each institution has access to a set number of customized resources to protect sensitive content and make storage and retrieval more efficient.

Euramis consists of a series of centralized web-based applications for document search and retrieval, including a concordancing tool. A concordancer is commonly used by translators to query a repository of text segments to find the target language equivalent of a source text portion they entered as a search string. The advantage of using a concordancer over other translation tools is that text segments are displayed in their original context to help users make an informed choice when they look for the proper target language version. Euramis is referred to as a "central translation memory" (DGT 2009c: 10) because translators generally use a local Translation Memory (TM) with front ends such as SDL Trados Translator's Workbench, Word or Trados TagEditor; the Euramis main repository is accessed in read-only mode. The Euramis concordancer is usually presented as a terminology search tool (Rusu 2009) with multilingual and multi-directional capability, so the underlying assumption is that terminological searches in context are the main reason for using a concordancer.

The user can submit a query either by opening the Euramis concordance page directly in the web browser and type or paste the string or by highlighting the relevant text portion and launch the search from a Word toolbar button. Searches can be performed using a simple or advanced concordance interface. The former only allows the selection of the source and target language and one or more database(s) while the latter has a number of additional filtering parameters.

Once the retrieval is completed, results are displayed in a new window.[5] At the top, a box summarizes the chosen settings; below, a two-column table displays the results: source language on the left and the corresponding target version on the right. Only sentences ("segments") containing the searched strings are shown and the text of the query is highlighted in bold red. If two or more segments are retrieved from the same document, they are grouped together under a common heading containing the metadata from the translation memory for document identification. Additional buttons are also available to open the whole document, download it locally or send feedback to the database manager, respectively.

5 A detailed description of the early Euramis algorithms for indexing and retrieval and the structure of the Translation Memory can be found in Blatt (1998a, 1998b). For details about the history of Euramis until the late 1990s, refer to Leick (1998).

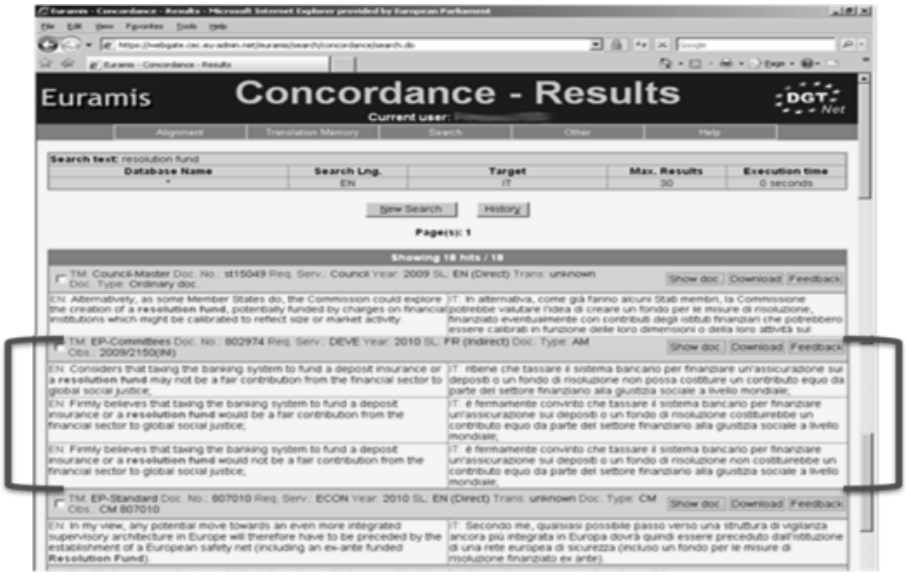

Figure 1: Euramis concordancer result page

3.2 Quest

Quest is a meta-search engine developed in the early 2000s by the European Commission to speed up the search process with simultaneous lookups across available databases and online resources. A new inter-institutional version of Quest was released in 2007.

Aside from Euramis, the other most prominent resources deal with terminology (IATE) and legislation (Eurlex) but other institution- and language-specific resources are also available and the user can select up to four different sources to be queried simultaneously. Just like the Euramis concordancer, Quest can be accessed online from the Quest webpage and the query can be typed directly in the search engine. Alternatively, the user can highlight a text portion in the text editor and launch Quest by using a toolbar button. The interface is basic: the user selects source and target language, a Search Profile and the resources to be included in the search.[6]

The result page comes in a two-column format. The left column lists all responsive databases on top. The first database to respond is automatically displayed as a nested web page in the larger right-hand column. By clicking on the relevant link, the user can change the displayed database. Euramis is very often the first database to be shown because of its fast response time. This means that, even though the translators launch their searches in Quest, they have in fact once again used Euramis. Overall, over half of the requests to the Euramis concordancer are submitted via Quest.

6 The number of available resources varies according to the institution but also the language pair.

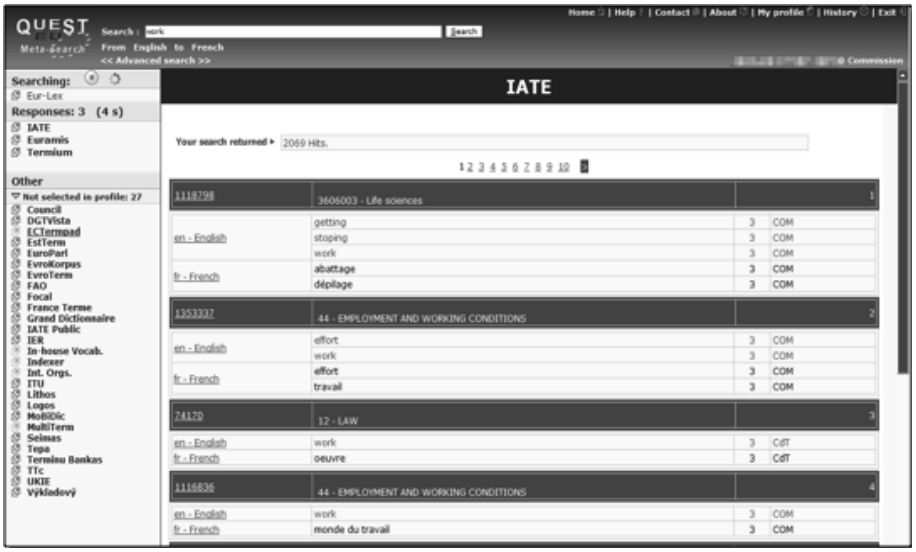

Figure 2: Quest Search & Result Page

4. Concordancing software

The Euramis concordancer and Quest are proprietary tools used in-house at the EU institutions, but today there are a number of concordancing tools publicly available that increasingly rely on collaborative content creation for the service they provide.[7] There is evidence that corpus-based tools such as bilingual concordancers are popular among translators (Désilets *et al.* 2009) but there is hardly any information to be found about the way translators use them.

The structure of a bilingual (or multilingual) concordancer is relatively simple compared to other translation tools.[8] It requires reference texts to be pre-processed so that the content can be quickly indexed and retrieved by the system. Reference documents usually come in the form of bi-texts or translation memories, which can be collectively (and loosely) labelled as aligned parallel corpora. All concordancing software works according to the same underlying principle: each search has to be manually launched by the user and then proposed solutions just need to be evaluated, accepted or ignored.

However, freely accessible online concordancers are not well suited for a systematic analysis of translators' behaviour and problem solving strategies because there are too many uncontrolled variables to be dealt with simulta-

7 Examples are TAUS Data Association (http://www.tausdata.org/), MyMemory (http://mymemory.translated.net/), Glosbe (http://glosbe.com/) [last accessed: March 2011].

8 As the focus of this research is on translation aid tools supporting two or more languages, monolingual concordancers are not dealt with here.

neously. Euramis and Quest, on the other hand, offer an ecologically valid and controlled environment for this exploratory study.

User behaviour in relation to the use of linguistic resources and tools has been investigated through ethnographic studies among Canadian professional translators carried out by the National Research Council of Canada (Désilets *et al.* 2009; Désilets, Brunette *et al.* 2008; Désilets, Farley *et al.* 2008). Special mention should be made to a tool called TransSearch,[9] an English-French (-Spanish) concordancer, originally developed at the University of Montreal and currently commercialized by Terminotix, a Canadian software company, as it possibly represents the only object of academic research work carried out on a commercially available bilingual concordancer. Early work on TransSearch dates back to the early 1990s (Simard *et al.* 1993) and then continued in the 2000s with a focus on improving the concordancer with word-level alignment and a translation spotting functionality[10] (Bourdaillet *et al.* 2010; Bourdaillet *et al.* 2009; Huet *et al.* 2009a, 2009b). In the past decade, research on the tool mainly focused on the analysis of the concordancer search logs in order to shed light on the human translation process (Macklovitch *et al.* 2008; Simard & Macklovitch 2005; Macklovitch *et al.* 2000). In the first study on user behaviour (Macklovitch *et al.* 2000), researchers tried to elicit user information by means of a questionnaire. After having established that "users submit their queries in the natural course of their work, as they encounter translation difficulties" (Simard & Macklovitch 2005: 71), researchers focused on the linguistic nature of translation units seen as subconscious operational unit. A recent log analysis (Macklovitch *et al.* 2008) aimed at identifying the main types of translation problems that trigger the use of TransSearch.

Studies on TransSearch have been an important achievement given that a tool such as a stand-alone concordancer was usually only developed and used in academia for research or teaching purposes (Gavioli 1999, Scarpa 2006) and was not very well known to professional translators (Bowker & Barlow 2008: 8), even though common Translation Memory systems in fact integrate a concordancing functionality. The need for research on the concordancer as a translation tool has been recognised by authors studying how translators use CAT tools. In 2004, Lynne Bowker and Michael Barlow presented a comparative analysis of Translation Memory systems and bilingual concordancers (BCs) trying to fill the knowledge gap about the use of BCs by professional translators. A few years later, they noted a sustained lack of interest in BCs by other researchers: "[T]o the best of our knowledge, there have not been any detailed investigations that compare BCs to TMs" (Bowker & Barlow 2008: 2) – despite the existence of studies focused on the adoption on Translation Memory systems and related tools by translators (Lagoudaki 2006).

The knowledge gap in the field of concordancing tools has also been highlighted by the Canadian research group that advocated the need for greater

9 http://www.tsrali.com/ [last accessed: January 2011].

10 Also known as *transpotting*. It can be defined as a feature that allows the system to highlight in the target text all corresponding translations to the searched string.

language coverage and for analyses of problems related to Language for General Purposes (Désilets *et al.* 2009) and pointed out that commercially available concordancers "have never been the object of scientific evaluation and publication" (Désilets, Farley *et al.* 2008).

5. The Research Project

The brief literature overview in the previous section shows how, in recent years, the research communities in translation process research, language resources and translation tools have grown interested in the way (professional) translators actually work.[11] A number of significant findings have already been collected but there is also awareness of existing knowledge gaps, namely adequate language coverage and further investigation of translation problems that are not related to terminology.

The author's PhD research project that will be presented in this section attempts to start filling these gaps by looking at a new set of data, which could shed light on the types of translation problems translators encounter on a daily basis. Furthermore, the data that will be used in the study may become a baseline or an additional form of user activity data for triangulating results in future experiments on translation process.

Euramis and the EU translation services at large provide an ideal test bed overcoming traditional practical problems that prevent a wide-scale cross-linguistic analysis, such as limited number of subjects,[12] lack of comparable working conditions and translation tasks, not to mention variability in linguistic and translation resources. This study focuses on translation problems across multiple language combinations. Translation problems are assumed to be interpretable on the basis of the searches that translators performed via the Euramis concordancer.

Like many web-based tools, Euramis can log user activity. The search logs retrieved from the Euramis concordancer form the dataset for the analysis. A standard Euramis concordance log contains the following information: Date and Time stamp; Username;[13] Institution Code (i.e. where searches come from); Source and Target Language(s); Searched Database; Execution Time; Maximum Number of Results (users can increase the default number); Number of Results; Sentence (searched text string); Search Interface used (Quest or Euramis) and Search Mode (simple or advanced). If the user selected the advanced search mode, the logs contain further details such as Search Method, DGs, Year(s),

11 A major contribution to Translation Process Research comes from the findings on User Activity Data presented by the CRITT research group, which cannot be dealt with in this paper, due to space constraints. User Activity Data (UAD) are defined as "any kind of data which is consulted or generated by a translator during a translation session" (Carl 2009: 227).

12 On the other hand, the situation at the EU is quite special: Cosmai (2007: 77) makes an estimation of the total number or translators working internally of at least 3500 translators, while according to more recent figures (Kowalska 2010) the total is as high as 4500.

13 In the present study, this information was removed for privacy reasons.

Document Type, Document Number and Direction.[14] Thanks to this information, log subsets can be created by filtering the queries submitted, for example, from one specific institution. Insights into the translation practices of each institution are important to adequately interpret the data, especially given that the search strings are provided out of the original context.

The Euramis concordancer receives an average of 32,000 queries per day (including weekends), which means that a very large volume of data can be collected in a reasonably short time span. An arbitrary time unit for the analysis has been selected (i.e. one full month[15]), which amounts to 971,321 logged queries covering all 23 EU official languages. About 77% of the queries have English as the source language.[16] This suggests that English as the source combined with the largest possible number of target languages (ideally all of them) is a good starting point for the analysis.[17] In essence, the research project will study the Euramis concordance logs with a view to categorizing search strings and highlighting recurring search patterns across different language combinations with English as the source language.

Before embarking on a full cross-linguistic analysis, a pilot study will be undertaken to reduce the number of target languages, identify the best strategy for the analysis of the strings and automate data analysis as much as possible. For the pilot study, the English-Italian language pair has been selected, so that the test sample consists of almost 30,000 logs, roughly equivalent to the daily average of queries. Building on the findings of Désilets and his colleagues (2009) and the supposed use of Euramis concordancer for terminological purposes, a first macro-categorization of the strings will be attempted to assign the logs either to the Language for Special Purpose (LSP)[18] or the Language for General Purpose (LGP) categories. According to the preliminary results, it seems possible to distinguish LSP strings from LGP strings in terms of their "substantiveness". Thus, LSP strings typically occur in the form of noun phrases, whereas

14 As a means of comparison, TransSearch queries have been logged since 1997 and each log contains the following information: query submitted, number of hits produced, date and time, who submitted the query (i.e. source of the query), how results were displayed etc. (Macklovitch *et al.* 2008: 413; Macklovitch *et al.* 2000: 1204; Simard & Macklovitch 2005: 70). The similarities and/or differences between collected information in TransSearch and Euramis justify some of the methodological choices, because there are cases where the analysis carried out on TransSearch cannot be replicated in Euramis.

15 The chosen month is September 2010 because while the workload at the EC is fairly constant, the workload at the EP peaks during the Plenary sessions in Strasbourg and Brussels. In September, there were two long Plenary sessions and no holiday breaks. Therefore, translation activity is expected to be quite intense, especially compared to the summer months. Ideally, at least one additional month should be selected for comparison but the data volume is challenging enough, so this other analysis has been set aside for the time being.

16 According to official 2008 statistics, 72.5% of the source texts were drafted in English (DGT 2009b: 7) and, apart from French, all other languages were used very little as source languages.

17 Given the EU language policy outlined in section 2, we can assume that the selected target language in the searches is very likely to be the translator's native language.

18 LSP is here broadly interpreted as a string that can be (semantically) ascribed to any EU-related domain.

LGP strings generally occur in the form of verb or prepositional phrases. Methodologies for a finer-grained clustering of the strings (e.g. into semantic domains) will be evaluated after completion of the first stage. They are expected to range from traditional computational linguistics approaches, such as POS tagging, to methods suitable for web logs, as described in the literature about Web Search Engine Log Analysis. The results of the study will help establish whether the language combination affects the type of translation problem encountered while highlighting search strategies and user behaviour patterns emerging from concordancer searches.

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I corpora nell'insegnamento della traduzione: un approccio a problemi di stile e sintassi

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Abstract

The paper addresses the use of corpora, both monolingual and parallel, in the translation classroom. The languages used as examples are Italian and Slovene and the specific feature dealt with is the translation of nominalization, which is both a contrastive and translatological issue. After a short presentation of the theoretical background and the reference corpus available for Slovene, as well as a parallel corpus of Italian source texts and Slovene target texts, an example is shown of how certain issues can be better resolved with the use of corpora instead of (or together with) the classical bilingual dictionary. Monolingual corpora in the target language may show the frequency and acceptability of a proposed translation equivalent, both as far as general occurrence is concerned and regarding its distribution in different genres or text types. Parallel corpora, on the other hand, provide evidence as to how problematic features (even grammatical ones, as opposed to the frequently discussed lexical issues) are translated in real translations, what options are available and which are more or less acceptable within a given genre or text type.

1. Introduzione

L'utilità dei corpora sia nello studio della traduzione sia nella traduzione pratica è oggetto di discussione almeno fin dall'inizio degli anni '90. Vari autori (ad es. Zanettin 1998, Bernardini 2006) si sono occupati anche dell'uso dei corpora

nell'insegnamento della traduzione. Nell'epoca odierna, infatti, caratterizzata dall'informatica e dall'abbondare di informazioni, un traduttore ha a disposizione sempre più strumenti che facilitano il suo lavoro, dai più semplici, quali le versioni digitali dei dizionari o delle enciclopedie, a quelli più complessi, tra i quali i programmi CAT (Computer Aided Translation), le banche dati terminologiche, internet e i corpora. Nonostante ciò, molti traduttori ancora non si servono di tutte le tecnologie reperibili, non hanno familiarità con i corpora e non sanno sfruttarne le potenzialità. Benché molto sia già stato fatto per migliorare la situazione (cfr. Bernardini 2006), rimane evidente il bisogno di sensibilizzare i futuri traduttori, ovvero gli studenti di traduzione, verso questo tipo di strumenti al fine di aiutarli a scoprire, tra l'altro, le reali strategie dei traduttori professionisti (Pearson 2003) e a produrre un linguaggio più naturale (Zanettin 2001).

Il presente articolo si propone di presentare l'uso dei corpora nell'insegnamento della traduzione per risolvere un aspetto che nella letteratura disponibile risulta meno esplorato, e cioè la ricerca di soluzioni traduttive per un problema dove sintassi e stile si intrecciano indissolubilmente e dove gli strumenti classici quali i dizionari monolingui e bilingui non offrono soluzioni adeguate: la traduzione della nominalizzazione.

2. I corpora e il loro uso nei corsi di traduzione

Nonostante siano oramai disponibili numerosi studi sull'utilità dei corpora in traduzione, riassunti in parte in Bernardini (2006), la conoscenza e l'uso di tali risorse tra i traduttori professionisti e i futuri traduttori sono ancora a un livello insoddisfacente. Come afferma la stessa Bernardini (2006: 19), tale risultato dovrebbe essere tra i principali scopi che un corso di traduzione si prefigge. La difficoltà sta nel trovare il modo di mostrare, sia agli studenti e agli insegnanti di traduzione da una parte, sia ai traduttori professionisti dall'altra, l'utilità dei corpora nel loro lavoro. Aston (1999: 289) suggerisce che un traduttore

> needs resources which can suggest possible and probable interpretations of the ST [source text], which can indicate effective strategies for achieving particular interpretations of the TT [target text], and which can facilitate the evaluation of alternative strategies and interpretations.

Ma quali sono quei punti dove un corpus può essere più utile di altri strumenti? In primo luogo, il corpus come fonte di esempi autentici della lingua offre agli studenti modelli già pronti da seguire. Ciò risulta importante soprattutto nella traduzione verso una lingua straniera. La possibilità di attingere informazioni sull'uso di strutture, vocaboli ecc. da una più o meno vasta gamma di testi originali, in particolare se la lingua di questi testi non è la madrelingua del traduttore, permette agli studenti di traduzione di produrre testi d'arrivo che risultano più naturali, dà loro modo di scoprire informazioni sulla lingua e la cultura di cui ci si occupa e di sviluppare le loro capacità di lettura e composizione (Zanettin 1998, 2001). Varantola (2000) conferma che i corpora, offrendo raccolte di informazioni utili, aiutano il traduttore a prendere decisioni e a sentirsi più certo delle decisioni prese; inoltre, i corpora possono essere utili agli studenti di traduzione per vedere come i traduttori professionisti risolvono problemi traduttivi specifici

(Varantola 2003: 18; cfr. anche Machniewski 2006). Kübler (2003) presenta l'applicazione di vari tipi di corpora nella traduzione di testi specialistici. McEnery e Wilson (1997: 6) ritengono che il corpus incoraggi gli studenti ad agire come produttori di testi piuttosto che riceventi passivi.

Le ricerche sull'uso dei corpora nell'insegnamento della traduzione utilizzano diversi tipi di corpora e si incentrano su diversi tipi di questioni. Per quanto riguarda i tipi di corpora, sono stati usati corpora monolingui (ad es. Coffey 2002), paralleli (ad es. Pearson 2003, Machniewski 2006) e comparabili (ad es. Zanettin 1998, Sharoff 2006) e infine corpora 'usa e getta' tratti dal web (cfr. Bernardini *et al.* 2006, Varantola 2002).

I corpora possono essere composti da testi generici, molto spesso anche da testi specialistici (ad es. Kübler 2003, o Zanettin 2002 per i corpora specialistici DIY) o, come suggerisce Bowker (2002), da raccolte di testi creati da studenti di traduzione.

I temi oggetto di ricerca sono ormai numerosissimi. Le domande più tipiche alle quali si vuole rispondere riguardano naturalmente vari aspetti lessicali. Bowker e Pearson (2002: 15) elencano cinque problemi legati ai dizionari che concernono in particolar modo la traduzione delle lingue speciali (LSP), ai quali proprio i corpora possono dare soluzioni valide, e cioè i seguenti: l'incompletezza dei dizionari rispetto alla lingua attuale, la limitata estensione, la mancanza di informazioni contestuali, la mancanza di informazioni sulla frequenza e la difficoltà nel reperire le informazioni.

Zanettin (2001: 188) nota che l'uso dei corpora nell'insegnamento delle lingue tramite esercizi di traduzione può aumentare la consapevolezza delle relazioni tra i possibili equivalenti traduttivi nelle due lingue e dimostra come l'uso dei corpora comparabili possa essere d'ausilio sia per quanto concerne questioni lessicali (ad es. l'uso dei nomi propri) che questioni grammaticali (l'uso dell'articolo), oltre a fornire nozioni extralinguistiche (su persone, luoghi e istituzioni). Interessanti suggerimenti sull'uso dei corpora nell'insegnamento della lingua sono offerti anche da Römer (2008).

Sharoff (2006) propone una metodologia che aiuti a risolvere problemi di scelta dell'equivalente traduttivo più opportuno per una data espressione. Aston (1999) illustra alcuni usi utili nell'insegnamento e nella pratica della traduzione, come ad esempio la ricerca di connotazioni non presenti nei dizionari. Bernardini (2006) sostiene che con l'ausilio dei corpora, mostrando determinate espressioni in contesti più o meno tipici, si possono aiutare gli studenti a riconoscere i giochi di parole ovvero gli usi non convenzionali della lingua. Machniewski (2006) vede tre distinte aree in cui l'uso dei corpora può fare la differenza: in primo luogo, grazie soprattutto ai corpora paralleli, si può vedere come i traduttori professionisti affrontano determinati problemi (cfr. sopra), e inoltre, con l'aiuto di corpora comparabili, si possono individuare le differenze esistenti tra il linguaggio delle traduzioni e quello dei testi originali in una data lingua; in secondo luogo, l'uso dei corpora (paralleli e comparabili) può migliorare la traduzione sia verso la madrelingua che verso la lingua straniera e diminuire quell'effetto di 'estraneità', causato spesso dal *transfer* di strutture appartenenti alla lingua di partenza; e, in terzo luogo, i corpora possono rappresentare un valido supporto per il traduttore nel rivedere il proprio testo.

Concludendo questa rapida rassegna ricordiamo che gli studi sul tema trattato sono ormai troppo numerosi per poter essere elencati esaustivamente (né era peraltro nostra intenzione tentare di farlo), anche se invero la stragrande maggioranza, come si è visto anche nei testi citati, è incentrata su questioni lessicali di uso e di equivalenza, mentre sono più rari gli autori che menzionano l'uso dei corpora in rapporto alla ricerca di soluzioni di problemi di ordine grammaticale. In seguito si cercherà di mostrare come i corpora possono essere utilizzati come fonte di informazioni attinenti alla traduzione della nominalizzazione italiana verso lo sloveno: questione che, oltre all'aspetto lessicale, è caratterizzata anche da aspetti sintattici e stilistici. Prima però passiamo a illustrare i corpora presi in esame nella presente ricerca.

3. I corpora italiani e sloveni

Come abbiamo visto, nell'insegnamento della traduzione possono essere usati vari tipi di corpora. Per quando riguarda l'italiano e lo sloveno, una lista relativamente recente ed esaustiva dei corpora italiani disponibili in rete è data in Mikolič Južnič (2009), mentre Vintar (2008)[1] offre un'interessante panoramica sui corpora sloveni. Più avanti verranno riassunte brevemente solo le caratteristiche dei due corpora usati nell'esemplificazione che seguirà.

Figura 1: Concordanza tratta dal corpus Fidaplus

1 Per i corpora italiani si veda anche la lista, costantemente aggiornata, disponibile alla pagina italiana Corpus di Wikipedia (http://it.wikipedia.org/wiki/Corpus). Per quelli sloveni, una lista aggiornata è disponibile alla pagina dell'Associazione slovena per le tecnologie linguistiche (SDJT; http://www.sdjt.si/viri.html).

Lo sloveno dispone di un numero relativamente elevato di fonti elettroniche, tra corpora monolingui, corpora bi- o plurilingui e banche dati terminologiche. Ne descriveremo qui brevemente solamente uno, il più ampio e generale, ovvero FidaPLUS.[2] Con i suoi 621 milioni di parole, FidaPLUS è un corpus di riferimento della lingua slovena composto da una varietà di generi e tipi testuali.[3] Accessibile online gratuitamente previa registrazione, offre un software che permette vari tipi di ricerca, dalla semplice concordanza di una stringa di lettere alla ricerca per lemmi e al trattamento statistico dei risultati.

L'altro corpus usato è il corpus parallelo italiano-sloveno ISPAC, il quale è stato compilato appositamente ai fini della ricerca descritta in Mikolič Južnič (2007).[4] Si tratta di un corpus che comprende 20 testi originali italiani e le rispettive traduzioni in sloveno; i testi sono suddivisi in due generi, letterari (romanzi e racconti) e non letterari (testi scientifico-divulgativi relativi ai campi della linguistica, dell'architettura, delle scienze, della filosofia, della sociologia ecc.). In totale il numero di parole nel corpus è di circa 2,4 milioni. I testi sono allineati per frasi e permettono di eseguire ricerche con programmi quali ParaConc,[5] in cui è possibile visualizzare concordanze per una delle due lingue e contemporaneamente le traduzioni di ciascun esempio estratto. Il corpus non è annotato, quindi permette solamente ricerche per stringhe di caratteri, il che tuttavia non impedisce di ottenere risultati soddisfacenti anche per quanto riguarda la nominalizzazione.

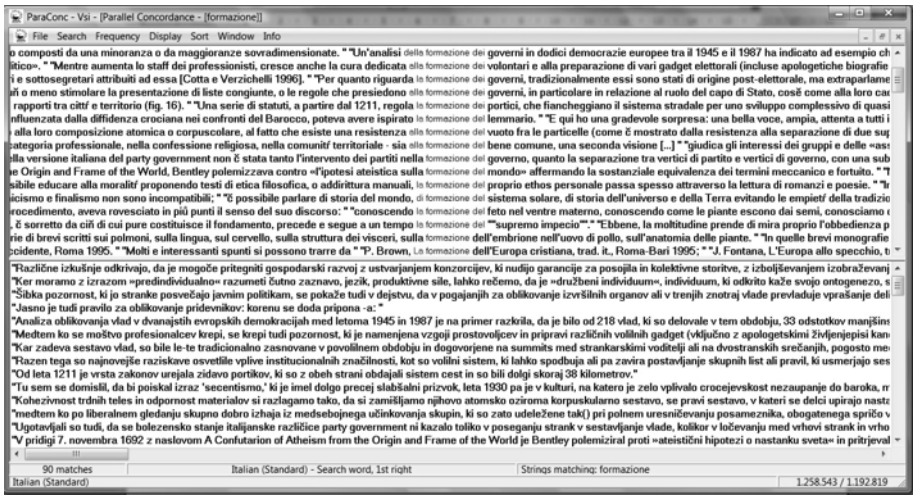

Figura 2: Concordanza tratta dal corpus ISPAC con il software ParaConc

2 Url: www.fidaplus.net.

3 Cfr. la presentazione del corpus di Arhar e Gorjanc (2007).

4 Il corpus ISPAC è diventato parte del Corpus traduttologico sloveno Spook, risultato dal progetto coordinato da Špela Vintar (Vintar 2009). Nella sua versione corrente, esso è annotato con informazioni grammaticali e lemmatizzato. È consultabile con username e password.

5 Url: http://www.athel.com/para.html. Cfr. Barlow (1995) per una presentazione del software.

4. Un esempio: la nominalizzazione

4.1 La problematica

Per illustrare l'utilità dei corpora agli studenti di traduzione, il modo migliore è individuare quei punti dove dizionari e altre fonti non danno risultati soddisfacenti. Nel presente contributo, dove si vuole mostrare l'utilità del corpus anche per risolvere questioni sintattiche, si userà, come esempio, la traduzione della nominalizzazione italiana verso lo sloveno.

Il fenomeno della nominalizzazione viene inteso come quel tipo di metafora grammaticale dove un nome (derivato da un verbo) viene usato per l'espressione di un processo che congruentemente verrebbe espresso con un verbo (cfr. Halliday e Matthiessen 2004: 565-568). Ad esempio, invece di *i braccianti raccolgono le arance* si ha *la raccolta delle arance da parte dei braccianti*, dove la nominalizzazione assume il ruolo di testa del sintagma nominale e gli altri partecipanti al processo diventano specificazioni della nominalizzazione stessa.

Analisi precedenti (Mikolič Južnič 2007) indicano che la nominalizzazione, pur essendo presente da tempo anche in sloveno (cfr. Vodušek 1933), ha una occorrenza più alta in italiano. Sembra infatti che in italiano siano presenti tra il 24 e il 70 % di nominalizzazioni in più; la differenza di frequenza è attribuibile a variazioni di genere e di tipo testuale (cfr. Mikolič Južnič 2007: 146-156),[6] a cui sono legate innegabili questioni di stile e registro. Sebbene nelle traduzioni dall'italiano verso lo sloveno la differenza di frequenza sia piuttosto bassa (il 24 % di nominalizzazioni in più in italiano), ciò è in buona parte una conseguenza anche della frequente traduzione di altre strutture sintattiche (in particolare le costruzioni implicite) con nominalizzazioni slovene. Inoltre è stata notata in sloveno una tendenziale avversione all'alta densità lessicale associata alla nominalizzazione (cfr. Žele 1996) e la conseguente preferenza per uno stile verbale, più ricco di elementi grammaticali e pertanto caratterizzato da una densità lessicale più bassa.

La concomitanza dei fattori indicati risulta nella traduzione di un numero elevato di nominalizzazioni italiane con forme slovene di tipologia diversa. I dizionari disponibili non offrono in questo senso soluzioni fruibili, come vedremo in seguito, e non trattandosi di questioni terminologiche né collocazionali, le ricerche semplici in internet non possono dare soluzioni soddisfacenti.

Gli obiettivi che ci si propone di raggiungere in classe con l'esercizio che verrà illustrato di seguito sono diversi: stimolare l'uso dei corpora nella traduzione, aumentare la coscienza delle questioni sintattiche, stilistiche e testuali legate alla nominalizzazione e ottimizzare il processo di traduzione.

4.2 Il testo proposto

Il testo scelto per la presentazione è tratto dal D.L. 21 aprile 1995, n. 120. (Disposizioni urgenti per il funzionamento delle università; Gazzetta Ufficiale Serie

6 Il genere e il tipo testuale sembrano avere un importante influsso sulla frequenza della nominalizzazione anche in sloveno: Plemenitaš (2004) nota che in alcuni tipi di testi giornalistici originali la nominalizzazione è più frequente in sloveno che in inglese.

Generale n. 99 del 22/04/1995) ed è stato citato anche in varie opere che si occupano di stile e tipi testuali (ad es. Raso 2002) come esempio estremo dello stile burocratico. Il brano che segue verrà usato per esemplificare gli approcci proposti per via della sua alta densità di nominalizzazioni e la conseguente difficoltà traduttiva.

> Le università procedono annualmente, sulla base di criteri predeterminati dagli organi competenti secondo i rispettivi ordinamenti, alla verifica dell'attività svolta. La continuità del rapporto di lavoro è subordinata al giudizio sulla verifica dell'attività svolta con riguardo agli obblighi contrattuali. Resta fermo che la riduzione del servizio deliberata dai competenti organi accademici costituisce per l'università giustificato motivo di recesso.[7]

4.3 Ricerca di modelli e conferme

Il brano proposto è stato scelto per la presenza relativamente alta di nominalizzazioni e la conseguente alta densità lessicale. Usando il criterio di Halliday e Matthiessen (2004: 654-655), la densità lessicale è ottenuta semplicemente dividendo il numero di unità lessicali presenti nella singola frase con il numero di proposizioni della frase. Nel nostro caso, la densità lessicale media è di circa 6 unità per frase, il che è un numero piuttosto elevato.

Per questioni di spazio ci si limiterà a quattro esempi, ovvero quattro nominalizzazioni presenti nel testo proposto: *verifica, continuità, riduzione e recesso*.

Iniziando con quella più semplice, *recesso*, si segue l'ordine che uno studente seguirebbe normalmente. Nel dizionario Šlenc (1997), alla voce *recesso*, il terzo punto è marcato con il qualificatore *pravo* (diritto) – il che è conforme alla natura del testo da cui è tratto il brano in questione – e offre le traduzioni *odstop* e *odpoved*, due nominalizzazioni; sono presenti anche alcuni esempi di uso, tra cui *recesso da un contratto* tradotto con *odpoved pogodbe*. La voce del dizionario offre in questo caso una facile soluzione, che può essere ulteriormente confermata dal corpus FidaPLUS.

Ricercandovi il lemma *odpoved* seguito dal lemma *pogodba*, il motore di ricerca trova 683 occorrenze di questo sintagma nominale, un numero relativamente alto che conferma l'adeguatezza dell'equivalente proposto. Non è necessaria una lettura dettagliata degli esempi, basta dare una breve occhiata alle fonti degli esempi riportati per trovare conferma che il sintagma nominale è usato in vari contesti senza difficoltà, il che convalida la scelta effettuata anche in relazione al tipo testuale.

Il successivo esempio è la nominalizzazione *verifica*, che nella fattispecie si trova in una costruzione tipica accanto a un verbo dal significato generico (*procedere*). Consultando il dizionario, si nota subito che le proposte di traduzione

7 Una possibile traduzione stilisticamente non marcata del testo in sloveno (con una densità lessicale media di 3,8 unità lessicali per proposizione) potrebbe essere: "Univerze vsako leto na osnovi meril, ki so jih določili pristojni organi v skladu z lastnimi pravilniki, preverijo dejavnosti, ki so bile izvedene. Kontinuiteta delovnega razmerja je odvisna od tega, ali so opravljene dejavnosti, ki se jih preverja, skladne s pogodbenimi obveznostmi. Ob tem še naprej velja, da je zmanjšanje delovnih obveznosti, ki ga določijo kompetentni akademski organi, upravičen razlog za odpoved pogodbe."

suggerite sono tutte nominalizzazioni (*preverjanje, kontrola, verifikacija*; tutte le altre traduzioni hanno qualificatori inappropriati) non utilizzabili nel nostro contesto: usandole, la traduzione risulterebbe inadeguata, soprattutto a causa della reggenza della nominalizzazione in questione da parte del verbo generico *procedere*. Ecco allora che il corpus ISPAC può dimostrare la sua utilità. Ricercando la parola *verifica* nel corpus parallelo, ne troviamo 8 occorrenze (5 al singolare e 3 al plurale; cfr. la Tabella 1); in 5 casi la nominalizzazione italiana è tradotta con una nominalizzazione slovena, mentre nelle altre tre frasi è stata usata una traduzione verbale (con i verbi *dokazati, preveriti* e la locuzione verbale *govoriti v prid*). Sono proprio queste traduzioni verbali che suggeriscono un modo più adeguato per tradurre la nominalizzazione *verifica* nel caso analizzato.

Tabella 1: Occorrenze di *verifica* e relative traduzioni nel corpus ISPAC

… dei procedimenti di *verifica* e di falsifica.
… dokaze in postopke za to, *kako jo dokažemo* oziroma ovržemo.
… gli elementi per la *verifica* e per la falsifica delle ipotesi …
… elemente, *ki govorijo v prid predstavljeni hipotezi*, in tiste, ki jih lahko spodbijejo, …
… il saccheggio o la strage, bensì la *verifica* d'ipotesi politiche …
… plenjenje ali pokoli, ampak *preverjanje* političnih predpostavk …
… il significato di una proposizione è nel metodo della sua *verifica* empirica.
… da je pomen stavka v metodi njegovega empiričnega *preverjanja* (*verifikacije*).
L'incredulità lo indusse tuttavia a fare una *verifica*.
Vseeno je hotel novico *preveriti*.
… e si perfeziona con ogni sorta di *verifiche* teoriche e pratiche.
… in se izpopolnila ob vsakovrstnih teoretičnih in praktičnih *preverjanjih*.
… sofferenze enormi, ma anche *verifiche*, pentimenti, adattamenti …
… trpljenje, vendar je omogočilo tudi zelo pomembno *preverjanje*, razmislek in prilagajanje …
… generico, informale, privo di *verifiche* storiografiche e di citazioni, …
… splošna, neformalna, da v njej primanjkuje zgodovinskih *dejstev* in izvirnih navedb, …

La terza nominalizzazione analizzata è *continuità*. Šlenc (1997) offre tre equivalenti nominali (*nepretrganost, trajnost, kontinuiteta*), delle quali solo una, la terza, sembra adatta al nostro contesto. Verificandone la presenza nel corpus ISPAC troviamo 53 esempi, tra i quali ben 37 sono tradotti con *kontinuiteta*.[8] Ricercando l'espressione nel corpus FidaPLUS, troviamo 5.019 occorrenze in contesti prevalentemente molto formali, il che ci dà conferma della nostra scelta.

L'ultimo esempio è la nominalizzazione *riduzione*. Tra le numerose possibilità offerte da Šlenc (1997), solo due sono generiche abbastanza da poter essere prese in considerazione: *zmanjševanje* e *omejitev*. Né l'una né l'altra appaiono completamente adeguate al contesto analizzato, quindi si procede alla ricerca nel corpus ISPAC, in cui si riscontrano 40 occorrenze. Di queste, la maggioranza (32) sono nominali; sono presenti però anche 7 traduzioni con verbo, riassunte

8 Tra le altre traduzioni troviamo 9 casi con altri sostantivi, 3 traduzioni aggettivali e 1 traduzione con avverbio.

nella tabella 2, le quali possono dimostrarsi un utile spunto se la frase tradotta risultasse avere una densità lessicale troppo alta.

Tabella 2: Occorrenze di *riduzione* e relative traduzioni verbali nel corpus ISPAC

… l'identificazione di aggettivo e avverbio, la *riduzione* dei verbi a copula + aggettivo.
… izenačuje pridevnik in prislov, glagol *je skrčen* na kopulo + pridevnik.
… e fondamentalmente materialistica (*riduzione* del linguaggio a …
… in v temelju materialistično hipotezo … po drugi *je* jezik *omejen* na …
… vi è, a partire dagli anni venti, una continua *riduzione* del passaggio degli elettori …
… *se je* vse od začetka dvajsetih let *krčilo* prehajanje volivcev …
… a maggior ragione impossibile sarebbe qualunque *riduzione* dell'Asia all'Islam …
… bi bilo še toliko bolj nemogoče, če *bi* Azijo *omejili* na islam …
… pericoloso (per l'esistenza) della *riduzione* dell'essere a oggettività …
… nevarno je *zvajati* bit na predmetnost …
… critica i presupposti fondamentali: la *riduzione* della materia a estensione …
… kritiziral temeljne predpostavke: *trditev, da je* materija razsežnost …
… cresciuta, con una *riduzione* della percentuale delle persone …
… okrepila, tako da *se je zmanjšalo* število ljudi …

È interessante notare una spiccata varietà di equivalenti nominali (ben 12 diversi, tra cui i più frequenti sono *krčenje*, *redukcija*, *omejevanje* e *zvajanje*), come anche di quelli verbali, il che può indicare da un lato l'ampiezza dei contesti in cui la parola *riduzione* può trovarsi e dall'altro un certa incertezza nello scegliere la traduzione più adeguata.[9]

Naturalmente un (futuro) traduttore non avrà bisogno di procedere a un'analisi così dettagliata, gli basterà dare un rapido sguardo alle traduzioni, notando con facilità la pluralità di possibilità. Come visto sopra, potrà poi verificare la frequenza e il contesto della variante prescelta nel corpus FidaPLUS. Se, ad esempio, si sceglie di usare una traduzione nominale, si potrà prendere quella più frequente nell'ISPAC, *krčenje*, e verificarne la presenza in FidaPLUS. Vi si trovano 3.925 occorrenze, però una ricerca che includa *krčenje* e *delovne obveznosti* (traduzione possibile di *servizio*) non dà alcun risultato. Numerose sono invece le occorrenze dell'espressione *zmanjšanje* con *obveznosti* (circa 132), e alcune anche con *zmanjšanje*, *deloven* e *obveznosti*.

Un ultimo fattore da prendere in considerazione, menzionato anche in precedenza, è il contesto della nominalizzazione originale e conseguentemente quello della traduzione. Specialmente in sloveno, ma anche in italiano, il tipo testuale influisce drasticamente sulla scelta sintattica tra nominalizzazione e altre strutture, quelle verbali in particolare. Basti notare che le nominalizzazioni esposte sopra, tranne un solo caso, si trovano tutte nella sezione non letteraria

9 In parte questa varietà è dovuta a significati diversi (ad es. *riduzione fiscale – davčna olajšava*), nella maggior parte dei casi, tuttavia, si tratta di contesti (e significati) affini. Considerando il fatto che i testi appartengono a diversi campi settoriali in cui la variazione terminologica è poco gradita, le traduzioni suggeriscono quanto meno incertezza sulla traduzione più appropriata.

del corpus ISPAC. Il genere letterario, sia in sloveno che in italiano, benché tutt'altro che privo di nominalizzazioni, è caratterizzato piuttosto da un uso più ampio di strutture verbali, tanto più nelle traduzioni slovene, dove vengono riformulate verbalmente un numero maggiore di nominalizzazioni italiane che nei testi non letterari (cfr. Mikolič Južnič 2007: 201-204).

4.4 Reazione degli studenti

Essendo il corpus ISPAC, come abbiamo accennato in precedenza (cfr. n. 4), ancora non accessibile al pubblico, la parte dell'esperimento a esso connessa è stata presentata in classe senza che gli studenti avessero la possibilità di farvi ricerche autonomamente. Si è invece potuto lavorare molto sul corpus FidaPLUS, liberamente accessibile in rete, sulle metodologie di ricerca e sull'interpretazione dei risultati ottenuti.

La reazione degli studenti è stata molto positiva. La possibilità di verificare le proprie conoscenze o intuizioni in un modo concreto, che va ben oltre sia alle possibilità del classico dizionario sia alla massa inarticolata del web (quando usato con semplici motori di ricerca come Google), ha dato loro più sicurezza anche nel difendere le proprie scelte se interrogati in proposito. Il corpus parallelo, d'altro canto, ha suscitato un forte interesse vista la possibilità di trovarvi traduzioni praticamente già confezionate.

Oltre all'utilità concreta nella traduzione pratica, l'uso dei corpora si è dimostrato utile anche nel trattare temi riguardanti alcune strategie della traduzione considerate universali, quali l'esplicitazione e l'interferenza. Avendo a disposizione un numero relativamente elevato di esempi originali e traduzioni, gli studenti hanno avuto la possibilità di constatare come quelle strategie definite come universali abbiano riscontro in brani di testi realmente tradotti.

5. Conclusioni

Nel presente contributo si è voluto focalizzare l'attenzione sull'uso dei corpora nell'insegnamento della traduzione, segnatamente sulla ricerca di soluzioni a problemi di natura sintattica e stilistica. Una schematica presentazione di due corpora usati, ovvero il corpus referenziale della lingua slovena FidaPLUS e il corpus parallelo italiano-sloveno ISPAC, è seguita dall'illustrazione di come un corpus parallelo e un corpus monolingue possono essere utilizzati per risolvere questioni legate alla traduzione delle nominalizzazioni. Appare evidente che sia il corpus monolingue di riferimento sia il corpus parallelo possono avere un loro significativo ruolo nel miglioramento delle traduzioni degli studenti e possono inoltre sensibilizzarli in merito ai problemi esistenti e alle relative soluzioni possibili. In un prossimo futuro, quando il corpus parallelo ISPAC diverrà più largamente accessibile, si prevede un ampliamento della ricerca sull'influsso dell'uso dei corpora paralleli e dei corpora monolingui sulla traduzione dall'italiano verso lo sloveno e viceversa, con particolare attenzione alle eventuali differenze risultanti dall'uso di diversi tipi di corpora.

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Legal Corpora: an overview[1]

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Abstract

The present paper is mainly addressed to researchers and/or translators who are daily confronted with the legal domain in different languages and are willing to approach legal language through 'real-life' examples, to paraphrase McEnery & Wilson's classical definition of corpus linguistics (2001: 2). With no claim of being exhaustive, the study has been devised as a practical guide, a tentative survey of the available corpora for legal language.

Emphasis has been placed on three main areas, namely, England and Wales, Spain and Italy, for being the focus of study of an ongoing PhD research project. However, reference has also been made to legal corpora and subcorpora available outside these countries, in Europe as well as in the rest of the world.

Primarily conceived as a classical PhD 'review' – the crucial step in every research study involving a state of the art analysis –, it can be viewed also as a preliminary map for those who are taking their first steps into the fascinating world of corpus linguistics. The practical approach is evident from the schematic method adopted: the tables and the final Appendix are meant to be useful tools for rapid consultation or comparison among the copious legal corpora listed in the paper.

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1. Introduction

> Corpus linguistics has been widely claimed to be a powerful instrument for the study of linguistic frequency in and across a variety of discourses. The use of computerized corpora has further made it possible for linguists to undertake automatic analyses of lexico-grammatical and, to some extent, discoursal features of texts. In the last few years these corpus-based studies have become so popular that one rarely finds a textual study without the use of computerized corpora (Bhatia *et al.* 2004: 203).

The generalisation made by the authors in the introductory quotation to this paper was definitely true in 2004, but even more so in 2012, when corpus-based studies have become a fundamental trend in the study of legal language. Compared to the invention of the microscope and the telescope, which suddenly allowed scientists to observe things that had never seen before (Stubbs 1996: 231-232), the use of electronic corpora in language as well as in legal translation and interpreting studies has become a mainstream methodology (Biel 2010a).

The potential of corpus linguistics as a methodology for researching legal language and translation (e.g. Biel 2010a, Goźdź-Roszkowski 2011), and as a tool in translator training (e.g. Monzó 2008, Biel 2010b) is nowadays unquestionable. Whether we conceive it as a methodology or as a discipline – the controversy has not been ironed out yet (see Tognini-Bonelli 2001: 1-2, McEnery *et al.* 2006: 7-8) – the introduction of electronic corpora has represented a watershed in many branches of linguistics and it is still displaying its potential.

The present paper is primarily addressed to researchers and/or translators who are daily confronted with the legal domain in different languages and are willing to approach legal language based on examples of 'real life' use, to paraphrase McEnery & Wilson's classical definition of corpus linguistics (2001: 2). It is mainly conceived as a practical guide, a tentative survey of the available corpora for the study of legal language. As Xiao (2008: 383) points out, there are thousands of corpora in the world, but most of them are created for specific research projects and are not publicly available. This makes the task arduous and this is the reason why the present overview has no claim of being exhaustive.[2]

The paper stems from an ongoing PhD research project aiming at analysing qualitatively and quantitatively legal – to be more exact, judicial – phraseology in English, Spanish and Italian criminal judgments. Its main objective is providing legal translators with a multifunctional tool having a positive impact on the translation process, as well as on the quality of their texts. The present study is deeply rooted in this project and is part of it by being a synthesis of the state of the art of a significant number of existing legal corpora. Reviewing the criteria used to compile such corpora will be a fundamental step towards a refining of the methodology that will be adopted to build a specialised corpus of criminal judgments, specifically designed to address the PhD research objectives.

2 See Xiao (2008) for a comprehensive survey on well-known and influential corpora, and the URLs to web pages containing useful lists of available corpora all around the world.

Since the paper is placed within the bounds of the ongoing PhD thesis, priority has been given to those corpora including the languages of the study, namely, English, Spanish and Italian and emphasis has been placed on corpora dealing with Criminal Law as a subject area and criminal judgment as a major genre. This also limits the scope of the survey that otherwise would have been too wide to be tackled in a short essay.

Legal corpora and subcorpora mentioned in the present paper have been grouped according to the area where the project was launched and not according to their primary uses (cf. Xiao 2008: 383). The resulting sections are the following ones: England and Wales (§ 2.1), Spain (§ 2.2), Italy (§ 2.3), European Union (§ 2.4) and rest of the world (§ 2.5). After the conclusions (§ 3) and the references, an Appendix gathers useful information on the website addresses discussed or hinted at throughout the paper, and some valuable web pages including lists of corpora.

2. Legal corpora: a tentative survey

The following sections describe the main features of some influential corpora for the study of legal language. A selected number of parameters chosen for being prototypical in corpus building will be identified. For the most important corpora in each area, especially for the English, Spanish and Italian ones, a table is provided containing crucial information on the corpora, in particular: name (if applicable); institution or university sponsoring it, together with the leading researchers; types of corpus (cf. Laviosa 2010, Zanettin 2012); languages included; dimension (in terms of number of tokens); text typologies/genres included; time span; purposes (in particular research vs. training); availability to the public; notes (a final section containing additional information on the corpus structure, such as, if it is annotated or not).[3]

2.1 England and Wales

English was certainly the forerunner in corpus research (Xiao 2008: 383) which explains the high number of corpora including it as main language. However, the analysis of the existing legal corpora developed in Great Britain, and especially in England and Wales, revealed a different picture.

3 Abbreviations and symbols used in the table: BrE = British English; AmE = American English; w = words; Mw = million of words, # = number of; $ = purchasable; N/A = not available. The Note section is omitted when corpus annotation has not been performed at all.

2.1.1 Cambridge Corpus of Legal English

The *Cambridge Corpus of Legal English* is a subcorpus of a huge multi-billion corpus built by Cambridge University Press, named *Cambridge English Corpus* (CEC), formerly *Cambridge International Corpus* (cf. Xiao 2008: 410, 429) containing both text corpus and spoken corpus data.

Name	Cambridge Corpus of Legal English
Institution/University Leading researcher(s)	Cambridge University Press
Type of corpus	Monolingual
Languages	EN (BrE, AmE)
Dimension (#tokens)	20Mw
Text-types/Genres	books, journals, newspaper articles relating to the law and legal processes
Time span	1993-
Purposes	Research
Availability	No ($)

2.1.2 HOLJ

The *House of Lords Judgments Corpus* (HOLJ) is an interesting project developed at the University of Edinburgh with the primary objective of studying the rhetorical sections of a selection of judgments delivered by the House of Lords with the final aim of obtaining an automatic summarisation (see Grover *et al.* 2004).

Name	HOLJ Corpus
Institution/University Leading researcher(s)	University of Edinburgh B. Hachey – C. Grover
Type of corpus	Monolingual
Languages	EN
Dimension (#tokens)	2,887,037w
Text-types/Genres	188 HL judgments
Time span	2001-2003
Purposes	Research (primary aim: automatic summarisation)
Availability	Yes

2.1.3 Proceedings of the Old Bailey

The *Proceedings of the Old Bailey* (London's Central Criminal Court) is a fascinating example of diachronic corpus for the study of historical judicial language of criminal trials.

Name	Proceedings of the Old Bailey
Institution/University Leading researcher(s)	Open University (C. Emsley), University of Hertfordshire (T. Hitchcock) and University of Sheffield (R. Shoemaker).
Type of corpus	Monolingual (diachronic)
Languages	EN
Dimension (#tokens)	127Mw
Text-types/Genres	197,745 criminal trials
Time span	1674-1913
Purposes	Research
Availability	Yes

2.2 Spain

Spain holds the record of the highest number of legal corpora developed in the last few years. In the following tables, a detailed description of the most important projects launched at national level is provided.

2.2.1 JUD-GENTT

Name	JUD-GENTT
Institution/University Leading researcher(s)	Universidad Jaume I (Castellón) A. Borja Albi (coord.)
Type of corpus	Multilingual, comparable and parallel
Languages	EN-ES-DE-FR
Dimension (#tokens)	N/A
Text-types/Genres	Different kinds of texts produced as part of the criminal proceedings in England, Spain, Germany and France. Textual genres: N/A.
Time span	N/A
Purposes	Research, Translator Training
Availability	No

JUD-GENTT is an ongoing research project developed within the GENTT project (*Textual Genres for Translation*), that aims at building a multilingual (EN-ES-DE-FR) comparable corpus of textual genres (Law, Medicine and other technical fields) to provide a sort of encyclopedia of specialised texts for translation. JUD-GENTT, a new project coordinated by Anabel Borja Albi (University of Jaume I, Castellón), is an action-research project whose aim is to improve the socio-professional conditions of legal translators and their productive processes. It is a multilingual comparable and parallel corpus gathering different kinds of texts produced as part of the criminal proceedings in the different legal systems.

2.2.2 CORPUS

<table>
<tr><td>Name</td><td>CORPUS - (Corpus tècnic del IULA)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Institution/University
Leading researcher(s)</td><td>Universitat Pompeu Fabra
M. T. Cabré (Leading Researcher)
J. Vivaldi (coord.)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Type of corpus</td><td>Multilingual, comparable and parallel</td></tr>
<tr><td>Languages</td><td>CA-ES-EN-FR-DE</td></tr>
<tr><td>Dimension (#tokens)</td><td>Comparable corpus:
Composition per number of tokens (in thousands):
<table>
<tr><th>Area</th><th>CA</th><th>ES</th><th>EN</th><th>FR</th><th>DE</th><th>Tot.</th></tr>
<tr><td>L</td><td>1684</td><td>2086</td><td>432</td><td>44</td><td>16</td><td>4262</td></tr>
<tr><td>Ec</td><td>1821</td><td>1091</td><td>275</td><td>78</td><td>27</td><td>3292</td></tr>
<tr><td>En</td><td>1506</td><td>1083</td><td>600</td><td>230</td><td>429</td><td>3848</td></tr>
<tr><td>M</td><td>2625</td><td>4375</td><td>1701</td><td>27</td><td>198</td><td>8926</td></tr>
<tr><td>CS</td><td>654</td><td>1227</td><td>339</td><td>194</td><td>83</td><td>2497</td></tr>
<tr><td>Tot.</td><td>8290</td><td>9862</td><td>3347</td><td>573</td><td>753</td><td>22825</td></tr>
</table>
[LAW: 4.26 Mw]
Composition per number of documents:
<table>
<tr><th>Area</th><th>CA</th><th>ES</th><th>EN</th><th>FR</th><th>DE</th><th>Tot.</th></tr>
<tr><td>L</td><td>153</td><td>124</td><td>65</td><td>10</td><td>60</td><td>412</td></tr>
<tr><td>Ec</td><td>81</td><td>47</td><td>18</td><td>8</td><td>1</td><td>155</td></tr>
<tr><td>En</td><td>78</td><td>55</td><td>86</td><td>22</td><td>61</td><td>302</td></tr>
<tr><td>M</td><td>236</td><td>401</td><td>284</td><td>3</td><td>27</td><td>951</td></tr>
<tr><td>CS</td><td>39</td><td>67</td><td>27</td><td>6</td><td>8</td><td>147</td></tr>
<tr><td>Tot.</td><td>587</td><td>694</td><td>480</td><td>49</td><td>157</td><td>1967</td></tr>
</table>
Parallel corpus:
<table>
<tr><th rowspan="2">Area</th><th colspan="2">CA-ES</th><th colspan="2">CA-EN</th><th colspan="2">ES-EN</th></tr>
<tr><th>Docs.</th><th>Words</th><th>Docs.</th><th>Words</th><th>Docs.</th><th>Words</th></tr>
<tr><td>D</td><td>64</td><td>485</td><td>1</td><td>12</td><td>2</td><td>57</td></tr>
<tr><td>E</td><td>21</td><td>600</td><td>10</td><td>253</td><td>13</td><td>283</td></tr>
<tr><td>MA</td><td>12</td><td>256</td><td>12</td><td>230</td><td>13</td><td>144</td></tr>
<tr><td>M</td><td>5</td><td>129</td><td>1</td><td>39</td><td>102</td><td>809</td></tr>
<tr><td>I</td><td>1</td><td>28</td><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>22</td><td>292</td></tr>
<tr><td>Tot.</td><td>103</td><td>1498</td><td>24</td><td>534</td><td>152</td><td>1585</td></tr>
</table>
http://www.iula.upf.edu/corpus/estates.htm [24/11/2012]</td></tr>
<tr><td>Text-types/Genres</td><td>Legal Subcorpus:[1] Legislative texts; Professional practice texts; Judicial texts; Theoretical texts (e.g. manuals); Instrumental texts (e.g. dictionaries).</td></tr>
<tr><td>Time span</td><td>1993-</td></tr>
<tr><td>Purposes</td><td>Research, Training</td></tr>
<tr><td>Availability</td><td>No</td></tr>
<tr><td>Notes</td><td>The corpus is annotated and marked up following the SGML standards and the guidelines of the Corpus Encoding Standard (CES) of the EAGLES[2] initiative.</td></tr>
</table>

1 Subject Areas (http://www.iula.upf.educorpus/acdreca.htm, 24/11/2012): *Private Law*: Civil Law, Commercial Law, Labour Law, Criminal Law, Canon Law; *Public Law*: Constitutional Law, Administrative Law, Financial and Tax Law, International and Public Law; *Legal Theory*.

2 http://www.ilc.cnr.it/EAGLES96/browse.html (24/11/2012).

The project *CORPUS (Multilingual Specialised Textual Corpus*, sometimes referred to as *Technical Corpus*), developed by the *Institute for Applied Linguistics* of the University Pompeu Fabra of Barcelona (IULA) collects a multilingual and comparable corpus of different domains: Law (L), Economics (Ec), Environment (En), Medicine (M), Computer Science (CS). It is used both for research (neologism detection, linguistic variation, syntactic analysis, etc.) and training purposes. For the purposes of the present survey, it is interesting because it contains a large subcorpus of legal language.

2.2.3 CLUVI

Name	CLUVI Corpus Lingüístico da Universidade de Vigo
Institution/University Leading researcher(s)	Universidade de Vigo G. X. Gómez, A. Simões
Type of corpus	Multilingual, parallel
Languages	EN-FR-ES-PT-DE-GL-EU-CA
Dimension (#tokens)	Tot. CLUVI: 27,541,023w LEGA (GL-ES): 6,582,415w LEGE-BI, Legebiduna, (EU-ES): 2,384,053w
Text-types/Genres	LEGA: legislative texts (leyes orgánicas, real decretos, regulamentos, diarios oficiales, etc.) LEGE-BI: Boletín Oficial de Gipuzkoa 1998-2001, Boletín Oficial del Territorio Histórico de Álava 1992-1994
Time span	1978 (Spanish Constitution)-
Purposes	Research
Availability	Yes

The *Linguistic Corpus of the University of Vigo* (*CLUVI*) is a parallel open corpus of specialised registers (fiction, computing, journalism, legal and administrative fields, etc.), totaling more than 27 million words of running texts (see Xiao 2008: 434-435). Two of its eight subcorpora are entirely dedicated to legal language, namely LEGA and LEGE-BI.

2.2.4 Other

In this section other corpora for the study of legal language developed in Spain will be mentioned. They are not included in the main sections either because they are not full-blown corpora or they are built by single researchers, often PhD students working on their theses.

The University of Valencia has built up the *GENTEXT-N corpus*, within the research group Gender, Language and Sexual (In)Equality. It is a bilingual (ES-EN) comparable corpus of almost 35 million words extracted from press articles

(*The Times, The Guardian, El País, El Mundo*) dealing with legal actions to cope with sexual (in)equality in Spain and Great Britain.

Another interesting project is *GARALEX* (University of the Basque Country), a web platform for the study of legal language, developed following a corpus-based methodology.

The *Corpus de Procesos Penales* (*CPP*) is a monolingual (ES) corpus of criminal trials built by Raquel Taranilla (University of Barcelona) of 98,943 words that collects 10 criminal trials held in Barcelona between 2009 and 2010. Its primary aim was the study of narrative elements in judicial discourse (cf. Taranilla 2011).[4]

The *British Law Report Corpus* (*BLaRC*) is another interesting corpus built by María José Marín Pérez (University of Murcia) for lexical and terminological purposes. It is a monolingual (EN) corpus of 8.8 million words extracted from law reports issued by five jurisdictions: Commonwealth, United Kingdom, England and Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland.

Finally, Bianca Vitalaru (University of Alcalá) has also developed a trilingual (ES-EN-RU) ontological glossary for the study of criminal law language, based on a large corpus of legal documents.

2.3 Italy

As far as Italy is concerned, a growing interest in legal language has been recorded in recent years. Since the pioneer BoLC, a number of other corpora for the study of Italian legal language have been built, both from the academic and professional communities.

2.3.1 BoLC

The *Bononia Legal Corpus* (*BoLC*) is the most representative bilingual (EN-IT) corpus of legal language developed in Italy. It is an interdisciplinary project which started in 1997 at the University of Bologna as a 'corpus-driven research project' (Rossini Favretti *et al.* 2001: 14). The subcorpora of Italian and English legal languages are taken to represent two different legal systems, in particular the differences between the *civil law* and the *common law* systems.

4 Another interesting project in which Taranilla was involved was the *Report on Written Language*, issued by the Studies on Academic and Professional Discourse Research Group (EDAP), leaded by Estrella Montolío Durán (University of Barcelona). As part of *Report of the Commission for the Modernization of Spanish Legal Language*, sponsored by the Spanish Ministry of Justice, a huge corpus of judicial documents was collected for the study and simplification of judicial language. Information available also at: http://www.mjusticia.gob.es/cs/Satellite/es/1288775399001/MuestraInformacion.html (24/11/2012).

Name	BoLC Bononia Legal Corpus
Institution/University Leading researcher(s)	Università di Bologna R. Rossini Favretti (Leading Researcher), F. Tamburini, E. Martelli [J. Sinclair]
Type of corpus	Bilingual, comparable
Languages	EN, IT
Dimension (#tokens)	Subcorpus EN: 21Mw Subcorpus IT: 33.5Mw
Text-types/Genres	EN: Acts of Parliament, Chancery Division, Court of Appeal, Family Division, House of Lords, Privy Council, Queen's Bench Division, Statutory Instruments IT: Costituzione, Codice Civile, Codice Penale, Codice di Procedura Civile, Codice di Procedura Penale, Decreti Legislativi, Leggi Costituzionali, Leggi Ordinarie, Sentenze Penali Corte di Cassazione, Sentenze Civili Corte di Cassazione, Sentenze e Ordinanze della Consulta
Time span	1968-1995
Purposes	Research
Availability	No
Notes	Pilot corpus (see Rossini Favretti *et al.* 2001: 15-16): Bilingual parallel corpus of EU documents (1995-1996) 2,232 directives EN: 6.5Mw 1,798 direttive IT: 5.8Mw 4,472 judgments EN: 13.7Mw 4,471 sentenze IT: 12.3Mw

2.3.2 CORIS/CODIS

Name	CORIS/CODIS CORIS (Corpus di Riferimento dell'Italiano Scritto) CODIS (Corpus Dinamico dell'Italiano Scritto)
Institution/University Leading researcher(s)	Università di Bologna R. Rossini Favretti
Type of corpus	Monolingual
Languages	IT
Dimension (#tokens)	CORIS: 130Mw CODIS: 100Mw
Text-types/Genres	PRESS: 38% - FICTION: 25% ACADEMIC PROSE: 12% LEGAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE PROSE: 10% [books, journals, legal and administrative documents] MISCELLANEA: 10% EPHEMERA: 5%
Time span	CORIS 1980-2010, CODIS 1980-2000
Purposes	Research
Availability	Yes
Notes	Both corpora were annotated by F. Tamburini.

The *Corpus di Riferimento dell'Italiano Scritto* (*CORIS*) and the *Corpus Dinamico dell'Italiano Scritto* (*CODIS*) are two different structures of the same reference corpus developed at the University of Bologna by Rossini Favretti's team. The project started in 1998 with the purpose of creating a representative and sizeable general reference corpus of written Italian – following the *Brown Corpus* model (see Xiao 2008: 395-397) – which would be easily accessible and user-friendly. Compared with CORIS (100 million words, plus 30 million words of monitor corpus), CODIS (100 million words) has a dynamic structure allowing researchers to exclude or include different subcorpora for specific analyses (Rossini Favretti *et al.* 2002). It has a subcorpus of legal language, totaling 10 million words.

2.3.3 CADIS

<table>
<tr><td>Name</td><td>CADIS
Corpus of Academic English</td></tr>
<tr><td>Institution/University
Leading researcher(s)</td><td>Università degli Studi di Bergamo
M. Gotti</td></tr>
<tr><td>Type of corpus</td><td>Bilingual, comparable</td></tr>
<tr><td>Languages</td><td>EN, IT</td></tr>
<tr><td>Dimension (#tokens)</td><td>2,761 academic texts (12Mw)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Text-types/Genres</td><td>Disciplinary areas:
- Applied Linguistics (AL)
- Economics (E)
- Law (L)
- Medicine (M)

Textual genres:
- Research articles (RA)
- Abstracts (A)
- Book reviews (B)
- Editorials (E)

Composition of the Law subcorpus:
<table>
<tr><td>Law</td><td>RA</td><td>A</td><td>B</td><td>E</td></tr>
<tr><td>1980-1999 EN</td><td>50</td><td>50</td><td>50</td><td>8</td></tr>
<tr><td>1980-1999 IT</td><td>14</td><td>14</td><td>-</td><td>2</td></tr>
<tr><td>2000-2011 EN</td><td>94</td><td>94</td><td>100</td><td>121</td></tr>
<tr><td>2000-2011 IT</td><td>50</td><td>23</td><td>12</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>Tot.</td><td>208</td><td>187</td><td>162</td><td>136</td></tr>
</table>
http://dinamico.unibg.it/cerlis/public/CADIS__Corpus.pdf [24/11/2012]</td></tr>
<tr><td>Time span</td><td>1980-1999 + 2000-2011</td></tr>
<tr><td>Purposes</td><td>Research</td></tr>
<tr><td>Availability</td><td>No</td></tr>
</table>

The *Corpus of Academic English* (*CADIS*) is a research project funded by the Italian Ministry of Research and developed at the University of Bergamo under the scientific direction of Maurizio Gotti. The corpus lies at the heart of a scientific

project aimed at analysing identity traits in academic discourse (Gotti 2010). It is composed of a major English subcorpus and a smaller one in Italian for comparative purposes. CADIS represents four main disciplinary areas: Applied Linguistics (AL), Economics (E), Law (L) and Medicine (M). For each disciplinary area, four different textual genres have been considered: abstracts (A), book reviews (B), editorials (E), research articles (RA).

The comparability of the corpus stems not only from its bilingual structure, its disciplinary areas and its genres, but also from the historical period. CADIS can be queried also diachronically, since texts are subdivided into two main time spans (1980-1999; 2000-2011). It is interesting for the purposes of the present survey because of its legal subcorpus.

2.3.4 Other

An interesting project developed at the University for Foreigners of Perugia by Stefania Spina is the *Perugia Corpus* (*PEC*), a reference corpus of contemporary Italian which gathers both oral and written texts (25Mw) distributed among 10 textual genres. It contains a legal subcorpus (1.1 Mw) made up of administrative texts (laws, regulations, European legislation). Another corpus developed by the same University is the Academic Italian Corpus (*AIC*), totaling 1Mw, which contains a legal academic subcorpus (330,000 w).

Although it is not a corpus comparable to those aforementioned, it is worth hinting at *Testi Amministrativi Chiari e Semplici* (*TACS*), a project coordinated by Michele Cortelazzo (University of Padua). It is a monolingual corpus of original Italian administrative texts produced by a number of administrative bodies (municipalities, regions, provinces, universities, ministries) and its 'translation'/rewriting in a simplified language in the wake of the simplification of legalese and legal administrative language.

2.4 European Union

It goes without saying that the European Union holds the record of the largest – freely available – parallel corpora for the study of EU languages, including the legal domain.

The *JRC-Acquis* is a multilingual parallel corpus available in 23 languages which gathers, in its latest release (3.0), more than a billion words (1,055,583,954). It is an important tool to study the acquis communautaire, that is, the total body of EU law applicable in the EU Member States. The corpus comprises selected legislative texts written between the 1950s and now (treaties and laws, declarations and resolutions, international agreements on EU affairs and the judgments given by the Court of Justice).

Another corpus based on the same acquis communautaire is the *DGT Multilingual Translation Memory of the Acquis Communautaire* (*DGT-TM*), totaling 6,226,855 translation units in its latest release (2012).

A recent corpus is the *DGT-Acquis*, a family of several multilingual parallel corpora extracted from the *Official Journal of the European Union*, consisting of

documents from the middle of 2004 to the end of 2011 in up to 23 languages.The corpus is aligned according to paragraphs and has 253 language combinations, totaling 3.54 million files.

Lastly, the *European Parliament Proceedings Parallel Corpus* 1996-2011 (*EUROPARL*) is a multilingual parallel corpus containing more than 60 million words per language based on the EP proceedings.

2.5 Rest of the world

In this final part of the section, attention will be focused on legal corpora built in countries different from England and Wales, Spain and Italy, entirely or partially dedicated to the study of legal or judicial language.

As for the former, that is, corpora exclusively dedicated to legal language, it is worth mentioning the *American Law Corpus* (*ALC*) compiled by Goźdź-Roszkowski (University of Łódz), which collects more than 5.5 million words extracted from seven legal genres typical of American culture and education (Goźdź-Roszkowski 2011: 27-30): academic journals, briefs, contracts, legislation, opinions, professional articles and textbooks. One of the main aims of the corpus is studying linguistic patterns and phraseology across these legal genres.

Another corpus for the study of American judicial language is the *USCC corpus*, built by Davide Mazzi (University of Modena e Reggio Emilia), made up of 67 opinions (658,154 words) delivered by the US Supreme Court, with the primary aim of studying judicial argumentation (see e.g. Mazzi 2010).

The *Case Law Corpus* developed in the *Centre for Computers and Law* (Erasmus University, Rotterdam) by van Noortwijk and De Mulder is a monolingual corpus gathering 3,073 judicial decisions (16.5 million words) delivered both by civil and criminal UK jurisdictions and courts.

The *Polish Law Corpus* is a monolingual corpus (PL) of 4 million words, built by Łucja Biel (University of Gdansk) which includes 211 codes and major legal acts related to contract, company, civil and criminal law (Biel 2010a). One of the main objectives of the author is describing nominal, verbal and adjectival collocations of legal terms within the context of an ongoing project aimed at compiling the *Dictionary of Polish Legal Collocations for Translators*.

As far as national – mostly monolingual – corpora are concerned, almost every national corpus has a subcorpus of legal language: the National Corpus of Polish (*NKJP, I-PAN corpus* in Xiao 2008: 387), the most representative corpus of Polish (5% of its 200 million words is taken from legal documents); the *CNC corpus* (CZ) (legal subcorpus: 0.82% of the SYN2000 subcorpus, totaling 100 million words); the *HNC corpus* (EL) has a subcorpus of legal documents among its 47 million words; the *SNK corpus* (SK) with its 719 million words has a legal subcorpus; the *MCLC corpus* (ZH) has its subcorpus of legal texts; etc. Although it is not a national corpus, the *INL 38 Million Corpus 1996* (NL) has a 12.9 million legal subcorpus.

Among the monolingual corpora for the study of the English language, including its legal domain, there are: the diachronic *Helsinki Corpus of English Texts* (University of Helsinki, Matti Rissanen and Ossi Ihalainen) which contains an entire section made up of common law texts; the *International Corpus of English*

(*ICE*), compiled by Josef Schmied's team (University of Hong Kong), which has a legal section of oral documents (legal presentations, 10,000 tokens; cross-examinations, 10,000 tokens); the *Academic Corpus* (Victoria University of Wellington) which contains 72 legal texts (874,723 tokens).

As far as multilingual corpora are concerned, it is worth mentioning the *Corpus Multilíngüe para Ensino e Tradução* (*COMET*), a bilingual (EN-PTbr) comparable corpus built at the University of São Paulo (Stella Esther Ortweiler Tagnin) which has 1 million words of legal language in its *CorTec* subcorpus (Commercial Law). Another interesting project is the *Hong Kong Bilingual Corpus of Legal and Documentary Texts* (EN: 300,000 tokens; ZH: 500,000 characters), compiled by Xu Xunfeng (Hong Kong PolyU); the *Hong Kong Parallel Text*, which has a legal subcorpus (Hong Kong Laws, EN: 8,396,243, ZH: 14,868,621 characters); the *ENPC corpus* (English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus) and the *ESPC corpus* (English-Swedish Parallel Corpus) both containing legal subsections.

Obviously, these are only some of the legal corpora available worldwide. Mention has been made of those consulted by the author of the present paper in an effort to shape his own PhD specialised corpus.

3. Conclusion

The brief survey which has been carried out in this paper has shown that, despite a national and international interest for the study of legal language through corpus linguistics tools, there is only a small number of real, systematic, multilingual corpora for its study, in a contrastive perspective, especially if compared with the huge number of corpora of general language identified by Xiao in his 2008 study.

Legal corpora represent a promising tool in legal linguistics, as they can be exploited in innumerable applications, such as terminology, phraseology, syntax, textual structures, genre analysis, etc.

Taking stock of the analysis, a number of considerations are required: there are dozens of corpora made up of exclusively legal and judicial documents; most of them are monolingual or, if not, comparable; few of them adopt a contrastive, cross-linguistic perspective. More interesting for the purpose of the ongoing PhD research project is that, with the exception of few scholars (e.g. Biel, Goźdź-Roszkowski, Mazzi), legal phraseology has not been studied systematically, either by linguists or translation scholars, with a corpus-based or -driven methodology.

The ongoing PhD project is conceived as a first, tentative step towards filling that gap.

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Appendix
URLs [last accessed on 25 November 2012]

Corpus	*URL*
Academic Corpus:	http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/resources/academicwordlist/information/corpus
AIC	http://elearning.unistrapg.it/corpora/aic.html
ALC	N/A
BLaRC	N/A
BoLC	http://dslo.unibo.it/bolc_eng.html
CADIS	http://dinamico.unibg.it/cerlis/page.aspx?p=245
Case Law Corpus	N/A
CCLE	http://www.cambridge.org/gb/elt/catalogue/subject/item2701617/Cambridge-English-Corpus/?site_locale=en_GB
CLUVI	http://sli.uvigo.es/CLUVI/index_en.html
CNC	http://ucnk.ff.cuni.cz/english/index.php
CODIS	http://dslo.unibo.it/CODIS/ [http://corpora.ficlit.unibo.it/]
COMET	http://www.fflch.usp.br/dlm/comet/
CORIS	http://dslo.unibo.it/TCORIS/ [http://corpora.ficlit.unibo.it/]
CORPUS	http://www.iula.upf.edu/corpus/corpuses.htm
COSPE	N/A
CPP	N/A
DGT-ACQUIS	http://ipsc.jrc.ec.europa.eu/index.php?id=783
DGT-TM	http://ipsc.jrc.ec.europa.eu/index.php?id=197
ENPC	http://www.hf.uio.no/ilos/english/services/omc/enpc/
ESPC	http://www.sol.lu.se/engelska/corpus/corpus/espc.html
GARALEX	http://www.ehu.es/ehusfera/garalex/
GENTEXT-N	N/A
Helsinki Corpus of English Texts	http://icame.uib.no/hc/
HNC	http://hnc.ilsp.gr/en/
HOLJ	http://www.ltg.ed.ac.uk/SUM/CORPUS/index.html
Hong Kong Bilingual Corpus of Legal and Documentary Texts	http://langbank.engl.polyu.edu.hk/corpus/bili_legal.html
Hong Kong Parallel Text	http://www.ldc.upenn.edu/Catalog/catalogEntry.jsp?catalogId=LDC2004T08
ICE	http://ice-corpora.net/ice/index.htm
INL	http://listserv.brown.edu/archives/cgi-bin/wa?A2=ind9608&L=TEI-L&P=3060
JRC-Acquis	http://langtech.jrc.it/JRC-Acquis.html
JUD-GENTT	N/A
MCLC	http://www.clr.org.en/retrieval
NKJP	http://nkjp.pl/index.php?page=0&lang=1
PEC	http://perugiacorpus.unistrapg.it/composizione.html
Polish Law Corpus	N/A
Proceedings of the Old Bailey	http://www.oldbaileyonline.org/
SNK	http://korpus.juls.savba.sk/stats_en.html
TACS	http://www.maldura.unipd.it/buro/tacs.html
USSC	N/A

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David Lee: http://www.uow.edu.au/-dlee/CBLLinks.htm
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Richard Xiao: http://www.lancs.ac.uk/fass/projects/corpus/cbls/corpora.asp

Didattica della traduzione e terminologia come disciplina accademica: tra teoria e realtà

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Abstract

In this paper I will analyse the gap between the theory of terminology, the academic discipline of translation studies, and real terminology, as it is specifically used in a professional context and can be observed in reality.

In fact, what has long been presented as cornerstones of terminology in books for translators is nothing but a set of almost always prescriptive principles about what terminology should be, and not what it actually is. It thus gives to future translators falsely idealized terms, unique references between terms and concepts and rigid conceptual structures: principles which are not based on observation of reality.

The paper will analyse some of these myths and idealizations that have spread through terminology as an academic discipline through real examples in French and Spanish and will deal with some problems, such as inaccuracy, instability, completeness and consistency, which should be pointed out to students of translation courses.

This will be useful in helping to bring the academic theory closer to actual practice of terminology and, accordingly, to reduce the gap between the teaching of translation and professional translation in the future.

1. Introduzione

La terminologia è al centro della traduzione specializzata, è il suo strumento più importante poichè trasmette i concetti ai quali si riferisce ogni tipo di discorso

tecnico. Tuttavia, i traduttori – e soprattutto i futuri traduttori – hanno un'immagine realistica di ciò che è un termine? Se ne può dubitare, considerata la quantità di concezioni errate che circolano al riguardo, come qualsiasi docente di traduzione tecnica ha potuto verificare in diverse occasioni. Ciò è dovuto, da una parte, al rispetto reverenziale che il linguaggio della scienza (dalla presunta sistematicità, chiarezza e uniformità) ispira al futuro traduttore e, dall'altra, alla tendenza della teoria terminologica ufficiale a confondere i suoi desideri di esattezza con la "ribelle" realtà delle lingue naturali, meno "addomesticabili" di quanto per essa sarebbe desiderabile.

Come evidenzia Juan Carlos Sager, gran parte di quelli che nei libri destinati alla formazione dei traduttori sono stati sempre presentati come principi fondamentali della terminologia non sono altro che un insieme di desideri di ciò che dovrebbe essere. Riportiamo integralmente la citazione, per la sua calzante descrizione del problema:

> Lo que hasta ahora se ha presentado como fundamentos de terminología en libros y muchos cursos destinados a traductores, no es otra cosa que una teoría simplificada de estructuras conceptuales y principios casi siempre prescriptivos de lo que debía ser y no de lo que es, o variaciones sobre este tema. Estos "principios", como vemos, por ejemplo, en los documentos sobre terminología de la ISO, se basan en una versión idealizada – además falsamente idealizada – de términos monosémicos, de referencias unívocas entre términos y conceptos, en estructuras rígidas de conceptos que no se encuentran siquiera en las ciencias físicas de observación como la botánica, la zoología y la geología. La base teórica de estos principios no se funda en la observación sino en la fantasía. A pesar de la evidencia de lo contrario, se asume simplemente la existencia de una estructura estática de conceptos y un conjunto correspondiente de términos y equivalentes multilingües. Por el contrario, si nos basamos en hechos lingüísticos y cognitivos observables, descubrimos que los términos y sus conceptos forman un conjunto dinámico con una función muy especial e importantísima en la comunicación y, por lo tanto, en los textos a traducir. Estos hechos deben ser la base para construir una teoría sobre el comportamiento y la función de términos (Sager 1998: 126).

In altre parole, alcuni traduttori, avendoli appresi in questo modo, continuano a considerare veri gli ideali terminologici trasmessi dal modello standard della terminologia, proveniente a sua volta dalla *teoria generale della terminologia*,[1] elaborata da Eugen Wüster e nota per ciò anche come *teoria wüsteriana*.[2]

Una descrizione esauriente dei limiti della teoria generale della terminologia nelle sue applicazioni alle necessità reali della traduzione tecnico-scientifica travalicherebbe i limiti del presente lavoro. Per un approfondimento si rimanda a Sager (1998: 123) e a Vicente (2006: 50).

1 Per *Teoria Generale della Terminologia* intendiamo il modello di lavoro terminologico proposto da Eugen Wüster e ampiamente completato, continuato e interpretato dai suoi allievi (si veda ad esempio Felber 1987) in organismi come Infoterm, Termnet, il comitato tecnico ISO/TC 37 dell'Organizzazione Internazionale di Standardizzazione e l'istituto di normazione austriaco (ÖN).

2 Denominazione quest'ultima che si dovrebbe impiegare con grande precauzione, tenendo in considerazione che a una lettura attenta dei lavori di Eugen Wüster (cfr. Wüster 1998) si scopre una prudenza molto maggiore rispetto ad alcuni dei suoi esegeti e continuatori.

Ciò nonostante conviene chiarire che, al di là delle discussioni teoriche tra terminologi, la situazione attuale è problematica anche dal punto di vista pratico, poichè il traduttore che crede senza dubbi all'ideale terminologico "classico" reprime il riflesso, sempre efficace, di mantenere un atteggiamento relativamente critico verso la terminologia che impiega; tende a credere che, effettivamente, le varie lingue speciali possiedano strumenti di comunicazione esatti, chiari e invariabili, in contrapposizione a una lingua corrente dove regna l'imprecisione, il disordine e la variazione; attribuisce alle terminologie dei distinti campi scientifici, idealizzandoli, tutti i pregi contrari ai "difetti" della lingua corrente.

Senza ambizione di esaustività, nel presente articolo tratteremo alcuni di questi miti, idealizzazioni o false idee che circolano intorno alla terminologia scientifica, con esempi pertinenti, in francese e in spagnolo, che ne dimostrano la mancata corrispondenza alla realtà. Ci occuperemo concretamente della precisione della terminologia, della sua stabilità, esaustività e uniformità, selezionando alcuni esempi significativi.

2. La terminologia è precisa, biunivoca

Come sottolinea Gaudin (1993: 15), conviene non dimenticare mai che la terminologia classica "est avant tout [...] la fille de la normalisation industrielle", di cui "elle a hérité une appréhension mécaniste du langage". Per questo motivo, manifesta un ideale di biunivocità, ovvero, di ciò che un lessicologo chiamerebbe *corrispondenza reciproca tra significante e significato* e un terminologo *corrispondenza reciproca tra un'etichetta linguistica e un concetto*. Si esige quindi *monoreferenzialità* o *monosemia* (che ogni etichetta linguistica si associ a un unico concetto, ovvero il contrario della polisemia) e *mononimia* (che ogni concetto si associ a una sola etichetta linguistica, ossia il contrario della sinonimia), ed è questo che si insegna ai traduttori.

A prima vista si potrebbe pensare che le attività scientifico-tecniche dispongano di una terminologia precisa e biunivoca, che segue in effetti quei principi. Tuttavia, troviamo casi frequenti di polisemia e sinonimia, con le contraddizioni e le ambiguità che evidentemente possono da ciò derivare.

Se consideriamo l'esempio del termine francese *normaliser*, oltre alle sue accezioni generali troveremo diversi significati nel campo scientifico: così in matematica si definisce come "modifier la mantisse d'un nombre réel de façon à la placer dans une gamme prédéterminée, et ajuster en conséquence l'exposant de manière que la valeur du nombre représenté ne soit pas modifiée", mentre nel campo dell'industria significa "échauffer et en cas de nécessité, maintenir un métal à une température adéquate au dessus du point de transformation, puis le laisser refroidir à l'air libre" (GDT).

Certamente si potrà obiettare che in determinate situazioni non si tratta di polisemia, bensì di omonimia, ovvero ci si trova di fronte a termini distinti (di campi distinti) che condividono l'"etichetta" linguistica. Tuttavia esistono anche casi frequenti di termini polisemici appartenenti a uno stesso campo scientifico che complicano considerevolmente il lavoro del traduttore.

Ad esempio nella terminologia dell'ingegneria meccanica il termine francese "joint" può avere sia il significato di "reunión de deux pièces" che quello di "pièce interposée pour assurer l'étanchéité entre deux surfaces serrées l'une sur l'autre" (GDT), ossia sia il significato di "elemento di unione" sia il suo contrario, "elemento di separazione".

Un secondo esempio in spagnolo: secondo il DRAE (2001) il termine spagnolo "raíz" può avere nel campo della matematica sia il significato di "cada uno de los valores que puede tener la incógnita de una ecuación" che quello di "cantidad que se ha de multiplicar por sí misma una o más veces para obtener un número determinado".

Un'altra forma di polisemia molto frequente nella terminologia tecnico-scientifica è generata, come nella lingua corrente, dalle metonimie. Quando la terminologia elettronica francese si riferisce a "contact", è possibile interpretarlo come "bouton poussoir [à contact momentané]" o come una delle sue parti, "électrode [de contact]" (IEC). Solo il contesto permette di stabilirlo.

Consideriamo adesso la sinonimia, anch'essa teoricamente assente in terminologia. Tralasciando numerosi casi discutibili per l'implicazione di elementi di diversi livelli di specialità (*cefalea* rispetto a *jaqueca*) o di elementi di "codici differenti" (una sigla rispetto alla sua forma estesa), esistono comunque casi frequenti di termini autenticamente sinonimi. Un esempio può essere, nel campo della medicina (cfr. Dorland 2005), la coppia formata da *dentalgia* e *odontalgia*, termini perfettamente sinonimi, uno di radice latina, l'altro di radice greca.

Un altro esempio si riferisce a concetti che dispongono, al contempo, di designazioni esplicite e di designazioni abbreviate, queste ultime prodotte attraverso ellissi di determinati elementi lessicali (in spagnolo *Blu-ray,* da *Disco Blu-ray*) o grammaticali del sintagma nominale (in francese *format vidéo,* da *format d'une vidéo*). Le prime privilegiano la brevità a scapito della chiarezza, le seconde la chiarezza a scapito della brevità.

In ogni caso, si tratta di termini autenticamente polisemici o sinonimici. L'ideale di biunivocità non sembra dunque applicarsi sistematicamente, e genera piccole ambiguità che posso complicare il lavoro del traduttore.

3. La terminologia è stabile, non evolve nel tempo

Teoricamente un termine si caratterizza per la sua stabilità nel tempo, purché anche la realtà alla quale si riferisce permanga stabile; da questo punto di vista, esso si contrapporrebbe alle parole della lingua corrente, che tendono a modificare il loro significato, le loro connotazioni ecc. Secondo Dury (2006: 110) ciò si riflette, semplicemente, nel disinteresse e nell'emarginazione degli studi diacronici in terminologia:

> Il semble à vrai dire que beaucoup de terminologues ne sont pas convaincus de l'intérêt de procéder à des études diachroniques dans les langues scientifiques, et semblent encore moins convaincus que ces études sont riches d'enseignement pour la théorie terminologique et aussi pour la traduction spécialisée.

Tuttavia è semplice verificare che per diversi motivi (e a volte senza una ragione apparente) la terminologia può anche evolvere, cambiare nel tempo: per uno stesso concetto, dunque, nuove designazioni si sostituiscono ad altre, più antiche.

Così è avvenuto ad esempio, in francese, nel campo (molto strutturato) della chimica, con il termine *nitrogène*, attualmente caduto in disuso a favore di *azote*, e che tutti i dizionari francesi moderni, specializzati e generali, definiscono oggi effettivamente come "nom vieilli de l'azote" (GDT) o "ancienne appellation de l'azote" (Depovere 2002: 99). *Azote* è il termine che si utilizza attualmente in francese per riferirsi al noto elemento chimico di numero atomico 7, simbolo N, appartenente alla famiglia dei non metalli; ha sostituito *nitrogène* nell'arco di un secolo, senza alcuna spiegazione tecnica per tale variazione. Per rendere il problema più complesso, così come non si può dedurre dall'esempio precedente che una realtà costante implichi una designazione costante (*azote* continua a designare esattamente lo stesso referente di *nitrogène*, e tuttavia lo sostituisce), neppure il fatto che la realtà cambi implica necessariamente che cambi anche la designazione.

Un esempio è il termine francese *plomberie*, che non è stato modificato nonostante le canalizzazioni non siano solitamente più di piombo, ma di rame o di diversi polimeri. Lo stesso vale per il termine spagnolo *átomo,* francese *atome*, la cui etimologia greca significa "non divisibile". Nonostante oggigiorno si sappia che l'atomo non è l'elemento più piccolo della materia, bensì un sistema composto da un nucleo formato da neutroni e protoni, e da elettroni che gravitano intorno a esso, la designazione non è cambiata. Non esiste pertanto una relazione di causa e effetto tra stabilità della realtà e stabilità terminologica.

Per concludere, non possiamo tralasciare, come esempio di instabilità, la curiosa evoluzione subita in spagnolo dal termine della biologia *gripe porcina* (con la sua variante *influenza porcina*). Già in un primo momento il termine perde la sua motivazione quando l'Organizzazione Mondiale della Sanità Animale (OIE) chiarisce, dopo le proteste dei paesi produttori di maiale, che la malattia in questione poteva non avere una relazione diretta con questi animali;[3] pertanto, *gripe porcina* è stata abbandonata a favore di *gripe mejicana*, per la supposta origine geografica della malattia. A sua volta, *gripe mejicana* è stato utilizzato per un periodo limitato, finché, dopo le inevitabili proteste del governo messicano,[4] è stato sostituito a sua volta da due nuovi termini equivalenti, anche se di diversi livelli di specialità: *gripe nueva* e *gripe A (H1N1)*.

3 "Non esistono informazioni attuali sull'influenza animale in Messico o negli Stati Uniti a sostegno di un legame tra casi umani e possibili casi negli animali, incluso il maiale. Il virus finora non è stato isolato da animali; pertanto non si giustifica il fatto che questa malattia sia chiamata influenza suina. In passato, molte epidemie di influenza umana di origine animale sono state chiamate partendo da una denominazione geografica, per esempio l'influenza spagnola, l'influenza asiatica ecc., quindi sarebbe logico chiamare questa malattia "l'influenza dell'America del Nord" (http://www.oie.int/esp/press/ es__090427.htm, consultato nel maggio 2010, T.d.A.).

4 "México rechaza denominación de gripe mexicana", pubblicato sul giornale messicano *El Universal* (http://www.el-universal.com.mx/notas/594878.html, consultato nell'aprile 2010).

Come si può notare, nonostante sia indubbiamente più stabile della lingua corrente, la terminologia scientifica conosce anche l'instabilità ed è soggetta, a volte, a evoluzioni temporali delle quali il traduttore dev'essere consapevole. Aprire la terminologia agli aspetti diacronici permette di legarla fermamente allo studio della storia della scienza e della tecnica, arricchendola con una visione più globale e quindi più completa della sua materia prima di lavoro.

4. La terminologia è esaustiva, non ha lacune

Tutti i lessicografi sanno che l'esaustività è un obiettivo illusorio, a causa della natura stessa del linguaggio umano, della sua creatività, della sua combinatoria; i futuri traduttori dovrebbero tener presente che lo stesso si applica anche alla terminologia tecnico-scientifica. Difatti non si dovrebbe mai confondere la terminologia con la catalogazione, nonostante entrambe le discipline condividano alcuni elementi. La catalogazione deve, e in molti casi può, essere esaustiva, dato che a volte utilizza corpora finiti. La terminologia invece non potrà mai essere esaustiva, neanche in campi chiaramente delimitati: l'evoluzione della realtà scientifica e tecnica è così rapida, la creatività e le combinazioni del linguaggio scientifico sono così elevate, che si generano, invariabilmente, casi di mancanza di esaustività temporanei o persino permanenti.

Esempi di mancanza di esaustività temporanea si verificano generalmente quando appaiono nuove realtà tecniche o scientifiche: in questi casi si passa sempre per un periodo di incertezze, prima di raggiungere un consenso. È quanto è accaduto nel 2009, in francese, con il termine *kers* (acronimo di *Kinetic Energy Recovery System*) appartenente al campo dell'ingegneria meccanica e reso popolare grazie alle trasmissioni televisive delle corse automobilistiche della Formula 1. A causa della novità dell'oggetto tecnico (il cui uso era facoltativo nel 2009 e 2010 ed è divenuto obbligatorio nel 2011) non esistono ancora termini equivalenti in francese e spagnolo, nonostante alcuni giornalisti francesi comincino a utilizzare, generando ulteriori incomprensioni, l'acronimo *srec* (sinonimo neolatino, acronimo francese di *système de récupération de l'énergie cinétique* o spagnolo di *sistema de recuperación de energía cinética*).

A meno che tale elemento meccanico non venga esteso all'industria automobilistica in generale e acquisti una certa notorietà pubblica che richiami l'attenzione degli organismi di normalizzazione, è molto probabile che tali termini di origine neolatina non si diffondano mai, anche se per il momento si tratta solamente di una mancanza di esaustività temporanea. Quando queste situazioni transitorie si protraggono nel tempo possono divenire croniche, il che succede soprattutto in determinati campi scientifici a evoluzione particolarmente rapida. Un esempio, tratto dall'ambito della terminologia informatica, è dato dalla mancanza di termini equivalenti spagnoli per *hardware* e *software* o di un equivalente italiano per *mouse*, che possiamo supporre ormai definitiva.

Una certa mancanza di esaustività è inevitabile, per le caratteristiche stesse del linguaggio umano nel quale s'iscrive la terminologia. Il traduttore deve pertanto essere cosciente del fatto che determinati concetti tecnico-scientifici

possono essere privi, temporaneamente o definitivamente, di una designazione propria (o di una designazione propria che non sia un forestierismo).

5. La terminologia è uniforme, senza varianti arbitrarie

Gli studenti di traduzione, colpiti dal prestigio della *Scienza* con la S maiuscola, tendono a credere che il vocabolario tecnico-scientifico sia un modello di uniformità, ovvero che per ogni concetto esista una designazione e che, in definitiva, ogni termine accettato dagli organismi di normalizzazione e/o dalla tradizione sia usato da tutti o dalla maggior parte degli specialisti. Questa idea è, tuttavia, abbastanza discutibile, e resiste ben poco a una verifica empirica.

Lasciando da parte le varianti regionali o nazionali (ad esempio, nella terminologia dell'informatica, *computadora* e *mouse* si utilizzano nella documentazione tecnica della maggior parte dei Paesi Latino-americani, *ordenador* e *ratón* invece in Spagna) e anche i casi di neologia, in cui vari termini coesistono fugacemente finché uno di essi s'impone (ad esempio, nella terminologia francese della biologia, *écologiste*, *environnementaliste* e *écologue* erano in origine sinonimi), sono frequenti i casi di mancanza di uniformità di origine non diatopica nè neologica, di varianti utilizzate tra gli specialisti per designare uno stesso e unico concetto.

Ad esempio, nel 2006, la scheda corrispondente a "système de freinage antiblocage" del GDT presentava come sinonimi i seguenti dodici termini: *système d'antiblocage de roue, système antiblocage ABS, dispositif antiblocage, antibloqueur, système d'antiblocage des roues, dispositif de frein antiblocage, freins ABS, ABS, ABR, système de freinage ABS, système de freins antiblocages e système de freins antiblocage* (precisava inoltre che la sigla *ABR* era utilizzata esclusivamente da Peugeot!). Nel 2009, nonostante il concetto abbia acquisito una certa uniformità nelle sue designazioni, si trovano ancora sette varianti nella stessa scheda: *système d'antiblocage de roue, système antiblocage ABS, dispositif antiblocage, antibloqueur, dispositif de frein antiblocage, freins ABS e ABS*.

La mancanza di uniformità è anche un "classico" della terminologia della medicina, come sanno bene i traduttori di documentazione medica (cfr. Navarro 1997). Consideriamo il caso, in spagnolo, della *enfermedad de Fabry*, definita come una "enfermedad genética extremadamente rara [...] que se incluye dentro del grupo de enfermedades metabólicas hereditarias de depósito lisosomal".[5]

Questa malattia è anche conosciuta con le designazioni *angioqueratoma difuso, déficit de ceramida trihexosidasa, déficit de alfa-galactosidasa A, lipidosis glucolipídica, angioqueratoma corporal difuso, lipidosis hereditaria distópica* e *enfermedad de Anderson* (medico britannico che contese a Fabry la scoperta).[6] Siamo di fronte a un'autentica profusione di varianti utilizzate contemporaneamente dagli specialisti.

5 Cfr. Federación Española de Enfermedades Raras (FEDER) (http://www.enfermedades-raras.org/, consultato nel maggio 2010).

6 Cfr. Instituto de Investigación de Enfermedades Raras (IIER). È possibile consultare la scheda completa della malattia su http://iier.isciii.es/er/prg/er__bus2.asp? cod__enf=973 (consultato nel maggio 2009).

Dobbiamo pertanto concludere che, anche se questa situazione di mancanza di uniformità contraddice i postulati teorici della terminologia classica compromettendo l'efficacia comunicativa, le sue conseguenze non sono in generale gravi, poiché lo specialista e il traduttore specializzato sono capaci di rimediare al problema servendosi della propria capacità interpretativa e della loro esperienza. Il problema dell'uniformità terminologica si porrebbe in un altro modo, evidentemente, se entrassimo nel campo della traduzione assistita da computer e di quella automatica, di cui non ci occupiamo nel presente articolo.

Conclusione

Nonostante il suo orientamento critico, il presente lavoro non mirava a disprezzare il lavoro dei terminologi che lavorano nel campo tecnico-scientifico o a sottovalutare l'importanza della terminologia tecnico-scientifica di per sé. Il nostro obiettivo era invece quello di portare alla luce i limiti di una certa visione idealizzata della terminologia scientifica.

La terminologia tecnico-scientifica aspira all'esattezza, alla chiarezza e all'uniformità, e tendendo a questi obiettivi realizza a pieno la sua funzione. Tuttavia, conviene ricordare che essi, come abbiamo visto, non sempre sono realmente raggiungibili. Il traduttore non deve ignorare queste limitazioni. Essendo consapevole della realtà della terminologia tecnico-scientifica, il traduttore potrà, in primo luogo, evitare di mitizzarla, mantenendo un atteggiamento sanamente critico nei suoi confronti. In secondo luogo, potrà interagire in modo costruttivo con i terminologi, adattando la terminologia alle situazioni reali. In terzo luogo, potrà rendersi conto del fatto che, nonostante le sue imperfezioni, la terminologia tecnico-scientifica adempie al suo ruolo, a condizione di essere utilizzata e interpretata in modo intelligente.

Come già indicava Henri Zinglé in uno dei suoi ultimi interventi, pubblicato postumo grazie a Loïc Depecker, in terminologia:

> […] on est obligé de simplifier les choses […] sinon, on passerait notre temps à discuter et rediscuter et on n'avancerait pas non plus. À un moment donné, je peux poser une nomenclature et dire on va se mettre d'accord sur un certain nombre de choses – c'est la proposition de Wüster –. Mais on n'arrivera jamais à se mettre totalement d'accord ! Il faut accepter cette marge d'erreur. (Depecker *et al.* 2007: 63)

Questo ci permette di ricordare che, in definitiva, le priorità che abitualmente si attribuivano alla terminologia tecnico-scientifica non devono essere considerate dal traduttore come valori assoluti, ma piuttosto come tendenze alle quali il discorso tecnico-scientifico aspira, come mete verso le quali il terminologo e lo stesso traduttore devono dirigere i propri sforzi. Una lezione di realismo che non è mai superflua in campo scientifico.

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TouriTerm: un database terminologico per la traduzione e redazione di testi turistici

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Abstract

Tourist communication is notably bedevilled by poor quality translations. This paper reports on the development of a multilingual terminological and textual database, intended as a performance-enhancing tool in the process of translating tourist texts. Beside a cursory description of the project (i.e. data collection, corpus design and analysis, term extraction, data input), focus will be placed on the tool's distinguishing feature, namely the integration of rich phraseological, textual and pragmatic information (e.g. collocations, communicative functions, usage notes, co-textual setting). Finally, translation-specific aspects will be highlighted by means of representative examples of how the database is going to record functional equivalents, especially with respect to the phraseological component that so remarkably contributes to the effectiveness of tourist communication.

1. Qualità per il turismo, qualità per il turista. E la lingua?

In uno scenario economico dalle tinte fosche come quello attuale, l'industria del turismo scommette e investe sulla *qualità*[1]. Gli operatori del settore mettono in

1 Occorre precisare che, ad oggi, non esiste una definizione precisa di *qualità nel turismo* e che la concezione prevalente sembrerebbe essere quella di *qualità imprenditoriale* intesa come ricerca di standard elevati sul piano dell'offerta ricettiva. Si pensi a iniziative come il marchio

campo risorse creative e finanziarie per elevare la qualità tecnica e funzionale di prodotti e servizi, per innovare, reinventare l'offerta e distinguersi dalla concorrenza in risposta ai bisogni sempre più differenziati e individuali del turista odierno (cfr. Ejarque 2007). Da alcuni anni a questa parte si è fatta gradualmente strada fra gli addetti ai lavori la consapevolezza che *qualità* è anzitutto ciò che il cliente/turista *percepisce* e che questa nasce principalmente nell'*interazione* fra venditore e cliente. In un ambito come quello turistico, che offre beni immateriali, sono proprio le interazioni (vale a dire la comunicazione nelle diverse fasi della proposta, della valutazione, della scelta e del consumo *in loco* di beni e servizi) a determinare il valore aggiunto per il cliente e ad agire sul margine competitivo. Questo spiega perché le organizzazioni turistiche (specialmente private) investano ingenti risorse nella *promozione*, avvalendosi di strumenti di marketing innovativi ed elaborando strategie di vendita *confezionate su misura* per target sempre più specifici ed esigenti.

Nessuno oserebbe negare l'importanza strategica della *lingua* nelle interazioni fra imprese turistiche e potenziali clienti: per rendere tangibile ciò che non lo è occorre il linguaggio. Attraverso il linguaggio si racconta il territorio, si descrive la destinazione, si presenta l'offerta ricettiva ma soprattutto si tenta di agganciare l'interesse del potenziale cliente/turista per indurlo all'acquisto del pacchetto proposto. È la lingua che consente di costruire un'immagine del luogo capace di muovere le *emozioni* del destinatario fino a dargli l'illusione di vivere in presa diretta l'esperienza turistica.[2] Ciò nonostante, alla qualità *linguistica* dei testi promozionali e informativi destinati al grande pubblico, gli operatori turistici non sempre dedicano l'attenzione e la cura necessarie a far sì che il messaggio in essi contenuto sprigioni tutto il proprio potenziale evocativo e perlocutorio. Eppure il gioco val bene la candela. Quando infatti un testo deve essere *tradotto*, e quindi reso accessibile a un pubblico internazionale, la questione della qualità linguistica, liquidata come secondaria e tutto sommato trascurabile, torna a farsi sentire con forza. Ne va della fruibilità del messaggio.

A ben vedere, la posta in gioco non è soltanto la buona riuscita della comunicazione in termini di trasmissione chiara, corretta e coerente delle informazioni nella lingua d'arrivo. L'efficacia della comunicazione, come è stato detto, dipenderà in larga misura dalla *percezione* dei nuovi destinatari, i quali recepiranno il messaggio attraverso il filtro di modi di sentire, di valori, di consuetudini, aspettative e approcci al viaggio non sempre assimilabili a quelli dei destinatari di partenza.

Ospitalità Italiana, certificazione promossa dall'Unione Italiana delle Camere di Commercio per incentivare su tutto il territorio nazionale l'offerta di servizi ricettivi e ristorativi di alto livello. Cfr. http://www.10q.it/ (consultato il 31.01.2011).

2 Se la *vera* qualità nel turismo sta nella capacità di offrire emozioni ed esperienze, come suggerisce Giorgio Daidola in un articolo apparso nel 2004 sulla rivista online *QT* (*Questo Trentino*, cfr. http://www.questotrentino.it/2004/08/Documen__Turismo.htm), la lingua della promozione turistica dovrà essere in grado di creare suggestioni, di anticipare ed evocare l'intensità delle emozioni e il valore delle esperienze che il turista potrà provare e vivere in prima persona una volta giunto a destinazione.

Il turista tedesco, ad esempio, quando cerca informazioni su destinazioni e mete di viaggio, in genere si aspetta testi non solo accattivanti dal punto di vista grafico, ma soprattutto di facile lettura, aggiornati e propositivi, insomma utilmente informativi. Quando poi arriva sul posto vorrebbe poter disporre di brochure di accoglienza caratterizzate da un taglio chiaro e pratico, redatte in un formato agile e immediatamente fruibile, con descrizioni partecipative che lo coinvolgano e lo guidino alla scoperta del luogo, che gli consentano di *fare esperienza del luogo*.[3] Purtroppo, in molte occasioni, il turista straniero che sceglie l'Italia come meta di viaggio o destinazione delle proprie vacanze resta deluso dall'approssimatezza e dalla modesta qualità linguistica delle versioni multilingue di brochure, dèpliant, pannelli informativi, siti web e portali di interesse turistico elaborate e distribuite a livello locale da organizzazioni pubbliche o private.

Accade così che il testo (mal) tradotto dal singolo ente per l'utenza straniera anziché essere un *gesto di ospitalità linguistica*, per dirla con Ricoeur (2001: 50), si traduce in un disservizio e finisce col trasmettere un senso generale di trascuratezza e di scarsa professionalità che rischia di svilire o addirittura danneggiare l'immagine e l'attrattività di tutta la destinazione.

Analizzando il materiale a stampa e online realizzato dall'editoria turistica locale di Brescia e provincia e destinato ai turisti stranieri, si evince complessivamente un grado di attenzione alla qualità linguistica e traduttiva non particolarmente elevato. Se prescindiamo dalle traduzioni improbabili, un po' maccheroniche, evidentemente affidate a personale incompetente e non qualificato, molti degli errori di traduzione che si riscontrano nelle versioni multilingue dei testi turistici presi in esame sono riconducibili a problemi di comprensione del testo di partenza oppure a una conoscenza imprecisa delle caratteristiche intrinseche della realtà extralinguistica di cui si sta parlando. Nell'uno come nell'altro caso, chi traduce rischia di selezionare un equivalente errato nella lingua di arrivo. Si prenda ad esempio questo brano estratto dal portale di un tour operator locale specializzato in incoming:

> Der große strategische Wert von Brescia durch die Jahrhunderte wird durch außerordentliche Gebäude gezeugt: die römische Ausgrabung; die zwei großen Kathedralen; das mittelalterliche Schloß; der 15. Jahrhundert Loggia-Palast; und auch Klosters, Kirchen, Plätze und Museen – S. Giulia Stadt-Museum und die Tosio-Martinengo Galerie sind bemerkenswert.[4]

Affidandosi a questa sintetica rassegna dei monumenti e degli edifici di interesse storico-artistico presenti a Brescia, il lettore di lingua tedesca si aspetterà di trovare, una volta giunto sul posto, una residenza medievale destinata a dimora di casati o famiglie nobiliari (*ein mittelalterliches Wohnschloss*), sul modello dei

3 È quanto emerso dalla relazione "Breskia. Wo liegt das denn?" tenuta da Gottfried Aigner (autore, insieme a Nana Claudia Nenzel, di guide turistiche su Nord Italia e Lago di Garda edite da Dumont e Companions, profondo conoscitore di Brescia e della sua provincia) in occasione del convegno "Comunicare la città. Il turismo culturale a Brescia in una prospettiva inter/nazionale". Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Brescia, 19-20 novembre 2009.

4 Evidenziato nell'originale.

molti castelli-residenza a lui noti presenti nella sua terra natale (es. *Schloss Auerbach*). Il *Castello di Brescia*, tuttavia, pur di origine medievale, non corrisponde esattamente a questa tipologia architettonica. Si tratta infatti di una struttura fortificata, di una fortezza dunque, che ospitava al suo interno le sole guarnigioni militari preposte alla difesa del territorio.

Se il traduttore del testo avesse anche solo consultato le fonti lessicografiche più accessibili (es. il DUDEN, alla voce *Schloss: meist mehrflügeliges – den Baustil seiner Zeit und den Prunk seiner Bewohner repräsentierendes Wohngebäude des Adels*) e avesse verificato, sulla base della definizione fornita dal dizionario, l'effettiva corrispondenza fra la denominazione (*Schloss*) e le caratteristiche architettoniche e funzionali del referente extralinguistico designato (il castello-fortezza di Brescia), avrebbe senz'altro abbandonato la prima scelta traduttiva e optato per l'equivalente corretto, ossia *Festung* (cfr. definizione nel DUDEN: *stark befestigte, strategischen Zwecken dienende Verteidigungsanlage*).

Di soluzioni traduttive inadeguate il corpus analizzato ne esibisce a volontà (*Degustazione di piatti tipici* diventa *Verkostung der typischen Gängen; per gustare vini e sapori* è tradotto con *um Weine und Speise zu schmecken*, solo per citare alcuni esempi). Particolarmente infausti gli effetti prodotti dalla traduzione maldestra di itinerari o altri testi operativi finalizzati a indirizzare *l'agire* in loco del potenziale turista/visitatore straniero. Se chi traduce non è supportato da un'adeguata competenza linguistica, tende ad aderire con troppa tenacia al *dictus* dell'originale e finisce col produrre formulazioni scorrette e imprecise, al limite della comprensibilità, che certo non agevolano lo sforzo di ricezione del lettore, per quanto benevolo. Si prenda ad esempio il non facile compito di decodifica richiesto dalle indicazioni contenute in questa proposta di itinerario ciclo-turistico alla scoperta della Valtenesi (territorio compreso fra le colline moreniche e il lato occidentale del Lago di Garda) pubblicato online da un ente locale:

> *Das Valtenesi entdecken*
> In Kunst, Geschichte und Gastronomie. Man fährt vom Schloss von Padenghe an und beginnt in die Pedale die abwärts Strasse nach dem Dorf treten, über dem begeht man nach Moniga. Von der Bundesstraße biegt man rechts, folgt den Hinweisen zur Kirche der Madonna della Neve: von hier fährt man Richtung Zentrum Moniga (Piazza s. Martino), lässt das Schloss hinter sich und fährt entlang den Straßen Via Magenta, S. Martino und D'Annunzio weiter. Man kann die Gelegenheit zu fahren nach die Rocca von Manerba, um die Aussicht zu bewundern, abwägen (di letzte kurze Strecke begeht man zu Fuß): dann nimmt man die Straße und begeht nach dem See und nach S.Felice.

C'è da chiedersi se *testi* di questo tipo possano effettivamente disincentivare il potenziale visitatore/turista tedescofono, al punto da indurlo a cambiare destinazione. Sicuramente sono altri i fattori che condizionano la scelta finale del consumatore. Tuttavia, improprietà lessicali e grammaticali e inesattezze stilistiche certo non concorrono a predisporre positivamente il lettore straniero nei confronti della località descritta.

Bisogna riconoscere che, nella maggior parte dei casi, almeno da quanto emerso dalla nostra indagine, le soluzioni traduttive *infelici* riguardano non tanto la dimensione grammaticale, quanto la qualità idiomatica del testo, vale a dire la resa stilistica, la scelta di un registro adeguato, la naturalezza dell'espressione nella lingua di arrivo. Questi fattori, contrariamente a quanto possano

credere molti operatori del settore, concorrono ampiamente a determinare l'efficacia globale di un testo di informazione e promozione turistica e la loro trasposizione in un'altra lingua dovrebbe essere più che accorta e non improvvisata o affidata a traduttori dilettanti e inesperti (cfr. Lombardi 2001). È evidente che, se i criteri guida nella scelta delle figure e dei mezzi per la traduzione turistica continueranno a essere di tipo meramente economico (contenimento/riduzione dei costi) e non saranno ispirati da una visione della comunicazione turistica lungimirante e orientata al servizio (e al successo), continueremo senz'altro a imbatterci in testi mediocri e in *Übelsetzungen*.

Occorre precisare, a onor del vero, che il materiale informativo promozionale edito dagli enti del territorio bresciano è stato recentemente in buona parte aggiornato e migliorato sul piano della qualità redazionale e traduttiva e che molte delle schede informative oggi disponibili in lingua tedesca rappresentano validi esempi di traduzioni turistiche ben riuscite. Purtroppo, e questo sembrerebbe un problema trasversale a molte realtà italiane, la mancanza di una politica del turismo in grado di favorire il coordinamento e l'integrazione delle iniziative di promozione e comunicazione del territorio, anziché la frammentazione e la dispersione, fa sì che accanto ai buoni prodotti comunicativi (e quindi anche alle buone traduzioni), nei circuiti informativi delle organizzazioni turistiche continuino a circolare testi approssimativi e di mediocre qualità. Come ovviare a questa situazione?

2. Il progetto TouriTerm

Se tradurre *per il turismo* significa in sostanza tradurre *per il turista*, vale a dire saper attuare criteri di *localizzazione* e strategie di adattamento alle esigenze e aspettative dei nuovi destinatari, mediando l'alterità (linguistica e socio-culturale) codificata nel testo di partenza, è evidente che il traduttore (anche professionista) avrà bisogno di essere supportato nella scelta di mezzi espressivi idonei a realizzare gli intenti comunicativi dell'emittente. Ciò che occorre è uno strumento di consultazione orientato specificatamente a questo scopo, ossia finalizzato a soddisfare, in modo completo e accurato, i bisogni informativi del traduttore di testi turistici.

Il progetto *TouriTerm* intende realizzare una risorsa informativa, integrata, multimodale e facilmente aggiornabile contenente un'ampia gamma di informazioni e categorie di dati (anche iconografici) esportabili in diversi formati e immediatamente utilizzabili per la traduzione (o redazione) di testi turistici in lingua tedesca. La banca dati, supportata dal programma Multiterm di SDL Trados e attualmente accessibile online per i soli collaboratori al progetto,[5] consentirà di configurare e visualizzare i dati in modo funzionale alle proprie esigenze di consultazione. L'utente finale potrà così accedere a un vasto repertorio di schede contenenti informazioni di tipo:

5 http://mtsrv.trans.univie.ac.at:8080/multiterm/ (ultimo accesso 31.01.2011).

1. *concettuale/enciclopedico* (utili per disambiguare forme di omonimia e individuare potenziali equivalenti traduttivi o agevolare, nel caso di realia, la comprensione e la descrizione nella LA del referente extralinguistico in questione. Si pensi ad esempio alla denominazione *Rosa camuna* nella triplice accezione di petroglifo, simbolo ufficiale della Regione Lombardia o formaggio tipico della Valcamonica);
2. *linguistico* (di grande rilevanza per il traduttore sono le informazioni sull'uso lessicale e fraseologico, in particolar modo sulle combinazioni sintagmatiche, soprattutto aggettivali, su metafore lessicalizzate, espressioni stereotipate anche un po' usurate dalla frequenza che però rappresentano un tratto caratteristico dei testi turistici e la cui registrazione nei dizionari bilingui è spesso lacunosa. Ne sono un esempio espressioni come: *paesaggi di rara bellezza, borghi ricchi di storia, le tappe di un suggestivo viaggio alla scoperta di […], i monti e i boschi incontaminati, gli amanti della buona tavola, un'oasi di pace e relax,* ecc.);
3. *stilistico-testuale* (osservando i contesti d'uso di un termine o di un fraseologismo o intere porzioni di testo che ne illustrano le funzioni pragmatiche e retorico-stilistiche, il traduttore turistico ha accesso a modelli di testualizzazione e a convenzioni tipologico-testuali in uso nella LA a cui si può ispirare nel suo lavoro di *riscrittura* del testo per i nuovi destinatari).

I paragrafi che seguono illustreranno, sulla base di alcuni esempi di schede tratte dalla banca dati, le scelte metodologiche operate per l'inserimento e la rappresentazione delle tipologie di informazioni sopra descritte a supporto del processo traduttivo.

3. Genesi e fasi del lavoro

TouriTerm è il frutto di un progetto di cooperazione tra la Facoltà di Scienze linguistiche e letterature straniere dell'Università Cattolica (sede di Brescia) e il Zentrum für Translationswissenschaft dell'Università di Vienna. La cooperazione si fonda sulla condivisione delle competenze necessarie alla realizzazione della banca dati e sullo svolgimento in autonomia di distinte fasi del lavoro. Allo stato attuale, l'unità bresciana si è occupata di costruire il corpus fonte, composto da testi info-promozionali su Brescia e Provincia redatti e distribuiti dai quattro enti locali preposti alla promozione del territorio, unitamente ai testi presenti sui rispettivi siti web. A questa fase è seguita l'analisi del corpus secondo criteri di linguistica e semiotica testuale sull'esempio degli studi di Francesconi (2007), Santulli (2007), Nigro (2006) e Mason (2004). Oggetto di particolare attenzione è stata innanzitutto la componente lessicale e fraseologica, la gamma di atti linguistici e le relative modalità espressive, nonché la struttura testuale. Parallelamente, l'unità viennese ha predisposto l'architettura della banca dati, grazie alla quale si è proceduto alla compilazione, per ora solo sperimentale, delle prime schede terminologiche con materiale linguistico italiano. L'estrazione dei dati dal corpus è stata condotta manualmente e in parte con il supporto del programma Wordsmith Tools, ma a Vienna si sta lavorando alla messa a punto di un sistema semi-automatico di estrazione sulla base di criteri

di frequenza e di rilevanza tipologico-testuale. Sempre sul fronte viennese del progetto, è stata curata la realizzazione di un primo corpus comparabile in lingua tedesca, composto da testi a stampa su Vienna e il suo territorio, distribuiti gratuitamente nei punti di informazione turistica locale o disponibili al download su siti specializzati. La compilazione è avvenuta seguendo un criterio di affinità con il corpus fonte italiano sul piano delle tipologie testuali e soprattutto degli ambiti tematici rappresentati. Infine, l'unità bresciana si è occupata della costruzione di un secondo corpus comparabile di testi in lingua tedesca su destinazioni turistiche della Germania con caratteristiche simili a Brescia e Provincia. I due corpora comparabili, rappresentativi delle due varietà nazionali del tedesco, costituiranno la base di dati da cui verranno estratti gli equivalenti traduttivi da inserire nelle schede terminologiche.

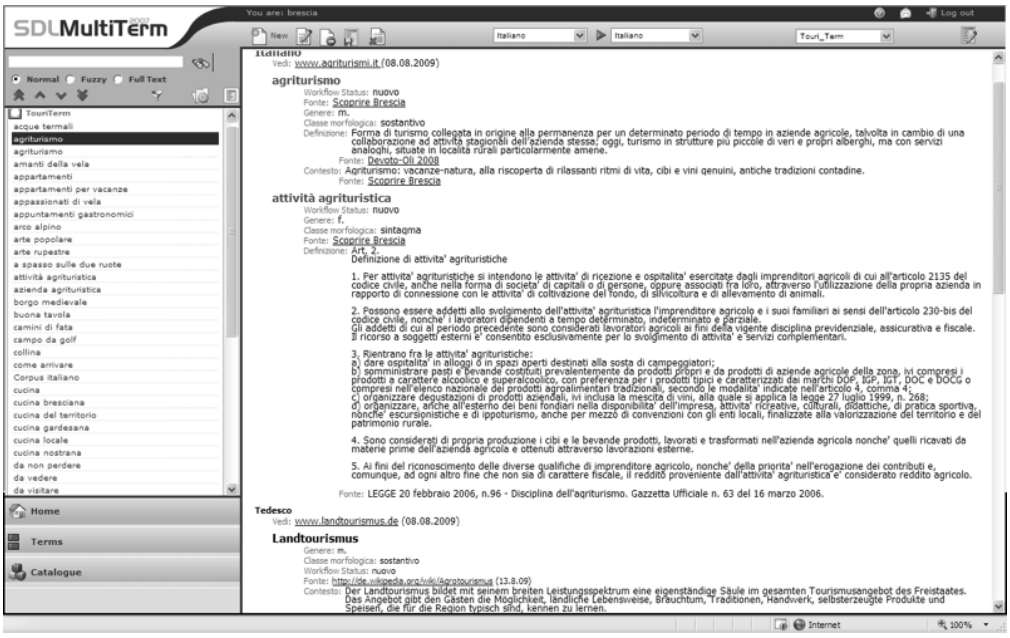
4. Uno sguardo in *TouriTerm*

In questa sezione saranno illustrati gli aspetti più salienti della banca dati sull'esempio di alcune schede approntate in via sperimentale. È importante sottolineare che, allo stato attuale dei lavori, non si è ancora proceduto all'estrazione degli equivalenti traduttivi dai corpora comparabili e al loro inserimento nelle rispettive schede. Gli esempi che verranno commentati sono stati costruiti ad hoc con finalità puramente dimostrative, per fornire una proiezione della versione finale dello strumento.

Un aspetto costitutivo della banca dati è quello di essere orientata al concetto, come esige il metodo onomasiologico utilizzato in terminologia. Tuttavia, le schede descrivono molto più di soli concetti. Non si limitano infatti a registrare informazioni terminologiche in senso stretto, ma rappresentano delle vere e proprie *unità di conoscenza* in cui sono condensate, come s'è detto, informazioni di tipo linguistico, stilistico-testuale, pragmatico-comunicativo, specialistico ed enciclopedico. Un esempio di questo orientamento è dato dalle schede relative al termine *agriturismo*. A questo termine fanno capo infatti due distinte unità concettuali: da un lato agriturismo inteso come filosofia o forma di vacanza che si svolge in strutture con particolari caratteristiche, a contatto con la natura, all'insegna di determinati valori ecc. (v. Figura 1), dall'altro, agriturismo nell'accezione di struttura ricettiva (v. Figura 2).

In entrambe le schede sono state inserite diverse possibilità di traduzione del termine, così come si prefigura sia possibile individuarle nei corpora comparabili, includendo anche le varietà nazionali del tedesco (qui de-DE, de-AT). Nel campo <Contesto>, invece, si sono messe a disposizione dell'utente ulteriori informazioni a supporto della traduzione, sotto forma di esempi d'uso tratti da testi autentici del settore. Si tratta di informazioni in genere non presenti negli strumenti lessicografici tradizionali, a cui il traduttore giungerebbe tramite ricerche documentarie in internet o tramite l'analisi di testi comparabili e che qui invece ottiene in un'unica soluzione, sulla base di un'accurata selezione operata a monte dai compilatori.

Come accennato al paragrafo 2, il linguaggio dell'informazione e della promozione turistica è caratterizzato da un marcato uso di unità lessicali comples-



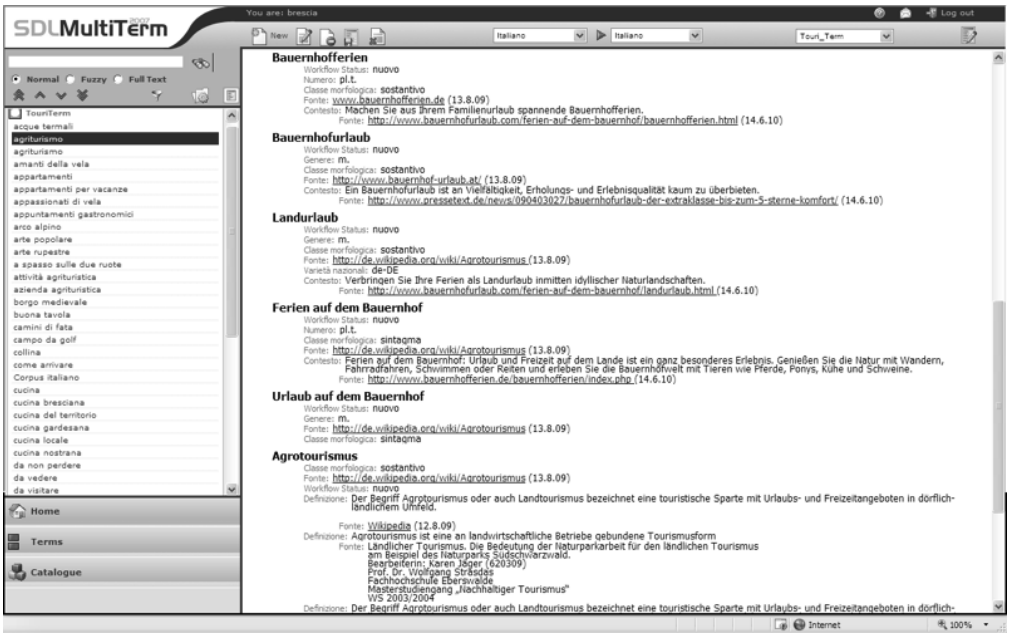


FIGURA 1. Scheda del termine *agriturismo* (accezione di forma/filosofia di vacanza)

se di diversa natura formale e semantico-funzionale, contraddistinte da una tendenza combinatoria più o meno fissa e spesso da un elevato grado di idiomaticità. In fase traduttiva, questa ricca componente fraseologica può rappresentare un notevole problema di resa, in quanto dipendente dalle convenzioni cultural-pragmatiche proprie di ciascuna lingua. Come illustrato in precedenza, nei testi turistici tradotti ci si imbatte frequentemente in soluzioni letterali e per nulla idiomatiche che compromettono la naturalezza e quindi la generale godibilità del testo. Al fine di ridurre al minimo tali inesattezze stilistiche, si è deciso di registrare nella banca dati *TouriTerm* non solo le unità lessicali complesse caratterizzate da un alto grado di coesione morfo-sintattica e idiomaticità (v. ad esempio *a spasso sulle due ruote*, *una terra tutta da scoprire*), ma anche quei raggruppamenti poliematici non ascrivibili alla categoria delle espressioni idiomatiche in senso stretto, che tuttavia per la loro pervasività e rilevanza pragmatico-stilistica rappresentano uno dei tratti più salienti della testualità nel turismo (es. dalla presentazione dell'offerta culinaria: *la tradizione gastronomica locale, cucina nostrana, i sapori della tradizione, gli amanti della buona tavola, i sentieri del gusto*). Per fornire indicazioni di tipo combinatorio, alla maschera di inserimento dati di ogni scheda sono stati aggiunti i campi <In combinazione con aggettivi>, <In combinazione con sostantivi>, <In combinazione con verbi>. Ne è un esempio la Figura 3, dove si mostra la scheda del termine *collina*. Nel corpus

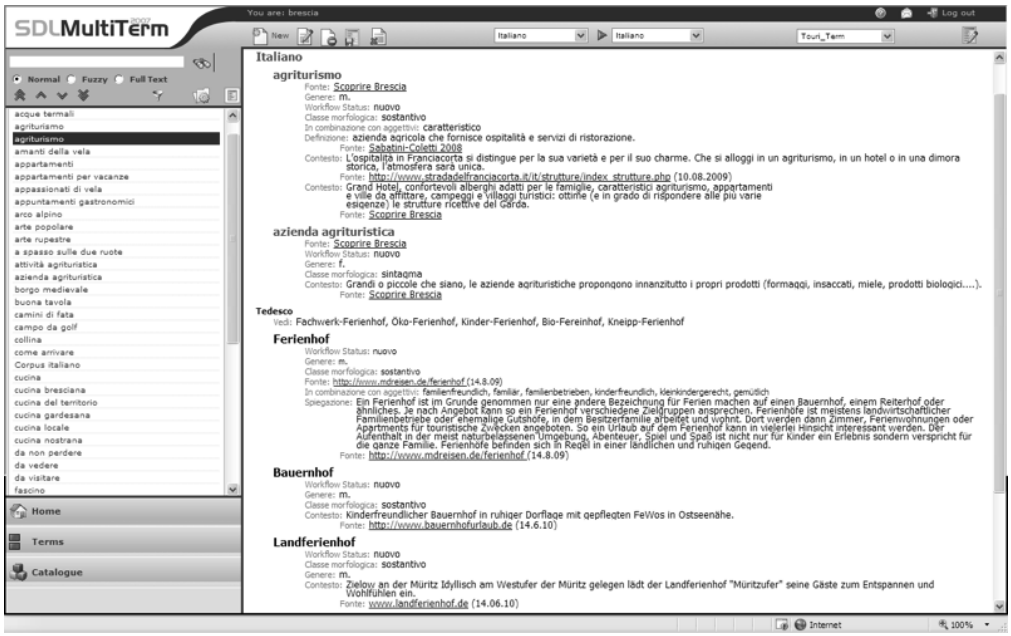


Figura 2. Scheda del termine *agriturismo* (accezione di struttura ricettiva)

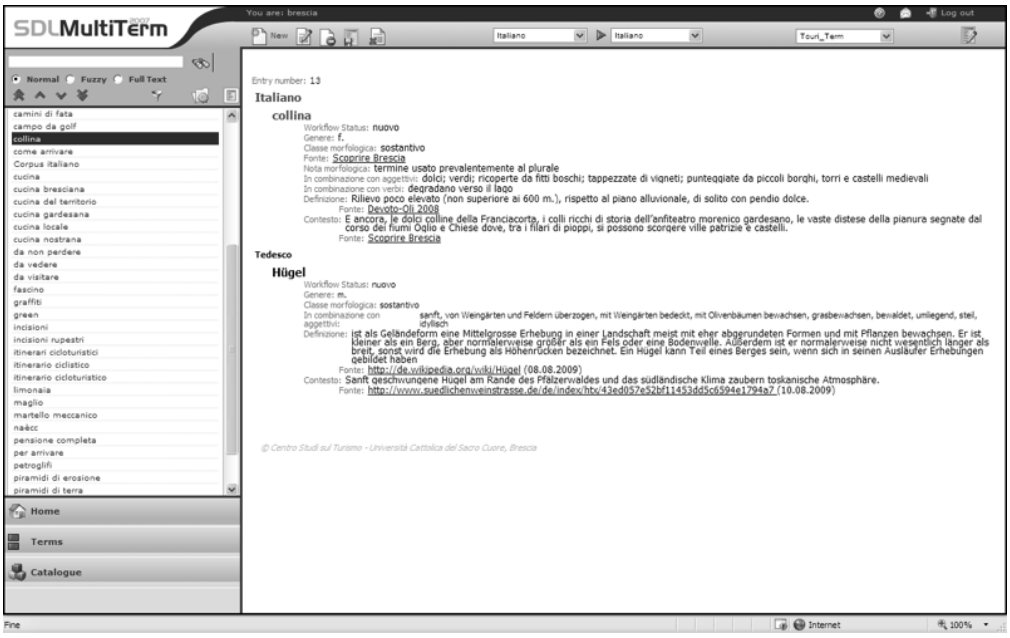


Figura 3. Scheda del termine *collina*

analizzato, questo termine ricorre con elevata frequenza nella combinazione *dolci colline*. A sua volta, il sintagma viene spesso post-modificato da aggettivi quali *ricoperte, tappezzate, punteggiate*, seguiti da un qualche elemento del paesaggio. Per quanto riguarda i verbi, questo termine si combina frequentemente con *degradare*, come nel costrutto *degradano dolcemente verso il lago*, in cui il verbo viene registrato nella sua forma flessa per mostrarne la struttura argomentale. Gli equivalenti funzionali di queste combinazioni ricorrenti vengono forniti nella parte tedesca della scheda in un ordine più possibile speculare a quello della parte italiana (v. Figura 3). In tal modo si intende suggerire al traduttore possibili corrispondenze supportandolo nella scelta di combinazioni equivalenti stilisticamente adeguate e attestate nel corpus comparabile di riferimento.

La banca dati è stata disegnata in modo tale da poter registrare altresì le informazioni di tipo stilistico-testuale che sono emerse dall'analisi condotta sul corpus italiano all'inizio del lavoro. In particolare, questo studio ha messo in evidenza una serie di unità testuali minime, una sorta di micro-testi che ricorrono con regolarità all'interno del corpus. Alcuni di questi sono ad esempio *cappello introduttivo, storia, itinerari, curiosità, box informativi*, e così via. Ognuno di essi svolge una precisa funzione comunicativa e presenta sia una struttura testuale che formule espressive che potremmo definire *prototipiche*. Per mettere a disposizione dell'utente questa tipologia di informazioni sono stati creati appositamente i campi <Nota d'uso> e <Collocazione nel testo>. Nel primo è possibile fornire indicazioni relative al contenuto e allo stile del micro-testo in questione, mentre

il secondo permette di rendere ancora più visibili l'architettura e le modalità espressive in uso, grazie alla possibilità di inserire un'immagine scansionata di un campione testuale estratto dal corpus. Ne è un esempio la scheda del costrutto *Da vedere*:

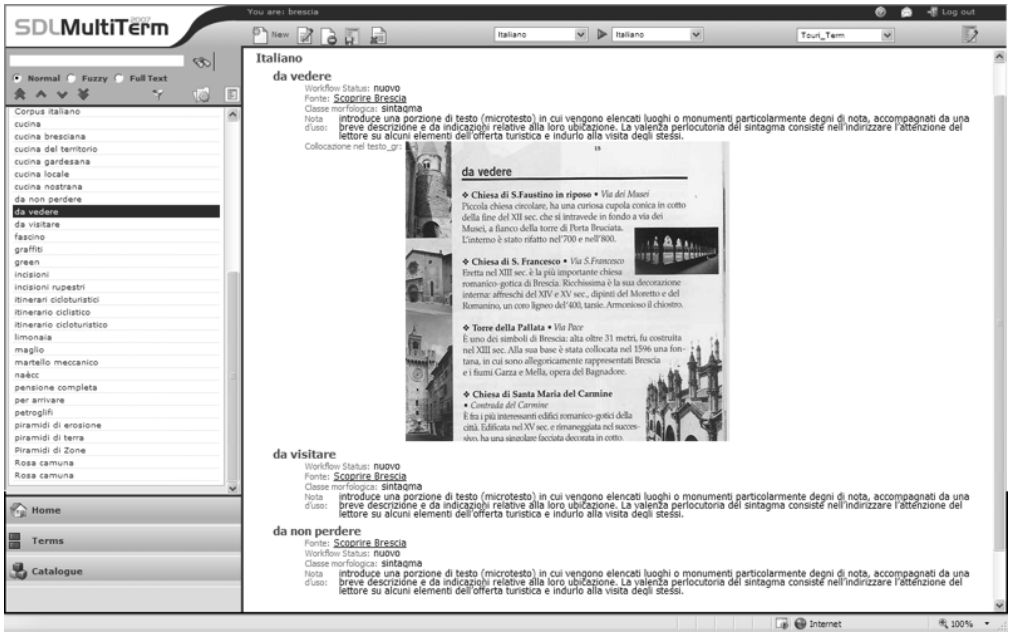


Figura 4. Scheda del costrutto *da vedere*

5. Prospettive future

Le fasi successive del progetto prevedono innanzitutto la messa a punto di un sistema semi-automatico di estrazione dei termini dai corpora comparabili, condizione che renderà possibile una sistematica compilazione delle schede terminologiche oltre l'attuale fase prevalentemente sperimentale e dimostrativa. In secondo luogo ci si propone di perfezionare il modello di inserimento dati, in modo particolare per quanto riguarda le informazioni di tipo fraseologico. Inoltre, si intende approfondire la catalogazione e l'analisi dei micro-testi e degli atti comunicativi prototipici del genere testuale in esame, individuando una modalità per rendere fruibili le informazioni ottenute all'interno delle schede terminologiche. Infine, non appena si sarà raggiunto un numero sufficiente di schede, si vuole individuare una modalità di interazione e di confronto con gli utenti prefigurati della banca dati (operatori turistici locali, redattori, traduttori e revisori di materiale info-promozionale in ambito turistico) per realizzare test di usabilità e di validazione dello strumento.

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Terminological equivalence in European, British and Italian criminal law texts: A case study on victims of crime

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Abstract

Since the entry into force of the Maastricht Treaty in 1993, cooperation in the fields of justice and home affairs has become a matter of high priority for all Member States of the European Union. This cooperation finds its concrete expression in a number of important legal instruments adopted by EU institutions, which are already, or are currently being, implemented in the Member States. EU legal instruments represent sources of law used to approximate the laws and regulations of the Member States. However, the EU's intervention in different legal subfields cannot prevent differences from being identified among the legal systems involved (EU's supranational and Member States' national legal systems). A terminological analysis of an English-Italian corpus of EU texts dealing with the legal subfield of the standing of victims in criminal proceedings and their rights allows the identification of differences in the Italian and British implementation strategies and in their way of conceptualising even relevant key elements such as "victim". This paper, which is part of an ongoing PhD research project, illustrates the main characteristics of bilingual legal terminology in a multi-judicial framework (conceptual asymmetries, different degrees of equivalence, synonymy and polysemy) and presents the current research work by showing a few examples of legal/cultural gaps, which necessarily need to be taken into account when translating or mediating between the two cultures/languages.

1. Introduction

EU legislation derives from legal systems already existing in the Member States and pertaining to Civil Law and Common Law, from which it has adopted and adapted a number of different concepts and principles. For this reason, it is to be considered a unique *sui generis* supranational legal system, with its own legal rules and sources, institutions and procedures for making, interpreting and enforcing EU rules. The set of common rights and obligations mutually binding the Member States within this hybrid system is known as *acquis communautaire*. The *acquis* is not limited to EU law in the strict sense, i.e. EU primary and secondary legislation and the case law of the European Court of Justice, but it also comprises the legal instruments associated with the former second and third pillar, which are governed by intergovernmental relations. Therefore, the *acquis* also includes what used to constitute the third pillar, i.e. Justice and Home Affairs, which has been called Police and Judicial Cooperation in Criminal Matters since 2003. With the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty and the subsequent abolition of the pillar structure in 2009, the provisions related to police and judicial cooperation in criminal matters – consisting in the cooperation between Member States' police forces, custom services and judicial authorities – have been dealt with in Title VI of the EU Treaty which, combined with Title IV of the EC Treaty, forms the legal basis for an area of freedom, security and justice. Within this area, police and judicial cooperation has two main aims: firstly, to ensure a high level of safety for EU citizens by preventing and combating racism, xenophobia and organised crime, and secondly, to achieve a sufficient degree of approximation of rules on criminal matters in the Member States and to develop mechanisms for the mutual recognition of judicial decisions in this legal field.

In order to promote multilingualism and to recognise parity among the EU official languages, in line with the equal authenticity principle governing the whole *acquis communautaire*, the provisions regarding police and judicial cooperation in criminal matters need to be expressed in all the EU official languages. As a consequence, the ideal situation which the EU multilingualism policy pursues is that of a single EU conceptual system designated (for the time being) by 23 different languages. However, given the assumption of the economy principle in language and bearing in mind the derivational nature of the EU legal system, it seems quite likely that the lexical items used to refer to concepts pertaining to the EU conceptual system cannot always be created afresh nor can they always be the result of a deliberate linguistic policy. The terminology used at EU level may actually be determined by usage or result from different naming strategies adopted both by drafters and translators. The linguistic and conceptual consequences of such a situation may vary: there may be either cases in which a term used to designate a concept within the national legal system of a specific Member State is also used to refer to a concept pertaining to the *acquis* or cases in which more than one term is used to designate the same concept even within the same conceptual structure.

With the aforesaid assumptions in mind, the aim of this research project is to explore the properties of terminological equivalence in a specific subfield of police and judicial cooperation in criminal matters, i.e. the standing of victims

of crime in the framework of criminal law and proceedings. Terminological equivalence is observed from a multilingual perspective by comparing the English and Italian versions of the relevant EU documents. On the grounds that EU legislation is implemented and enforced within the increasingly harmonised but not completely homogeneous Member States' domestic legislations, the terminological analysis also encompasses UK and Italian national documents on the same topic. It follows that two variants for each language will be scrutinised, i.e. the national and the EU variant.

2. Previous research work

The choice of terminological equivalence in (supra)national criminal law documents as a research topic followed the author's Master's thesis (Peruzzo 2007), which was a terminographical analysis of Italian and English texts on Europol and Police Cooperation in Europe. Aimed at populating the University of Trieste terminological databank TERMit, the study highlighted the need for clear-cut definitions in order to make the conceptual differences between the EU, Italian and British legal systems comprehensible to potential non-expert users. Such definitions necessarily called for both a deeper insight into intra- and interlingual conceptual equivalence issues and the identification of the degree of equivalence between individual terms. However, the study partly failed to pay due attention to the coexistence of a multilayered legal structure within the same territory, and consequently the resulting terminological records suffered from a lack of systematicity in presenting the data concerning equivalence issues. Nevertheless, the results yielded by the study provide some useful evidence of the difficulties in dealing with legal terminology. In the following subsections some concrete examples of the main results are presented under the following headings: conceptual mismatches and degrees of equivalence, synonymy and polysemy.

2.1 Conceptual mismatches

As Šarčević (1997: 232) pointed out, being "[t]he product of different institutions, history, culture, and sometimes socio-economic principles, each legal system has its own legal realia and thus its own conceptual system and even knowledge structure". For example, the Italian and the British classifications of offences clearly show that the conceptual differences between the two legal systems depend on the different discriminating factors considered. On the one hand, in Italy offences (*reati*) are distinguished into two main groups, *delitti* and *contravvenzioni*, according to the kind of punishment imposed in case of violation of the Italian Criminal Code. However, it is also possible to classify offences taking the right to legal action as a differentiating factor: in the case of the so-called *reati perseguibili d'ufficio*, legal action is undertaken as soon as the Italian judicial authority is informed that a crime has been committed, while for the *reati perseguibili a querela* the police is authorised to prosecute the offence only after the victim reports a crime. The classification of offences is totally different

in the British legal system, where they can firstly be divided according to the legal source they relate to, leading to a distinction between *common law offences* and *statutory offences*. Secondly, the action police or other authorised people can undertake when an offence has been witnessed makes it possible to distinguish between *arrestable* and *non-arrestable offences*. Finally, offences differ according to the kind of trial the accused is supposed to undergo: *summary offences* are dealt with by lower courts with no jury, while *indictable offences* are tried by a jury. However, in English law a third category of offences is possible, i.e. *triable-either-way offences*, where the accused has the right to choose between the two above-mentioned types of trial.

2.2 Degrees of equivalence

As can be seen from the examples provided, though the concept of *offence* within the British legal system can be considered equivalent to the concept of *reato* within the Italian system, the different way offences are classified in the two systems may lead to a terminological gap. When there are no lexical equivalents to designate a concept bound to a foreign legislation, the terminologist or translator necessarily examines the concept in order to bridge the terminological gap and assesses the degree of conceptual equivalence between the two systems in order to identify the most appropriate translation equivalent. Different scholars have addressed the issue of degrees of conceptual equivalence or, as Rogers (2008: 103) prefers to call it, "denotational equivalence". However, for the purposes of this article only authors dealing with this kind of equivalence in legal terminology specifically from a translational perspective are taken into account. Among them, Sandrini (1999: 102) distinguishes two types of equivalence. The first type, which the scholar calls "absolute or total equivalence", is given when "two legal concepts are identical with respect to all their conceptual features as well as their conceptual extension", but "is possible only if both concepts refer to the same legal system." Conversely, when two concepts pertain to different legal systems, "absolute equivalence is no longer possible" and the second type of equivalence applies, which Sandrini refers to as "partial, relative or near equivalence".

By failing to acknowledge other possible types of equivalence, Sandrini's distinction between absolute and partial equivalence seems somewhat unsatisfactory. Moreover, Šarčević (1997: 237-239) argues against the existence of absolute equivalence and the possibility of considering identical those SL and TL terms that share all the essential conceptual characteristics and a few of the accidental conceptual characteristics. Considering also Lane's choice of the term "identity" (1982: 224-225) "misleading since not all characteristics of the two concepts coincide" (Šarčević 1997: 238), in her classification she proposes near equivalence as the maximum degree of equivalence, which occurs in either cases of intersection, i.e. "when concepts A and B share all of their essential and most of their accidental characteristics", or inclusion, i.e. "when concept A contains all of the characteristics of concept B but concept B only most of the essential and some of the accidental characteristics of concept A" (Šarčević 1997: 238). In addition to near equivalence, Šarčević acknowledges two other types of

equivalence: non-equivalence and partial equivalence. Non-equivalence occurs when "only a few or none of the essential features of concepts A and B coincide" or "concept A contains all of the characteristics of concept B but concept B only a few or none of the essential features of concept A", but also "in cases where there is no functional equivalent in the target legal system for a particular source concept" (Šarčević 1997: 239). Partial equivalence occurs whenever neither near equivalence nor non-equivalence are the case: "the acceptability of a functional equivalent usually depends on context, thus requiring the translator to analyze each textual situation before deciding whether a functional equivalent is acceptable in that particular context" (Šarčević 1997: 241).

As can be seen from Šarčević's explanation of both non-equivalence and partial equivalence, the degree of equivalence depends on the acceptability of functional equivalents, i.e. terms "designating a concept or institution of the target legal system having the same function as a particular concept of the source legal system" (Šarčević 1989: 278-279). However, it should be noted that supranational law, and EU law in particular, differs from the situation to which Sandrini and Šarčević apply their classifications of equivalence. As a matter of fact, EU law is an individual supranational legal system with its own characteristics, which is expressed in all the Member States' "EU languages of the law" (Doczekalska 2007: 59) and implemented within all the Member States' national legal systems. Therefore, concepts pertaining to the EU legal system need to be ideally designated by totally equivalent terms and not by functional equivalents, since "[i]n the case of multilingual translation there is only one legal system in play – source text and target text refer to the same legal system" (Kjær 2007: 69). As for EU legal texts, for the sake of multilingualism EU instruments follow the "principle of absolute language equality" (Šarčević 2007: 36), also known as the "equal authenticity rule" (Cao 2007: 73), from which the "principle of equality of authentic texts" (Doczekalska 2007: 60) derives. According to the latter, every single language version is an original version and thus no single text should prevail in case of ambiguity or textual discrepancy. However, based on the fact that EU terminology originates in Member States' national terminology and all language versions are to be understood as originals rather than translations, absolute equivalence within EU terminology in many cases can be considered a legal fiction.

For the purposes of the terminographical analysis of documents on Europol and Police Cooperation in Europe, a simplified tripartite classification of equivalence, resulting from the combination of Sandrini's and Šarčević's categorisation, was adopted. The term *absolute equivalence* was used to refer to the relationship between terms designating concepts of an exclusive EU origin, i.e. which are not derived from national legal systems, such as *EUROPOL*, where the referent designated by the term is univocal and unambiguous. The second degree of equivalence was subsumed under the umbrella term *partial equivalence*: the terms falling into this category are terms already existing in Member States' national legal systems which, when used in EU texts, have undergone a semantic shift or a broadening/narrowing of their meaning. These terms are usually used to refer to legal concepts that "are generally lacking the deep level structure of meaning otherwise characteristic of legal semantics" (Kjær 2007: 81), and their

meaning is therefore fuzzier than that of their homonyms in the national context. For example, in the EU context the Italian term *polizia scientifica* is almost exclusively used to refer to the activity carried out by the forensic police department rather than to the department itself, while in the Italian national context the term is polysemous and may convey both meanings. In the terminographical analysis of the Italian and British national legal systems, partial equivalence was also applied to describe the relationship between terms specific to the two systems. In the case of *polizia scientifica* and *scientific support department*, the two concepts may be said to share all the essential features, as both departments fulfil the same function, encompassing a variety of similar services to support the police forces during investigations. Nevertheless, their internal and external structure is completely different, making them only partially equivalent. The last type of equivalence encountered in the terminographical analysis of national law texts was *non-equivalence*. For example, while the Italian term *querela* is also used within the EU legal system, its meaning within the Italian system is more specific and refers to a report made by crime victims to law enforcement authorities enabling them to take legal action, which would otherwise be impossible because of the specific nature of the offence the victims suffered from. At the European level, the Italian term *querela* is translated by different terms, such as *report*, *complaint* or *accusation*, which, owing to the lack of an identical concept in the British legal system, are generally followed by a specification that these legal actions are filed by the victims themselves.

2.3 Synonymy

The last example introduces another linguistic phenomenon highlighted by the terminographical analysis of texts on Europol and Police cooperation in Europe, i.e. synonymy, which in the ISO standard 1087 is defined as "the relation between or among terms in a given language representing the same concept" (ISO 1087 2000: 8). However, in the case of the English translation of *querela*, the existence of synonyms – as opposed to only one correspondent – within the EU corpus is due to the lack of an absolutely equivalent concept and thus of an established term to designate it, which leads to the production of new terminology in the form of paraphrases. Going back to the example used to illustrate absolute equivalence, the term *Europol* can also be used to illustrate synonymy within EU criminal law texts, as the analysis has shown that there are two different English lexical units to refer to the same concept, i.e. *Europol* (with its graphic variant *EUROPOL*) and its extended/descriptive form *European Police Office*. Nevertheless, it needs to be said that synonymy is itself a matter of degree, and that total synonyms are rare compared to quasi-synonyms, i.e. synonyms which can substitute the main term only under certain circumstances (ISO 1087 2000: 8). For example, whilst both in EU and British texts the person against whom a crime has been committed is designated by the term *victim*, in EU texts it is also possible to find the Civil-law driven synonym *person subjected to the offence*, which is obviously appropriate only to EU contexts as it does not conform to British legal language.

2.4 Polysemy

Another linguistic phenomenon highlighted by the terminological analysis is polysemy. In legal translation theory, the interdependence of law vis-à-vis language and culture is generally given considerable attention, with the major cause of translation problems being attributed precisely to such an interdependence (see, for example, Cao 2007: 28; Gémar 2006: 71-74; Gotti 2007: 22). As EU law is a "system of incoherent legal rules and principles developing into a more coherent legal system" (Kjær 2007: 70) and it allegedly disregards the discrepancies between the legal systems involved, the translation of EU law does not receive sufficient recognition in this respect. However, the very fact that EU law is drafted drawing inspiration from both domestic and international law means that EU texts are constantly contaminated by domestic and international terminology, "a fact which makes translation in the EU particularly complicated" (Kjær 2007: 70): as Tabory envisaged decades ago, "[t]he probability of confusion, errors and discrepancies is multiplied in direct proportion to the number of authentic texts" (Tabory 1980: 146). This is why Guideline 5 of the *Joint Practical Guide of the European Parliament, the Council and the Commission for persons involved in the drafting of legislation within the Community institutions*[1] (2003) suggests that "concepts or terminology specific to any one national legal system are to be used with care". The same remark can be found in Kjær, who claims:

> Both the source text and the target text refer *per definitionem* to the concepts of the EU legal system, and must be understood independently from any national legal system. Therefore, the translators should avoid as much as they possibly can using terminology which is rooted in the national laws of the Member States (Kjær 2007: 83).

Notwithstanding such warnings, the terminological analysis carried out in the Europol and police cooperation subdomain found some instances where Guideline 5 was not fully followed. For instance, a few terms that have reasonably clear-cut meanings in their national legal domains have been attributed (partially) different meanings in the EU context, such as in the case of the British term *police authority*. This term in England and Wales refers to committees with no right to exercise operational or managerial control, responsible for maintaining adequate and efficient police forces and, in county forces, for appointing chief constables. Vice versa, in EU law the same term is used to designate the authorities responsible for maintaining law and order and enforcing the law, i.e. the term may be considered synonymous with *police force*.

3. Current research work

Building on the results provided by the terminographical analysis in the Europol and police cooperation subdomain, the ongoing PhD research project aims at emphasizing the particular complexity of EU multilingual translation and, in so doing, addressing the silence of translation studies on "accounting

1 Available at http://eur-lex.europa.eu/en/techleg/pdf/en.pdf.

theoretically for the special features and difficulties of translating EU law" (Kjær 2007: 69). More specifically, the project focuses on a different EU criminal law subdomain which has been given increasing attention since the entry into force of the Council Framework Decision of 15 March 2001 on the standing of victims in criminal proceedings, i.e. the position of crime victims in the framework of criminal law and procedure. The aim of the project is to try and answer three key research questions, which are presented in the following three subsections.

3.1 Research Question 1: Do differences in European and national conceptual systems also apply to other sub-fields of criminal law and procedure?

Given the evidence that in the Europol and police cooperation subfield the EU system and national conceptual systems differ and that such conceptual discrepancies result in different linguistic phenomena such as synonymy and polysemy, the PhD project aims at verifying the presence of analogous conceptual mismatches with terminological implications in the subdomain of the position of victims in the framework of criminal law and procedure. In order to do so, two different corpora have been built: a bilingual parallel corpus containing Italian and English aligned versions of the same EU victim-related documents, and a bilingual comparable corpus of Italian and UK national victim-related texts. Semi-automatic term mining is applied to the parallel corpus and the extracted term candidates are then validated manually. The so-obtained terminological data are then compared to the properties of key terms extracted from the comparable corpus and used to compile terminographic entries that will populate the TERMit terminological database. The commonalities and differences between national and supranational conceptual systems are then examined.

The study conducted so far has confirmed this first research question, as can be seen from the following example concerning the term *victim*. As already illustrated in Section 2.2, absolute equivalence in the legal domain can only be found within an individual conceptual system. This is the case of the English term *victim* and the Italian term *vittima* within the EU legal system, in which the two terms designate the same concept and hence can be considered absolute equivalents. However, the term *victim* can also be an example of partial equivalence. From a comparison between the definition provided by the *Council Framework Decision 2001/220/JHA*[2] and the definition in the *Victims' Code of Practice*,[3] it becomes apparent that the meaning of the EU term is only similar – i.e. not identical – to the meaning of *victim* in the Code of Practice. Whilst the violation of a Member State's criminal law is a requisite for a conduct to be considered as a crime within the EU law, the Code of Practice requires the offence to be qualified as such according to the National Crime Recording Standard, thus

2 Available at http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2001:082:0001:0004:EN:PDF.

3 Available at http://www.direct.gov.uk/prod_consum_dg/groups/dg_digitalassets/@dg/@en/documents/digitalasset/dg_073647.pdf.

narrowing the concept of *victim* only to a person subjected to criminal conduct under the national law. By its very nature, the EU tries to find a compromise between all Member States' legal systems in order to make the adoption and implementation of the *acquis communautaire* an easier process. It therefore tends towards providing its system-specific terms with meanings which are broad enough to include Member States' specific concepts.

3.2 Research Question 2: How can criminal law terminology be represented?

As "[t]he discipline of terminology is widening its scope towards knowledge representation and knowledge management" (Temmerman & Kerremans 2003: 1), due to its interdisciplinarity and to the need to store conceptual as well as linguistic data in a single repository, traditional terminological collections, although in electronic format, are increasingly deemed unsuitable to fulfil their task. The reasons are to be found in their generally reduced storage capacity and/or lack of a sufficiently flexible structure to comprise all the information needed by the end users. Therefore, since the early 1990s term bases have started evolving into the so-called *terminological knowledge bases* (see, for example, Meyer *et al.* 1992: 956; Faber 2009: 119), which are nowadays also referred to as *ontologies* (see, for example, Temmerman & Kerremans 2003: 3), whose main data are of both a linguistic and conceptual nature. The specific form of a repository should always depend, among other factors, on the complexity of the conceptual structure and the domain, and should always be conceived bearing in mind the needs of its actual end-user. What is interesting about the choice of the term *ontology* to designate terminological repositories is that, although there probably are as many definitions of "ontology" as there are authors studying it, a key element of all ontologies is a structure that allows for the implicit specifications of a conceptualisation to be made explicit. As Temmerman and Kerremans (2003: 3) put it, an ontology is "a knowledge repository in which categories (terms) are defined as well as relationships between these categories". Consequently, a need that should be satisfied by terminological databases – no matter how they are called – is the explicit specification of the relationships between the concepts stored in them, a point which is confirmed by Faber *et al.* (2006: 191): "[t]he specification of the conceptual structure of specialized domains is a crucial aspect of terminology management". What the research project aims to investigate in this respect are the benefits that terminology management in the law domain can expect from the application of an ontology-based approach and the advantages that a cross-fertilisation between ontology and terminology (Temmerman & Kerremans 2003: 3-4) may bring to language professionals.

3.3 Research Question 3: How do terms behave in context?

The answers to both the first and the second research questions are tightly linked to the last question, which is concerned with the actual behaviour of terms in context. In the past, the prevailing idea was that terms "bring their

context with them" (Newmark 1988: 194) and that they are labels used for naming concepts pertaining to a language- and culture-independent system. However, as we have seen in Section 2, different linguistic phenomena affect LSPs, and are even more prominent in legal language. Also in the limited area of interest of the third research question, i.e. the multilingual translation process within the EU, the validity of Sandrini's statement is unquestionable:

> [m]uch of the responsibility for the textual equivalent rests with the translator who is the only one able to judge the particular communicative situation, to assess the role of the target text and the overall aim of his translation effort (Sandrini 1999: 102).

This means that, even when translators are provided with tools to support their translation activity – e.g. terminological databases and translation memories – as is the case of EU translators, it is their responsibility to carefully evaluate each individual case and select the most appropriate translation solution. This is why the last phase of the study focuses on textual equivalence rather than on conceptual equivalence, i.e. the way equivalence is reached at both the inter- and intratextual levels in equally authentic EU texts. The analysis therefore implies a comparison of different terminological units in order to ascertain whether there is any variation within EU texts. The result of a preliminary study confirms that variation is to be considered a feature of EU terminology. An example is represented by the Italian designations for the concept *state compensation to crime victims* in the *Green Paper on Compensation to Crime Victims*.[4] While in the English version of the text the term occurs ten times with no modification, in the Italian version as many as five different variants can be found, namely *risarcimento da parte dello Stato alle vittime di reati*, *risarcimento da parte dello Stato delle vittime di reati*, *risarcimento statale delle vittime di reati*, *risarcimento da parte dello Stato alle vittime di reato* and *risarcimento delle vittime di reati da parte dello Stato*.

4. Conclusion

Based on the results of the previous research work on the EU criminal law subfield of Europol and police cooperation in Europe, a terminological analysis of EU, Italian and British victim-related texts is being carried out in order to gain insight into the difficulties encountered by terminologists and translators with regard to conceptual and textual equivalence. The present paper shows the results of the earliest phase of the PhD research project, consisting in the terminological analysis of EU, Italian and British victim-related texts. These results are twofold. Firstly, linguistic and conceptual phenomena such as synonymy and conceptual mismatches are frequently found also in the terminology of a "semi-controlled" language. Secondly, the fact that terms in context behave differently from what was generally recommended by traditional terminology theories leads to the search for an appropriate form of representation of terminological and (con)textual data.

4 Available at http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2001:0536:FIN:EN:PDF.

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Recensioni
Book reviews

Isabel García Izquierdo (2012), *Competencia textual para la traducción*, Valencia, Tirant Humanidades (Col. "Prosopopeya"), ISBN 9788415442325, 173 pp.[1]

Nel panorama degli studi traduttologici in Spagna, Isabel García Izquierdo occupa un posto di rilievo. L'autrice è docente di "Linguistica applicata alla traduzione" presso l'Universitat Jaume I di Castellón de la Plana e tra i suoi saggi si annoverano varie monografie dedicate al tema, come *Los estudios de traducción. Un reto didáctico* (Universitat Jaume I, 1998), *Contraste lingüístico y traducción. La traducción de los géneros textuales* (Revista LINX-Universitat de València, 1999), *Análisis textual aplicado a la traducción* (Tirant lo Blanch, 2000) o la recente edizione del volume *Iberian Studies on Translation and Interpreting* (con Esther Monzó Nebot, Peter Lang, 2012). Una delle linee di ricerca preminenti di García Izquierdo è lo studio del genere testuale come strumento utile per la traduzione, un ambito al quale sono legate le attività del GENTT (*Géneros Textuales para la Traducción*, www.gentt.uji.es), un gruppo di ricerca fondato nel 2000, diretto dalla stessa García Izquierdo. Il GENTT lavora fin dalla sua nascita alla creazione di un'enciclopedia elettronica multilingue dedicata ai testi specializzati per la traduzione. Il gruppo ha sede nel Departamento de Traducción y Comunicación dell'ateneo di Castellón e collabora attivamente con un nutrito numero di organismi ed

[1] Di questo libro esiste un'edizione precedente: Valencia, Tirant lo Blanch, 2011.

enti di ricerca. Nelle attività del GENTT è centrale la nozione di genere testuale nel campo della traduzione, in particolare della traduzione specializzata (giuridica, tecnica e medica); per genere si intende una forma di testo con caratteristiche sia linguistiche, sia sociali e contestuali, che riveste una funzione specifica nella cultura in cui si origina e che è codificato così che per il destinatario del testo la finalità dell'enunciato risulta prevedibile.

L'approccio che mette in relazione genere testuale e traduzione emerge proprio nel libro *Competencia textual para la traducción*: si mette in rilievo, infatti, come il genere sia una categoria fondamentale per un'efficace sviluppo di varie subcompetenze[2] appartenenti alla cosiddetta "competenza traduttiva", l'oggetto di analisi di molteplici saggi di ambito traduttologico[3]. Non a caso, proprio la "competenza" è – come spiega García Izquierdo – uno degli aspetti in cui i percorsi formativi per traduttori si sono adeguati più precocemente e facilmente di altri ambiti di studio alle istanze e ai criteri fissati per il SEIS (Spazio Europeo dell'Istruzione Superiore) dalla Dichiarazione di Bologna, firmata nel 1999, tra i cui capisaldi figurano obiettivi come l'istituzione del sistema di crediti ECTS, la divisione del sistema universitario in tre cicli, l'incentivazione della mobilità per gli studenti, il sistema dell'apprendimento permanente – grazie al quale si incoraggia la formazione continua anche oltre il normale conseguimento di un titolo universitario –, il monitoraggio della qualità dell'insegnamento. Nel SEIS è centrale il già menzionato concetto di competenza, che prescinde dal mero apprendimento mnemonico e comprende, invece, oltre al *sapere*, anche il *saper fare*, il *saper realizzare*, nonché, come rimarca García Izquierdo, il *saper essere*, dato che "Europa necesita ciudadanos formados en conocimientos y en valores" (p. 24). Per competenza si intende quindi un sistema articolato di conoscenze e abilità. Ogni percorso di studi avrà tra i propri obiettivi l'acquisizione di varie tipologie di competenze, alcune generali e altre specifiche, sia disciplinari, sia professionali; queste ultime, nell'ambito della traduzione, includono le capacità e gli strumenti per tradurre testi specializzati.

Secondo l'approccio di García Izquierdo, per coltivare le capacità necessarie per l'acquisizione della competenza traduttiva è fondamentale un'efficace analisi testuale che parta dal concetto di genere, visto da un molteplice punto di vista: cognitivo, formale e comunicativo. Il libro in questione offre quindi una ricca serie di attività didattiche volte al conseguimento di abilità concernenti vari

[2] Con questo termine si intendono le componenti nelle quali si articola una competenza, secondo una concezione olistica: la competenza in un determinato ambito, quindi, non corrisponde alla mera somma delle abilità che la integrano. Per quanto riguarda l'insieme di capacità e conoscenze del traduttore, subcompetenze sono, per citare qualche esempio, quella bilingue, quella culturale (relativa alle conoscenze di tipo enciclopedico) o quella extralinguistica.

[3] Come, ad esempio, G. Corpas Pastor, "La competencia traductora. A propósito del texto médico especializado", in *Traducción y nuevas tecnologías. Herramientas auxiliares del traductor*, ed. de C. Valero Garcés & I. de la Cruz Cabanillas, Alcalá de Henares, Universidad de Alcalá-Servicio de publicaciones, 2001, pp. 27-46 e A. Hurtado Albir, "Competence-based Curriculum Design for Training Translators", *The Interpreter and Translator Trainer*, 1 (2), 2007, pp. 163-195.

aspetti dell'analisi testuale, da sviluppare nella maggior parte dei casi su materiali accuratamente raccolti dall'autrice, anche se non mancano esercitazioni in cui si invita lo studente a selezionare e proporre dei testi adeguati. Alla fine del libro, infine, García Izquierdo offre degli esempi di analisi preliminare alla traduzione, utilizzando testi appartenenti a generi diversi.

Competencia textual para la traducción non è un manuale per il traduttore, quanto piuttosto uno strumento di supporto alla didattica delle discipline universitarie legate alla Linguistica applicata alla traduzione, un'area scientifica nella quale García Izquierdo è specialista e che è la materia grazie alla quale si possono analizzare i testi da tradurre non solo secondo le loro peculiarità linguistiche, ma anche tenendo in considerazione quelle legate alle condizioni del contesto; l'analisi portata a termine mediante questa branca della Linguistica costituisce un momento necessario alla traduzione del testo che ci troviamo davanti. Infatti, come auspica l'autrice, il libro in questione è "una guía útil para el análisis de textos/traducciones desde una perspectiva lingüístico-comunicativa" (p. 13).

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Their Truths Live On

Remembering Eugene Nida (1914-2011) and Peter Newmark (1916-2011)

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The world of translation suffered two major losses in 2011 – losses that filtered through only very gradually as academia enjoyed its summer recess. The sad news that our two universally recognized fathers of modern translation were no longer with us after half a century's front-line leadership left a gaping hole in our collective ranks, not to mention general feelings of sorrow as we mourned their passing. Nida's and Newmark's longevity was not merely a question of years, but of intense academic, intellectual and cultural activity, right up to the very end. They made few, if any, concessions to the ageing process and, when the time came, their departure from this world was as discreet and gentlemanly as all of us would have expected from the two elders of our profession.

The true impact of our loss came in the months of September and October with our return to classes, with the obituaries that had been late in appearing, almost as if in a sign of disbelief. Then there were the memorials too, bringing hundreds of us together not only in a moment of shared bereavement, but also and most importantly as a celebration of their lives and work. You cannot think of any more illustrious names in today's profession deserving of such celebration.

These two names, Nida and Newmark (which fittingly even alliterate), are virtually inseparable in academic circles, so frequent is the collocation in the classroom and in publications too. One student, I recall, thought they always worked together as a team, the parallels in their lives being constant and at times quite striking. They were born within eighteen months of each other, Nida in Oklahoma City at the end of 1914, Newmark shortly afterwards in Brno,

now in the Czech Republic, where his father had served as a British diplomat. At university, they both studied languages, Nida Classical Greek and Latin at UCLA, while Newmark read Modern Languages at Cambridge. Both started writing on translation and translation theory in the 1960s and both were nonagenarians when they died, but here really the similarities end.

In actual fact, they were like chalk and cheese – as different as an American Baptist minister and a radical English eccentric ever could be. Gene, as Nida liked to be called, was more specifically involved in linguistic and semantic research, being greatly influenced by Noam Chomsky and his theories on deep and surface structures. It is sometimes forgotten that Gene's work in semantics is every bit as important as his contribution to the science of translation, as he liked to call it – especially his opus magnum, the superlative *Componential Analysis of Meaning* (1975a).

Peter, on the other hand, was more of a pragmatist, a born educator, strongly influenced by the work of the two French linguists, Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet. Nida, an ordained Baptist minister, was writing on aspects of linguistics as early as the 1950s. A good deal of this was based on his practical experience as a Bible translator, whereas Peter's articles, later collected together and published as *Approaches to Translation* (1980), were based much more on his classroom experience which, he claimed, kept his feet firmly planted on the ground. Anyone who ever studied with the great man knows how much of himself he would give to his students and how much he, in turn, was adored by them.

Throughout his life, Peter felt particular repugnance towards the abstractions, ostentations and vagaries of the Ivory Tower, as he expounds in no uncertain terms in his article *The curse of dogma in Translation Studies* (1991a). He always maintained that it was thanks to his students that he was prevented from being abstract and from losing touch with reality. As a teacher, I too have always tried to be as practical as possible, emulating in particular one of Peter's pet obsessions – his insistence on being able to support theoretical claims with practical examples. We would frequently hear him say "Examples please. Always give an example and don't say anything unless you can!"

Outside of their scholarship, the two men, with seemingly boundless energy, were highly active in their chosen professions. For forty years, Gene worked for the prestigious American Bible Society and, as Head of their translation programme, he would "traverse the globe by plane, train and canoe" (Fox 2011), coordinating the publication of the Good Word in hundreds of different indigenous languages. It was this experience of a source text set in the Middle East having to be translated for a target readership of say Inuit communities who only had experience of ice and snow, or for Peruvian natives in their rain forests, that lay the foundations for his much acclaimed theory of dynamic (functional) equivalence.

This method that Gene refers to early on in his biography as "faithful adaptation" (Stine 2004: 76) becomes ever more apparent with his Bible translation work into English and his editorial assistance in the publication of *The Contem-*

porary English Version, *The New International Version*, and *The New Jerusalem Bible*, but nowhere more so than the controversial and much criticized *Good News Bible*. In this "plain English" version of the Holy Scriptures, there is not a 'thou', a 'sayeth' or a 'begat' to be found and even something as straightforward as "behold the fowls of the air" quite simply becomes "look at the birds flying around". It is of little wonder that this approach to a message should appeal so much to modern readers and particularly to younger people, not to mention our interpreting community more or less as a whole.

Peter Newmark was not without his own faith – of course not strictly religious, but nonetheless totally serious and moral. He had been greatly influenced by Sean O'Casey while at Cambridge and his meeting with the great Irish dramatist was later to shape much of Peter's own activism regarding politics, peace, ecology, equality and human rights. Indeed, in his obituary in "The Guardian" newspaper, Tony Bell (2011), Chair of the Council of the Institute of Linguists, writes a most telling caption under Peter's photograph about how, when working as an interpreter for the negotiation of a peaceful surrender at the end of the war, this eccentric and improbable British soldier would spend much of his free-time reading poetry in the company of German officers.

At the end of the war, Peter went straight into teaching, first in schools, then Guildford Technical College and finally, in 1958, as Head of Modern Languages at Holborn College, later to become the Polytechnic of Central London, now Westminster University. The School of Languages of the Polytechnic created a chair for Peter in 1974, thus introducing the first ever university course in the UK in literary and non-literary translation and translation theory. Over the years and especially under his deanship, the School deservedly gained a reputation as being one of the most prestigious schools for translation and conference interpreting in the world.

Upon his official retirement in 1981, Peter actually increased his work load, both in terms of his scholarly output and as a lecturer, becoming a Visiting Professor, first at the University of Bradford and then the University of Surrey. In 1995, the "Trieste connection" was also officially recognised by Giacomo Borruso (2009: 141), the then Vice Chancellor, with a *laurea honoris causa* at the School for Interpreters and Translators in Trieste, the city Peter jokingly claimed to have liberated single-handedly. Newmark actually collaborated with us actively in those early days and it is no exaggeration to say that he was instrumental in helping the School develop into the fully-fledged university faculty that it is today – the first of its kind in Italy.

As far as translation studies are concerned, Eugene Nida's heyday was certainly in the 1960s and 70s with the publication of his three major works: *Toward a Science of Translating* (1964), *The Theory and Practice of Translation* (1974) with Charles Taber and *Language Structure and Translation* (1975b). After this period, the American linguist was to devote most of his time to working for the American Bible Society, although, at the turn of the millennium, Gene produced two further works on translation for John Benjamins, the first a general text-

book on the subject called *Contexts in Translating* (2001), the second, *Fascinated by Languages* (2003), specifically on the very diverse problems of Bible translation.

Newmark's heyday, on the other hand, seems almost to fill the gap left in the eighties and nineties when Gene was concentrating on his religious mission. It makes one begin to realise perhaps that rather than talking about the similarities and differences of the two scholars, it would be more appropriate to talk of their complementarity. After the publication in 1980 of his previous papers and articles in *Approaches to Translation*, translated into Italian by one of our former students (Newmark 1988a), Peter followed it with the immensely popular *Textbook of Translation* (1988b) that for decades was considered a must-read for would-be translators. In 1991, he followed *Textbook* with a general discussion of the wider issues involved in translation called *About Translation.*

Peter, over the years, had also been an indispensable contributor to the success of "The Journal of Specialized Translation" and "The Linguist", serving on their respective boards and councils, as well as being a regular contributor to the journals. From 1989 on, every two months, he published his thoughts on translation problems in his *Paragraphs on Translation* for "The Linguist". These were then gathered together and published by Multilingual Matters in book form (1993, 1998) and are a treasure trove of good advice for translators and students, as well as an insight into the personality of the man through his very personal, almost stream-of-consciousness writing, not in the least bit devoid of Newmarkisms, contradictions, changes of heart and even apologies.

The complementarity of these two men's work is certainly casual, both temporally as well as in terms of their proposed methodologies, one more orientated towards freedom and adaptation, the other more towards literalism and respect for the original author and his/her form of expression. Clearly, they were not a team – their approaches and indeed their *materia prima* being unmistakably dissimilar. But they were not rivals either, as if they could somehow intuit that together they created a whole or completed a circle.

Their respect for each other too was wholehearted. Nida had no hesitation whatever in honouring Newmark by writing his personal commendation in his "Foreword" to Peter's first book, *Approaches to Translation* (1980: vii), with an abundance of laudatory adjectives like *important, highly useful, well-illustrated, detailed, relevant, valuable, insightful* and of course *practical*. Peter, for his part, returned the compliment whenever he could, for he sincerely believed that Nida had laid the foundation for virtually every aspect of the translation process and had dealt with *almost every translation problem* (1980: 9) imaginable.

Having known both of them, I am occasionally asked to read between the lines of their respective curricula and describe what the two men were actually like. Having been his student for several years, I obviously knew Peter more than I knew Gene, but I think it is unanimously agreed that Nida was a gentleman in every sense, especially that of being a "gentle man". On the numerous occasions we met, I never saw him upset, or raise his voice or make the slightest aspersion against anyone. The only time I ever saw him put out about some-

thing was when he last visited Trieste and, while with us, he suffered a recurring bout of malaria that he had picked up years earlier in Africa. His understandable distress, though, was not in any way over his ill-health which, he said, he had learnt to cope with years earlier, but the fact he could not keep his word and join us for dinner. Gene was one of the most agreeable colleagues I have ever had the pleasure to work with and what I remember particularly is how easy he made it for everyone to like him.

Peter, on the other hand was not easy – by any stretch of the imagination. Not that he was not a gentleman – he was. And an extremely caring sensitive gentleman at that. But he could be over-sensitive and insecure at times, which often made him seem grumpy or even aggressive to those who did not know him well. Even here, their personalities seem complementary. I like to think of the two as the diplomat and the soldier, both necessary, both with a common goal. Peter, the soldier, would go on the offensive at the drop of a hat. Little wonder is it that he so often refers to translation as a weapon! I remember the soldier on one of his visits to Trieste charging off to the Town Hall to admonish the mayor for not having the names and titles of exhibits translated into English in the city's museums and art galleries. You can imagine the face of the mayor when assailed by such an irresistible force! The Mayor fortunately was not an immovable object, as in the song, with the result that we have had translations in our museums ever since.

Many people, of course, will remind you of the in-fighting that occurred between Peter and other academics and translators. Being a somewhat insecure man, if attacked he would often lash out – and often apologize afterwards. He never lacked the courage to admit to being wrong. Even with his friends. I invited him to lunch once – on the spur of the moment, I admit – but I was snapped at for not giving him enough notice. "Couldn't you have asked me earlier", he growled. Then, his superego would kick in. "Oh. Sorry. I mean … thank you. I mean … who's going to eat Pauline's sandwiches?" The whole fuss was actually about not wanting to waste the pack lunch that his wife had so lovingly prepared for him that morning.

Peter's sparring partner *par excellence* was always Sergio Viaggio, Chief Interpreter at the United Nations, Vienna, and regular visitor to the Trieste School and contributor to translation and interpreting journals all over the world. Hostilities commenced with an article Sergio published in the "Rivista Internazionale di Tecnica della Traduzione", in which he contests what he calls Peter's obsession with literal (semantic) translation. Contestation, Peter said, is perfectly acceptable but Sergio's claim that his theory was *wrong and didactically dangerous* (1992: 27) was a red rag to the bull.

The battle was to rage for years until they actually met here in Trieste. I remember accompanying a very agitated and disinclined Peter to the Savoia Hotel where Sergio was staying. The meeting was understandably cool, to put it mildly, until they both stopped to listen to some classical music playing in the background. Chance would have it that Janacek was a favourite composer of

both of them and hostilities, though not exactly ceasing, were toned down considerably as a new friendship was formed. So much so in fact that Sergio has sent in a moving valedictory note that can be found at the end of this obituary. Like Nida, even "cranky old" Peter Newmark could make himself loved, even by his most ferocious adversary. With Gene, it was instantaneous; with Peter it just took a bit longer to get to know him, to scrape through the many layers of armour that the old soldier wore.

To return, by way of conclusion, to their respective contributions to translation studies, I would like to stress again the idea of the two men almost being as one. If Nida lay the foundations and built the walls, Newmark provided the furniture and fittings, all of those details that, according to Nida, "most books on translation largely overlook" (Newmark 1980: vii). Their complementarity is like a torch and its battery, the one showing the way, the other providing the energy.

It is logical that the two great men should have gone out together, but it is equally obvious that the path they have shown and the passion and enthusiasm for the journey they embarked upon together will never be forgotten and will always remain the rock on which all of us today operate.

And tomorrow too. For as I said at Peter's memorial, and it is just as true for Gene too, not a week goes by that their names are not mentioned in academic circles. They live on in their translation classrooms all over the world and it is just as they would have wanted.

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In memoriam Peter Newmark

Sergio Viaggio

You may – I hope – have remembered our first encounter in Trieste, at which John, Clyde, Maurizio and Chris (were you there too, Franco?) saw their hopes to see us locked in mortal combat frustrated. We agreed to keep our Sumo contest to the "Rivista Internazionale di Tecnica della Traduzione" and then had one of those feasts at the Bagutta. I saw you twice more, once in Buenos Aires, and later on at your place, somewhere in the outskirts of London – a library with a kitchen, I thought. Then we parted physical ways, but you were always there, with your occasional stab, à la Socrates, to keep me perky. When the formidable Danica Seleskovitch passed away, someone – if memory serves me right, Fortunato Israel – remarked that "we all thought she was immortal". Now I have just found out that you were not immortal either, dear cranky old arch-rival. I, who always have used many more words than my thoughts required, am today at an appalling loss: May you live eternally in a Paradise of blissfully semantic translations!

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