Business and Institutional Translation

New Insights and Reflections

Edited by

Éric Poirier and Daniel Gallego-Hernández

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Scientific Advisory Committee

Introduction

Largely due to the economic and commercial globalization, the field of business and institutional translation is very dynamic and, for translation practitioners looking to specialize, it has become a significant lucrative market. This area of translation, compared with technical or medical translation, or its literary counterpart which receives the lion's share, does not seem to capture as much attention from academics in translation studies. This is unfortunate for teachers as well as practitioners of specialized translation in this field. In recent years, more publications and events such as seminars and workshops are focussing on translation problems and issues related to business and institutional translation. The series of biannual International Conferences on Economic, Business, Financial and Institutional Translation (ICEBFIT) launched in 2014 by Daniel Gallego-Hernandez from the Universidad de Alicante seeks to enhance efforts to recognize the importance of the field by creating an international forum — fertile ground to enable cross-fertilization of theory and practice.

The purpose of this book is two-fold: to pursue the objectives of the series of ICEBFIT conferences and to bring academics and practitioners abreast of innovations and reflections on business and institutional translation. Covering topics ranging from institutional translation, mostly governmental, the study of business and commercial translation and specialized translation, this book is indeed an ideal opportunity for academics in this field to share their research interests and preoccupations.

In the area of institutional translation, Gül Durmuşoğlu Köse, Zehra Gülmüş, Volga Yilmaz Gülmüş and Gamze Eren, from Anadolu University, discuss the challenges of University website translation at the macro level (content management, division of labor, need for cooperation, directionality) and at the micro or content-related level. From Univerzita Karlova, Tomáš Svoboda presents the empirical findings of questionnaire-based, Web-based and interview-based surveys on quality assurance practices in translation, most notably among member organizations of COTSOES (Conference of Translation Services of European States) and appropriate representatives of selected translation services. Jinsil Choi from Keimyung University, describes how a Korean-English parallel corpus may contribute to the standardization of Korean terminology and its English translation in day-to-day press releases and publications for touristic purposes and governmental public relations with foreign affairs. In the last chapter on institutional translation, Jamal En-nehas from Moulay Ismail University adopts a holistic and impressionistic approach in his critical analysis of the gaps between academic training and the professional translation industry in the Arab World. He further outlines proposals for establishing pan-Arabic professional translation norms and standards.

The second section of the book addresses business, financial, and accounting translation issues. Leticia Moreno-Pérez from the Universidad de Valladolid analyses eighteen translation techniques (the straightforward and the specification techniques; techniques involving literalness, generalization, creation and transformation which themselves entail three to four specific techniques such as amplification, particularization and linguistic amplification) for rendering economy-related terms and expressions used in purchase agreements. Miriam P. Leibbrand from the Vienna University of Economics and Business presents an explorative and qualitative investigation on the variation of terms in French terminology of consolidated statements of profit and loss. The small corpus of 24 consolidated statements of listed companies in five countries of the French-speaking world highlights a high degree of terminological variation in key terms such as the equivalents for revenue, operating profits, net finance costs, profit before tax and profit. The analysis of the data supports the distinction between standardization in accounting per se and harmonization in accounting language, and points out to some linguistic features of the adopted terms and their regional variation. Danio Maldussi from the Università di Bologna discusses competencies required for translating accounting concepts in financial statements in the context of the implementation of the new International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) in Italy. Examining variations in conceptual knowledge (experts competency vs. translators competency) of fair value in Italian Financial Reporting, he underlines the cultural and thematic dimensions of accounting concepts that need to be operationalized by specialized translators. According to the author, these cultural dimensions also shed lights on the origin of language variation in financial statements. Pursuing the theme of variation, Dima El Husseini from the Université française d'Égypte discusses linguistic variations and Arabic to French and English translation issues. More specifically, she compares menus and language items of two m-commerce applications in written Franco-Egyptian (use of the Latin alphabet and numbers to transliterate Arab) and Franco-English (English terms also used or equivalents translated from Franco-Egyptian) varieties for local and localized applications in Egypt. She examines the expressions, transliterations, and usages in Bey2ollak, a local application, as well as in the localized application of booking.com. She points out that these considerations regarding translation-localization should be taken into account in designing translator training programs. Iván Martínez Blasco from the Universidad de Alicante shares some reflections on conceptual allusions (related to health, economics as a living organism, to movement and activity and conflicts, etc.) of nominal and verbal predicate metaphors in economics in Spanish and in French. He also proposes a model for a contrastive Spanish-French lexicographic description of the linguistic features of textual actualization of nominal predicate metaphors such as crisis and crisis económica in Spanish in contrast with crise and crise financière in French. Alexandra Albuquerque from Polytechnic of Porto and Rute Costa from the Universidade Nova de Lisboa present a study on terminology and specialized language management in international companies. They highlight the frequent use of non-professional translators in international companies, the different types of problems (at the concept, process, and discourse level) generated by this practice, and the perception of terminology in corporate culture. Their study reveals a definite need for large international organizations to change their organizational culture and to acknowledge the importance of being proactive rather than reactive with respect to terminology management.

The third section is devoted to specialized translation with a particular emphasis on teaching and learning. It opens with a contribution related to legal translation by Montserrat Cunillera Domènech from the Pompeu Fabra University. She spotlights the importance of contrastive analysis based on comparative law when translating terms whose equivalents provided by multilingual dictionaries may not be clear to the translator. Montserrat Cunillera Domènech exemplifies this problem of terminological variation with a case study based on the French term sursis and its translations into Spanish. Carmen García Álvarez from the University of Pablo de Olavide follows with a reflection on the need to revise the current degrees in Translation and Interpreting in Spain, considering that foreign trade is an area that can benefit from the competencies of graduates in translation. First, she presents the results of a study based on a survey conducted among Spanish exporting companies which shows their needs for translation services. She then analyzes the curricular content of syllabi of several translation courses and their relation to foreign trade. The results show that degree programs could pay more attention to foreign trade, especially given the fact that this field has a great need for translation services. The third study in this section is also based on a survey, but related to the professional market in Saudi Arabia. The authors, Turky Alshaikhi, Andrew Rothwell and Maria Fernandez-Parra (Swansea University), focus their attention on translation competences. They surveyed 73 professional translators from both the private and public sectors in order to ascertain how these professionals assess their skills in various areas of competency (language, translation, technology, intercultural and thematic issues, information mining, and project management competence). Their results can be a useful tool for revising job requirements and also for training translators for the Saudi Market. Laurence Jay-Rayon Ibrahim Aibo from Montclair State University shares her teaching experience using an asynchronous discussion forum as a dialogic pedagogical tool for learners. The author provides examples of interactions between students which demonstrate that students better learn translation processes when they form a community. She concludes with the observation that forums deserve to be considered as dialogic pedagogical tools which transcend classroom training or traditional workshops, and even allow students to learn faster. Finally, Roda P. Roberts from the University of Ottawa and Belén López Arroyo form Universidad de Valladolid propose the use of a field-specific and genre-specific multilingual comparable corpora in the translation of specialized texts. Through examples of concordance lines found in English and Spanish comparable corpora of wine tasting notes, the authors identify relevant information provided by the corpora for novice and experienced translators alike in choosing style and vocabulary such as limpio to be translated by clear and complex as the preferred adjectival form over the noun complexity. The authors conclude that if translators make the efforts of deducing their translation choices with the help of comparable corpora they will achieve accurate translations that reflect typical style and vocabulary in the target language.

The varied contributions compiled in this peer-reviewed publication offer a rich overview of the emerging field of research in business and institutional translation, encompassing themes of international resonance. They include general issues (website design, corpus-based tools and standardization of professional practices), core activities in business, finance, and accounting terminology and phraseology in genre-prototypical texts, with a focus on terminology variation, language metaphors, localization, and value-added knowledge translators provide in their work and lastly specialized translation. Indeed, they foster critical exchange and reflection within the field of translation studies to which business and institutional translation belongs and to which it should contribute to.

We hope that readers from all branches of translation studies will find this work not only interesting but instructive.

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INSTITUTIONAL TRANSLATION

UNIVERSITY WEBSITE TRANSLATION: CHALLENGES AND SOLUTIONS

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ABSTRACT. Higher-education institutions now have more interaction at the international level with the effect of globalization tendencies and hence increasing exchanges of knowledge as well as mobility of students and staff. This factor incites universities to have multilingual or at least bilingual websites (English outweighing other languages as the *lingua franca*). A multilingual/bilingual website, ensuring the visibility of universities at the international level, is of particular importance as it not only offers information to foreign target groups about the institution but also contributes to "prestige" of the institution. Thus, the quality of a multilingual/bilingual website is important for offering accurate information and improving international outlook of the institution. This paper discusses the importance of having a multilingual website for universities and challenges posed by translation and/or adaptation of university websites into another language. The challenges are at macro- and micro-levels. Among the main macro-level challenges are 1) content management, 2) division of labor, 3) the need for close cooperation, and 4) directionality. The micro-level challenges are mostly related to terminological and stylistic choices, which are highly dependent on macro-level issues. The paper then presents some solutions to these challenges, based on our experience of website translation of a Turkish university.

Keywords: website translation, institutional translation, institutional website, terminology management, termbase

Introduction

Higher-education institutions now have more interaction at the international level with the effect of globalization tendencies and hence increasing exchanges of knowledge as well as mobility of students and staff. This factor incites universities to have multilingual or at least bilingual websites (English outweighing other languages as the *lingua franca*). A multilingual/bilingual website, ensuring the visibility of universities at the international level, is of particular importance as it not only offers information to foreign target groups about the institution but also contributes to “prestige” of the institution. Thus, the quality of a multilingual/bilingual website is important for offering accurate information and improving the international outlook of the institution. In her study on translation in intergovernmental organizations, Lafeber (2012: 23) defines two main functions that translations undertake: 1) fulfilling the function that source text assumes, and 2) ensuring that translation services (and hence the institution) look good. The second point becomes more important particularly with regard to the translation of an institutional website. More specifically, Fernández Costales (2011: 25) defines three duties of university websites, describing them as the primary tool for disseminating information to the university community and the society: 1) presenting information to prospective students and researchers about the university, including academic subjects and procedures, 2) enabling students and academic members to communicate with the university, and 3) “promoting the international visibility of the university”. Fernández Costales (2011: 24) further argues that the European universities need multilingual websites “to meet European regulations, to contribute to the creation of a multilingual society and to grant universal access to the Web.”

In consideration of these roles attributed to university websites, the present paper discusses the importance of having a multilingual (bilingual) website for universities and challenges posed by translation and/or adaptation of university websites into another language with specific reference to terminological issues. For the purpose of this paper, we deal with the challenges to website translation at macro and micro levels. Among the main macro-level challenges are 1) content management (e.g. whether to translate a website as a whole or choose some parts, and which parts to choose when the second option is adopted), 2) division of labor with regard to translation, revision and decision making, 3) need for close cooperation between translators, decision-makers at the administrative level, and technical staff, and 4) directionality. The micro-level challenges are mostly related to terminological and stylistic choices, which are highly dependent on macro-level issues. This paper then presents some solutions to these challenges, based on our experience of translating the website of a Turkish university.

Website Translation in Higher-Education Institutions

Translating the University website into English, we have been faced with two main types of problems, which we categorize into macro-level and micro-level challenges. These two types of problems require decision making by various stakeholders, directly or indirectly involved in institutional translation. In 2014, we proposed a project related to translation processes at our University to offer solutions to these problems. Anadolu University funded our project titled Creating a Trilingual (Turkish-English-German) Term Base to Ensure Standardization in the Institutional Translations of Anadolu University. For the purpose of this project, using SDL Trados Studio 2011, we went through and aligned the texts that were translated into a foreign language (English or German) to collect the frequently used terminology in the university context. In this process, the official website was one of the resources that enabled us to compile the list of terms commonly used in the University. The official website will also be one of the major platforms where the termbase we develop will be used.

These terms were then compiled in a termbase on SDL MultiTerm. All members of the project group came together once a week for three months to discuss the English and German equivalents of Anadolu University's terminology. As a result of these discussions, we came up with a glossary that includes English and German equivalents of the terms frequently used in the University, and related explanations, when required. As put by Koskinen (2010: 58), guides, revision techniques and guidance and training services were used in the past to ensure standardization in institutional translation; however, today, databases, term banks, and computer-assisted translation tools serve this purpose. Pym (2010: 4) has also observed that equivalence strategies depending on pre-prepared glossaries are quite common in website translation/localization. Developing a glossary or a termbase to be used in institutional translation, including the translation of the institutional website, is particularly important for institutions, like ours, which do not have a single department responsible for translations and correspondence in foreign languages. Macro- and micro-level challenges explained below make it clearer why we needed such a project.

Macro-level challenges or decision-making

Website translation is today mostly associated with localization. However, in our case, the process of website translation is not much different from any other translation act. We have been provided with source texts readily available on the Turkish website of the University and asked to translate them into English. In his overview of websites of European universities, Fernández Costales (2012: 56) also notes that university websites are generally not localized or adapted to a particular market, rather the content is translated for a global audience. The translation process, nevertheless, is no longer a pure desk-and-computer act, where the translator plays the major role.

The primary question related to the translation of institutional websites is who makes the initial decisions, mainly related to content management. Sandrini (2005a: 1) describes website translation as the "production of a new website which is targeted at another linguistic and cultural community, and based on an existing website in accordance with the predefined purpose." In this process, not only the act of translation by itself, but also other essential factors such as technical requirements, project management, terminology management, and quality assurance must be considered. Each of these factors requires decision making, division of labor and cooperation at different levels. Who makes decisions related to each factor? Who decides on the content to appear on the website in a foreign language? Does a bilingual website mean two websites in two languages, looking exactly the same? Are analyses conducted to specify needs of the target audience? Are analyses conducted to specify the target audience? Do translators work in cooperation with the Public Relations Office or International Office of the university? These are probably the questions that we, as translators, expect to be answered before we embark on website translation. However, rather than answers to these questions, we are mostly provided with raw source texts to be translated into a foreign language. This was one of the main challenges we encountered in website translation. It is hard to overcome this challenge when the institution does not have a language policy. It is highly likely that translators find themselves in a position where they have to make decisions on their own, decide on the content of the foreign-language website, and estimate the needs and expectations of the target audience. To address this problem, we tried to select the content that is of particular concern to a global readership of a university website (we translated general information about the University and programs, campus life and academic life, but we omitted for example rules and procedures related to administrative functioning of the University). When translating the website content, we tried to adopt translation solutions that make information and terminology specific to the University comprehensible by global readers. We will provide a couple of examples when defining micro-level translation challenges.

Another major question is who translates the website (in-house translator(s) of the university? faculty members? service procurement from an external source (outsourcing)?). Who are "we"? In the case of Anadolu University, "we" are faculties employed in various foreign-language programs of the University. Fernández Costales (2012: 58) examined the websites of 215 universities in Europe, and found out that no translators were hired for website translation in 70% of the cases, and universities worked with a translation agency or a freelance translator in 20% of the cases and with their own translation unit in 10% of the cases. In the rest of the universities, website translation was done by academic staff or students. This is mostly the case in most Turkish universities. Academic staff employed in foreign language programs are asked to translate the university website, as well as many other types of texts into a foreign language. This causes particular problems especially related to linguistic and stylistic consistency and hence quality assurance, mainly because the institutional translation is a secondary responsibility of faculty members. The questions posed by Fernández Costales (2012: 58) are generally the challenges we encounter: How are quality issues dealt with? Are universities aware of the importance and effect of translation on their websites? Why are translation professionals ignored by higher-education institutions? Dealing with these issues and overcoming relevant problems require that senior administrators become fully aware of the impact of language and translation on their image and visibility in the international arena. At the end of our project, the termbase we developed will be available on the institutional website for the use of all university members. This is one of the solutions we developed to improve quality (at least terminological standardization and quality) in translations and international communication of the University.

Especially with regard to website translation, there is a need for close cooperation between translators, technical staff, and decision makers at the administrative level. In the development of a website, translation is taken as a separate service, which leads to the perception that translation is a financial burden or a problem to be dealt with (Pym, 2010: 9). In our case, the organization deals with this "problem" or "burden" by assigning translation tasks to academic staff. Therefore, translators are often not involved in the overall process of recreating the website but are responsible for translating website content into another language. Yet, there is still need for cooperation between "academic" translators and technical staff responsible for website development, under the coordination of university administrators. Not equipped with technical knowledge and qualifications as much as localization specialists, translators must be in contact with technicians to determine, for example, the length of a title, to make further revisions on a page, or to connect links to the text. "Academic" translators also need to cooperate with the Public Relations Office or International Office for content management, which brings us back to the main issue of decision making. To deal with this problem and many similar translation and language-related problems, we continuously advise the senior management to establish a translation or international communication department in the University. This department is required to do official translations of the University (and thus to ensure quality and standardization in international communication) and to coordinate translation and related activities (interpreting, content management, international events and so on).

Directionality is one of the major issues, which is concerned with both macro- and micro-level translation procedures. The traditional view that translation should be into B language has been challenged in recent years (Campbell, 1998: 4; Pokorn, 2005: 37). Translation into B language is now a widespread practice in many countries. Nevertheless, this does not mean that translation into B language brings about certain quality problems. The university website has been translated from Turkish to English. As native speakers of Turkish, we translated website content out of our own language. This is a practical way for translation tasks in the university if translations into B language are revised by a native speaker of that language. A translation unit in the institution with translators and native-speaker revisers is likely to eliminate problems stemming from directionality, and contribute to the development of an institutional language policy.

The final point related to decision making, i.e. who makes the decisions on terminological and stylistic issues, has driven us to carry out a project on terminology management at Anadolu University, and offer solutions to language problems encountered in the University's international communication.

Micro-level challenges or translation problems

Micro-level challenges refer mainly to content-related challenges we encountered in website translation, which are mostly due to educational, legal and cultural gaps between source and target culture (and even lack of a specific target culture), ambiguities in the source language and texts, and lack of a consistent language policy of the University. Translation problems encountered in the process of website translation may be categorized as follows:

Lack of a specific target culture

Defining the target culture and audience and then deciding the nature of the relationship between target and source texts are, in most cases, the preliminary procedures that a translator completes before starting a translation task. These are also related to Toury's initial norms, which play a role in the whole translation process. However, globalization has altered standard norms in almost everything, including translation. Text types, as well as source and target culture/language definitions, have also changed. This may be challenging for translators that are used to producing target texts for a specific audience. For us, this problem emerged particularly during the process of translating Turkish content into English. We first had to decide whether to go with British English or American English. Although the target audience of English texts is not limited merely to those living in the United Kingdom or the United States, our priority was to make the basic choice first and then to address the global audience. During the process of developing a bilingual or multilingual website, English stands out as *lingua franca*. This is also confirmed in the literature. Limon (2008: 59) states identifying the target culture can be problematic in website translations into English. In other words, the decision whether to focus on Anglo-American culture or to embrace the internationality or "neutrality" of the internet is the common question. However, not only the target culture but also the target reader is another issue. As for website translations into English (university website in our case), the target reader is everyone who speaks English either as a native or a second language. Therefore, the target culture here is also quite versatile, which cannot be limited to the UK or the US culture only.

As a result of our discussions in the project team, we opted for the American English since our education system is closer to the US higher-education system. In this respect, for concepts that have an equivalent in the American higher-education system, we preferred the equivalent in American English. To exemplify, we translated "lisans programı" as "undergraduate program" or "öğretim üyesi" as "faculty (member)." This also applies to academic positions, i.e. professor (profesör), associate professor (doçent) and assistant professor (yardımcı doçent), which are formulated in a similar way to the US system in Turkey.

The decision to opt for American English has helped us solve our problems to a certain degree. Yet, there are still exceptions. For instance, for “rektör” in Turkish, “rector” was chosen instead of its American counterpart “president” with a view to being comprehensible by not only American readership but also other English readers. This also allowed us to ensure compatibility, to some degree, between target and source cultures, or between target culture and the globe. A similar decision applies to preferring “examination” rather than “test” in the translation of “sınav” in Turkish. There are two options for the translation of this word: test and examination. In Turkish, the word “test” has traditionally been used for a test comprising only multiple-choice questions. Thus, preferring examination to test in this context brings target readers closer to the source culture, without compromising comprehensibility. Another example is that we preferred “faculty” rather than “college” or “school” to translate “fakülte,” i.e. each academic unit consisting of departments. For example, we opted for “Faculty of Law” rather than “Law School.” This is also one of the results of our efforts to bring potential readers closer to the educational culture in Turkey. Another reason was that we had to indicate the difference between faculties and schools, the former offering undergraduate degree and the latter offering undergraduate or associate degree for the training of practitioners in most cases.

Problems related to source language and source texts

Inconsistencies and ambiguities in the source language or texts are likely to pose significant challenges in international communication. In texts that provide information about the University, we are required to translate the names of places or venues, for example, Cinema Anadolu, Atatürk Culture, and Arts Center, Congress Center and so on. The guesthouses are no exceptions to this. However, “misafirhane” and “konukevi” are used to refer to two guesthouses on the campus. The former is an older term derived from Arabic which has been replaced by “konukevi” over time but is still used along with the latter. The guesthouses on the campus do not have specific names but are officially known as *Anadolu Misafirhane* and *Anadolu Konukevi*. We had the same problem with campus gates, some of which do not have specific names but are known by the name of the closest facility to the gate. What we could do here is to add these problems to the report of our project, and suggest the University administration to revise and rename gates and facilities of the campus.

Apart from this, some terms used in the source language do not make any sense or are misleading even to native speakers of Turkish when used out of context. To give an example, concepts such as “1-3 barajı” (a term related to open education examinations) and “Akademik Danışmanlık” (literally academic advising, but used in this context to refer to face-to-face components of open education) are meaningless to Turkish speakers if they are not familiar with the open education system of Anadolu University. Thus, their linguistic transfer into English, i.e. "1-3 barrier" and "academic advising," would not make any sense to target audience. Paraphrasing and adding an explanation is an option, but not a practical one. To solve such problems that we encounter frequently, we decided to contact respective departments and suggest changes in their Turkish versions. Our efforts are now yielding results, and for example, "academic counseling services" is now officially replaced by "face-to-face education." Similarly, in the Turkish higher education, "enstitü" is used for institutions that only do research on one hand, and that do research and offer graduate programs on the other hand. For instance, "Yer ve Uzay Bilimleri Enstitüsü" was established to carry out research in earth and space sciences, whereas "Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü" offers graduate studies in social sciences as well as coordinating the research on social sciences. Providing an English equivalent to "enstitü," we preferred "graduate school" for the ones delivering graduate studies and "institute" for the ones established to conduct research.

Terminological problems due to gaps in educational culture

Institutional, educational, legal and cultural differences between source culture and target culture(s) have led to terminological problems. We have dealt with each case individually and adopted different approaches. The most common solutions we have used are word-for-word translations, translation by paraphrasing, and translation by more general words. Some examples and our solutions to them are presented below:

Word-for-word translations: There were some terms that are specific to Turkish education system. We had to adopt word-for-word translation solution for some of these terms. For instance, "tek ders sınavı" was translated as "single-course examination," and an explanation was added to the termbase for this term. This will be one of the advantages of making our trilingual termbase available online on the University website.

Translation by paraphrasing: This is a solution used when the source concept does not exist in the target culture, and there is a need to paraphrase the concept using related and/or unrelated words. For example, "ikinci üniversite" is a concept specifically used in our University's open education system. This is a type of enrolment where students or graduates of an undergraduate and/or associate degree program are admitted to an open education program without taking the nation-wide university entrance examination. For this concept, we suggest using "admission without entrance examination (second university)" in English at least when the term is used for the first time in a text. Then, using "second university" later in the text may not be a problem anymore.

We also adopted this solution for translation of some nationwide examinations. One of them was "Dikey Geçiş Sınavı," which literally means "Vertical Transfer Examination" and refers to the nation-wide examination held for transfer from associate to undergraduate degree programs. In this example, we combined word-for-word translation with explanatory translation, and suggested the English equivalent of "Vertical Transfer Examination from Associate to Undergraduate Degree Programs," for being comprehensible to the target reader and bringing the target reader closer to source culture.

Translation by more general words: In some cases, we defined a standard equivalent for each of interrelated Turkish concepts that do not exist in the same way in the target culture(s). Among these terms were the ones indicating official ranks such as "daire başkanı," "şube müdürü" and "idare amiri." Hierarchical statuses, duties, and responsibilities of these positions vary according to organizational regulations of target cultures. We suggested a standard equivalent in English, e.g. "director" and "head," for each term, with a view to ensuring a consistent use of these positions in English texts.

Conclusion

As technology and internet have transformed our perception of boundaries and communication, bilingual and multilingual websites are becoming more and more important for companies and organizations, or for anyone who aims to attract readers on a global scale. As Schewe (2001: 205) points out, the distinction among monolingual, bilingual and multilingual sites is marked with the language policy or marketing strategy of the organization. Each type of website has a specific marketing strategy that ranges from the "domestic marketing strategy" with a monolingual website in the native language to the "global player strategy" with a central website in English or the native language with independent local websites in another language (Sandrini, 2005b: 4). Today, almost all institutions and organizations – whether they be commercial or not – adopt the global player strategy to ensure international visibility. However, to implement this strategy effectively, institutions should first develop a language policy, and then fulfill the requirements of this policy.

We designed and carried out a project on terminology standardization, which is only one aspect of website translation. Writing the final report of our project, we refer to "macro-level challenges," partly covered by Toury's initial norms, which must be addressed before we offer solutions to "micro-level challenges," which are highly dependent on macro-level decision making. Institutional website translation is no longer the business of only a translator or translators sitting at the computer. It is a never-ending process that should be based on a predefined language policy and requires the engagement of translators, technical staff, and senior administrators. We designed our project not only to contribute to terminology standardization in the University but also to draw the attention of administrators to the importance of institutional language and translation policy. We continuously remind that large institutions, including universities, need to set up a unit that is charged with the development and management of language policy and translation work of the institution.

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INSTITUTIONAL TRANSLATION IN NATIONAL CONTEXTS: QUALITY ASSURANCE IN GOVERNMENTAL INSTITUTIONS ACROSS EUROPE

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Abstract. Institutional translation has become an increasingly popular field of inquiry in Translation Studies, especially in relation to translation departments of top-level national or supranational institutions. As a result, descriptions of some specific features, such as quality assurance, have largely been derived from those contexts. To verify, if similar approaches are taken in lower-level institutions, an international survey of seven countries of the EU was performed, the outcomes of which are presented in this chapter. The survey focused on governmental bodies, typically ministries, and their translation departments, and enquired about their quality assurance practices. The following areas have been surveyed and compared: The use of translation technology, translation manuals/style guides, and an overall QM (Quality Management) strategy. The results show a rather balanced picture of prevalent use of CAT tools, with terminology management being the common practice. Revision is practiced in almost all departments. However, the best practice is hardly ever recorded in translation manuals and house style codes are rather an exception, which contradicts the common notion of quality assurance in institutional settings. It is argued that a more refined definition of institutional translation as regards the types of translating institutions is needed.

Keywords: Institutional Translation, Translation Quality, Translation Departments, Governmental Institutions, International Survey

Introduction

It has been stated (cf. Schäffner et al. 2014: 509) that "Analysing processes in other institutions is […] necessary to see how much similarity or variation [among institutions] there actually is". Thus, the diverse forms of translation practice would become apparent and would provide additional systematic accounts, which will ultimately lead to "enhanc[ing] our discipline of Translation Studies". By adding more institutions to the comparison pool, we intend to draw new conclusions on the applicability of past hypotheses on quality assurance practices in translating institutions, and, specifically, contrast supranational translating institutions with those on the national level.

The chapter compares approaches to quality assurance in selected governmental institutions of the following seven countries of the European Union: Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Finland, Germany, Italy, and Poland. The main lines of inquiry included the following:

- Basic information and statistics (languages supported, volumes of text and/or financial turn-around, the array of clients).
- To what extent are translation/interpreting assignments outsourced?
- What is the practice in using technology in the translation process (file management, computer-assisted translation – CAT, translation memory – TM, machine translation – MT)?
- Are there centralised translation guidelines (manuals/style guides) in place?
- What is the practice in terms of: revision, training, the quality aspect in the procurement process?

The chapter is divided into three main parts: The first (the introduction) contains relevant definitions of terms and concepts used, the second presents the underlying empirical research, while the third discusses the findings and gives some outlook for further research.

Academic Reflection on Institutional Translation

Before engaging with the actual topic of this chapter, i.e. a survey of translation quality practices in several governmental institutions of a number of countries of the European Union (EU), some preliminary remarks are necessary in order to introduce first the notion of quality in translation and, secondly that of institutional translation.

Quality, Translation, Institutions

Arguably, quality aspects of translators' activity were inherent in the early theories of translation (cf. Luther's *Sendbrief vom Dolmetschen* of 1530, E. Dolet's translation principles of 1540, G. Campbell's criteria of good translations of 1789 as well as many others). These statements/theories tended to be prescriptive, implying that when the given recommendations were followed, the desired translation result (i.e. transferring certain qualities of the original) would be achieved. In the early 20th century, the Czech scholar Bohumil Mathesius (1928) introduced the concept of "translating well," and the notion of translating adequately with respect to the translation's purpose was well grounded in the deliberations of the so-called Prague School, with which B. Mathesius (1928) had close ties.

The actual notion of process/product quality in today's terms has emerged in dealing with specialised translation and industrial concepts. Discussions surrounding product quality have been even more heated following the advancements of Machine Translation. The notion of quality in the translation process has been enshrined in an international standard (ISO 17100), and it forms a key element of translator training in university settings.

This chapter is concerned with quality in the translation process and the policies of quality management, rather than with the outcome of the translation process – the translations proper.[1] This leads us to the notion of "quality assurance" (or "QA"), which, in a broad sense, has been defined as follows: "Quality assurance normally refers to systems and processes used to help create or maintain quality" (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013: 95). More specifically, Mossop (2001) devotes a whole sub-chapter to the topic and puts forward the following concept:[2]

> Quality assurance "[...] is the full set of procedures applied before, during and after the translation production process, by all members of a translating organisation, to ensure that quality objectives important to clients are being met. Quality assurance includes procedures to ensure [...] [q]uality of service [...], [q]uality of the physical product [... and] [q]uality of the translation. [...] Where work is being done on contract, quality assurance includes selecting the best contractor". (2001: 92-93)

[1] For an enlightening account of the shift of focus from product to process quality (as well as the related concepts of the 'cultural' vs. 'industrial approach' and 'quality of service' vs. 'quality of translations') in an institutional setting, cf. Mossop (2006).

[2] Cf. a very similar concept in Palumbo (2009: 99). In need of a wide concept of QA, we refrain from assuming the notion of QA as defined by Williams (2004): "Quality assurance (in translation) [means] systematic pre-delivery activity or activities designed to give assurance that a translation meets *quality* requirements" (2009: 163).

We assume Mossop's concept here since it includes processes not limited to assuring the quality of translations as products only,[3] but other aspects as well, such as client satisfaction and outsourcing. In Drugan's (2013) terms, our considerations on quality in institutional settings will be of the "top-down" approach, since governmental institutions are defined, among other things, by hierarchy and a clear-cut structure.

As regards the definition of Institutional Translation,[4] the following is a balanced account for our purposes:

> In the widest sense, any translation that occurs in an institutional setting can be called *institutional translation,* and consequently the institution that *manages* translation is a translating institution. (Schäffner et al. 2014: 493, highlighting added)

This definition is suitable here, since it covers institutional translation in a broad sense, with the inherent focus on the procedural and, eventually the QA aspect. Obviously, there are various types of institutions, e.g. commercial, non-profit making, supranational, national, governmental, non-governmental and so on. The present chapter focuses on national bodies of central government.

As, at the present stage, the presented research was not text-based, this chapter refrains from a genre- and/or text-type/content specific approach (cf. Legal Translation Studies, for example): It is strictly determined by the context of where the translation process takes place (institutional settings) and under what policies (especially the QA policy) this happens.

State of the Art in Institutional Translation Research

The following literature review is divided into two parts: (i) Quality considerations as regards institutional translation on the supranational level, and (ii) those on the national level.

(i) As regards institutional translation linked with the quality aspect in supranational institutions, arguably, EU institutions have been researched the most. In 2000, K. Koskinen observed that "the potential of […] active involvement of [translation…] in improving quality [of communication and legal drafting] is not recognised" (Koskinen, 2000: 54). Later on, she approached EU translations' quality from the point of view of readability

[3] As regards the product-oriented terms, such as quality control, assessment, evaluation, etc., cf. comparison/contrast of these terms in Prieto Ramos (2015) (footnote no. 1).

[4] For a more detailed discussion of the concept of institutional translation, cf. e.g. Koskinen (2014).

(Koskinen, 2008: 104-106). Although not concerned with quality, Koskinen (2014: 1) is instructive in the attempt to "propose a clarifying foundation for the concept [of institutional translation]". European Commission (2009) represents a practical example of a guideline in translation quality. European Commission (2012) quantifies, among other things, potential losses, should less ambitious quality assurance measures be applied within its Directorate-General for Translation (DGT). Other sources are concerned with specific aspects linked to quality in EU translation: Svoboda (2013) focuses on translation manuals and style guides and Svoboda (2008) deals specifically with the aspect of quality within the DGT workflow. A review of the strict translation quality requirements as posed by EU institutions is given in Sosoni (2011).

Besides that, the United Nations have also been researched in terms of institutional translation and quality: Didaoui (2009) puts the person of a translator in the foreground and goes on to locate his/her role in the UN translation QM system. Client orientedness as a major component of the UN communication strategy is the focus of de Saint Robert (2009), who details UN's approach to translation quality assessment.

(ii) When it comes to research into institutional translation at national level, the following sources have linked the initial topic with the quality aspect: Williams 2004 (with case studies from the Canadian Government) proposed a new model for assessing translation quality. The most detailed account of a national government translation service to date, Mossop (2006), gives a detailed historical record of how the policies and practices of the Translation Bureau of Canada's federal government developed in terms of translation process and product quality. In a Canadian translation market survey (Le Groupe Mallette Maheu, 1999), some data can be found on governmental institutions' translation departments. Six industry players from four federal departments[5] were surveyed. The following is the only statement made specifically on the institutional setting of the translation departments (1999: 36):

> Two departments have an internal translation service: one, very small, has two professionals. The other, much larger, has some twenty professionals and a budget nearing $1 million.

Although this statement is very sketchy in depicting the institutional landscape, from the methodology point of view, this Canadian study took

[5] I.e. Health Canada, National Research Counsel, National Defence, Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada.

the rare step of comparing translation services in governmental institutions on the national level – an approach similar to the present study design.

An extensive survey was performed on the Saudi Arabian translation market (Fatani, 2009); yet, again government institutions were dealt with only marginally:

> All Saudi ministries surveyed had translation departments. All translators were Saudi graduates of Language departments whether in Saudi Arabia or Britain and the United States. No translation technology is employed and most translations are done in-house. Ministry Web pages are sometimes outsourced to freelance translators or International localization agencies.

This information is given in the context of a survey focussing on the proliferation of translation technology in Saudi Arabia and the ministries referred to are presented under a heading of Government Ministries, i.e. "Organization[s] with large translation departments that have not changed over to [translation technology]". For our purposes – focussing on the quality aspect in institutional translation –, the reluctance towards translation technology in the findings of this research of 2006 shows a certain conservative tendency in the institutional setting under scrutiny.

Turning to Europe, some limited data on Belgian and Finnish governmental institutions is included in European Commission (2013). This publication of EC's Directorate-General for Translation is immensely informative in its area of enquiry,[6] i.e. national and international practices in document quality control. The publication's focus is with legal drafting and it includes both monolingual and multilingual scenarios. For the present purposes of tracking institutional translation practices in the EU on the level of centralised governmental organisations with translation departments (i.e. departments offering multilingual services), only two entries fulfil the required criteria: entries on Belgium and Finland. This information is included in the comparison of six European countries bellow.

For Germany, it was possible to draw on existing research (Schäffner et al., 2014) on the workings of the Translation Service of the German Foreign Office.[7] The study, which is both very informative and in-depth,

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[6] The publication includes results of a survey among 27 participants (governmental and international institutions and organisations dealing with legal texts) from all over the world (including the US, Canada, Israel, Europe, and with examples from India etc.).

[7] Or SDAA (also referred to as Language Services Division of the Foreign Office). The reason stated for selecting this particular department is the following: The

contrasts this national institution with two other "political institutions", i.e. a supranational organisation (European Central Bank), and a non-governmental one (Amnesty International). Before addressing the quality procedures and translation strategies employed in the translation service, the article briefly summarises the situation in Germany as regards institutional translation. The paragraph-long summary is another rare example of a synthesis on institutional translation in a given country.

In terms of quality considerations, the national body surveyed (SDAA) is described as operating "an elaborate system of quality assurance", which is outlined as involving the mother tongue principle, a high degree of revision work, detailed translation brief from clients, the use of a translation memory system; however, …the [service…] does not have specific style guides…" (p. 497). Most recently, additional considerations involving both the quality aspect and the centralised national bodies can be found in Svoboda (2017).

After the above overview of some basic literature, empirical findings are presented in the next section.

Research on National Institutional Translation in the European Context

With the aim of understanding better the situation of institutional translation in individual European countries, it was deemed appropriate to start with a pilot study of one particular country. The pilot research was carried out in the Czech Republic in the summer months of 2014.

Pilot Study in the Czech Republic

Methodology

In order to find out more about the status of institutional translation in the Czech Republic,[8] the research included the following data collection methods: guided interviews, e-mail surveys of a specified target group, as

"translation service [...] has been selected since it is both the biggest language service of all and the one that has been in place longest" (p. 495).

[8] The results of this pilot study have been presented in full in Svoboda (2016). The information given here is a summary of aspects that are pertinent for the present focus of quality management. Other inquiries had been made, too, in order to correlate the QM practices to the actual situation of the individual workplace.

well as personal or e-mail inquiries. Two interviews were conducted and four written responses were received.

The following translation departments in government institutions[9] in the Czech Republic were surveyed:

- Czech National Bank (Česká národní banka)
- Czech Social Security Administration (Česká správa sociálního zabezpečení)
- Czech Statistical Office (Český statistický úřad)
- General Directorate of Customs (Generální ředitelství cel)
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Ministerstvo zahraničních věcí)
- Ministry of Industry and Trade (Ministerstvo průmyslu a obchodu)

Findings of National Survey

The key findings of this pilot study are the following: Czech governmental translation units are rather limited in terms of human resources (avg. 2.5 staff per unit). Some teams function as coordinating agencies subcontracting almost all translation requests, whereas others cater for a large number of translation and interpreting requests internally. Language scope and thematic focus is as diverse as are the areas that the requesting parties deal with. Turn-around times and translation output varies substantially, too.

When it comes to Quality Management, the observation was made during interviews that frustration was felt between the desirable level of quality of the translation output (which is deemed important by both management and translators) on the one hand, and the actual means available to achieve this goal. Typically, management approaches favour productivity to intrinsic quality of the translation output.[10] Revision practices are mixed. In sub-contracting scenarios, revision is seen as part of the sub-contracted service, whereas in in-house scenarios, revision is often seen to exceed the capacity of the in-house service. However, there are translation teams where peer revision is part of a formal framework of quality enhancing procedures. None of the institutions had a translation manual or a style guide in place to govern and/or harmonise translator's choices. In terms of terminology management, some teams used internal glossaries, whereas some others mentioned Google (Translate) as a means of rendering/verifying terminology.

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[9] This list is probably not exhaustive. According to subsequent information, there is a translation unit with the Czech Ministry of the Interior, too.

[10] Cf. similar observations made by Mossop (2006).

In terms of technology used in the translation process, just one out of the six units surveyed had implemented a translation memory software (a CAT tool). The attitude to Machine Translation seems to vary substantially, from a ban issued on public MT services to reported use of Google Translate for aiding in-house assignments.

Summary of the Findings of the National Survey

To summarise, a lack of translation manuals or style guides[11] was observed across the board, as well as a similarly striking lack of advanced translation technology (translation memory software), with the notable exception of one translation team. Revision practice was seen as a key component of institutional translation by only one of the translation teams. Thus, in terms of Drugan's (2013) classification of approaches to translation quality, Czech government institutions show a mixed attitude, with top-down quality approaches (e.g. stringent requirements as stipulated in tenders) blended with bottom-up processes. This is explained by the fact that most of the translation departments are small and, often there is lack of structural guidance on quality aspects in translation. Thus, individual decisions have to be made on a case-by-case basis with individual translators, since such considerations do not take the shape of formal style guides or translation manuals.

International Survey

Obtaining general understanding of the landscape of institutional translation with centralised governmental bodies in one European country (Czech Republic) made it possible to extend the survey internationally, namely to several European countries. The design of the survey included contacting representatives of central government bodies and enquiring about QM practices.

Methodology

After introducing some existing research in the field (cf. the section State of the Art in Institutional Translation Research and the pilot study above), the actual international study will now be presented. Whereas some input for the comparison was drawn from information available in relevant literature (2 countries), for the other governmental bodies surveyed, a

[11] For further reading on style guides cf. Svoboda (2013) and Svoboda (2017).

common questionnaire was used and phone interviews were conducted in 2016.

The choice of institutions and countries represented in the study was governed by mentions in relevant literature and the availability of respondents in the respective institutions. To reach relevant stakeholders, the following steps were taken: Generic contact points of individual countries' government websites were approached with a request of forwarding the invitation to a survey to relevant stakeholders. Field offices of EC's Directorate General for Translation were contacted asking for contacts to governmental institutions' translation departments. An on-line survey via a polling website was created and, subsequently, selected COTSOES[12] member organisations were invited to participate. The above effort yielded a meagre response rate, which was why the author of this study finally resorted to direct interviews over the phone with relevant representatives (typically directors or senior translators) of selected services.

Findings of the International Study

To present the outcomes of the survey, the following four categories will be taken into account: Firstly, some statistics on the translation service to understand its staffing, budget, languages supported, etc., to allow for some correlations to the actual institutional setting. The other three categories are interlinked with the quality aspect in translation process: Tools and technology in the translation process is surveyed in order to gain insight into the level of technology uptake of the given department, which is important in terms of text and terminology consistency and thus product quality. Another point of interest, linked to QM, is the existence and use of translation manuals and/or style guides. The last inquiry has been if there was an overall QM strategy in place, eventually, what other aspects contribute to it in the overall translation process.

The following is a comprehensive overview of the facts obtained:

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[12] Conference of Translation Services of European States, cf. http://www.cotsoes.org/ (retrieved 2016-11-29)

	Country	Austria	Belgium	Finland	France	Germany	Poland
General information on the translation service	Institution	Language Service, Federal Ministry of the Interior	Belgian Senate, Legal service	Government Translation Unit, Prime Minister's Office	French Ministry of Finance	Translation Service of the Foreign Office	Translation and Interpretation Unit, Ministry of Foreign Affairs
	Statistics	No statistics 14 translators /Interpreters (10 FTE)	Not available	Not available	EN => FR; EN DE IT NL PT ES RU EL => FR 26,000 pages p.Y.	90 staff, 60 T and/or I Much more than 850 Norm Pages/Y Outsourcing: 10-15% (T) EN = 50+% of assignments	5.5 FTE
	Source of information	On-line survey	European Commission (2013)	European Commission (2013)	On-line survey	Structured interview over the telephone	Structured interview over the telephone
Quality Management System	Translation technology, terminology management	SDL Trados products MT used by officers for gisting	Commercial legal databases; crossroads bank; models	SDL Trados Studio and MultiTerm termbank. IATE, Lagrummet.se portal, other electronic termbanks in FI and SV; electronic dictionaries	File management, 2 CAT tools (Logiterm + DéjàVu) MT: No. Terminology management (Logiterm, DT Search, SketchEngine)	CAT: SDL Trados Studio MT was tested, no use	CAT: No Terminology management: Yes
	Manuals, Style Guides	None	No specific guidelines, only general guides	Not available	None	Yes: For DE-EN-DE	Yes
	Specific QMS in place?	Internal revision (not all texts)	Not available	Not available	Systematic revisions, customer satisfaction questionnaire for every translation, training on MINEFI topics	Peer revision: almost all translations	Revision: Yes (translator responsible) Staff training: Yes

Table 1: Comprehensive summary of 2016 international pilot survey on institutional translation in governmental institutions in the EU

Let us now describe the findings in more detail:

Austria: Language Service, Federal Ministry of the Interior

Whereas, according to the statement of the Language Service's representative, the service gathers no formal statistics on translation volumes, it employs 14 translators and/or interpreters, with the workforce totalling 10 full-time equivalent (FTE). It uses CAT tools both as translation memory, and for terminology management. MT is used by

Ministry officers for the purpose of gisting, i.e. getting some basic understanding of the text message. The service has not a translation manual and/or style guide in place and, as a rule, translations are revised internally, although not in 100% of cases.

Belgium: Belgian Senate, Legal service

Translations in the Legal service of the Belgian Senate are produced with the help of commercial legal databases (reference texts) and a terminology database, crossroads bank. The department also uses forms/models to harmonise document formats. It uses no specific translation manuals, only guidelines of general nature.

Finland: Government Translation Unit, Prime Minister's Office

In the Translation Unit, SDL products are used as translation memory and terminology management tools (Trados Studio and MultiTerm). For terminology search, the IATE database as well as a portal for Swedish public administration, Lagrummet.se, is used along with other electronic termbanks and dictionaries in Finnish and Swedish.

France: French Ministry of Finance

The translation bureau of the French Ministry of Finance produces translations mainly into French and the predominant source language is English. Other source languages include German, Italian, Dutch, Portuguese, Spanish, Russian, and Greek. The Unit's yearly output equals some 26,000 translated pages. Translation technology solutions employed include file management software and two distinct CAT tools (Logiterm and DéjàVu). MT is not used. For the purpose of terminology management, the Logiterm tool along with DT Search and SketchEngine are used. The department uses no translation style guides or translation manuals. The QM strategy involves revision that is performed in a systematic way on almost all translations, customer satisfaction questionnaire sent out with every translation, as well as continued professional development (staff training on Ministry of Finance topics).

Germany: Translation Service of the Foreign Office

The Language Services Division of the German Foreign Office has 90 staff, 60 of which are translators and/or interpreters. Despite the fact that detailed information on actual translation output cannot be provided for confidentiality reasons, it is safe to state that "much more than 850 norm pages [i.e. e.g. 1,800 characters of text]" are produced by individual translators per year. Apart from in-house production, some 10-15% of translation assignments are outsourced. In terms of language coverage, English constitutes more than 50% of all translation assignments. When it comes to technology used in the translation process, the Trados Studio CAT tool is used in-house. According to the statement of the Head of the Language Service, an internal MT engine was tested, but rejected due to low performance. The department declares to use a style guide for German–English, English–German translations. In terms of a QM strategy, peer revision is employed with almost all in-house translations.

Poland: Translation and Interpretation Unit, Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA)

The MFA's Translation and Interpretation Unit employs a workforce equal to 5.5 FTE. 80% of translation assignments are those into a foreign language. From time to time, the department runs over-night shifts. In the area of translation technology, it uses no CAT tools, which seems to be a deliberate choice, given the text types it deals with: press releases and statements with hardly any repetition involved. However, it uses technology for terminology management. It also has an internal translation manual in place. The quality aspect is further reflected in the fact that revision is performed on a regular basis, with the translator being responsible for the outcome. Staff training is offered to cater for the relevant translator skills. The department is proud to receive positive feedback from its clients repeatedly.

Summary of the Findings of the International Survey

To summarise the facts obtained in the international survey, CAT tools tend to be used in most of the institutions surveyed (4 out of 6) and terminology management is the practice of all of them. Machine translation is not used (in one case it is used externally for gisting purposes, in another, a dedicated MT engine was tested and rejected). Best practice is hardly ever recorded in translation manuals and style guides that help harmonise house style, which are rather an exception than the rule (used in two out of the six cases). However, the departments are quality conscious as they employ revision practice in almost all of them (4/6).

To interpret the results, in some cases, the lack of a specific feature surveyed is not a deficiency but a deliberate choice (e.g. the avoidance of CAT tools by the Polish Ministry of Foreign Affairs, where there are very few repetitive texts to be translated as the department deals with press releases).

Conclusion

Comparing the findings of the international survey to the initial pilot study of 2014 in Czech Republic,[13] what is different is the fact that in the international survey, CAT usage and revision practice tend to be a standard scenario. Whereas one Czech translation department admitted to use a generic MT service as a translation aid, MT seems to be rejected across departments in the international view.

Some misbalanced use of technology and revision practice is obvious; however, the almost general disregard of translation resources providing for institutional memory (translation manuals) and harmonisation of style (style guides) is rather striking. It can be assumed that the reason for the absence is limited human resources and/or lack of appreciation of such information sources.

The pilot international survey and the comparison of its results with national findings of one country reveal a diverse landscape of QM practices in the area of institutional translation. Not all the means presumably applied for product quality in a supranational context (including revision and the consistency requirement)[14] could be traced in central governmental bodies in national contexts. Our findings fully support the conclusions made by Schäffner et al. (2014)[15] in that they

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[13] Some comparability issues might arise here, as the Czech survey was designed to address all the known centralised government translation departments, including those employing best practices and those that are not. On the contrary, the international survey addressed translation departments, the reach of which proved to be the easiest (or, at that stage, the only viable). It might be that the latter represent the top-performing departments, employing best practices across the board, and thus being representative of the national landscape to a limited extent. Further research is necessary to clarify this distinction.

[14] Cf. the following summarising account: "Institutional translation is typically collective, anonymous and standardised. The consistency of vocabulary, syntax and style of documents is ensured by, amongst others, *style guides and CAT tools,* revision procedures, and mentoring and training arrangements" (Schäffner et al. 2014: 494, referring further to Koskinen 2011; highlighting added).

[15] Cf. "[D]ifferences in the texts […] make it difficult to apply Koskinen's definition of institutional translation […] to Amnesty [International]." Or: "[T]he texts which are translated in the translation service of the Foreign Ministry […] would […] not come under the label of 'institutional translation' in the more specific sense". Or "[…] Koskinen's claim of institutional translation as self-translation cannot be verified for all our [case studies]". The work further acknowledges that "[t]ranslation departments of governments in other countries may operate differently" (pp. 507-509).

show a different reality vis-à-vis the notion of institutional translation[16] as coined so far. These facts call for a refinement of the definition of institutional translation as regards the types of translating institutions.

Potential and Limitations of the Study, and Future Prospects

The study does not come with the ambition of presenting representative results or strictly comparable data. At this stage, the aim of the study has rather been to show individual findings as case studies within a pilot project. Potential enhancements to the survey[17] might involve the inclusion of a more balanced array of institutions, e.g. focussing on comparable levels of hierarchy and/or similar types of thematic focus of such institutions (e.g. surveying translation departments with the ministries of foreign affairs in EU countries, where such departments exist).

Similarly, the three areas surveyed in the international survey (technology, translation manuals / style guides, specific QM strategy) are not exhaustive and cannot provide a full understanding of the quality management aspects of the department's daily work. In addition, to correlate the findings to the actual institutional setting, more background data on translation departments would be desirable, such as output volumes.

Future research avenues could include a more systematic approach. For example, representative surveys on institutional translation on national level in individual countries could be conducted, followed by an international comparison. Alternatively, an international perspective when contacting comparable national translation departments across countries could be obtained, without relying on national surveys first (which would be a follow-up approach to the present study).

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[16] This is, most likely, due to the fact that initial studies in institutional translation were concerned with top-level institutions, such as the EU, UN or the Translation Bureau of Canada's federal government, cf. also the following comment: "In previous work I have started my own definitions of institutional translation from the point of view of existing translation practices in multilingual institutions (particularly that in the European Commission)". (Koskinen 2014: 2)

[17] My appreciation for this feedback goes to Prof. Lucia Biel and other participants of the Prague Translating Europe workshop entitled Quality Aspects in Institutional Translation, held in the Institute of Translation Studies, Charles University, in late November 2016 as well as colleagues involved in the review process.

In terms of range, more EU and, eventually non-EU countries in Europe should be included. Further comparisons, beyond Europe, could follow. Such a research scope, however, would require the establishment of a research team, eventually launching a dedicated research project.

Further insight could be gained as regards translation departments' history, formal affiliation, text types, document lifecycle and translation workflow/management processes. As well, a more detailed view of the language/service portfolio would be relevant. This information would eventually help correlate the hard data obtained in surveys with the actual department settings: For instance, this way, the absence of a CAT tool, or, conversely, the use of several CAT tools in a department can be explained. Likewise, the lack of a translation manual and/or style guide is likely to be perceived differently in large departments with dozens of colleagues, as opposed to e.g. a setting of two in-house translators.

As regards the quality aspect, enquiries should be made into how quality is conceived and defined, while comparative analyses of translated texts would provide valuable data for evaluating product quality of the team output. Outside the actual translation departments, surveys of contractors would lay bare their QM procedures when they serve the institutional customer. A picture of national (and international) institutional networks should be drawn to follow up on horizontal cooperation channels of governmental translation units, should these channels exist.

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INTRODUCING A KOREAN-ENGLISH PARALLEL CORPUS FOR THE STANDARDISATION OF SOUTH KOREAN GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS: A TERMINOLOGY FOCUS

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ABSTRACT. Although the need to standardise terminologies and translations of South Korean government institutions has long been pointed out by many practitioners and scholars (Shin, 2007; Lee and Kim, 2013; Lee, 2014; Cheong and Lim, 2014 among others), the current practices and methods of translation still vary from tourism sectors to political bodies, and hence, the incoherence of translation products is notoriously problematic. Although the need of standardisation seems to have been shared by industry, academia, and politics, as apparently culminated in a Policy Discussion at the Korean National Assembly in April 2015, how standardisation might be achieved, especially in a quantitative manner, has received relatively little attention in the South Korean context. Against this backdrop, this study introduces a Korean-English parallel corpus to systemically standardise South Korean government documents and translations, particularly monolingual and comparative terminologies. The data of this study include: (i) the web-magazine of the National Museum of Contemporary Art, (ii) the press briefings of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and (iii) the annual speeches made by the Korean president, Lee Myung-bak, during his tenure from 2008 to 2013. The corpus consists of sixty-seven texts, and the total size amounts to 151,546 words.

Keywords: government translation, Lee Myung-bak, parallel corpus, South Korea, standardisation

Introduction

The incoherence of South Korean government translations, which has been notoriously problematic, has been continuously pointed out by not only many practitioners and scholars such as Shin (2007), Lee and Kim (2013), Lee (2014), Cheong and Lim (2014), and Choi (2014), but also government officials and politicians. According to the survey conducted by the Korea Tourism Organisation in 2012, nearly eighty-six percent of the officials in charge of translation reported that the translations in tourism sectors are not performed systematically because of, (i) inconsistencies in the proofreading system (19.8%), (ii) shortages of competent translators (18.5%), and (iii) a lack of standardisation for translation (17.1%) (Cheong, 2015: 52-53). It is argued that the widely criticised incoherence of, and inconsistency in, government translations are attributed to a lack of both good supervision and a standardisation system such as a manual for Romanisation (Choi, 2014; Cheong, 2015).[1] Such a need of standardisation, which has been recognised by industry, academia, and politics, was revealed in a Policy Discussion at the Korean National Assembly in April 2015 (Cho, 2015). However, how standardisation might be achieved, especially quantitatively, has received relatively little attention in the South Korean context. Against this backdrop, this study introduces a Korean-English parallel corpus to systemically standardise monolingual and comparative terminologies as found in South Korean government documents: (i) the web-magazine of the National Museum of Contemporary Art, (ii) the spokesperson's press briefings in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and (iii) President Lee Myung-bak's annual speeches. The three institutions are the translation institutions (Koskinen, 2008), in which production of the source text and the target text is regularly performed, and the data represent each institution.

Terminology may be defined as a set of "special words belonging to a science, an art, an author, or a social entity", which is used in specialised languages (Pavel and Nolet, 2001: xvii). The use of terminology in specialised languages should "facilitate unambiguous communication in a particular area of knowledge, based on a vocabulary and language usage specific to that area" (2001: xvii), and standardisation should be introduced "when there is a need to make a choice between names which coexist for a particular concept and conflicts of terminology occur" (Chan, 2015: 352; Sager, 1990: 114-115). When translation is involved, standardisation of monolingual terminologies should be premised; otherwise, inconsistencies in monolingual uses could impinge on translation. This is why terminology standardisation projects are often conducted in both monolingual and comparative perspectives, as in the

[1] For instance, different institutions follow different Romanisation rules, resulting in different orthographies, as in "Hangang", "Hangang (Riv)", "Han River", "River Han", and "Hangang River" (Choi, 2014: 208; Shin, 2016: 7), and "Kim Sung-Hwan" and "Kim Sung-hwan" (Choi, 2015: 291-292).

case of *the Handbook of Terminology* published by the Translation Bureau in Canada (Pavel and Nolet, 2001). This study, therefore, is based on an investigation of inconsistencies in monolingual and comparative terminologies, and it suggests ways to standardise them by using a parallel corpus.

The aforementioned inconsistent translation procedures and products in different Korean institutions partly but undoubtedly result from the structural nature of institutional "autonomy" (Berman, 2003) in South Korea. Despite the chaos caused by the various Romanisation rules, for instance, there is no way to compel institutions to abide by a rule unless it can be made legally binding (Cheong, 2015: 62). Autonomy also allows for independence between divisions of an institution, which often leads to confusion in translation practice. A case in point is the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism, where standardisation of terminologies for translation is governed by the Korean Language Policy Division, while textual translation falls within the remit of the Publication and Printing Industry Division; a situation that could result in out of context or mistranslation (Cheong, 2015: 62-64). The parallel corpus methodology, as it is used in this study, will provide the context in which an efficient way may be found to standardise the terminologies and translations of the three institutions.

Parallel corpus

As stated in the previous section, the corpus created for this study includes Korean source texts and English target texts of the web-magazine, *Art: Mu*, of the National Museum of Contemporary Art, the press briefings by the spokesperson of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and the annual speeches of President Lee Myung-bak. The web-magazine sub-corpus consists of three sections, (i) Collection, (ii) Interview, and (iii) UUL[2] (which was changed to "Transforming" from September 2012) from volume 46 to volume 55, incorporating 17,775 words of the source text and 29,488 words of the target text. The press briefings include briefings between April and June 2012 by the spokesperson and his deputy, who delivers them when the spokesperson is away, which incorporate 18,649

[2] The National Museum of Contemporary Art had planned to name the newly launched Seoul museum 'UUL', which was the Romanised form of its Korean name, 울. The UUL section of the web-magazine included descriptions of the building, the designs, etc. Because the Museum decided to change its name to 'Seoul Museum', the UUL section was also changed to "Transforming" from September 2012.

words of the source text and 27,405 words of the target text. President Lee's speech sub-corpus includes (i) New Year addresses, (ii) New Year Greetings, (iii) the March First Independence Movement Day addresses, and (iv) the National Liberation addresses, all of which incorporate 19,453 words of the source text and 38,776 words of the target text. The total corpus size amounts to 151,546 words. Figure 1 shows a corpus view of a search phrase, "Lee Myung-bak".

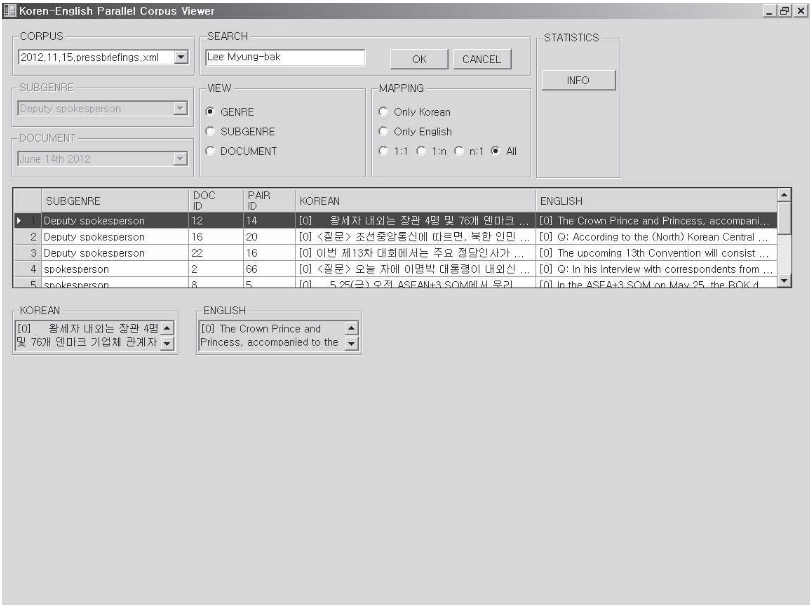

Figure 1: A corpus view of "Lee Myung-bak"

The corpus is a sentence-level tagged parallel corpus of Korean and English, which displays genre, subgenre, and document information as well as a search word or phrase in context and the counterpart. By using the search function, a word or phrase and its counterpart are filtered as in Figure 1 above.

Analysis

In order to achieve standardisation, it is important to note the most frequently articulated words in each or all genres of data. As a point of departure, Wordlist in WordSmith Tools 6.0. was used to identify frequently pronounced terminologies in the data (Scott, 2014). Because Korean uses postpositions to signal case and different conjunctions and endings in a word unit, lemmatisation has been suggested as a useful method to group several entities into the same lemma, when comparing Korean and English word lists (Kim, 2013; Choi, 2015). However, with lemmatisation, there would be an inevitable loss because it is difficult to lemmatise all Korean entries. Therefore, in this study, an unlemmatised wordlist of English translations was analysed, and then frequently used terminologies were grouped and compared with their Korean counterparts in the parallel corpus.

Based on Cheong et al. (2013) and Choi (2015), terminologies in Korean government are categorised as follows: (i) meeting, (ii) status (job title), (iii) text genre, (iv) policy, (v) agreement or treaty, (vi) institute or institution, (vii) division, (viii) department, (ix) group or organisation, and (x) historical event. Of the 7844 entries in the English word list, excluding types with fewer than two tokens, 4578 entries were firstly analysed. Then, the entries matching the above ten categories were investigated in the corpus, and the Korean counterparts were compared to identify whether there is any inconsistency in usage in the three genres, and vice versa. Inconsistent usages were identified within the categories of "meeting" and "policy".

Inconsistencies in monolingual and comparative terminologies of meeting and standardisation

When English words denoting meeting, such as "meeting", "forum", "summit" and "conference", were searched in the corpus, the corpus displayed inconsistent usages, as in Table 1.

Table 1 reveals the inconsistent monolingual and comparative usages of terminologies identified not only between genres but also between sub-genres. From the beginning of his incumbency in 2009, President Lee held weekly sessions of what he called "비상경제대책회의" (gloss: emergency economic measures meeting). The terminology appeared in the 2009 National Liberation address as "비상경제회의" (gloss: emergency economic meeting) and was translated literally into "Emergency Economic Meeting". However, in 2011 and 2012, the terminology changed to "비상경제대책회의" referring to the same series of weekly events, but the meaning component of "measures" was added to it. Interestingly, the translations tend to be faithful to the original speech, albeit both terminologies refer to the same thing. As evidenced in Baker's study of interpreting political interviews with "someone in a position of supreme

<table>
<tr><th>SEARCH WORD</th><th>ENGLISH TYPE</th><th>KOREAN TYPE</th><th>TOKEN</th><th>GENRE</th><th>SUBGENRE</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">meeting</td><td>Meeting for Emergency Economic Measures</td><td rowspan="2">비상경제대책회의</td><td>1</td><td rowspan="3">speech</td><td>IM 2011</td></tr>
<tr><td>meeting for emergency economic measures</td><td>1</td><td>NL2012</td></tr>
<tr><td>Emergency Economic Meeting</td><td>비상경제회의</td><td>1</td><td>NL2009</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="11">summit</td><td>G-20 Summit</td><td rowspan="2">G20회의</td><td>1</td><td rowspan="2">briefing</td><td rowspan="2">DS</td></tr>
<tr><td>Summit</td><td>1</td></tr>
<tr><td>G20 Summit</td><td>G20 회의</td><td>1</td><td>speech</td><td>NL2011</td></tr>
<tr><td>G-20 Summit</td><td>G20</td><td>1</td><td>briefing</td><td>DS</td></tr>
<tr><td>G-20 Summit</td><td rowspan="2">G20 정상회의</td><td>3</td><td rowspan="2">speech</td><td>NY2010, NYG2010</td></tr>
<tr><td>G20 Seoul Summit</td><td>1</td><td>NY2012</td></tr>
<tr><td>G20 Seoul Summit</td><td rowspan="2">서울 G20정상회의</td><td>6</td><td>speech</td><td>NY2011, NYG2011, IM2011, IM2012, NL2010</td></tr>
<tr><td>G20 Summit</td><td>1</td><td>speech</td><td>NL2012</td></tr>
<tr><td>G-20 Summit</td><td>G20 서울정상회의</td><td>1</td><td>speech</td><td>IM2010</td></tr>
<tr><td>Seoul Summit</td><td rowspan="2">서울 회의</td><td>1</td><td rowspan="2">speech</td><td rowspan="2">NL2010</td></tr>
<tr><td>G20 Seoul Summit</td><td>1</td></tr>
</table>

Table 1: Inconsistent terminologies of meeting[3]

power" (Baker, 1997: 121), a translator's discretion may be severely restricted because of the status and authority of the speaker, resulting in a verbatim translation. In fact, the official name for the meeting appears to be "비상경제대책회의", considering the policy broadcast on January 6, 2009 by the Public Policy Broadcasting Service,[4] while "비상경제회의" can be seen as an improvised synonymous variation of the same speaker, or "self-

[3] IM: March First Independence Movement address, NY: New Year address, NYG: New Year Greetings, NL: National Liberation address, DS: Deputy Spokesperson's briefing, S: Spokesperson's briefing

[4] Retrieved from http://www.ktv.go.kr/content/view?content_id=290431, last accessed Feb 8, 2018

variation" (Freixa, 2006: 52), the feature of oral speech (Schäffner and Bassnett, 2010). In addition, capitalisation for the terminology was not consistently applied. The term should be capitalised because it denotes a special, official meeting for economic emergencies in President Lee's administration.

With the search word, "summit", the corpus exhibited different usages of punctuation, such as "G20 Summit" and "G-20 Summit". Inconsistent uses are not only identified between genres, but also between sub-genres of speech, which could mean that standardisation of punctuation was not established or practiced in the President's office. In addition, the variations in Table 1 suggest that standardisation of monolingual and comparative terminologies was not established. The Korean counterparts of "G-20 summit" or "G20 Summit" include "G20회의" (gloss: G20 meeting), "G20정상회의" (gloss: G20 summit), and "G20 서울 정상회의" (gloss: G20 Seoul Summit), but in the speeches, "정상회의" is more frequently articulated than "회의", emphasising the higher status of a meeting at which the leaders of given countries discuss significant economic, political, and strategic issues. The different choices made by a speaker can be seen as a typical discursive feature in order to avoid repetition; however, these variations can hamper "communicative efficiency" (Freixa, 2006: 60), particularly when they are used in different genres and documents. For instance, "G20" in Table 1 could have meant not the meeting but the countries concerned in the meeting had it not referred to "G20 Summit" in one document.[5]

Inconsistencies in monolingual and comparative terminologies of policy and standardisation

In the wordlist, words related to policies were grouped and searched for in the corpus such as "centrist", "unification", "reunification", "growth", "poverty", "measures", "economy", "nuclear", and "peace". Inconsistent usage of "centrist" was identified, as in Table 2 below.

[5] Of course, no journalist would have been misled by "G20" in here. The cause for the variation in the Deputy Spokesperson's briefing could be closely related to the addressees' level of specialisation. As also noted in Riggs (1993), however, the use of precise concepts and non-ambiguous denominations can guarantee wide accessibility to non-specialists, in this case, citizens.

Search word	English type	Korean type	Token	Genre	Subgenre
centrist	centrist pragmatism	친서민 중도실용	4	speech	NY2010 NL2010 NL2011
	to assist mid- and low-income families based on centrist pragmatism				
	pro-working class policy based on centrist pragmatism				
	pro-working class centrist pragmatism				
	centrist pragmatism	중도실용주의	1		IM2010
	Working-class friendly, centrist pragmatism	친서민 중도실용주의	1		IM2011
	practical, centrist pragmatism	중도 실용	1		NL2009
	centrist pragmatism		1		
	centrist pragmatism	중도	3		NL2009

Table 2: Inconsistent monolingual and comparative terminologies of "centrist"

According to Jang (2010), "중도실용" (gloss: centrist pragmatism) is a political stance adopted by President Lee's administration in order to avoid the ideological confrontation between the left and the right and to push forward change and innovation in South Korea (Jang, 2010: 94). The terminology was first introduced in the 2009 National Liberation address and modulated to "친서민 중도실용" (gloss: pro-working class centrist pragmatism) in 2010 and 2011. As in the case of "비상경제회의" above, the monolingual change seems to have influenced the translation changes from "centrist pragmatism" to "pro-working class centrist pragmatism". Whilst "중도실용" tends to be translated as "centrist pragmatism",[6] except for one case in which an explanation, "practical", is added, when the

[6] Interestingly, when the Korean phrase, "친서민 중도실용" was searched on the corpus, the corpus exhibited another English variation, "a pro-working class policy based on moderate pragmatism" in the 2010 National Liberation address, in addition to the five variations in Table 2. This means that a translation for "중도실용" is not standardised in the data.

concept was first introduced in the 2009 speech, translations for "친서민" vary from "pro-working class" to "to assist mid- and low- income families". The non-denominative variation can hardly be seen as a terminology in specialised language, and the inclusion of mid-income families for the translation of "서민" (gloss: working class people) is particularly interesting. Consider the following extract from the corpus.

> ST: 정부는 앞으로도 **친서민 중도실용** 정책과 **생활공감 정책**을 더욱 강화하여 공정한 사회가 깊이 뿌리 내리도록 최선을 다할 것입니다.
> [The Government will do its best to help a fair society take firm root by further reinforcing pro-working class centrist pragmatism policies and life-friendly policies.]
> TT: The Government will do its utmost to help a fair society take firm root by further reinforcing the implementation of policies geared **to assist mid- and low-income families based on centrist pragmatics** and **other policies that have a direct bearing on daily lives**.
> (The 2010 National Liberation address, the National Archive of Korea)

Because the same Korean term, "서민" appeared in the previous stretch of the same text and was translated into "pro-working class", the change could be construed as a discursive feature used to avoid repetition. However, the two terminologies, "working class" and "mid- and low-income families" have different meanings; therefore, this may cause confusion. Additionally, a comparative terminology for "생활공감 정책" (gloss: life-friendly policy) does not seem to be standardised. The corpus also exhibited discrepancies in addition to the above example, such as "Welfare for the Underprivileged", "policies that will be of substantial help to ordinary people", and "the Government's policies that strike a chord with ordinary people in their everyday lives" (the 2008 National Liberation address). Such discrepancies are indicative of the non-standardised comparative terminology for the policy, although the policy has been implemented and identified as key ever since President Lee's administration (Cho and Park, 2011).[7] Such significant discrepancies and competing terms in both monolingual and comparative perspectives prompt the need for standardisation (Chan, 2015: 352).

For the monolingual discrepancies, it could be suggested to "prepare single-concept terminology case files" (Pavel and Nolet, 2001: xviii) in

[7] Since 2008 when President Lee came into post, the South Korean government has underlined the implementation of "생활공감 정책", and it has operated an official website for the policy (http://www.happylife.go.kr/).

order to standardise usage. In addition, with the development and utilisation of translation memory tools or databases, such as the parallel corpus in this study, the institutional practice of monolingual and comparative terminologies can be efficiently managed.

Concluding remarks

This study introduced a parallel corpus to systemically standardise the monolingual and comparative terminologies in three South Korean government institutions. Inconsistencies were identified in both the briefing and the speech sub-corpora. As is clear from the variety of designations, terminology standardisation in South Korea remains in its infancy. The non-standardised Korean and English terminologies for significant political policies appeared to be unequivocal, and in many cases, inconsistencies in monolingual usage seemed to result in discrepancies in translation. Such deficiencies highlight the need to develop and utilise a database or a parallel corpus, as was done in this study, which can provide for both monolingual and comparative usages in context, as has been noted by others (Hong, 2015; Lim, 2015). Another practical way to achieve standardisation could be the development of a prescriptive dictionary to provide a useful guidance for language integration (Chan, 2015: 357).

However small a step towards standardisation it may be, at the time of writing in December 2015, the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism produced a guideline on Romanisation of roads, mountains, rivers, cultural attractions, etc., in collaboration with the Cultural Heritage Administration and the Korea Tourism Organisation. It is hoped that the current complexity of variations can be simplified in accordance with the guideline. In conclusion, it is hoped that a parallel corpus methodology, as it has been used in this study, will contribute to standardisation by suggesting a systemic and efficient way of managing and controlling both monolingual and bilingual data.

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DETERMINING THE FUNDAMENTALS OF PROFESSIONALISM IN ACADEMIC AND INSTITUTIONAL TRANSLATION: BRIDGING GAPS AND STANDARDIZING PRACTICES

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ABSTRACT. This paper provides an overview of the practice of translation in the Arab World, its various academic and professional aspects, and the regulatory norms and procedures which constitute the main determinants governing the relationship between translation institutions and the marketplace. The complex relationship between different stakeholders in the translation industry does not only affect the translation output, but equally marks the process of producing, retaining and training translators, and gauging the quality of their work and their ability to be industrially competitive. In diagnosing the status of translation in the Arab World in relation to the institutional imperative as a major influential factor in the work of translators it is essential to compare it to other forms of practice which, though apparently similar in attitude and orientation, might reflect a different reality since translation is increasingly judged as an open market-driven product, a value-carrier commodity more than as an academic artifact shaped by the knowledge of linguists and theorists. To bridge the numerous gaps and deficiencies which exist in the field, especially those affecting the relationship between translation theory and practice and the objectives and outcomes of training programs, and to promote the art and practice of translation outside of academe, this paper recommends the implementation of rigorous standards for the professionalization of translation, the creation of ad hoc control and assessment departmental units and authorities to serve the translation industry, regulate its performance, monitor the work of its practitioners and maintain its professional standards.

Keywords: Translation, theory, professionalism, standardization, quality control and assurance.

Introduction

In emerging economies and countries where communication across languages is an essential component of the general development strategy agenda, the need for translation service and expertise counts among the top priorities of institutions, policymakers and language planners. The fact that the status of foreign languages and the promotion of translation in all its forms are strategically linked to human development and are vital contributors to the welfare of nations cannot be overemphasized. Translation has invariably accompanied the digital revolution in all its phases, and the industry of online translation today, which is a useful source of employment for youth, is its major facet (*UNDP Human Development Report 2015: Work for Human Development*: 90). The role of translators as mediators between different stakeholders has long been recognized in countries where speaking foreign languages is no longer considered an elitist privilege, especially in lesser developed countries, but rather a necessity dictated by the dynamics of global exchanges and market values, hence the strategic relationship between language and human development. However, the perception of translation and translators within an institutional framework, and in its pedagogical and professional sides, is fraught with various forms and levels of shortcomings, oversights and wrong practices. Any academic debate which probes into the state of the translation profession is likely to raise, though not necessarily in the same order, the following questions: What kind of knowledge should be transferred from L1 to L2: theoretical, practical or both? Who should be assigned strategic and sensitive translation tasks, i.e. those which concern human and technological development, and what kinds of professional criteria and norms should be adopted to determine quality and value with a view to protecting translators and the profession? What concrete steps are needed to make translation training programs more effective and professional in the endeavor to guarantee excellent learning outcomes and to provide institutions with well-rounded translators who are entrepreneurial in their vision of translation and the workplace? Above all, and with specific reference to the problematic raised throughout this paper, what mechanisms are required to bridge the existing gaps between training institutions and the professional world, and how prepared is the terrain for the implementation of international standards which aim to achieve the highest levels of professionalization of the field of translation in the Arab World[1] by regulating practices and monitoring performance?

The problem with the above questions is that they do not only keep being raised in miscellaneous discussion forums and learned societies, as well as in the relevant literature (Drugan, 2013: 82), but there is no genuine or statistically verifiable information about the commitment of institutions to resolve the issues or establish the necessary mechanisms, agendas and timelines to address them. Once they have exhausted the very purpose for which they are raised, they end up slipping into oblivion. The reasons are too many to enumerate in the context of this paper, but at least from a broad perspective it seems clear that lack of strong resources and competencies, laxity, conflicts of interest and patronizing tendencies are often perceived as blameworthy. Based on my exposure to the field of translation as a course instructor, a freelance translator and interpreter, and a translation certification examiner, it looks that the main translation issues raised outside of the academic context are essentially due to the very problems faced in academia, but these are either left unresolved or are deferred in the hope that the translation industry, thanks to the opportunities it avails translators in terms of experience and logistical resources, would deal with them in a more practical manner. This is exactly where things often go awry because the market or the workplace is not a suitable context for the correction of pedagogical and curricular errors committed all along the training itinerary of the translator. As one of the main tasks of this paper is to address those elements of translation pedagogy that have direct bearings on the profession and the end users, i.e. the institutional entities served by translation training programs, it is important to inquire about these issues in the background sections of this paper which address the academic context of translation, its teaching objectives, methods and learning outcomes. Simply stated, it is impractical to dissociate the professional from the academic, especially if we take into consideration the fact that translation training in the Arab World is almost exclusively anchored in the academic tradition and as an offshoot of the humanities and social sciences.

[1] The Arab World refers to the twenty-two countries which are members of the Arab League and where Standard Arabic (SA) is adopted as an official language. Stretching from Morocco in northwestern Africa to the Sultanate of Oman on the Arabian Peninsula, the Arab World has a total population of over 420 million. Although other languages and dialects are widely spoken in many parts of the Arab World, SA remains the official language of administration, communication and education and, with regards to the present paper, translation training and service predominantly involves the use of SA either as SL or TL.

Too much theory and very limited learning outcomes: Charting the road toward professionalism

One of the main challenges facing the teaching of translation in many parts of the Arab World lies in the hegemonic national identity determinant which curbs any endeavor to embrace transnationalism and call for the universalization of academic standards in designing programs, selecting candidates (staff and students) and elaborating policies that could serve as benchmarks and quality assurance markers. Though institutions serving the language sphere do exist in the MENA (Middle East and North Africa) region, such as L'Institut d'études et de recherches pour l'arabisation, founded in the capital of the Kingdom of Morocco, Rabat, in 1960, as well as the different national translation and Arabization schools, colleges and centers, their work and their impact rarely transcend the boundaries of institutions as such. They do not in any way influence the day-to-day language practices or impose themselves as regulatory entities because of lack of consensus and harmonization, which results from the absence of coordination and reliance on individual efforts. Detached from the community and the wider environment, their influence remains limited in scope and does not carry any significant social or cultural dimension. In the absence of quantifiable surveys and statistical data about their performance, input and output, the work of these institutions can only be reliably assessed through the profiles of their academics, which reveal significant indulgence in theory-oriented approaches to academic issues. It, therefore, goes without saying that whoever is trained in their school of methodology is likely to perpetuate their academic and political agendas. A ubiquitous characteristic of this phenomenon lies in the excessive reliance on academic training in translation matters and the perception of translation as service to be delivered by any graduate who holds a specialized degree in the field or who is trained in foreign languages, and by adopting a "trial and error" approach, they will ultimately learn the nuts and bolts of the métier. As an academic discipline, translation is usually placed in a theoretical context mostly informed by applied linguistics, language studies, pragmatics and rhetoric more than an industry-driven approach in which the trainee is capable of manipulating tools and practicing translation in a career-inspired and industrial setting. Moreover, framing translation within the field of area studies or as a minor in the department of English dislodges it from its natural context: interdisciplinarity. What really matters here is, in the words of Venuti, how "to challenge disciplinary complacency" (2012: 2).

The popularization of theory and the extensive use of computerization in learning and instruction have not resulted in a significant enhancement of language skills, which is a common problem across the MENA region. The Education First Index, which ranks countries by English proficiency skills, warns that except for Morocco and the UAE, the Middle East and North Africa region "has the lowest level of English proficiency in the world, and the overall level of proficiency is improving in only a few countries. All of the countries in the region are in the lowest proficiency band."

It seems that the profiles of graduate students tend to focus more on quantifiable knowledge derived from coursework and traditional learning methods than on the effective methods to develop language competency. In particular, academic translation training programs in the Arab World integrate language studies for their intrinsic theoretical value, which is mostly derived from applied linguistics and discourse analysis, thus making of the study of translation a perforce extension of applied language studies, which is also clearly reflected in the makeshift policy of staffing translation departments and units with applied linguists in the absence of translation specialists, and though this practice may have a raison d'être, it is frowned upon by those who critique this attitude (Lederer, 2007; Al Qinai, 2011).

The scarcity of specialized and independent translation training centers, and the classical perception of translation as a branch, a unit or a division of English studies inevitably prejudice the field and empower the institutional/institutionalized regulatory authority which lays down the norms and decrees affecting the entire educational system without any consideration for the specificities of each discipline and area study. Administered within such a tight institutional framework, many translation programs in the Arab World cannot negotiate the terms under which they operate or redraw the parameters which define their missions and visions as subordinate fields. This does not only happen in relation to the macro institutional level, but also at the micro level and within the institutional space where the training is offered. The question of the interplay of power politics and educational policy is, evidently, not unique to the Arab context and has been debated exhaustively in the appropriate literature (see, among others, Freire, 1985 and Weiler, 2011).

The centralization issue and the increasing hegemonic institutional grip over academic matters make it extremely difficult for translation programs, inter alia, to aspire to the professional levels and standards established by the translation industry. Excluding the handful of specialized translation institutes and centers, in nearly all departments of

English language and literature in the Arab World, translation units often end up reporting to a chair whose academic background is in linguistics, literature or cultural studies; and it is very uncommon for a department of English to be chaired by a translation specialist. Conflicts of interest are bound to prevail in a climate where some department chairs transcend their role of coordinators to that of legislators, especially in matters appertaining to pedagogy, assessment, research orientation, supervision and placement. Only a translation specialist can determine how these should be carried out. The question of program (mis)management at the academic level can seriously affect the pedagogical aspect and impede the professionalization process which instructional curricula should aim for in the training part.

One of the classical complaints about academic translation programs in the Arab World is their lack of entrepreneurialism on account of the prolonged time translation trainees spend in the classroom studying textbooks and theorizing about translation, which deprives them of internships and industrial opportunities. Lack of rigorous exposure to authentic situations in which translation is used makes it hard to assess the quality of the training delivered within the confines of lecture halls. The translation market today requires talent and expertise derived from the real world and which is capable of being assessed against quality standards and evaluative methods. The facts on the ground, however, reveal that the translation enterprise in the Arab World is either compelled to accommodate the constraints, often by compromising quality to save the profession and protect a strategic source of livelihood, or by depleting much needed human and financial resources in such a competitive world by offering onsite training for translators and interpreters who are often proficient in the theories, schools and methods of translation but who lack hands-on experience. Contrary to what many translation theorists and educators advocate, providing in-service training and development as a remedial practice to optimize professional skills may not be a sustainable option, as it might compromise standards and drain the resources of the translation industry.

Learning outcomes, knowledge transfer and the role of institutions: Issues that matter across the board

Despite its recognition of the role and importance of professional training through internships, vocational placement and practicum programs, one of the immediate consequences of the predominance of a theory-oriented translation curriculum is its inadequacy in turning into reality the visionary mission of training well-rounded translators, which all translation programs aspire to achieve. One of the easiest ways to fulfill this vision is actually by establishing platforms to empower translation trainees to bridge the numerous gaps between the academic world and the workplace by orienting training toward the market and help trainees acquire marketable skills. In addition to what Kiraly (2000) and Al Qinai (2011) have put forward to bridge the gaps between the classroom and the real world, other bolder steps could be envisaged here, such as requiring membership in professional translation associations and reaching out to the community through free-of-charge translation and interpreting services for migrants, refugees and asylum-seekers. In the West, this type of practice is already well established, and there is no reason to believe it cannot be transferred to the Arab World. At least in North America and some European countries, membership in professional translation boards is mandatory for the practice of regulated translation, and the board acts as a regulatory entity with a clearly defined mandate to safeguard the profession, protect the public interest, liaise and settle disputes between clients and translation service providers. In the Arab World, however, the licensing task and the organizational aspect of the profession are still in the hands of different government entities and bureaucrats who, depending on the country, represent various ministries and legal authorities that may not even have the relevant competency. Professionalization of the sector in the Arab World could perhaps start here by encouraging the establishment of translation and interpreting boards and empowering them. This endeavor should be preceded by a deregultory process that will eventually pave the way for a professional prototype inspired by the one adopted in the medical or legal field, in an attempt to provide viable solutions to the numerous challenges the sector faces in some Arab countries, including in particular Morocco where the organisational and deontological aspects of the profession leave much to be desired (Fagnon, 2017).

Some translation institutes in the Arab World, like l'Ecole Supérieure Roi Fahd de Traduction (King Fahd School of Translation) in Tangier (Morocco),which is an affiliate of Abdelmalek Essaâdi University, ensure that practical training is one of the priorities of their translation programs. The fact of the matter, however, is that students spend more time learning about the various theories, methodologies and techniques of translation than actually *doing* translation, acquiring industrial experience or fulfilling their mission as cultural mediators and entrepreneurs. On the other hand, as translators, they may be considered more as language mediators than cultural ones because they are trained in limited aspects of translation– usually more legal and financial than literary and cultural. This also applies to other translation institutes in the MENA region where it is commodious for program designers to train students within the precincts of the institution than make the effort to create research and professional opportunities for them to practice translation in authentic settings. It should also be noted that the market might not always prove cooperative and is somewhat skeptical about the quality of academic translation programs, which makes it difficult for the academic institution to find appropriate internship and placement opportunities for graduates. This largely explains the complaint about translation programs in many parts of the Arab World as being too theoretical and the graduates as lacking essential industrial skills (Alaoui, 2015). In some cases, the absence of institutional coordination forces students to undertake on their own the task of looking for training opportunities to hone their translation skills. In others, however, the placement of translation graduates in the job market is carried out as part of the overall "social contract" between the state and the citizens, thus reinforcing the powers and agendas of the state and making of public service a sphere for the rentier state where it can prove its generosity, contain unemployment, protect public interest and forge social harmony. In the absence of statistical resources and on account of the difficulty of accessing verifiable data (Baker, 1998: 324), one could hardly make exceptions to these general impressions about the state of training programs in translation in the Arab World. Iraq, which once hosted some of the finest translation institutes and academic programs in the Arab World and was *the* model par excellence, is now in a chaotic state as a result of instability, strife and foreign invasion.

Training the trainer: Unifying standards and elaborating clear language policies

The gaps between educational institutions and the market needs are also due to lack of adequate training opportunities for the trainers themselves. While professional development is an academic pillar, as institutions emphasize its role in keeping faculty informed about the developments taking place in their field of teaching and research, the administrative constraints are too burdensome and the academic and financial incentives are not attractive enough to make of professional development and training such keen pursuits. Despite the value ascribed to research and academic development as part of the holistic faculty profile, in response to the exigencies of globalization and educational reform, institutions in several parts of the Arab World still consider teaching as the instructor's primary duty, hence the standard complaint about excessive teaching loads and unusually high faculty/student ratios. Teaching evaluation remains a vital quality indicator, and the fate of untenured faculty depends to a large extent on how instructors are perceived by their students. This tense academic environment can be counterproductive as it puts unwanted pressure on trainers and conditions their work.

Clearly, lack of adequate training and the doctrine of the “on-the-job” development can seriously affect the quality and credibility of translation programs, their administration and learning outcomes. This field evolves not merely through the theory of knowledge but through industrial experience and constant exposure to the sources of information, at the technical, logistical and terminological levels. Translation products and the technologies which bring them into existence constantly evolve, and so do the outlets which facilitate the transfer of knowledge in various languages and the terminological concepts and corpora which serve end-user purposes.

A clear manifestation of the hiatus between academic institutions and the market lies in the deficiency of communication and the absence of a common work vision and platform. Whatever organizational or pedagogical aspect of institutional coordination that may exist remains deficient. Attempts at establishing “pan-Arab” translation programs and policies with strong institutional backing have yet to materialize. These endeavors toward standardization and harmonization of language policies were eclipsed by other matters, namely political ones, which were considered more urgent and strategic in the early days of the postcolonial period. Under Article III of the Charter of Arab Cultural Unity, the Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization (ALECSO) was established in 1970. The Office for the Coordination of Arabization was annexed to it in 1972 as one of its cultural organs. The Office emerged from the first Arabization conference held in Rabat, Kingdom of Morocco, in 1961 and was subsequently attached to the Arab League. Because of their political agendas and the spheres of influence under which they operate, these institutions have a limited impact, and their efforts have yet to lead to the desired consensus and to translate into tangible reality.

Dealing with the challenges of establishing standards, validating programs and implementing quality assurance: An optimistic perspective

Another problem facing translation institutions in the Arab World, though not a unique one to the field, lies in the difficulty of determining expertise and identifying the competent agencies to assess and validate academic translation programs, especially that the external accreditors of academic programs are usually based in the West. With the possible exception of the Faculty of Translation and Interpreting at the University of Geneva and very few other institutions in Europe and North America, the accrediting agencies, which primarily seek to spread their wings and enhance their coffers, rarely include Arabists in their teams of evaluators and they may not always be qualified to provide a reliable assessment of translation programs administered in the Arab World. While program evaluators emphasize objective criteria, such as quality and performance indices in the target programs, in addition to streamlining aims, objectives and outcomes, they may not always be familiar with the political and cultural aspects involved in their work. The raison d'être for the accreditation "hype" may not be genuinely academic, as it can be motivated by other factors which are not necessarily always known to the accreditor. The profit imperative and the incentives sought by the accreditor, combined with the political (for public institutions) and/or financial (for private institutions) considerations which most of the time constitute the drive behind the accreditation process from the perspective of the applicant institution, and without excluding other equally significant intrinsic and extrinsic factors, such as self-image and college-level or regional competition, often eclipse the genuine academic value of accreditation and end up compromising standards. On the other hand, these accrediting agencies may be adept in providing expertise in areas of theory, program conception and delivery, learning outcomes and market feedback on the whole, as seen from their background perspective, but they may not always be able to determine the quality and degree of professionalism and competency of the outcomes, or gauge the specifics of the different phases of the program, its delivery methods and the quality of the human resources and the standards used in their recruitment and retention, as well as the various cultural and political academic layers. These are complex variables which require time and awareness of the political and cultural dynamics of the society under study.

It should be noted here that most institutions today have departments of quality assurance, and in their keen pursuit of quality and standards, they strive to ensure that outsourced tasks, including translation ones, are carried out by well-trained and professional translators who do not only possess the relevant knowledge but who are also cognizant of the constantly evolving technology in their own field and in others'. In order to address the issue of quality in translation in an Arabic context, the following question is worth considering: What practical steps are needed to make Arabic translation training programs more effective and professional in order to guarantee excellent learning outcomes and to staff institutions with well-rounded translators who are entrepreneurial in their vision of translation and the workplace? A radical but viable approach to this question, which may also help provide an answer to the main question raised in this paper regarding the required mechanisms to deal with the prevalent gaps between training institutions and the professional world, might involve drastic proposals to reshuffle academic translation programs, increase internship programs and ascribe more value to them in terms of focus and assessment. Also, in order to create a friendly environment for the acquisition and transfer of appropriate knowledge, the curriculum should set professionalism as a fundamental aim by emphasizing the role other stakeholders, especially entrepreneurs and industrialists from outside the academic arena, should play in coursework elaboration, administration and delivery. From an institutional perspective, translation degrees awarded at all university levels should be renegotiated and redefined to be treated as professional ones, in emulation of degrees in business administration and similar fields. It would also be interesting to see what potential impact the reorientation of the staffing factor in institutions would have on the quality of translation programs and their outcomes, by assigning specific pedagogical tasks to professionals and accredited translators who are members of recognized boards and who can provide logistical support to the theorists and academics. In this case, academic programs could ideally be outsourced, but without necessarily being commodified, so that they can benefit from the best of both academia and industry. The feasibility of this approach is inspired by the outcome-based approach of industry and its impact on such fields as education, language studies, science, engineering, business studies, etc. by reorienting them toward horizons they had previously overlooked or of which they were incognizant.

In the absence of scientifically quantifiable studies which could investigate the ways specialized academic disciplines serviced by translation are involved, it seems that when translation is used in many parts of the Arab World as a medium for the transfer of technical knowledge, it is perceived only in its broad context. Alaoui (2015) alludes to this “deficiency”, but given that his paper explores technical translation per se as a vehicle for knowledge transfer, which is only a partial component of the present paper, his findings could still pave the way for an elaborate discussion of the role other types of translation should occupy in academic translation and beyond, and how they can be developed using the intrinsic values of the target disciplines and across them (e.g. the inclusion of translation studies in scientific curricular contexts, medical interpreting, translation and business communication, etc.). Actually, one of the main problems institutions and government agencies face when seeking translation services lies in finding well-trained linguists/translators who are subject-specific experts at the same time, as translation remains essentially the niche of the humanities, linguistics and literary studies in particular, who can provide the translation market with language mediators who have a high command of language, relative as it may in fact be, but who lack industrial experience and professional training in the relevant field of work. In fact, some successful models do actually exist, and they may help enhance professional mobility, which is unfortunately what public institutions and government departments and authorities usually frown upon because transferring them requires colossal human and logistical resources. Similar concerns about academic translation programs in relation to institutions, though treated from a different perspective, are explored in Atari & Al-Sharafi (2012) in their investigative work on the gaps between institutional norms, guidelines and policies, particularly in the publishing industry, and translation theory norms. By emphasizing the role academic translation training programs can play in accommodating the professional norms and standards of the publishing industry, the trajectories of Atari & Al-Sharafi's paper, on the one hand, and the present one, on the other hand, do in fact intersect, which reveals that the hiatus between academe and the marketplace is by no means marginal.

Conclusion

In seeking to diagnose the field of Arabic translation from a holistic perspective, and by placing it in the larger academic and institutional settings where it operates in many parts of the Arab World, this paper is but an attempt to identify the different gaps and deficiencies which exist in the field, particularly those affecting the relationship between translation theory and practice and the objectives and outcomes of training programs, and to propose viable solutions to fix them. It, above all, advocates the rigorous standardization of norms and practices and the attribution of professionalization markers and indices which could serve to assess the extent of their applicability to the work of translation theorists, trainers and practitioners. In essence, this requires the establishment of decentralized and independent deontological standards and codes of practice for the professionalization of translation, as well as the creation of ad hoc control and assessment departmental units and authorities to meet the exigencies of the translation industry, regulate its performance and outcome, monitor the work of its practitioners and maintain its professional standards. One of the fundamental logistical challenges encountered by the researcher while undertaking this investigative task is the scarcity of statistical data and resources about specific institutions and case studies which could have reinforced the main arguments raised in this paper. It should be noted in passing that much of the scholarly work done in the field of translation in the Arab World is either too theoretical and rhetorical or too specific and narrow in focus and orientation, for it has traditionally been geared to applied language studies. There is hardly any worthwhile scholarly breakthrough in the area of economic, business, financial and institutional translation. From a purely impressionistic perspective, the issues discussed in this paper might seem very easy to identify and diagnose and the facts are perhaps all too evident, especially for translation theorists and practitioners who are familiar with the terrain, yet the relevant studies that could bring them to the fore are almost nonexistent. On the other hand, the hurdles of transcending pedagogy to embrace policy and ideology are too many to list in this paper, for they have only been narrowly explored, and researchers in the field are certainly aware of them and they should deal with them the way academics and practitioners approach similar matters in their respective fields. The primary concern of this paper has been, in some sort, to contextualize the challenges in order to understand their real nature and to hammer out the appropriate approaches and mechanisms to address the gaps and deficiencies encountered in the field. Fixing some of these problems may also be part of the main problem itself, which is how to bring academic training in translation to a level commensurate with the hopes and expectations of institutions, program designers, pedagogues and policy makers. Prioritizing quality and ensuring its implementation in theory and practice, in the classroom as well as in the corporation, we should keep the debate about the state, place and role of translation in the Arab World open and reevaluate translation curricula in the light of the developments taking place in pedagogy, technology and management, emphasizing not only translation competency and communication, as is commonly the practice in most Arabic translation programs, but developing in the trainee the potential for professional mediation and networking. The current debate about what exact shape the profile of well-rounded translators should take needs to transcend the clichéd formulae ordinarily found in translation syllabi; and in addition to the language and cultural mediation descriptor, which is vital and axiomatic in the training process, the role that academic translation programs can play in training professionally and industrially-minded translators should also be given some serious consideration. This, in fact, implies the active involvement of other stakeholders, public and social institutions, government entities and local communities in the wider project of helping establish the regulatory norms of the profession and defining its deontological practices, but without imposing the bureaucratic legacies inherent in their institutional practices. Undoubtedly, this is a sensitive area which still requires considerable efforts in order to create consensus among the stakeholders on how to make the field achieve independence and become a full-fledged corporation rather than keeping it subject to tutelage and continuing to consider it as a mere service provider licensed by a government authority, which is currently the case in most Arab countries. These matters, however, cannot be resolved in isolation from the other ones which constitute the backbone of the field of translation, such as language policy, management and teaching. The kind of fixture required to address the different gaps and challenges encountered in the field of translation in the Arab World will have to be channeled through clearly elaborated policies in language matters, the reassessment of the status and role of translation in society and institutions, and the establishment and professionalization of norms and standards.

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BUSINESS, FINANCE AND ACCOUNTING

A CASE OF HYBRID TEXT TRANSLATION: SECONDARY-FIELD TERMINOLOGY IN PURCHASE AGREEMENTS

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ABSTRACT. There are countless textual genres related to economy and business, many of which are difficult to categorize since they combine aspects from different fields, such as economic, legal or technical. These texts involving more than one field of specialization are known as hybrid texts. This paper specifically focuses on how translators deal with the terminology of the secondary fields of specialization within these texts. The study will be carried out by compiling a parallel corpus made up of real estate purchase agreements, a legal genre based on an economic transaction and, thus a hybrid. By analyzing the source texts in English we will first find out which economy-related terms are common in this textual genre. Second, the key terms extracted from the source texts will be located in the target texts, and we will check how their translation into Spanish is handled. Our aim is to analyze the reasons behind the chosen translation techniques, to observe the semantic relationships created between the translation equivalents, and to find possible translation patterns inside this language pair to try and better understand hybrid texts.

Keywords: hybrid text, legal-economic translation, corpus analysis, purchase agreement.

Introduction

Translators encounter countless types of texts during their training and professional careers, both general and specialized. Generally speaking, texts tend to be assigned to a specific field of specialization. Translators are supposed to focus on a field, so they can become experts through the acquisition and/or mastering of the specialized concepts, terminology, and conventions of that field. But sometimes texts cannot be assigned to one single area, since many times more than one field of specialization is included in a document. These types of texts are considered “hybrid”. The difficulty of their study and translation lays in the fact that they need to be analyzed from very different perspectives to cover their multidisciplinary facets.

The aim of this paper is to find out how translators deal with the secondary fields of specialization inside hybrid texts, since they are normally experts in the main field. To do so, we will analyze economics as a secondary field through a legal genre that is based on an economic transaction between parties: the purchase agreement. The legal effects created would be impossible without the economic transaction, and hence constitutes the perfect environment for a hybrid text. Analyzing this field will give us insight as to how terms from a secondary field of specialization behave inside a legal text in translation.

Hybrid Texts

The term "hybrid text" has been used to name different concepts in translation research, so it is necessary to first establish the definition that will be followed in this study. What we consider hybrid texts are those that combine more than one pre-existing discipline (Campos Plaza and Ortega Arjonilla, 2005: 389), such as law, medicine, environment, etc. In other words, a hybrid text is built around more than one coexisting field of specialization.

There are countless hybrid text possibilities, but one field where these texts are most common is law. Law regulates every aspect of human activity, so it inevitably interacts with other fields as economy, engineering, or medicine. As Delgado Pugés and García Luque (2016: 70) state, almost any type of text can be involved in a judicial proceeding, and thus translated, which involves the inclusion of non-legal aspects (terminology, concepts, etc.) in legal texts. Hence it would be considered a hybrid.

Moreover, in some cases the legal effects created by legal texts would not be possible without the interaction with the other field of specialization. This is the case of purchase agreements: without the economic transaction involved, there would be no legal effects, and thus no valid legal text. This creates the perfect environment for hybridity, since they are texts in which legal and economic language meet (Román Mínguez, 2008: 32-33). Purchase agreements, as other transactional texts, are not only multidisciplinary, but also very common texts drafted on a daily basis around the world. This means that in many cases translation becomes necessary. For instance, current globalization involves foreign buyers purchasing real estate abroad and companies acquiring products from foreign producers. These two reasons justify why the study of this genre is important for translation research. So we decided to focus on purchase agreements regarded as hybrid texts to learn about hybrid text translation.

Hybrid Text Translation

What makes hybrid text translation special is the fact that it involves more than one field of specialization, both of which translators need to be able to handle. The translator should be familiar with the specialized fields involved, ideally at the same level, in terms such as:

- Concepts: different source and target legal systems may entail slightly differing concepts from one to the other, or even a concept present in one being wholly absent from the other.
- Terminology: economic discourse in Spanish accepts borrowings from English, unlike the discourse of other specialized fields.
- Textual genres: macro-structure is not always the same in source and target genres, as is the case of agreements (Mayoral, 2007)
- Conventions: judgements in the United Kingdom are written in a close and personal style, while in Spain the tone is very distant (Borja, 2000: 111-112).

A translator should be aware of how these problems are handled within the fields of expertise involved, even though some decisions depend mostly on the client. A specialist in all the fields would be the best profile for a translator of a hybrid text. Since this is normally not the case, however, precedence should ideally be given to the main field of expertise involved in the text. Thus, for a purchase agreement, a legal translator would be the most appropriate profile.

Starting with the distinguishing features of hybrid text translation, this paper will focus on the translation of terminology, and more specifically on the secondary field terminology, namely economics. If the translator is specialized in legal texts, how do they manage the economy-related terminology, specifically the most specialized terms? To this end, among the possible classifications of terminology, we will focus on the level of specialization of terms.

Different taxonomies have been suggested by different authors (Baker, 1988; Robinson, 1991; Cabré, 1998; Alcaraz and Hughes, 2002; Chung, 2003; Vangehuchten, 2005; Suau Jiménez, 2010, etc.), and there seems to be disagreement. Most studies divide terms into technical, semi-technical, and general vocabulary. However, there is no consensus on what kind of terms should belong to each category, except for technical terms, defined by most scholars as those that only exist in a specific field of specialization (Baker, 1988; Cabré, 1998; Alcaraz and Hughes, 2002; Balteiro, 2011).

By contrast, diverse opinions can be found regarding semi-technical terms and general vocabulary. There are two main approaches. The first approach mainly focuses on elements which are specific to specialized texts, while the second approach takes into account all the words involved in specialized texts regardless of whether they are specific to them or not.

Thus, the first approach defines semi-technical terms as "specific lexical items that can be attributed to a borderline area between general language and special language" (Cabré, 1998: 73), and that are "used in a somewhat restricted way in the discipline concerned" (Baker, 1988: 93). Furthermore, this first approach defines general vocabulary as everyday words that are also used in specialized discourse (Alcaraz and Hughes, 2002), many times after a reverse process through which technical terms extended their use to general language (Balteiro, 2011: 70-71).

On the other hand, the second approach associates general vocabulary with high frequency words or function words–non-specialized words that are used in any field and language situation (Chung, 2003; Fraser, 2005)–, considering semi-technical terms as a specialized extension of such general vocabulary, terms which are not associated with any particular field of expertise (Chung, 2003), including cohesive or rhetorical items (Baker, 1988; Robinson, 1991).

For the purposes of this study we will follow the former approach, since it is of our interest to focus on the most specialized terminology. Thus a taxonomy that focuses on this aspect without regard to non-specialized items is most suitable for our research. The reason for this is that we assume that translators are already trained in more general issues and that translation of the most specialized items is more likely to cause them trouble.

In approaching translation of specialized terms within a hybrid text, translators need to resort to different strategies to handle the transfer to the target language. To find out how translators manage the terminology of a secondary field within the text, we must delineate the techniques they choose. Many classifications have been proposed since the beginning of translation studies (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1977; Newmark, 1988; Baker, 1992; etc.), all with different purposes or from different points of view. Since our study is based on a functional approach, the classification followed in this study will be the one by Molina and Hurtado Albir (2002), who proposed a critical review of the existing ones, as well as a classification from a dynamic point of view.

Adaptation	Replacement of a source cultural element with one from the target culture
Amplification	Introduction of details that are not formulated in the source text
Borrowing	Use of a word or expression straight from another language
Calque	Literal translation of a foreign word or phrase
Compensation	Introduction of a source text element of information or stylistic effect in another place in the target text
Description	Replacement of a term or expression with a description of its form or/and function
Discursive creation	Creation of a temporary equivalence that is totally unpredictable out of context
Established equivalent	Use of a term or expression as an equivalent in the target language
Generalization	Use of a more general or neutral term
Linguistic amplification	Addition of linguistic elements
Linguistic compression	Synthesis of linguistic elements in the target text
Literal translation	Word for word translation of a word or an expression
Modulation	Change in the point of view, focus or cognitive category in relation to the source text
Particularization	Use of more precise or concrete term
Reduction	Elimination of a source text information item in the target text
Substitution	Change of linguistic elements for paralinguistic elements
Transposition	Change of grammatical category
Variation	Change of linguistic or paralinguistic that affect aspects of linguistic variation

Table 1. Translation techniques classification by Molina and Hurtado (2002)

Methodology of the Study

As mentioned above, we will follow a functional approach through the use of corpus analysis. Our methodology will allow us to focus on language use through a text compilation where real patterns can be observed, in this case real estate purchase agreements, a very common text most translators are familiar with.

Following Bowker and Pearson's size recommendations for specialized corpora (2002), we compiled a parallel corpus of 33,103 words, divided into two sub-corpora: one of source texts, real estate purchase agreements written in American English (5,602 words), and one of target texts, which correspond to the translations of the source texts into European Spanish (27,501 words). Source texts were original documents drafted by native speakers, whether full documents or forms. Target texts were translations by European Spanish native translators trained in legal and economic fields.

The process followed for the analysis consisted of three main phases:

1. Manual search of the economy-related terms present in the source texts
2. Manual search of the translation equivalents in the target texts
3. Three-level analysis
    - Typology of the economy-related terminology in real estate purchase agreements regarding grammar, form and level of specialization
    - Translation techniques used to transfer economy-related terms
    - Type of relationships created between source term (ST) and target term (TT)

Analysis

Typology of the Economy-Related Terminology

The first step taken was to define the typology of the economy-related terms present in real estate purchase agreements to observe what type of terminology translators were facing. To do so, we first retrieved the terminology of the secondary field of expertise in our source texts sub-corpus. A total of 82 economy-related terms were found.

TECHNICAL	SEMI-TECHNICAL		GENERAL VOCABULARY
Aggregate amount Aggregate value Assessments Delinquent Deposit Discharged Dishonored check Down payment Draft Earnest money Earnest money deposit Impound account Monies Payable Pro rata abatement Prorated Proration Reimbursed Security deposit Vendor	Account Additional deposit Additional fee Attorney fees Balance Bank check Broker's commission Certified check Check Conduct business Corporation Deposit (vb.) Fees Fiscal year Headquarters facility Impound Installment Insurable value Insurance	Insurance policy Insure Interest Interest rate Late charge Loan Loan interest Mortgage Place of business Principal office Property taxes Purchase and sale Rate Real estate commissions Real estate taxes Recording fees State taxes Taxes	Amount Buy Buyer Cash Charge (vb.) Commission Costs Expenses Monthly payment Paid Pay Payment Price Purchase Purchase (vb.) Purchase price Purchaser Sale Salesmen Sell Seller Sum Transaction Unpaid Value

Table 2. Economy-related terms extracted from the source texts organized by level of specialization

To better understand the typology, grammar was analyzed first. A total of 68 terms are nouns, followed by 7 adjectives, and 7 verbs. This distribution is the expected one in any given terminology field, so translators should be familiar with it.

Regarding the form of the terms, most of them are monolexemic (49), while the rest are polilexemic (33), divided into two-element terms (27), and three-element terms (6). This is also the case of most terminology fields.

Finally, on the level of specialization of the terms, we found that 20 terms could be considered technical (specific to the economic field), 25 which could be considered general vocabulary (everyday words which are also used in economic discourse), and 37 which could be considered semi-technical (in between words used in everyday language and specific economic terms).

According to previous findings, economy-related terminology in purchase agreements could be seen as a manageable task for translators.

Translation Techniques

In the second phase, all translation equivalents proposed by the different translators were put together and analyzed to observe the translation techniques used for each equivalent.

Twelve of the techniques by Molina and Hurtado Albir (2002) mentioned above were used for the different equivalents they proposed: amplification, calque, description, discursive creation, established equivalent, generalization, linguistic amplification, linguistic compression, literal translation, particularization, reduction, and transposition.

At this stage we realized that the translation techniques chosen seemed to respond to a pattern based on the level and type of transformation carried out in the transfer of the ST to the target language. Thus, we decided to reorganize the translation techniques of Molina and Hurtado Albir (2002) to fit this pattern and better explain our results:

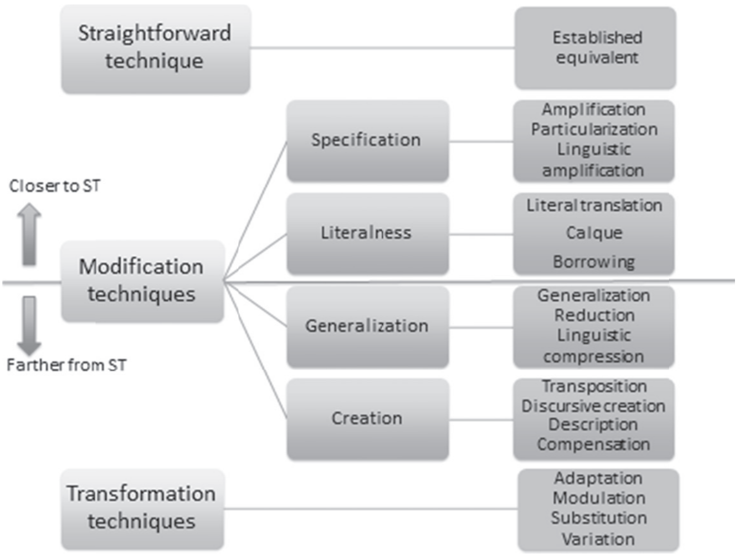

Fig. 1. Suggested translation techniques classification for the analysis (based on Molina and Hurtado Albir, 2002)

According to this suggested classification, the frequency of the translation techniques observed in the analysis was the following:

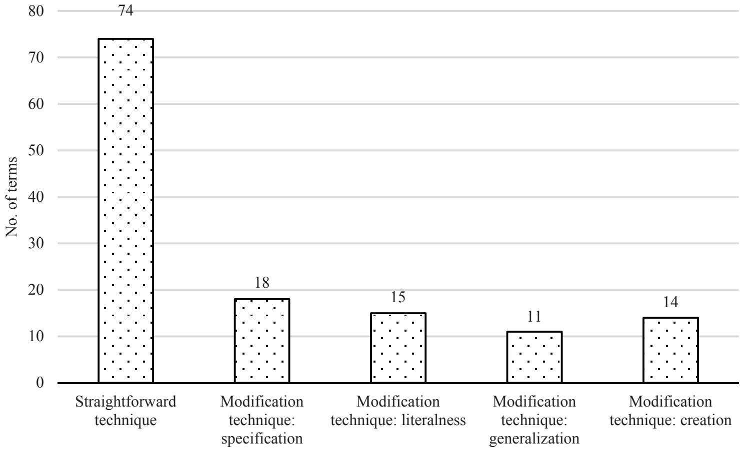

Fig. 2. Frequency of techniques

To try and find out any possible patterns regarding economy-related term translation we carried out a more in-depth analysis of each of the used techniques. We will now provide an explanation of what the technique involves, a list of the terms translated using each technique, some representative examples to show how the technique works, and an explanation of the facts observed in the analysis of the examples provided.

Straightforward technique

This technique involves resorting to the most expected equivalent, the term that acts as the source term in the target language. There is a clear tendency to use the straightforward technique over the other techniques: this strategy was used to translate 74 out of the 82 terms. However, its use is not restrictive, since many times it coexists with translation equivalents of other techniques.

account additional fee aggregate amount aggregate value amount assessments attorney fees balance bank check broker's commission buy buyer cash certified check check commission conduct business corporation cost	delinquent deposit deposit (verb) discharged down payment draft earnest money expenses fees fiscal year headquarters facility impound account installment insurable value insurance insurance policy insure interest interest rate	loan loan interests monies monthly payment mortgage paid pay payable payment place of business price principal office pro rata abatement property taxes prorated proration purchase purchase (verb) purchase and sale	purchase price purchaser rate real estate commissions real estate taxes recording fees sale salesmen security deposit sell seller sum taxes transaction unpaid value vendor

Table 4. Terms translated with the straightforward technique

To offer an overview of the use of this technique, we have chosen some illustrative examples of source terms and translations (listed in alphabetic order) that prove the broad range of different cases it presents:

Ex. 1. Amount → *importe, cantidad, cuantía, suma*
Ex. 2. Assessments → *tasaciones, valoraciones*
Ex. 3. Broker's commission → *comisión del agente*
Ex. 4. Cash → *efectivo, metálico*
Ex. 5. Insurance policy → *póliza de seguro*
Ex. 6. Loan interests → *intereses del préstamo*
Ex. 7. Property taxes → *impuestos sobre bienes inmuebles*

Analyzing only seven examples, we can observe the eclecticism of this technique: there were cases where more than one established equivalent was used to translate one term (examples 1 and 4). It can also be observed how the established equivalents in those cases sometimes vary in tone, as *cantidad* and *cuantía* in example 1, in which the former is less formal than the latter. As shown in table 4 above, this translation technique is used for terms with different degrees of specialization.

Modification technique: specification

Specification techniques involve staying as close to the meaning of the source term as possible by adding extra information obtained from the text, or by using translation equivalents with extra words that reinforce the meaning of the source term. The techniques included in this category were used to translate 18 terms:

additional deposit assessments broker's commission buyer cash charge commission corporation draft impound	late charge purchase and sale purchase price real estate commissions salesmen seller taxes transaction

Table 5. Terms translated with modification technique: specification

As it can be observed, this translation technique is also used for terms with different degrees of specialization. Some examples are listed below. In examples 8 to 13 some information that was not specified in the source term has been added to the translation equivalent, which has been underlined.

Ex. 8. Corporation → *sociedad <u>anónima</u>*
Ex. 9. Purchase and sale → *compraventa <u>de bienes inmuebles</u>*
Ex. 10. Taxes → *impuestos <u>de la propiedad</u>*
Ex. 11. Buyer → *<u>parte</u> compradora*
Ex. 12. Cash → *<u>dinero</u> en efectivo*
Ex. 13. Seller → *<u>parte</u> vendedora*

Although they all involve specification by addition, in examples 11 to 13 the added words do not change the meaning, while examples 8 to 10 would have a different meaning if the added information were omitted.

Ex. 14. Assessments → *peritaje*
Ex. 15. Broker's commission → *comisión del agente inmobiliario*
Ex. 16. Draft → *letra de cambio, letra de pago, talón*

Examples 14 to 16 show how translators provide more specific information than the one given by the source terms by using a hyponym.

Modification technique: literalness

Literalness techniques involve using a word for word formal equivalent or prioritizing form over function and meaning (Mayoral, 2004). These techniques were used to translate 15 terms:

assessments bank check conduct business deposit discharged fiscal year headquarters facility	impound account place of business principal office property taxes purchase and sale purchase price security deposit taxes

Table 6. Terms translated with modification technique: literalness

Ex. 17. Bank check → *cheque del banco*
Ex. 18. Conduct business → *llevar a cabo un negocio*
Ex. 19. Property taxes → *impuestos de la propiedad*
Ex. 20. Assessments → *evaluaciones*
Ex. 21. Discharged → *descargados*
Ex. 22. Taxes → *tasas*

Literal translations do not sound completely natural in the target language, as is the case here, but many times translators choose to use these techniques to prevent misunderstanding by using the closest existing form in the target language (Mayoral, 2006), a form that can even be recognized by a reader who does not speak the source language.

The terms listed in Table 6 show a combination in the degree of specialization as the previous techniques.

Modification technique: generalization

Generalization techniques involve summarizing the source term when a translator considers that the meaning is clear enough, either by eliminating unnecessary elements or by broadening the meaning of the source term. These facts make the translation equivalent move farther from the meaning of the source term. The techniques included in this category were used to translate 11 terms:

broker's commission corporation discharged headquarters facility insurance policy paid	principal office pro rata abatement purchase sale state taxes

Table 7. Terms translated with modification technique: generalization

A combination of more and less specialized terms is observed on this list as well. The following examples were chosen to illustrate this technique:

Ex. 23. Headquarters facility → *sede, sede central, sede social*
Ex. 24. Insurance policy → *póliza*
Ex. 25. Pro rata abatement → *reducción, disminución*
Ex. 26. Insurance policy → *seguro*
Ex. 27. Principal office → *sede*

In example 23, the reference to the site is eliminated in all the translation equivalents; in example 24, one of the two elements of the term is omitted; and in example 25, the adjective is omitted in both cases. In examples 26 and 27, the meaning of two words is summarized in one.

Ex. 28. Broker's commission → *comisión del intermediario*
Ex. 29. Corporation → *asociación*

The use of a hypernym as a translation strategy is used in examples 28 and 29. In both cases the translator decided to use a broader term with a different degree of specificity: the meaning of the translation equivalent in example 29 is broader than the one of example 28, even though both are superordinates.

Modification technique: creation

With creation techniques, translators establish their own limits when transferring the meaning to the target language by separating themselves from the expected form of the source term. The techniques included in this category were used to translate 14 terms:

charge	payable
conduct business	purchase
delinquent	purchase (vb.)
dishonored check	purchase price
down payment	reimbursed
paid	sell
pay	unpaid

Table 8. Terms translated with modification technique: creation

As it is observed in Table 8, the level of specialization of the terms translated with this technique is quite diverse as well.

Ex. 30. Conduct business → *el desarrollo de su negocio*
Ex. 31. Payable → *se abonará*
Ex. 32. Sell → *venta*

Examples 30 to 32 show a change of grammatical category following three patterns: verb to noun, adjective to verb, and verb to noun, all with a similar incidence in the corpus.

Ex. 33. Pay → *hacerse cargo*
Ex. 34. Purchase → *venta*

Examples 33 and 34 involve the creation of a translation equivalent for the source terms that would not be understood as such out of context.

Ex. 35. Down payment → *el pago inicial*
Ex. 36. Unpaid → *que no haya sido pagado*

Examples 35 and 36 show how the translator decided to make a description of the meaning of the term instead of translating it by the corresponding term.

Other techniques

Six of the techniques proposed by Molina and Hurtado Albir (2002) were not used by translators in this study: adaptation, borrowing, compensation, modulation, substitution and variation, all of which were included under the category "transformation" in our classification proposal. This corresponds to the techniques that move farther from the ST in the transfer process.

Relationships

The main relationships created between STs and translation equivalents are:

- Synonyms, when the ST and the TT share the same meaning. In some cases, the relationship involves total synonymy (property taxes → *impuestos sobre bienes inmuebles*), that is, both terms can be used as synonyms in every possible context. However, the most common relationship is partial synonymy (purchase → *venta*), where terms are synonyms within a specific context, which in this case would mostly be limited to the document or clause where they are used.
- Hyponyms, when the TT is a subordinate of the ST (assessments → *peritaje*).
- Hypernyms, when the TT is a superordinate of the ST (headquarters facility → *sede*).

Conclusions

The results analyzed above have allowed us to gain a deeper understanding of secondary-field terminology in hybrid texts regarding typology, translation techniques used to transfer it, and the relationships created between source and target terms, all of which were the objectives of this study. The main conclusions reached are the following:

- The level of specialization of the economy-related terms found on purchase agreements according to our study is low to medium: most terms are semi-technical and general vocabulary used in the economic field, alongside a small number of technical terms. However, we believe that since real estate purchase agreements are among the most common legal texts, the economy-related concepts they contain are known by most readers, specialists or not. Intuitively, this should make it easier for translators to handle them, but the analysis of translation technique tendencies seems to contradict this perception.
- The level of specialization of the terms does not seem to be linked to specific translation techniques, nor does the existence of different translation equivalents.
- Translators are not consistent in their choice of translation techniques, since most of them coexist, and most terms combine

translation equivalents from different strategies. Upon examination of those strategies, techniques requiring riskier decisions–which, if fumbled might lead to misunderstanding–are used the least. That explains why the straightforward technique is the most popular one, followed by strategies that entail adding information or seeking literalness, presumably in an attempt to avoid any loss of meaning. All these signs seem to confirm that translators do not feel totally comfortable with terminology outside the main field of the text.

- The analysis of techniques that were not used by translators in this study seems to support this statement. Adaptation, borrowing, compensation, modulation, substitution and variation require a more in-depth knowledge of the field at an expert level to avoid misinterpretations. Since legal texts have legal implications for the parties involved, translators probably try to avoid possible interpretation misunderstandings by choosing to use the most straightforward techniques they feel more comfortable with, even when dealing with non-legal terms/concepts. This partially supports Mayoral's (2006) statement presented above, confirming the tendency of specialized translators who are not experts in the field to choose the closest option to the source text.

New questions arise from the conclusions reached through our research. Is terminology from the main field handled in a similar way? Is this translation pattern the same for other hybrid texts? We hope to have contributed to showing how further study of translation of hybrid texts is needed.

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The French Terminology of Consolidated Statements of Profit or Loss: A Status Quo

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ABSTRACT. This paper deals with language variation in the terminology of consolidated financial statements in French. It analyzes the terminology used by listed companies in different French-speaking countries. The paper investigates how the International Financial Reporting Standards developed by the International Accounting Standards Board have been applied at a linguistic level. For this purpose, a small, specialized corpus of consolidated statements of profit or loss from companies in Belgium, Canada, France, Morocco and Switzerland has been built. The analysis pertains to a variety of aspects relevant to translation pedagogy and practice: terminology, language variation, and business, in particular financial, communication. The results reveal terminological practices in accounting language data from authentic contexts of usage. As such, they help bridge the gap between the profession and academia in translator training. At the same time, they show that the level of harmonization and standardization in the language of accounting is lower than might be expected.

Keywords: financial, French, terminology, variation, IFRS

Introduction

The internationalization of business and the economy, along with the spread of English as the lingua franca of business, are greatly affecting business practices. Consequently, translation practices constantly have to adjust to new environments as well.

Accounting practices are among those business practices affected by these new environments in the business and economics spheres. The internationalization and globalization of accounting practices have led to a certain level of internationalization and harmonization across accounting principles. These processes, in turn, have effects on language use and, consequently, translation.

This paper raises the question of how the globalized business world shapes language use through the internationalization and globalization of accounting practices. Specifically, it analyzes the language of accounting in French. It focuses on terminology within a highly specialized micro-genre, the consolidated statement of profit or loss and describes the language variation encountered within this micro-genre. This terminological approach was first adopted in the context of Spanish by Schnitzer (2013) and will be developed further in this paper.

The aim of the paper is, first, to describe the terminology used by listed companies in different French-speaking countries. Second, the paper asks to what extent the International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) developed by the International Accounting Standards Board (IASB) have been implemented at a linguistic level. Finally, it shows language variation within the highly specialized micro-genre of the consolidated statement of profit or loss as a sub-genre of the consolidated financial statements.

It is important to note two points regarding this paper's approach. It is not about translation; rather it makes some terminological remarks prior to financial translation (Edelmann, 2014). Nor does it aim to provide answers about causal relationships, but is descriptive.[1] For example, one might ask why we found *résultat financier* five times in Morocco and three times in France, but not once in Belgium. It could be assumed that this may be because the companies in France and Morocco were serviced by the same accounting firm, and the Belgians by another. However, this is merely speculation, and the descriptive nature of the approach and investigation does not seek to make such claims. Furthermore, the paper is based on qualitative logic and does not make statistical claims about quantity, e.g. suggesting differences between regions in embracing the IFRS based on evidence from a small corpus.

However, with regard to the possible reasons for the potential variation within the language of accounting, it is important to consider the following factors that led us to investigate the field. First, standardization in accounting is distinct from harmonization in accounting language. This means that the development and adoption of international accounting standards is not equivalent to the unification of accounting terminology. Several aspects pertain to this point. The use of IFRS depends on legal systems and governing accounting systems; in other words, the

[1] As such, it adopts an approach to terminology that is less normative than traditional approaches, which perceive variation as coming at the expense of terminological quality.

international convergence to IFRS depends on jurisdictions. For example, IFRS have been required for the financial reporting of domestic listed companies in the European Union since 2005, while other jurisdictions converge to IFRS at a different pace, like Canada, or still adhere to their own systems, like the U.S., where domestic listed companies are required to use US GAAP and are not permitted to use IFRS (Deloitte, 2016b). Moreover, a variety of characteristics inherent to IFRS themselves "inhibit unified terminology" (Herles, 2017: 520), among them the fact that IFRS terminology is not binding (ibid.). This is reinforced by the general tendency of companies to "hold onto their traditional terminology" (ibid.). Another important factor inhibiting the unification of terminology in this highly specialized field is that two different translation systems are responsible for providing IFRS terminology through the translation of the standards, namely, the translation services of the E.U. and the IFRS Foundation itself (Herles, 2017: 527). At the same time, it is important to note that language is an issue at a stage prior to translation when considering the harmonization of financial accounting terminology, since UK and US accounting terms "are extensively different" (Alexander & Nobes, 2007: 9) and the IASB "uses a mixture of UK and US terms" (ibid.). This variety of language-related issues pertaining to IFRS has resulted in a rather complex situation for the language of accounting in this field–and, consequently, for its translation.

The second factor that led us to investigate variation in the French terminology of consolidated statements of profit or loss in the age of convergence to IFRS is a Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) perspective on highly specialized terminology. It could be assumed that the more specialized and technical a field is, the more its terminology will be precise, clear and unambiguous. However, various reasons account for vertical variation (Sinner, 2014: 195-197) within a specialized field of terminology. Among them, two seem to be particularly relevant for the study of accounting terminology: the interplay of three different conceptual systems producing terms in the language of accounting–IFRS, national legal systems and accounting and reporting practice (Edelmann, 2014)–and the coexistence of terms reflecting different degrees of abstraction and specification in LSP (Schnitzer, 2008). The interplay of the institutional, legal, economic, business and professional levels using and producing accounting terms causes conceptual and linguistic variation. Similarly, the synonymic use of terms resulting from different degrees of specificity and technicality in LSP also causes variation.

On the basis of these observations and conceptual considerations, we developed the following guiding questions for the empirical investigation:

Does the adoption of the IFRS lead to harmonization in accounting terminology? To what extent does the terminology within financial statements of profit or loss vary? If there is a variation in this terminology, what form does it take?

Methodology

The investigation carried out to answer the questions concerning the nature of French accounting terminology in this specific context was explorative. The methodology on which the results of the investigation are based is primarily a qualitative one. However, it contains some quantitative aspects, especially regarding the analysis of the data. The data collection was carried out by building a very small and specialized corpus of statements of profit or loss in French. The data were analyzed by drawing on an interpretative approach integrating numerical elements.

The collected data consist of the consolidated statements of profit or loss from the year 2014 of 24 listed companies in five countries of the French-speaking world: Belgium, Canada, France, Morocco and Switzerland. The rationales for inclusion in our corpus were the following. First, the companies reported their performance following the IFRS except one, which followed the Swiss national standard–but was nevertheless included because of the linguistic features of its reporting terminology, which turned out to be close to IFRS terminology. Second, the companies published their financial disclosures in French and were based in a French-speaking country. Exclusively countries who are a member of the Organisation internationale de la Francophonie, with French as the official language or as one of the official languages, were included in the corpus. Third, with the aim of getting a balanced and realistic picture of the market players and sectors involved within a national economy, the companies were chosen according to their weighting in the national stock market indexes, namely 25% to 35% in November 2015. An exception to this had to be made for Canada, as it adopts a different weighting method for its S&P/TSX 60 index.[2]

The following table lists the companies whose statements of profit or loss from the year 2014 were collected and analyzed and displays the sectors and countries the companies originate from:

[2] "The S&P/Toronto Stock Exchange 60 is a capitalization-weighted index. It consists of 60 of the largest and most liquid (heavily traded) stocks listed on the Toronto Stock Exchange (TSX)" Bloomberg L.P. (2016).

COMPANY	SECTOR	COUNTRY
Anheuser-Busch InBev	Food & Beverage	Belgium
Bpost	Services	Belgium
Delhaize Group	Retail	Belgium
Proximus/Belgacom	Telecommunications	Belgium
Solvay	Chemistry	Belgium
BCE Inc.	Telecommunications	Canada
Bombadier Inc.	Transport	Canada
CGI Group Inc.	Information technology	Canada
Canadian National Railway	Transport	Canada
Power Corporation	Energy	Canada
Air Liquide	Chemistry	France
LVMH	Luxury goods	France
Sanofi	Pharmaceuticals	France
Schneider Electric	Electrical engineering	France
Total	Oil and gas	France
Auto Hall	Services	Morocco
GBM	Beverage	Morocco
Managem	Commodities	Morocco
Maroc Telecom	Telecommunications	Morocco
Sonasid	Industrial goods	Morocco
Nestlé	Food	Switzerland
SGS	Services	Switzerland
Swatch Group	Watches	Switzerland
Swisscom	Telecommunications	Switzerland

Figure 1: Companies

The 24 collected statements of profit or loss represent a micro-genre of financial discourse. Together with the other micro-genres–the consolidated statement of financial position, the consolidated statement of changes in equity, the consolidated statement of cash flows and the notes–it is embedded in the genre of the companies' consolidated financial statements.

The first step for accessing the data available online therefore consisted of collecting the 24 mandatory financial disclosures of the chosen companies, which incorporate the consolidated financial statements. The following image illustrates the sub- and micro-generic character of the analyzed mandatory disclosure of financial discourse by taking the example of the consolidated statement of profit or loss as being incorporated into the annual report, which contains the consolidated financial statements.[3]

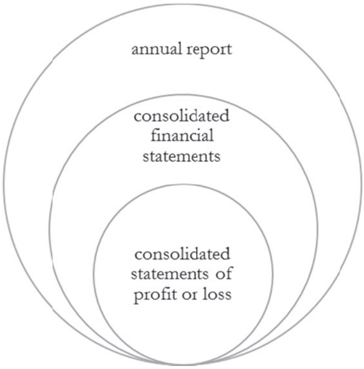

Figure 2: The sub-generic micro-genre

The micro-genre of the consolidated statement of profit or loss also includes the other comprehensive income, the whole term being *consolidated statement of profit or loss and other comprehensive income*. For the sake of simplicity, we concentrated our analysis on the first part of this micro-genre.

The aim of the investigation was to analyze the French terminology of the micro-genre and to look at how the IFRS have been applied at a linguistic level. Therefore, the language data were collected following the French translation of KPMG's *Guide to annual financial statements–Illustrative Disclosures* for the year 2014 (KPMG, 2014). KPMG is one of the largest international accountancy firms. In this guide, which is in accordance with IFRS, each line item within the consolidated financial statement of profit or loss corresponds to a specific term. The terms used in the Guide were compared with the terms found in the financial

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[3] In most of the cases, we found our micro-genre within the annual report. However, it could also be found incorporated into the reference document or within disclosures named e.g. financial statements.

statements and the collected data were analyzed to identify the extent of linguistic adoption of the standards and divergence. The next section will show the results of our data collection and analysis.

Results

In this section, we present the accounting terminology found in 24 statements of profit or loss of the year 2014 from 24 listed companies in five countries of the French-speaking world. Specifically, we describe the terminology of five line items found in this micro-genre and in sum six different notions of accounting terminology in French.[4] Our analysis revealed a variety of terms, and we discuss these as well as their linguistic features.

Consolidated statement of profit or loss

The following table illustrates our results for the term designating the micro-genre itself: *consolidated statement of profit or loss*, the English IFRS term, which corresponds to *état du résultat net* in French IFRS terminology.

État du résultat net	BE	FR	CH	CA	MA	Sum
Compte de profit et pertes consolidé			1			**1**
Compte de résultat consolidé		4	2		3	**9**
Compte de résultat consolidé de l'exercice 2014			1			**1**
Compte de résultats	1					**1**
Compte de résultats consolidé	3				1	**4**
Compte de résultats consolidés	1					**1**
Comptes consolidés de résultat				1		**1**
Comptes de résultats consolidés		1				**1**
État de résultat global					1	**1**
États consolidés des résultats				1		**1**
États consolidés du résultat				1		**1**
États des résultats consolidés				1		**1**
États du résultat consolidés				1		**1**
Total	**5**	**5**	**4**	**5**	**5**	**24**

Figure 3: *État du résultat net*

[4] The choice of and limitation to these six terms derives from the classification method for disclosing expenses. IAS 1 leaves the reporting company the choice of either classification by nature or by function (Deloitte, 2016a). For our investigation, we chose to limit our data collection and analysis to these five line items plus the heading (the term designating the micro-genre), since it would otherwise have been necessary to differentiate between the statements according to whether they were classified by nature or by function.

In sum, we found 13 different terms for *consolidated statement of profit or loss* in French. The data show that *compte de résultat consolidé* is the most commonly used term with nine out of 24 instances, followed by *compte de résultats consolidé* which was found four times. The other eleven terms were each found only once.

The data show a basic difference in lexis with 19 terms using the lexeme *compte* against five using *état*. Concerning regional variation, terms using *état* are preferred in Canadian documents, while *compte de résultat consolidé,* together with its different varieties in singular/plural, is preferred in French and Moroccan disclosures. Within a single country, we found the highest variation in Canadian disclosures. With regard to linguistic features, the results revealed alternation between singular and plural forms and different degrees of specification. As for the adoption of IFRS terminology, it is striking that the IFRS term *état du résultat net* could not be found in our data at all.

Revenue

The *revenue* represents the first line item in the consolidated statement of profit or loss. The table shows our results regarding the French IFRS equivalent *produits*. In sum, we found seven different terms for *revenue* in French.

Produits	BE	FR	CH	CA	MA	Sum
Chiffre d'affaires	3	4	2	1	5	**15**
Chiffre d'affaires brut			1			**1**
Chiffre d'affaires net			1			**1**
Produits	1			1		**2**
Produits d'exploitation				1		**1**
Revenus	1			2		**3**
Ventes		1				**1**
Total	**5**	**5**	**4**	**5**	**5**	**24**

Figure 4: *Produits*

The data show that *chiffre d'affaires* is the most commonly used term with 15 out of 24 instances, followed by *revenus* which was found three times and by *produits*, the IFRS term, which we found twice. The other four terms were each found only once.

Again, the data show a quite high degree of variation in lexis with 17 terms using the lexeme *chiffre d'affaires* against three occurrences of the lexeme *produits*, three of *revenus*, and one of *ventes*. Concerning regional variation, there is zero-variation in the Moroccan data, which show consistent use of *chiffre d'affaires,* as well as a clear tendency towards this term in the disclosures from France.

With regard to variation in a single country, it is interesting to note that the Belgian and especially the Canadian disclosures show much variation, each presenting three different lexemes in a sample of only five instances. Again, we find the highest variation in Canadian disclosures. Amongst the linguistic features, there are again different degrees of specification. As for the adoption of IFRS terminology, the IFRS term *produits*–together with its extension *d'exploitation*–was found three times in our data.

Operating profit

The line item of *operating profit* in not defined in IFRS in the context of comprehensive income, and disclosing it is not mandatory. However, KPMG has included this term in its Guide (KPMG, 2015: 11). Therefore, we have also collected the data relating to this line item. Two Canadian companies out of five disclosed this line item using language, while the remaining three disclosed it only numerically.

Résultat opérationnel	**BE**	**FR**	**CH**	**CA**	**MA**	**Sum**
Bénéfice d'exploitation	2			1		**3**
Bénéfice opérationnel	1					**1**
EBIT	1					**1**
RAII				1		**1**
Résultat des activités opérationnelles					2	**2**
Résultat d'exploitation		1	1		1	**3**
Résultat d'exploitation (EBIT)	1		1			**2**
Résultat opérationnel		4	2		2	**8**
Total	**5**	**5**	**4**	**2**	**5**	**21**

Figure 5: *Résultat opérationnel*

In sum, we found eight different terms for *operating profit* in French. The data show that *résultat opérationnel*–which is the IFRS term–is the most commonly used term with eight out of 21 occurrences, followed by *bénéfice d'exploitation* and *résultat d'exploitation* with three occurrences each. The data show a basic difference in lexis displaying two lexemes: *bénéfice* and *résultat*. However, they reveal a clear tendency towards *résultat.* Interestingly, we found the Anglicism *EBIT* (Earnings before interests and tax) in the statement of a Belgian company and its French translation *RAII* (Résultat avant intérêts et impôts) used by a Canadian company.

Concerning regional variation, the analyzed data show a clear tendency towards terms built using the lexeme *résultat* in France, Switzerland and Morocco, while Belgium seems to tend more towards the use of *bénéfice*. The sample for Canada is too small to observe any tendency. Within a single country, the data show a rather homogenous picture of French disclosures. The variation within the other countries is higher.

As for the linguistic features of the terms designating the operating profit in French, we found acronyms showing a higher degree of specification compared to the other terms. Moreover, we observed the synonymic use of noun compounds consisting of a noun and the preposition *de* inserted before the modifier (N *de* N), e.g. *bénéfice d'exploitation*, and compounds consisting of a noun and an adjective (N ADJ), e.g. *bénéfice opérationnel*. This applies to both *bénéfice* and *résultat*. Our data reveal that the most commonly term used is precisely the term suggested by IFRS: *résultat opérationnel*. Remarkably, this finding occurs for a disclosure that according to IFRS is not mandatory.

Net finance costs

The following table illustrates our results regarding the French terminology for *net finance costs*. This line item is not mandatory within the disclosure of comprehensive income. However, additional line items may be needed to fairly present an entity's results of operations [IAS 1.85] (Deloitte, 2016a) and KPMG has enclosed this item in its Guide (KPMG, 2015).

Résultat financier net	**BE**	**FR**	**CH**	**CA**	**MA**	**Sum**
Charges financières nettes	1					**1**
Coûts financiers nets	1					**1**
Frais de financement nets				1		**1**
Produits financiers et charges financières, nets			1			**1**
Produits/Charges financiers(ères) net(te)s			1			**1**
Résultat financier		3			5	**8**
Résultat financier net	1		1			**2**
Total	**3**	**3**	**3**	**1**	**5**	**15**

Figure 6: *Résultat financier net*

Out of 15 instances in our data, we found ten in the statements of profit or loss and the remaining five in the notes.

In sum, we found seven different terms in our sample, which represents quite a high degree of variation. *Résultat financier* is the most commonly used term for *net finance costs* in French. The data moreover show a fairly high degree of variation in lexis, with five different lexemes having been used. Regarding regional variation, the disclosures from France and those from Morocco display a totally uniform picture, consistently using *résultat financier*, while the terms used in Belgian and Swiss disclosures show much more variation. Statements about the terminology in Canadian disclosures are not possible based on our data.

Concerning the linguistic features, the terms consist of multi-word-units displaying a range of specification. For instance, terms using the lexemes *charges*, *coûts,* or *frais* are more specific than those using *produits* and *résultat*. Moreover, *résultat financier net*, the IFRS term, is more specific than its reduction *résultat financier*, which is the most commonly used term in our data, the former having been used only twice. However, if we consider *résultat financier* a reduction of the more specific term *résultat financier net*, the data do show a tendency towards adoption of the IFRS terminology. Together, these terms were used in ten out of 15 analyzed disclosures and across the regions. Interestingly, we found the exact term in a Belgian and in a Swiss disclosure.[5]

Profit before tax

Like the line items seen above, the disclosure of this line item in the consolidated statement of profit or loss is voluntary. Nevertheless, we found that 20 out of 24 analyzed documents disclosed the profit before tax. The following table illustrates the results of our investigation:

Résultat avant impôt	**BE**	**FR**	**CH**	**CA**	**MA**	**Sum**
Bénéfice avant impôt				1		**1**
Bénéfice avant impôt sur les bénéfices				1		**1**
Bénéfice avant impôts	2					**2**
Bénéfice avant impôts et activités abandonnées	1					**1**
Bénéfice avant impôts sur les bénéfices				1		**1**
Bénéfice avant impôts, sociétés et coentreprises			1			**1**
RAI				1		**1**
Résultat avant impôt	1				2	**3**
Résultat avant impôt des entreprises intégrées					3	**3**
Résultat avant impôts	1		2			**3**
Résultat avant impôts et sociétés mises en équivalence		1				**1**
Résultat avant impôts sur le résultat			1			**1**
Résultat des activités poursuivies avant impôts		1				**1**
Total	**5**	**2**	**4**	**4**	**5**	**20**

Figure 7: *Résultat avant impôt*

[5] While the Belgian company disclosed its statements in accordance with IFRS, the exact IFRS term in the Swiss disclosures was found in the statements of the company disclosing following the Swiss national standard.

In sum, we found 13 different terms for *profit before tax* in French, which we consider a high degree of variation when compared with both the other analyzed terms and the number of different terms found within a small sample of disclosures. The data show that *résultat avant impôt* together with its extension *des entreprises intégrées* and its acronymic form *RAI* is the most commonly used, followed by the form based on the plural of *tax* in French–*impôts–résultat avant impôts*. Again, there is a basic difference in lexis with the data displaying two lexemes: *bénéfice* and *résultat*.

Concerning regional variation, there seems to be a tendency in Morocco to use *résultat avant impôt* together with its extended form, while Canadian companies seem to prefer the use of terms based on the lexeme *bénéfice*. The data do not allow us to draw any preliminary conclusions for the other regions. Instead, they show that terms based on both lexemes are currently in use. The linguistic features encountered for this line item in the statements of profit or loss are the marked alternation of singular and plural forms designating the French correspondence of *tax* (*impôt*/*impôts)* as well as the use of an acronym and different degrees of specification. Strictly speaking, the IFRS term *résultat avant impôt* could only be found in three out of 20 disclosures. However, we might also consider including the acronym *RAI* and the extension *des entreprises intégrées* as well as the terms built based on the plural form of *tax* (*impôts*).

Profit

Profit represents the last line item in the consolidated statement of profit or loss, and disclosing it is mandatory. Consequently, we found the corresponding French term in all of the analyzed 24 statements. The following table illustrates our findings.

Résultat net	BE	FR	CH	CA	MA	Sum
Bénéfice	1					**1**
Bénéfice de l'année			1			**1**
Bénéfice de l'exercice			1			**1**
Bénéfice net	2		1	4		**7**
Résultat de l'année	1					**1**
Résultat net		2	1	1	1	**5**
Résultat net consolidé					1	**1**
Résultat net de l'année	1					**1**
Résultat net de l'ensemble consolidé		2			3	**5**
Résultat net, part du Groupe		1				**1**
Total	**5**	**5**	**4**	**5**	**5**	**24**

Figure 8: *Résultat net*

In our sample of 24 statements of profit or loss, we found ten different terms. The most commonly used term for *profit* in French was *bénéfice net* with seven instances, followed by *résultat net*, the IFRS term, and its extension *résultat net de l'ensemble consolidé*, both with five instances. Again, there is a basic difference in lexis consisting of the use of the lexeme *bénéfice* on the one hand and *résultat* on the other. While we found *bénéfice* without any extension, we have no evidence of the lexeme *résultat* being used by itself.

Regarding regional variation, there is a tendency towards the lexeme *bénéfice* in Switzerland and Canada and a preference for *résultat* in France and Morocco, the situation in Belgium being not that clear. Within one country, the variation of the term in Swiss and in Belgian disclosures is higher than in French and Moroccan ones, while it is low in Canadian disclosures.

As for the linguistic features, we can observe different degrees of specification, a high degree being identified for example in the term *résultat net de l'ensemble consolidé*, which could be found in five out of 24 statements and in disclosures from France and Morocco. This is an extension of the IFRS term *résultat net*. While the IFRS term is used only in five out of 24 disclosures, together with its different extensions it is used in more than half of the analyzed statements of profit or loss for designating the line item of *profit*.

Discussion and conclusion

In sum, the terminology found in the data shows a rather high degree of variation. We observed the highest degree of variation in the French terminology for *profit before tax–résultat avant impôt*. The second highest variation was for the term designating the disclosure itself, the *consolidated statement of profit or loss–état du résultat net*.

Concerning the linguistic features of the French terminology under investigation, we can list several different findings:

- synonymy–*compte(s)/état(s); bénéfice/résultat; chiffre d'affaires/ produits/revenus/ventes*–including synonymy of terms with different degrees of abstraction;
- different degrees of semantic specification, e.g. *compte de résultats* and *compte de résultat consolidé de l'exercice 2014;*
- reduction of multi-words-units, e.g. *produits d'exploitation* and *produits;*

- alternation of singular and plural forms, e.g. *compte de résultat consolidé* and *compte de résultats consolidés;*
- variation within the syntax of multi-word-units, e.g. *états consolidés des résultats* and *états des résultats consolidés;*
- constructions of the type N-*de*-N versus N-ADJ, e.g. *bénéfice d'exploitation* versus *bénéfice opérationnel*;
- highly specialized terms which might not be intelligible outside their context of financial disclosures, e.g. *RAII, RAI*.

These findings basically correspond to the findings reported by Schnitzer (2013) for Spanish. Additionally, we found

- an Anglicism–*EBIT;* and
- acronyms–e.g. *RAI*–

in the French data.

Regarding variation within the French-speaking world, it is difficult to make claims based on the small sample of collected and analyzed data. However, we observed some interesting tendencies that need to be corroborated through the analysis of more data. One tendency regards the term designating the statement of profit or loss in French. Belgian, French, Swiss and Moroccan companies seem to prefer terms built on the lexeme *compte*. By contrast, Canadian companies seem to prefer terms built based on *état* (in its plural form), which is closer to the IFRS terminology *état du résultat net* (with *état* in its singular form) and to the English lexeme *statement*. Another tendency regards the synonymic use of the lexemes *résultat* and *bénéfice*. We found evidence for the preference for *résultat* in French and Moroccan disclosures, while *bénéfice* seems to be preferred in Canadian disclosures. A last tendency regards variation within one country. For example, we found more variation within Canadian disclosures than within Moroccan disclosures, except for the data relating to the French terminology for *profit*.[6] However, we should be careful with such claims until there is further empirical data.

With regard to the adoption of IFRS terminology based on the French translation of KPMG's *Guide to annual financial statements*, no striking

[6] As mentioned in the introduction, this paper does not deal with causality. Nevertheless, this finding suggests the idea that the accounting–and the language–professionals operating in Morocco may be easier to count than those operating in Canada, one of the leading economies of the world. More data and investigations taking into account the professionals involved in the production of financial disclosures are suggested to yield more insights into these questions.

differences could be noted across the different regions of the French-speaking world. What can be said is that we found differences in the extent of adoption of terminology for the six analyzed concepts. When considering exclusively the exact IFRS term without the observed extensions, reductions and variations in singular/plural-forms, we can ascertain that the most adopted term in our data was *résultat opérationnel* (*operating profit*), followed by *résultat net* (*profit*). By contrast, the least adopted term was *état du résultat net* (*consolidated statement of profit or loss)* with zero-adoption, followed by *produits* (*revenue*). Again, it is important to note that more data is needed to corroborate these findings.[7] Nevertheless, one thing that can be stated confidently regarding language harmonization and standardization based on the adoption of IFRS terminology is that we are far away from a homogenous picture in the language of accounting.

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[7] As mentioned in the introduction, translation was not the subject of this paper, the aim of which was to describe the French terminology in this field in order to make some remarks about the terminology *prior* to translation. One conclusion that can nevertheless be drawn for the translation profession and pedagogy is the strong relevance of working with parallel texts, and also of resorting to the work of terminologists built on data from authentic contexts of usage within this highly specialized accounting discourse. Nor was the aim of the investigation to find the actual causes of the observed variation in the collected statements. To this end, a different kind of data would be needed, such as those derived from sociolinguistic investigations, to enable insights into the nature of the production processes behind the statements. This kind of investigation could reveal *why* variation actually occurs in each individual case.

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PRÉALABLES CONCEPTUELS À LA TRADUCTION DES ÉTATS FINANCIERS ITALIENS AU VU DES PRINCIPES COMPTABLES INTERNATIONAUX : L'EXEMPLE DE LA TRADUCTION VERS LE FRANÇAIS

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ABSTRACT. The adoption of new international accounting standards in continental Europe has introduced major changes to traditional accounting systems. Our research aims to analyse areas we consider to be of strategic importance prior to the planning of the translation activity of accounting information, particularly of Italian financial statements. We aim, moreover, to make a distinction between expert competence and translation-oriented competence. We put forward that the most productive strategy is a conceptual perspective with the graphic representation of the notions. We also claim that a proper understanding of the concept of fair value, which is also the basis for conceptual, drafting and terminological variations, is part of the "preliminary work" of the translator and also has a positive impact at the educational level. The study will focus on two new elements introduced by the Italian parliament which aimed to bring the Italian situation into line with the new accounting philosophy presented in the *Decreto legislativo n. 139* which came into force on 1 January 2016, in accordance with the 2013/34/EU Directive. In the last part of the paper, we will look at the notion of *Svalutazioni di strumenti finanziari derivati* and its translation into French, focusing in particular, in a contrastive perspective, on the legal translation procedures and strategies considered most appropriate to this specific translation situation.

Keywords: Accounting, conceptual framework, financial statements, international accounting standards, fair value

L'adoption des nouveaux principes comptables internationaux en Europe continentale a modifié en profondeur les systèmes comptables traditionnels. Notre recherche se fixe pour objectif d'analyser des thèmes dont la connaissance au préalable s'avère stratégique afin que le traducteur puisse planifier l'activité de

traduction de l'information comptable, entre compétence d'expert et compétence à visée traductionnelle, notamment en ce qui concerne la traduction en français des états financiers italiens. Nous postulons que la stratégie la plus productive repose sur la perspective conceptuelle avec inscription graphique des notions.. À cet effet, nous représenterons le concept de la juste valeur, à la base de variations conceptuelles, rédactionnelles et terminologiques, et dont l'appréhension fait partie des « travaux préliminaires », avec des retombées positives même du point de vue didactique. L'étude se focalisera également sur les deux nouveaux postes créés par le législateur, dans un souci d'alignement sur la nouvelle philosophie comptable, par le *Decreto legislativo n.139*, en vigueur à partir du 1er janvier 2016, qui consacre la transposition en droit interne de la Directive 2013/34/EU. Pour conclure, nous analyserons, dans une perspective contrastive, le poste *Svalutazioni di strumenti finanziari derivati* dans sa traduction vers le français, nous focalisant en particulier sur la stratégie et les procédés de traduction juridique les plus adéquats à cette situation de traduction spécifique.

Mots-clés : Comptabilité, cadre conceptuel, états financiers, principes comptables internationaux, juste valeur

Introduction

Notre article se focalisera sur quelques aspects liminaires à l'acquisition des compétences opérationnelles nécessaires pour traduire l'information financière en matière comptable. En particulier, nous nous occuperons des états financiers des sociétés italiennes qui n'ont pas l'obligation de rédiger leurs comptes annuels selon les nouveaux principes comptables mais pour lesquelles le législateur, dans un souci d'alignement sur les nouvelles normes et donc de comparabilité des documents comptables, a toutefois prévu des normes spécifiques et des variations substantielles s'inspirant des principes IAS/IFRS[1]. Ces textes nous semblent de tout intérêt au vu de leur nature juridique, leur rôle et leur fonctionnement étant codifiés par le législateur européen à travers les Directives européennes en matière comptable, Directives qui sont successivement transposées dans le droit national par le biais d'actes législatifs nationaux. Dans notre cas de figure, il s'agit du *Decreto legislativo n.139* du 18 août 2015, en vigueur à partir du 1er janvier 2016, appelé *Decreto bilanci*[2], qui consacre la transposition

[1] Les IFRS (International Financial Reporting Standard) sont le complément des normes IAS (International Accounting Standard). Etant donné que ces principes coexistent, dans cet article nous ferons toujours référence aux normes IAS/IFRS pour indiquer l'ensemble des nouveaux principes comptables internationaux.

[2] Le texte est disponible à l'adresse suivante : http://www.gazzettaufficiale.it/eli/id/2015/09/04/15G00153/sg [consulté le 3 février 2017].

dans le droit national italien de la Directive 2013/34/EU relative aux états financiers annuels et aux états financiers consolidés de certaines formes d'entreprises[3]. Cette dernière a modifié en profondeur le contenu des différents textes qui composent les documents comptables. De ce fait, il en découle une superposition des terminologies tant au niveau monolingue qu'à celui plurilingue. Nous qualifions les états financiers italiens de « textes en transition » car ils gardent déposées en perspective diachronique les marques saillantes des normes nationales et celles des principes IAS/IFRS qui s'y greffent. Des normes qui, ayant été négociées au niveau international et vers lesquelles les pays européens ont dû converger, s'avèrent étrangères à la culture comptable de l'Europe continentale, avec d'inévitables heurts au niveau culturel (Maldussi, 2016).

Comme l'écrit Marquès, la comptabilité « n'est pas une science. C'est une technique qui s'est forgée du fait d'une nécessité sociale. C'est un phénomène d'origine humaine ; un simple artefact. Son histoire est aussi longue que celle de l'humanité pensante » (1985 : 4). En ce qui concerne la langue de la comptabilité, elle revêt indubitablement une importance majeure dans l'univers de la communication financière, sa connaissance étant préalable à la compréhension des mécanismes d'autres disciplines de la gestion financière, comme c'est le cas, par exemple, de la fiscalité. En outre, sa diffusion fait que sa présence soit repérable non seulement dans les états financiers[4], la communication obligatoire régie par le droit civil et par les Directives européennes en matière comptable , mais aussi dans l'ensemble des textes qui forment la communication financière des entreprises : communiqués de presse, information périodique (trimestrielle, semestrielle et annuelle), recommandations d'investissement produites par les analystes etc. (Maldussi, 2015).

Pour mieux préciser ce que nous entendons par les aspects liminaires nous empruntons ici à Prandi l'expression *travaux préliminaires*, une expression de laquelle il s'est inspiré pour le titre de son essai *Works preliminary to translation* consacré à l'appréhension des choix que la

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[3] Le texte de la Directive est disponible à l'adresse suivante : http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/FR/TXT/?uri=celex%3A32013L0034 [consulté le 3 février 2017].

[4] À propos de l'importance au niveau professionnel et didactique du texte de spécialité *états financiers*, nous citons ici les résultats d'une enquête de Alcalde Peñalver menée en Espagne, d'après laquelle les *estados financieros* ou *cuentas anuales* seraient non seulement les textes les plus traduits par les professionnels et par les enseignants de traduction financière mais aussi les textes les plus fréquemment assignés par ce derniers (2016 : 288-293).

traduction comporte, des choix qui à leur tour sont fondés sur une analyse pointue des prises de position opérées par le rédacteur du texte original[5]. Sans vouloir être exhaustive, notre recherche se fixe l'objectif de donner une vue d'ensemble sur des thèmes que nous considérons comme stratégiques avant que le traducteur puisse planifier l'activité de traduction et effectuer la recherche d'équivalents terminologiques dans une perspective multilingue[6]. Des thèmes, pour reprendre les mots de Prandi, qui tout en étant essentiels pour réaliser un projet, n'appartiennent pas strictement à son exécution. Parmi ceux-ci, figurent en premier lieu les aspects conceptuels et thématiques sur lesquels, à notre sens, devrait se focaliser la didactique de la traduction spécialisée en matière financière. Dans la dernière partie de notre article nous analyserons également les problématiques liées à la traduction vers le français de *Svalutazioni di strumenti finanziari derivati*, l'un des deux nouveaux postes créés par le législateur italien dans un souci d'alignement sur les nouveaux principes comptables, avec celui de *Rivalutazioni di strumenti finanziari derivati*.

L'intérêt que nous portons à celle que nous qualifions de révolution comptable suite à l'adoption des normes internationales IAS/IFRS date de 2009 quand nous avons abordé les problématiques sémantiques et terminologiques de la traduction en italien et en français du syntagme *fair value*, le principe inspirateur de cette révolution (Maldussi, 2009). Ensuite, dans un travail très récent, nous avons relaté l'adoption définitive par la voie législative de l'emprunt intégral *fair value* dans le droit italien et ses conséquences sur la représentation comptable des produits dérivés aussi bien du point de vue linguistique que de celui de la vision du monde que ce choix véhicule (Maldussi, 2016).

Le présent article constitue une suite idéale de ces recherches. Les états financiers italiens peuvent, à juste titre, constituer le point d'observation privilégié de ces variations, le nouveau cadre conceptuel instauré par les IAS/IFRS étant imbriqué dans les différents textes qui les composent, les variations au bilan et au compte de résultat, comme nous le verrons, se

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[5] « […] those works which, though essential for realising a project, do not strictly belong to its execution. So too is, for instance, the mise au gabarit of a tunnel in view of the electrification of a railway line: this work has nothing to do with electricity but creates a preliminary condition » (2007 : 3).

[6] Comme le confirment Agrario et Castagnoli, qui ont construit un système de connaissances large (*knowledge base*) en matière de sécurité au travail qui est fondé sur l'intégration de systèmes conceptuels et de documentation spécialisée avec des banques de données, il est indispensable, du point de vue méthodologique, de prendre singulièrement les systèmes juridiques et de ne les comparer que dans une phase successive (2010 : 154).

reflétant dans des descriptions accrues dans l'annexe. Parallèlement, ils peuvent être également un banc d'essai privilégié pour observer le niveau de superposition des compétences thématiques et techniques de type rédactionnel qui sont du ressort du rédacteur technique et/ou du réviseur comptable et des compétences thématiques que le traducteur spécialisé et/ou l'apprenti-traducteur devront acquérir en les « pliant » à leurs besoins opérationnels spécifiques, comme nous aurons l'occasion de le montrer dans le chapitre consacré à la différence entre compétence d'expert et compétence à visée traductionnelle avec la construction de la fiche terminologique *Svalutazioni di strumenti finanziari derivati*, l'un des deux postes créés ad hoc par le législateur italien. À cet effet et au vu des modifications profondes qui intéressent l'univers comptable et qui en constituent son dynamisme, nous avançons l'idée, à l'instar de Dancette et Halimi, que la perspective conceptuelle avec la représentation graphique des notions (schémas et cartes conceptuelles) est un savoir pertinent et pourrait s'avérer l'une des stratégies les plus productives pour la compréhension et la traduction (2005 : 548). La pertinence d'une représentation conceptuelle est confirmée par Faber, selon qui l'appréhension d'un texte dense du point de vue terminologique implique l'appréhension des concepts ainsi que des relations prépositionnelles et conceptuelles qui se tissent entre les concepts mêmes à l'intérieur d'un domaine spécifique (2012 : 3).

La comptabilité, en tant que système subdivisé en schémas, se prête à la dimension graphique, les variations intervenues étant utiles pour une mise à jour professionnelle. Il est évident que cette démarche devra s'appuyer sur une collaboration étroite, en particulier dans la phase initiale, entre expert, réviseur et traducteur spécialisé.

Quelques définitions

Avant de passer à l'analyse des variations intervenues dans les textes financiers et aux remarques à visée traductionnelle, nous avançons quelques considérations en vue d'éclairer les présupposés de notre recherche.

En premier lieu, une réflexion s'impose sur le concept de la langue de spécialité dans son rapport avec le texte de spécialité. Laissant de côté le débat ancien sur le statut des dénominations variées pour indiquer une langue de spécialité (technolecte, langue spécialisée, langue du milieu professionnel, etc.), nous partageons l'avis de Sobrero selon qui une langue spécialisée est née de la cuisse de la langue commune (1993 : 274).

Une réflexion partagée par Prandi qui ajoute qu'une langue n'est pas constituée seulement de lexique mais aussi bien de grammaire, non seulement de termes mais aussi de relations et de relations parmi des relations (2010 : 57). À cet effet, il serait plus correct de parler non pas tant de langues de spécialité, ni de lexiques de spécialité mais plutôt de sous-ensembles spéciaux du lexique d'une langue, et donc de nomenclatures spécialisées (*Ibid.*).

Dans la même lignée de Prandi, Faber avance que même si une langue de spécialité est sans aucun doute de la langue, et de ce fait possède tant des caractéristiques de la langue générale, elle se caractérise aussi par la charge sémantique des unités terminologiques désignant des entités et des procès à l'intérieur d'un domaine technique ou scientifique (2012 : 1-2).

Les états financiers qui s'inscrivent, à juste titre, dans le cadre de textes de spécialité de type pragmatique en tant que produits de la réalité empirique, sont caractérisés par la présence massive d'une nomenclature plus spécifique et sont solidement ancrés dans la culture comptable qui les exprime et au cadre conceptuel qui en fixe les contours (Maldussi, 2016).

Or, si un texte de spécialité, à l'instar des états financiers, présente, de toute évidence, des problématiques supplémentaires par rapport à un texte standard, il est toutefois légitime de s'interroger jusqu'à quel point il nécessite non seulement de connaissances encyclopédiques générales sur le domaine mais aussi de connaissances conceptuelles et thématiques poussées. De même, on peut s'interroger sur comment faire la part entre connaissance appartenant à la sphère de l'expert et connaissances finalisées à la traduction et cela, à plus forte raison, dans un domaine qui « baigne » dans le droit[7]. Parallèlement, la question se pose au niveau de la formation, l'aspect problématique restant celui du dosage et du recentrage de ces mêmes connaissances.

La problématique des connaissances d'expert proprement dites et des connaissances thématiques à visée traductionnelle du traducteur spécialisé est toujours d'actualité, ainsi que le débat entre les tenants de la prééminence de la compétence linguistique sur la connaissance thématique et ceux, au contraire, qui prônent la figure du *traduttore-specialista* qui

[7] À ce propos, Dullion affirme que la compétence thématique et culturelle « joue de toute évidence un rôle clé en traduction spécialisée » (2014 : 639). Or, continue Dullion, « S'il est généralement vrai que les traducteurs de textes juridiques ont besoin d'une connaissance du domaine moins poussée que les juristes, il faut surtout relever que l'acquisition de cette connaissance doit être orientée autrement, en fonction d'autres priorités » et cite l'article au titre parlant de Lavoie (2003) « Faut-il être juriste ou traducteur pour traduire le droit? ». À ce débat participe également Gelpí (2015) qui prend ses distances de toute approche qui se veut conceptuelle ou qui assimile les connaissances du traducteur à celles de l'expert. Pour conclure, nous signalons également l'article de Gallego Hernández, Koby et Román Minguez (2016).

possède des compétences linguistiques et disciplinaires solides. Dans notre article nous adoptons la figure du traducteur spécialisé prônée par Scarpa à savoir un professionnel qui a une prédisposition à se mettre à jour sur les innovations dans le ou les secteurs dans lesquels il travaille et qui ne peut prendre la place du spécialiste car il ne possède pas la compétence technique de ce dernier. Une figure, qui contrairement au spécialiste, possède une connaissance méthodologique qui peut être profitablement investie dans une pluralité de domaines (Scarpa, 2011 : 196).

De cette connaissance méthodologique fait partie la compétence terminologique. Une vision qui est confirmée par Humbley selon qui « [o]n voit bien l'intérêt d'incorporer une formation de terminologue dans celle d'un traducteur technique » (1998 : 3). Un terminologue qui, toujours aux dires de Humbley, a un mandat assez large étant donné son statut d'« intermédiaire, spécialiste de communication, interface entre les spécialités, les sciences cognitives, la documentation et l'expression linguistique » (*Ibid.*). Or, précise Humbley, le but du terminologue n'est pas celui de suivre « une formation poussée dans la spécialité, pour en devenir en quelque sorte un expert lui-même. Chacun conserve sa sphère de compétence, des sphères qui se recoupent largement tout en restant spécifiques » (*Ibid.* : 4). La même distinction pourrait valablement être faite pour ce qui est de la figure du traducteur technique et de l'expert du domaine. Il n'empêche qu'un traducteur ou un rédacteur technique doivent être conscients des entités conceptuelles contenues dans un texte et de leurs relations réciproques, d'où le fait que l'appréhension de la représentation conceptuelle constitue un facteur clé de la rédaction et de la traduction de textes scientifiques (Faber et López Rodríguez, 2012 : 10). La représentation conceptuelles, ajoutent Faber et Gómez-Moreno, constitue le point de convergence entre traduction et travail terminologique (2012 : 84).

Or, s'il est évident que le degré de connaissances thématiques préliminaires est strictement lié aux spécificités et au niveau de technicité du texte ainsi qu'à celui des connaissances encyclopédiques et techniques du traducteur ou de l'apprenti-traducteur, qui diffère amplement de celui du rédacteur technique, nous estimons que l'appréhension, à travers son inscription graphique, de la dimension conceptuelle de la philosophie IAS/IFRS, ainsi que l'identification des variations en résultant et des raisons qui les sous-tendent constituent non seulement autant de travaux préliminaires mais aussi un savoir pertinent et un point d'inflexion crucial pour saisir l'enjeu de ce changement culturel.

Cela, à plus forte raison, au vu des variations périodiques apportées par le législateur italien dans un souci d'alignement sur la nouvelle philosophie comptable.

Une révolution tous azimuts : le niveau thématique-conceptuel

L'adoption des nouveaux principes comptables internationaux IAS/IFRS a induit une nouvelle grammaire comptable et une nouvelle organisation terminologico-conceptuelle dans la représentation des événements économiques concernant les entreprises (Maldussi, 2009). Le changement de référentiel, dont le passage de la valorisation au coût historique à une valorisation fondée sur la juste valeur (*fair value*) en est la clé de voûte, constitue un sujet stratégique qui a des retombées non seulement sur le plan conceptuel et culturel mais aussi sur le plan rédactionnel et terminologique.

Le référentiel auquel nous faisons allusion ici est celui qui a été introduit avec l'adoption des normes comptables internationales d'information financière IAS/IFRS, dont l'élaboration et la publication ont été effectuées par le Bureau des standards comptables internationaux (IASB, *International Accounting Standards Board*), un organisme supranational privé et indépendant.

Préciser le principe inspirateur de ce nouveau système comptable, à savoir la juste valeur et sa différence par rapport au coût historique , nous aidera à mieux focaliser la portée de cette révolution. Selon la définition contenue dans les normes comptables internationales, le *fair value* est « le montant pour lequel un actif pourrait être échangé, ou un passif éteint, entre des parties bien informées et consentantes dans le cadre d'une transaction effectuée dans des conditions de concurrence normales »[8]. Pour les instruments financiers, par exemple, la valeur de référence est la valeur de marché : s'il s'agit d'activités cotées, les valeurs de référence seront les prix sur les marchés actifs, notamment les marchés boursiers ; pour les activités non cotées les prix les plus récents. Des valeurs donc destinées à fluctuer au vu de l'évolution des marchés financiers et une philosophie qui diffère amplement de la tradition italienne et de l'Europe continentale, plus en général : « alors que la tradition italienne se focalise sur la tutelle des tiers et sur le principe de la prudence, la philosophie sous-

[8] Pour une analyse des normes IAS 32 et IAS 39 en langue française contenant la définition de la juste valeur, voir le site http://www.focusifrs.com/ [consulté le 26 février 2018].

jacente des IAS/IFRS se fonde plutôt sur une structure orientée vers le patrimoine », donc vers une représentation financière, reflet de la performance économique, « le principe de la compétence économique prévalant sur celui de la prudence » (Maldussi, 2016).

L'exemple suivant, tiré du site *L'Expert-comptable.com,* est assez éloquent à propos des inconvénients présentés par une évaluation au coût historique par rapport à une évaluation à la juste valeur :

> [...] une entreprise achète un terrain dans une zone non commerciale en 1930 valant 200.000 €. En 2011, cette zone est devenue très commerciale et la valeur du bien est évaluée à 1.000.000 € sur le marché. Dans la comptabilité, la valeur du terrain en vertu du principe comptable du coût historique restera à 200.000 €, car c'est le prix auquel l'entreprise l'a acheté[9].

Pour synthétiser, si d'un côté le coût historique est une donnée stable, simple et économique, dans le sens qu'elle ne nécessite pas d'être continuellement actualisée, de l'autre, la juste valeur est une donnée souple, complexe et destinée à évoluer dans le temps. Une complexité qui se reflète également dans les différentes traductions paraphrastiques en italien et en français qui ont accompagné l'entrée sur scène du *fair value* et qui témoignent des efforts d'en saisir l'enjeu (Maldussi, 2009).

La comptabilité, une culture en transition: niveau rédactionnel et réorganisation terminologique

De profondes variations intéressent les sociétés de capitaux italiennes qui ne sont pas dans l'obligation d'adopter les nouveaux principes comptables internationaux IAS/IFRS ou bien qui ne les ont pas choisis. Le *Decreto legislativo n. 139* du 18 août 2015, en vigueur à partir du 1er janvier 2016, appelé *Decreto bilanci*, qui consacre la transposition dans le droit national italien de la Directive 2013/34/EU relative aux états financiers annuels et aux états financiers consolidés de certaines formes d'entreprises a modifié en profondeur le contenu des documents comptables. Les variations introduites par le législateur italien ont également entraîné une profonde révision des typologies et des finalités de ces documents, avec un impact aussi au niveau macro et micro textuel. Le *Decreto legislativo*, nous le rappelons, est un acte normatif sous forme d'un décret émané par le

9 Accessible en ligne : https://www.l-expert-comptable.com/a/37875-le-principe-comptable-du-cout-historique.html [consulté le 26 février 2018].

Président de la République sur décision du Conseil des Ministres qui a la même efficacité que celle d'une loi du Parlement.

En guise d'exemple, nous citons la *nota integrativa* (en français l'annexe aux comptes[10]) dont le contenu informatif minimum est établi par l'article 2427 et 2427-bis du Code civil italien[11]. Ce dernier article s'adresse aux sociétés qui n'appliquent pas les principes comptables internationaux telles que banques, entreprises industrielles et institutions financières et cela dans le but de comparer leurs bilans à ceux des sociétés qui sont obligées d'adopter les nouveaux principes. La *nota integrativa* a pour but de préciser les informations contenues dans le bilan et le compte de résultat.

Or, si la fonction de ce document reste la même, ce qui se différencie est bien le contenu et le niveau de détail de l'information qui se greffent sur la structure préexistante, ce qui répond à une exigence de fonctionnalité. Par rapport à l'ancienne version, la nouvelle *nota integrativa* enregistre deux variations majeures : premièrement, de texte éminemment descriptif et informatif, elle devient un texte fondamentalement qualitatif dont la fonction opérationnelle est celle de permettre à l'investisseur de prendre des décisions économiques[12]. Deuxièmement, de texte presque inexistant, la *nota integrativa* devient un texte volumineux, comme le prouvent, par exemple, les ajouts de type qualitatif et quantitatif concernant les différentes typologies et profils de risque et l'attention particulière destinée aux politiques de gestion et de couverture de ces mêmes risques.

Or, si ces remarques témoignent du degré d'imbrication des textes comptables, il est évident que la nouvelle organisation textuelle est une compétence qui est plutôt du ressort du rédacteur et/ou du reviseur pour qui la perspective diachronique de type tecnico-rédactionnel est fondamentale.

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[10] Dans notre essai, nous réservons la dénomination de *nota integrativa* au texte issu de la tradition civile italienne et régi par l'article 2423 du Code civil. Pour le document ayant la même fonction que la *nota integrativa*, établi par les sociétés de capitaux cotées qui rédigent leurs états financiers selon les principes comptables internationaux, est préférable la dénomination plus générique de *note al bilancio* (les notes afférentes aux états financiers, de l'anglais *notes to the financial statements*).

[11] Le code civil italien est disponible en ligne au site Web suivant : http://www.altalex.com/documents/codici-altalex/2015/01/02/codice-civile [consulté le 26 février 2018].

[12] Il est utile de rappeler que dans le Code civil italien est absente la notion d'utilité pour les destinataires des documents comptables, la notion de caractère informatif y étant préférée. Nous signalons également que l'adoption des IAS/IFRS implique le passage d'une représentation patrimoniale, ou prudentielle, de l'entreprise, à une représentation financière et économique, image de sa performance économique.

Il n’en reste pas moins que ces aspects pourraient revêtir une certaine importance pour le traducteur spécialisé aussi: appréhender les informations qui doivent figurer selon les normes IAS/IFRS non seulement fait partie de la mise à jour professionnelle à laquelle se référait Scarpa mais aussi, nous ajoutons, favoriserait la prévisibilité du texte, mobilisant l’horizon d’attente du traducteur spécialisé et l’appréhension de l’implicite à travers un processus inférentiel.

Les instruments financiers dérivés à l’épreuve des IAS/IFRS : compétence d’expert vs compétence à visée traductionnelle

Dans ce chapitre nous examinerons à travers l’exemple des instruments financiers dérivés la pertinence pour le traducteur spécialisé d’une représentation conceptuelle des notions. Nous étudierons également l’utilité de cette stratégie en fonction de la création, de la part du législateur italien, de deux postes spécifiques au compte de résultat : *Rivalutazioni di strumenti finanziari derivati* et *Svalutazioni di strumenti finanziari derivati*.

Les produits dérivés sont des contrats dont la valeur est liée aux variations d’une valeur sous-jacente (titres, marchandises, indices boursiers), d’où la possibilité de fluctuations qui constituent leur volatilité et leur élément de risque. Le caractère risqué de ces instruments réside dans le fait que cette volatilité peut les transformer d’instrument financiers actifs en instruments financiers passifs (Mezzabotta 2016a : 13-14). La méthode de la juste valeur apparaît donc comme la plus apte à apprécier les variations de valeur de l’instrument.

L’article 2423-bis du Code civil italien liste les informations à fournir en annexe, avec un degré de détail accru pour tenir compte du fait que la juste valeur de l’instrument est inscrite au bilan et a des impacts plus importants sur le compte de résultat.

Or, la tradition italienne veut que les instruments financiers dérivés soient normalement inscrits à leur échéance. Il en découle que c’est bien la culture d’entreprise italienne à être mise en cause ici, avec d’inévitables heurts au niveau conceptuel et à celui de la culture d’entreprise traditionnelle (Maldussi, 2016).

Or, il est évident que l’organisation du contenu des informations supplémentaires à fournir en annexe sur la base des nouvelles dispositions du législateur, comme c’est le cas des informations concernant les produits dérivés, est plutôt du ressort du rédacteur et du réviseur comptable. Il en est de même pour ce qui est de la compétence concernant le principe de la pertinence de l'information qui permet aux entreprises de ne pas respecter les obligations en matière de comptabilisation quand le respect de ces dernières a des effets insignifiants. Il n'en reste pas moins que leur raison d'être, attribuable à l'introduction du concept de la juste valeur, revêt une importance particulière pour la représentation conceptuelle à visée traductionnelle. En effet, c'est bien du concept de la juste valeur et de la philosophie IAS/IFRS en matière de comptabilisation des dérivés (en particulier du IAS 32 pour ce qui est des définitions de *derivato*, de *strumento rappresentativo di capitale*, de *passività/attività finanziaria*, du IAS 39 pour ce qui est de la définition de *strumento finanziario* et de la comptabilisation et évaluation de ces instruments, de l'IFRS 13 pour ce qui est du concept de la juste valeur) que s'est inspiré le législateur italien pour la création de deux nouveaux postes comptables : le poste 18d *Rivalutazioni di strumenti finanziari derivati* et le poste 19d *Svalutazioni di strumenti finanziari derivati*.

Il s'agit de deux dénominations que le législateur italien a introduites pour la première fois à travers le *Decreto legislativo n. 139* susmentionné afin de tenir compte du détail des informations requis par le nouveau schéma de compte de résultat qui devra inclure non seulement les rectifications de valeur des actifs mais aussi des passifs financiers (Mezzabotta, 2016a : 11). Nous nous limiterons ici à l'analyse du poste 19d.

Figure 1 : Extrait de la fiche terminologique du poste 19d *Svalutazioni di strumenti finanziari derivati*

S’agissant de dénominations *ad hoc*, il s’avère stratégiquement important de saisir les raisons qui motivent leur création et les rapports internotionnels à l’intérieur du système conceptuel. Le système conceptuel contenu dans la fiche terminologique *Svalutazioni di strumenti finanziari derivati* (figure 1) illustre la situation qui précède (partie à gauche de la figure 1, sur fond noir) et qui fait suite à l’adoption du *Decreto legislativo n. 139* (partie à droite de la figure 1, sur fond blanc). La carte s’y référant est hiérarchisée, avec les relations qui sont verbalisées de façon intuitive pour les rendre plus lisibles : la relation *modalità* indique le mode de représentation comptable, la relation *implica* désigne la conséquence logique d’une évaluation à la juste valeur alors que la relation *inserimento* indique les documents dans lesquels seront comptabilisés les différents contenus : le *stato patrimoniale* (le bilan), le *conto economico* (le compte de résultat) et la *nota integrativa* (l’annexe). La bulle rayée placée au milieu de la figure 1 contient les deux postes *ad hoc* créés par le législateur national.

La juste valeur, nous le réaffirmons, est une valeur souple, destinée à évoluer dans le temps et s’avère la plus apte à l’évaluation d’instruments tels que les produits dérivés qui, par définition, d’après le IAS 39, sont soumis à de fortes oscillations pour ce qui est de leur prix. La mise en place des deux postes s’avère donc cohérente avec le cadre conceptuel IAS/IFRS et elle est le signe de la volonté de donner une image fidèle et juste de la valeur économique de l’entreprise, image qu’une évaluation au coût historique aurait faussée. Les informations concernant le nouveau référentiel comptable ainsi que les variations qui en découlent participent de la construction d’une carte conceptuelle qui se greffe sur des connaissances de base et qui permet de saisir la trame de fond des nouveaux postes, les relations entre les concepts et celles s’instaurant dans le domaine de référence. Il est notoire qu’une carte conceptuelle est à la base de la capacité de s’orienter dans des systèmes conceptuels. La comptabilité, en tant que système subdivisé en schémas comptables, se prête à la dimension graphique, les variations intervenues étant utiles pour une mise à jour professionnelle.

Notre perspective est que le traducteur spécialisé, s’appuyant également sur sa formation de terminologue et sur la collaboration du rédacteur et/ou du réviseur, surtout dans la phase initiale, devrait être à même d’acquérir le savoir pertinent pour être capable de situer conceptuellement les nouvelles dénominations introduites par le législateur. Nous postulons que ce travail préliminaire est possible à partir du concept de la juste valeur qui permet de situer conceptuellement la notion d’instrument financier dérivé et les variations qui l’intéressent.

Le concept de la juste valeur, que nous qualifions de structurant en raison de sa capacité d'organiser les connaissances en matière de IAS/IFRS pourrait constituer, à notre sens, un aspect conceptuel et thématique clé sur lequel focaliser la didactique de la traduction spécialisée en matière comptable. Sa représentation conceptuelle avec toutes ses ramifications a un bénéfice pédagogique patent : comme l'écrivent Agrario et Castagnoli, « un locuteur repère les concepts non pas en tant qu'unités isolées mais plutôt comme des pièces d'une mosaïque qui dépendent l'une de l'autre » (2010 : 153). À son tour, comme l'écrit Van Campenhoudt, « [l]'une des principales caractéristiques de nombreuses terminographies conçues dans une perspective notionnelle est de suivre un ordre systématique. L'idéal poursuivi voudrait que l'ordonnancement macrostructurel des notions soit conçu en fonction des liens qui les unissent et les distinguent au sein d'un ensemble cohérent dénommé sous-domaine » (1996). Or, s'il est vrai que les schémas de la représentation comptable sont définis de façon rigide par le législateur, il n'empêche qu'une représentation graphique comme celle illustrée dans la figure 1 pourrait répondre aux besoins spécifiques de clarté et de précision conceptuelles du terminologue et du traducteur spécialisé. La fiche terminologique devra également contenir des informations utiles à une représentation vraie et juste à visée traductionnelle, à savoir, des renvois aux IAS pertinents et aux législations nationale et européenne, ainsi que les notions corrélées.

Une position qui est défendue par Agrario et Castagnoli, selon qui « tout dictionnaire ou banque de données spécialisés devrait contenir une quantité élevée d'informations notionnelles et encyclopédiques, donc non seulement linguistiques et cela, à plus forte raison, dans un domaine tel quel le domaine juridique qui ressent le plus des traditions, des cultures et des processus historiques d'évolution des pays » (2010 : 139).

La perspective contrastive italo-française à visée traductionnelle[13]

La perspective contrastive italo-française, en tant qu'instrument puissant de réflexion linguistique, ajoute au bénéfice pédagogique dérivant d'une approche notionnelle telle que nous l'avons proposée précédemment. Nous

[13] Les remarques à visée traductionnelle et les propositions de traduction ici présentées sont issues d'un entretien téléphonique avec M^{me} Mezzabotta, expert-comptable à Milan, lors de la rédaction de cet article. Ces réflexions préliminaires confirment l'utilité, voire la nécessité, d'une collaboration étroite entre expert et traducteur spécialisé.

prônons ici une approche par étapes qui valorise les apports de la linguistique et des compétences thématiques à visée traductionnelle, assortie d'un moment de micro-comparaison juridique qui permette d'appréhender la complexité et d'affiner la conscience terminologique du traducteur spécialisé. En particulier, grâce à cette activité de micro-comparaison juridique préliminaire, le traducteur spécialisé pourra évaluer l'apport du législateur français, élargissant ainsi son horizon d'analyse et s'éloignant d'une approche exclusivement linguistique.

Or, s'il est évident que les techniques de comptabilisation et de classement des postes, à l'instar des distinctions opérées par le législateur italien, sont du ressort du rédacteur technique et de l'expert-comptable , il est tout aussi vrai que compétence d'expert et compétence à visée traductionnelle sont imbriquées[14]. D'autant plus que l'exploration des textes de référence dans les deux langues permet au traducteur spécialisé d'affiner ses compétences terminologiques dans les deux systèmes et de disposer d'une base terminologique solide sur laquelle fonder ses choix de traduction[15].

Les équivalents de traduction proposés ici s'apparentent au calque structural. Il s'agit respectivement de *gains de valeur sur instruments financiers dérivés* et de *pertes de valeur sur instruments financiers dérivés ;* les formulations *instruments financiers dérivés, dérivés* et *instruments financiers à terme* sont attestées dans l'Arrêté du 28 décembre 2015 portant homologation du Règlement du 2 juillet 2015 relatif au traitement comptable des instruments financiers à terme et des opérations de couverture dans les comptes annuels des sociétés industrielles, règlement qui est entré en vigueur à compter du 1er janvier 2017. En particulier, nous nous focaliserons ici sur l'analyse du terme *pertes de*

[14] Comme l'écrit Moréteau, « [l]e traducteur aide à passer les frontières linguistiques, ce qu'il ne peut faire sans une connaissance au moins élémentaire du contexte juridique, mais ce n'est pas à lui qu'il appartient de faire franchir les frontières juridiques […] » (2009 : 72).

[15] Les remarques suivantes, centrées précisement sur la traduction juridique, peuvent très bien s'appliquer à notre situation de traduction spécifique. Comme l'écrit Gémar, « [l]e traducteur, généralement seul devant son texte, ne peut compter que sur ses propres ressources pour atteindre l'équivalence recherchée » (1998). Et d'ajouter, citant Focsaneanu : « [...] la traduction juridique ne saurait jamais être rigoureusement exacte. C'est une opération approximative, dont il convient d'apprécier la marge d'erreur. En somme, une traduction juridique constitue une simple présomption, que les intéressés doivent toujours pouvoir contester en se référant au texte authentique » (Focsaneanu 1971, 262 cité par Gémar, 1998).

valeur sur instruments financiers dérivés[16]. Nous avons opté ici pour une technique de traduction de type descriptif, fruit d'un choix raisonné et que nous avons donc considéré comme adéquate à cette situation de traduction spécifique[17], qui se situe à cheval entre le mot à mot ou la traduction littérale pour ce qui est de la structure du syntagme et la technique du substitut descriptif ou de l'équivalent descriptif (Šarčević, 1997) pour ce qui est de la traduction de *svalutazione* par *perte de valeur*[18]. Comme l'écrit Terral, l'« utilisation de l'équivalent mot à mot sert […] à signaler que le terme à traduire relève de la langue et de la culture de départ » (2002 : 36)[19]. Dans notre cas de figure, il s'agit de faire connaître à notre destinataire le contenu des deux postes créés de manière *ad hoc*, conformément à ce que prévoit la législation nationale italienne en matière

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[16] Aux fins de notre recherche, nous avons consulté le site Légifrance et celui de l'ANC, l'Autorité des normes comptables française. Les documents consultés ont été les suivants : Arrêté du 28 décembre 2015 portant homologation du règlement n° 2015-5 du 2 juillet 2015 relatif aux instruments financiers à terme et aux opérations de couverture. Accessible en ligne : https://www.legifrance.gouv.fr/eli/arrete/2015/12/28/EINT1531578A/jo/texte [consulté le 3 février 2017]; Règlement ANC n°2014-03 du 5 juin 2014 relatif au Plan comptable général. Accessible en ligne : http://www.anc.gouv.fr/files/live/sites/anc/files/contributed/ANC/1.%20Normes%20fran%c3%a7aises/Reglements/2014/Reglt2014-03/Reglt%202014-03_Plan%20comptable%20general.pdf [consulté le 3 février 2017].

[17] Comme l'écrit Terral, « La difficulté quant à l'utilisation adéquate de ces techniques découlera de la capacité du traducteur à trouver quelle est celle qui s'avère la plus appropriée à chaque situation de traduction. Pour ce faire, il devra avant tout prendre en compte la finalité attribuée à la traduction en tant que produit fini ainsi que son destinataire. Dans cette perspective, le traducteur sera confronté à un dilemme de base qui sera reflété, au cas par cas, par le choix raisonné des techniques de traduction qu'il utilisera. Ce dilemme du traducteur juridique est simple tout en étant complexe. Doit-il, pour faire comprendre son texte, avertir le récepteur qu'il est en présence de concepts appartenant à un autre système juridique ou doit-il, au contraire, tenter d'intégrer ces concepts au système juridique du récepteur » (2002 : 56). Et Gémar d'ajouter : « Plusieurs solutions se présentent au traducteur lorsqu'il est placé devant le TD. Il peut opter soit pour une traduction qui en suive de près la formulation, les mots, soit pour une démarche plus libre. Autrement dit, la lettre ou l'esprit. Cicéron parlait à ce propos d'*interpres* ou d'*orator*. Il peut aussi choisir entre les multiples possibilités et combinatoires distinguant ou rapprochant l'une de l'autre. Chaque méthode possède ses adversaires et ses partisans » (1998).

[18] Pour un approfondissement des techniques de la traduction juridique, voir Terral (2002).

[19] Pour un approfondissement des procédés de traduction dans le domaine juridique, voir Wiesmann 2011.

comptable, veillant en même temps à ce que la dénomination choisie ne renvoie pas à des dénominations culturellement ancrées dans la culture comptable française, ce qui induirait des heurts de type référentiel[20]. Comme l'écrit Rega dans son essai consacré à la micro langue des états financiers, « il s'agit ici de produire un texte qui soit le plus possible projeté vers la langue d'arrivée sans faire disparaître la réalité de la langue de départ (1992 : 68), surtout quand il n'est pas possible d'avoir recours aux marques typiques de la langue d'arrivée, tout cela étant nécessairement subordonné à une activé de comparaison entre les textes originaux en langue de départ et en langue d'arrivée (*Ibid.* : 69)[21].

L'exploration des textes de loi français montre que le système français opte dans certains cas pour l'hypéronyme *variations de valeur* et, dans d'autres, fait la distinction entre les hausses et les baisses de valeur des instruments financiers dérivés, entre les pertes éventuelles sur l'élément couvert et les gains sur les contrats négociés. La Directive 2013/34, par référence aux instruments financiers dérivés, n'utilise que l'hyperonyme *variations de valeur*. Les deux systèmes, italien et français, comptabilisent ces variations au compte de résultat.

Le choix de l'équivalent descriptif *perte* a été effectué sur la base du concept de *svalutazione* qui correspond ici à une diminution de la juste valeur, donc à une dépréciation ou à une perte de valeur. En outre, si le terme *svalutazione* rentre dans un schéma habituel en italien, comme l'atteste le poste *svalutazione crediti*, les schémas comptables français utilisent dans ce cas de figure le syntagme *provision pour créances douteuses*, le terme *dévaluation* étant utilisé dans le cas d'une perte de valeur d'une devise ou pour indiquer une politique de dévaluation de la monnaie nationale de la part d'un gouvernement, comme l'atteste le concept de la dévaluation compétitive dans le domaine de la politique monétaire. Cela est confirmé par le Règlement ANC N° 2014-03 du 5 juin 2014 relatif au Plan comptable général qui utilise le syntagme *perte de valeur* pour indiquer des dépréciations. En outre, la tête du même syntagme, à savoir le terme relationnel *perte*, génère un schéma d'arguments (dit également schéma relationnel) très productif : comme le

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[20] Notre hypothèse est que cette traduction est effectuée par une filiale italienne pour le compte d'une société mère française.

[21] Comme le confirme Gémar « Pour traduire, il faut non seulement connaître et comprendre les termes du domaine visé et les notions dont ils sont porteurs, mais aussi les mots de la langue courante, autrement dit : la langue (ou le lexique) et le discours (ou la parole) propres aux spécialistes de ce domaine, soit la manière de dire les choses dans cette spécialité. De la réunion des deux naît le langage, courant ou spécialisé, selon les usages qui en sont faits » (1998).

montre les exemples suivants prélevés dans le même document *perte de rétroactivité*, *perte de l'exercice*, *perte de capacité* et *perte de contrôle*. L'Arrêté du 28 décembre 2015 portant homologation du Règlement n° 2015-5 du 2 juillet 2015 relatif aux instruments financiers à terme et aux opérations de couverture confirme l'utilisation de gains et pertes (latents ou réalisés) par référence aux instruments financiers à terme et aux opérations de couverture. De surcroît, la tête de syntagme *perte*, qui reçoit deux arguments, notamment l'argument qui subit la perte (les instruments financiers) et l'argument qui indique ce qui est perdu (la valeur), a la même fonction dans des structures comparables, telles que les postes pertes de valeur sur écarts d'acquisition et pertes de valeur sur stocks de marchandises. Le choix de *perte* est renforcé par la constatation que les termes *perte* et *gain* sont également utilisés, sur les marchés des changes, dans le descriptif des concepts de la réévaluation/appréciation et de la dévaluation/dépréciation d'une devise. Pour conclure, les termes *produits* et *charges*, malgré leur utilisation par référence aux gains et aux pertes (latents ou réalisés) des dérivés de couverture, ont été exclus car leur champ sémantique a été jugé plus ample par rapport à celui des termes italiens *rivalutazioni/svalutazioni*.

Conclusion

Appréhender le nouveau référentiel comptable introduit par les IAS/IFRS, apprécier ses implications culturelles et ses retombées au niveau des informations à produire et à celui de la terminologie, constituent autant d'aspects liminaires à la traduction comptable.

Ces différents aspects témoignent du lien indissociable, dans l'activité de traduction spécialisée, entre dimension culturelle, compétence thématique, dimension terminologique et conceptuelle, discours et savoirs spécialisés. Un constat qui s'avère d'autant plus vrai pour le domaine comptable où la notion de système est étroitement liée à celle de culture.

La compétence thématico-conceptuelle en matière de IAS/IFRS représente à juste titre un aspect liminaire car elle nous permet non seulement de saisir les raisons des variations intervenues dans les états financiers mais aussi de situer conceptuellement les nouveaux postes introduits par le législateur italien. L'exemple du poste *Svalutazioni di strumenti finanziari derivati* dans sa traduction vers le français est éloquent.

La culture comptable et son histoire, son passé et son présent, coexistent dans la nouvelle version des états financiers italiens. Les termes juridiques, de leur côté, sont chargés de culture et cet aspect est d'autant plus visible dans la comptabilité : un domaine ancré dans la langue par laquelle il s'énonce et dans la culture qui l'exprime.

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LA TRADUCTION-LOCALISATION DANS LE CONTEXTE DU M-COMMERCE : QUELLES PARTICULARITES SUR LE MARCHÉ ARABO-ÉGYPTIEN

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ABSTRACT. This study aims to discuss localization in the context of m-commerce. We will analyze two representative applications of the particularities of the Arabic language in the context of m-commerce, both locally and internationally. The first, Bey2ollak, specialized in real-time information on Cairo traffic. The second is the application online hotel reservation, Booking.com, known worldwide and localized into many languages including Arabic. The particularities of the localization of these applications on mobile phones will be studied in their relations with the local culture, the concept of minimalism and creativity. It will be a question of localization in its relationship with the emergence of the « Franco-Egyptian » language. Can we really talk about the birth of a linguistic combination « Franco-Egyptian »–Egyptian dialect in the context of mobile phone applications? In this domain, application localization is influenced by the particularities of m-commerce in a given geographical area. What special features for the Arabic language? In this context, we will consider linguistic, cultural and notional difficulties of the localization process. It is a matter of analyzing the processes of cultural adaptation in the localization of « Franco-Egyptian » into Egyptian dialect, as well as from English into French and Arabic in the case of the Booking.com application.

Keywords: m-commerce, translation, localisation, writing for mobile, rewriting

RESUME. Cette étude mène une réflexion sur la localisation dans le contexte du m-commerce. Nous analyserons deux applications représentatives des particularités de la langue arabe dans le contexte du m-commerce tant au niveau local qu'international. La première, Bey2ollak, spécialisée dans l'information en temps réel sur le trafic automobile au Caire. La deuxième, Booking.com, centrale de réservation d'hôtels en ligne, connue au niveau mondial et localisée en langue arabe entre autres. Les spécificités de la localisation de ces applications seront étudiées dans leurs rapports avec la culture locale et la notion du minimalisme. Il sera question de la localisation dans son rapport avec l'émergence du langage «

franco-égyptien ». S'agit-il réellement de la naissance d'une combinaison linguistique « franco-égyptien »– dialecte égyptien dans le cadre des applications des téléphones mobiles? Dans ce contexte, la localisation des applications subit l'influence des particularités du m-commerce dans une zone géographique donnée. Quelles particularités pour la langue arabe? Dans cette optique, une réflexion sera menée sur les difficultés d'ordre linguistique, notionnel et culturel dans l'opération de localisation. Nous analyserons les procédés de l'adaptation culturelle dans la localisation du « franco-égyptien » vers le dialecte égyptien ainsi que ceux de l'anglais vers le français et l'arabe dans Booking.com.

Mots clés: m-commerce, traduction, localisation, rédaction pour le mobile, réecriture

Introduction

Cette étude vise à mener une réflexion sur la traduction-localisation dans le contexte du mobile commerce (m-commerce) sur le marché arabe. Il s'agit d'analyser la traduction de deux applications mobiles *Bey2ollak*, créée en deux versions locales et Booking.com traduite dans quarante-deux langues dont l'arabe.

La problématique s'articule autour des enjeux liés à l'évolution de la traduction-localisation dans le contexte du m-commerce. Quelles sont les particularités de la traduction dans ce contexte ? Quelles spécificités pour la langue arabe ? S'agit-il de la naissance d'une nouvelle combinaison linguistique *franco*-égyptien–dialecte égyptien et *franco*-égyptien–anglais?

Notre étude commence par la présentation de la traduction-localisation sur le marché arabo-égyptien du m-commerce. Ensuite, nous analyserons la traduction des deux applications. Enfin, nous présenterons la synthèse des résultats obtenus.

Contexte du m-commerce

Selon l'approche qui tient compte des différents aspects du m-commerce, il s'agit « des applications et des services auxquels les utilisateurs ont accès depuis un mobile connecté à internet » (Sadeh, 2002 : 5). Il est question de smartphones, de réseaux sociaux et d'applications (Pelet, 2015 : 61).

Certes, le comportement de lecture d'un internaute est différent de celui d'un applinaute (Canivet-Bourgaux, 2014 : 246). Il n'est pas commode pour les yeux de lire sur un petit écran en se déplaçant. La rédaction pour le mobile tient compte de cette situation de mobilité (voire d'ubiquité) pour répondre à un besoin spécifique d'un utilisateur :

recherche d'un trajet ou d'un hôtel, par exemple. La notion de minimalisme est fort liée à la réécriture d'un contenu adapté au terminal (Pelet, 2014 : 178-181 ; Canivet, 2013 : 158, 257). Dans ce contexte, la terminologie est incontournable : « la miniaturisation est un aspect additionnel qui place la terminologie au centre de la localisation » (Quirion, 2006 : 832).

Selon Yunker (2010 : 106), qu'il s'agisse du e-commerce (via ordinateur) ou du m-commerce (via mobile), l'utilisabilité l'emporte sur la créativité. La Norme ISO 9241-11 (1998) définit l'utilisabilité comme étant « le degré selon lequel un produit peut être utilisé, par des utilisateurs identifiés, pour atteindre des buts définis avec efficacité, efficience et satisfaction, dans un contexte d'utilisation spécifié ».

Contrairement au site web qui commence internationalisé, puis localisé, l'application peut être créée, d'abord, au niveau local : « plus une appli est locale, plus elle sera appréciée, car l'utilisateur bénéficie de l'information qui lui correspond le plus » (Pelet, 2014 : 162). C'est ainsi que des applications sont créées dans l'arabe dialectal. Ce contexte local permet, d'une part, d'adapter la stratégie communicationnelle de l'entreprise ciblée sur le marché visé et, d'autre part, de rendre manifestes les spécificités linguistico-culturelles locales. C'est dans ce contexte que la créativité en traduction/réécriture « s'exprime sur et avec les contraintes (linguistiques, textuelles, formelles, etc.) et dans leur dépassement » (Dancette, 2007 : 119).

Les travaux effectués sur le mobile commerce dans le domaine de la gestion (Pelet, 2014), de la technologie de l'Information (Sadeh, 2002; Maamar, 2003; Yunker, 2010; Nielsen, 2013) s'accordent sur le fait que le mobile commerce gagne en importance et que le passage du e-commerce vers le m-commerce devient incontournable (Maamar; Yunker). L'étude de Marcoccia (2016) dans le domaine de l'analyse du discours sur l'influence des technologies sur la communication numérique écrite et celle de Fairon en linguistique (Fairon, Klein et Sébastien, 2006) montrent l'évolution des procédés de l'écriture avec la nouvelle technologie. Les études de Quirion (2004 ; 2006) dans le domaine de la terminologie ont permis d'observer la place importante qu'occupent la langue et la terminologie dans l'activité localisatrice. D'où l'adaptation du profil du traducteur aux exigences de la communication multilingue (Gouadec, 2009; Guidère, 2008) en insistant sur la nécessité de marier l'analogique avec le numérique (Froeliger, 2013). Les études menées sur la traduction-localisation dans son lien avec la variation linguistique (Caignon et Bouffard, 2006 : 816) montrent comment ce contexte favorise l'évolution de la langue et permet une innovation au niveau lexical. La synthèse de ces études (tous domaines confondus) permet d'identifier le rapport entre l'évolution de la nouvelle technologie et la langue, d'une part, et les métiers de la traduction, d'autre part.

Contexte arabo-égyptien

Le m-commerce considéré comme un « complément et un remplaçant potentiel du e-commerce » (Brun et Boyer, 2010 : 54) connait une croissance dans le monde arabe (Algethmi, 2013). Encourageant l'innovation, les institutions égyptiennes favorisent l'évolution de ce marché (Elsaadany, 2014) à travers le financement des startups des jeunes dans le domaine de la nouvelle technologie. C'est dans ce contexte que le langage franco-arabe est apparu sur le marché égyptien des applications mobiles. Notons que ce vocable prête à confusion. Au Maghreb, il renvoie à l'usage des mots français avec la langue arabe tant à l'oral qu'à l'écrit. Tandis qu'en Égypte, il réfère à l'écriture du dialecte égyptien en lettres latines avec l'usage de chiffres correspondant aux lettres de l'alphabet arabe inexistantes dans l'alphabet latin. Il n'est utilisé qu'au niveau de l'écrit. Nous l'appellerons ici *franco-égyptien* ou *franco* tout court pour éviter toute confusion à ce sujet.

Ce langage est né avec la nouvelle technologie. Au début, les claviers ne comportaient pas de lettres arabes. Avec le sms, est apparue l'abréviation en franco pour économiser le coût du message. Malgré l'existence des claviers arabes, les utilisateurs continuent de l'écrire, question d'habitude, de rapidité, voire de modernité. C'est, d'ailleurs, le cas de tous les utilisateurs de la Communication écrite médiée par ordinateur qui « montrent une tendance manifeste à l'abréviation » (Cougnon, 2010 : 397). Favorisant l'usage du franco, plusieurs liens en ligne sont dédiés à l'apprentissage de son système d'écriture. Même Google a créé un site pour écrire en alphabet arabe en utilisant un clavier latin : https://www.google.com/intl/ar/inputtools/try/.

Dans ce langage, les chiffres latins remplacent les lettres arabes inexistantes dans l'alphabet latin. Ainsi, est-il aisé à un utilisateur arabe d'écrire le dialecte égyptien en utilisant un clavier latin. Cette correspondance chiffre-lettre ne suit pas un système donné. Il s'agit, plus ou moins, d'un rapprochement visuel entre le chiffre et la forme d'écriture de la lettre arabe. Par exemple, le chiffre 2 correspond au signe diacritique ء (appelé *hamza)* et le chiffre 7 à la lettre ح. Citons pour les abréviations *EL7* pour *el hamdolillah* (Dieu merci) et *ISA* pour *InshaAllah* (si Dieu le veut).

S'exprimer à l'écrit dans une langue en utilisant l'alphabet d'une autre langue n'est pas uniquement propre au franco. L'*aljamiado* « l'espagnol transcrit en caractères arabes par les derniers musulmans d'Espagne » (Derenbourg, 1976 : XLII) en est un exemple (sans l'usage de chiffres comme dans le franco). Certes, le contexte de production et d'utilisation des deux langages est différent. L'*aljamiado,* a été utilisé du XV^e^ au XVII^e^ siècles (Wiegers, 1997 : 3) par la minorité morisque dans le but de maintenir sa culture et son identité islamique avant de quitter l'Ibérie au XVII^e^ siècle (Wacks, 2014; Inalco, 2016).

Actuellement, le phénomène du *franco* s'étend au monde professionnel virtuel. Certaines sociétés l'utilisent pour communiquer avec leurs clients sur les réseaux sociaux. Récemment, il est devenu une langue de travail.[1]

Analyse

Bey2ollak

C'est autour de cette problématique d'apparition d'une nouvelle combinaison linguistique *franco*-dialecte égyptien et *franco*-anglais qu'il semble intéressant d'analyser l'application égyptienne spécialisée dans l'information routière en temps réel en Égypte, *Bey2ollak* (expression du dialecte égyptien qui signifie « on te dit »). Elle est dotée d'une double importance. C'est la première application sur l'information routière en Égypte et la première créée en franco. Son cas est particulièrement intéressant car elle s'adresse à des utilisateurs appartenant à un espace géographique, linguistique et culturel commun (monde arabe/Égypte) à travers deux versions, *franco* et arabe en adoptant une stratégie de communication bien distincte adaptée à ses utilisateurs. La définition de l'applinaute visée par les développeurs de l'application nous aide à comprendre le choix de la stratégie adoptée dans la démarche créative de traduction/réécriture. Il s'agit, dans un premier temps, de l'applinaute arabe, plus particulièrement égyptien et plus précisément jeune utilisant le *franco*. Après le succès de l'application, les utilisateurs qui ne comprennent pas ce langage ont commencé à l'utiliser avec difficulté. La version arabe a été, donc, créée. Elle s'adresse aux utilisateurs égyptiens qui ne sont pas familiarisés avec le *franco* (ou qui le comprennent mais refusent de l'utiliser pour protéger la langue arabe) et aux arabophones

[1] Il a été proposé à une collègue égyptienne à Montréal de traduire des messages échangés sur l'application WhatsApp du franco en français pour un procès de divorce. Elle affirme que les tribunaux au Canada considèrent ce langage comme crédible.

venus des régions arabes. Lors de la création de la version arabe, la version *franco* a connu d'importantes modifications et a été intitulée « version anglaise » vu la domination de l'anglais en Egypte en tant que première langue étrangère. Toutefois, le message qui s'affiche lors du choix de l'anglais annonce un contenu *franco* : « Bey2ollak will now switch to Franco ».

Une précision s'impose : la version arabe est en dialecte égyptien et non en arabe littéral. Les développeurs de l'application affirment que le choix du dialecte a été motivé par le désir d'être proche de la population avec qui ils partagent le même langage et le même bagage socioculturel[2] : « Speak the user's language has been a primary usability guideline for more than 20 years. The fact that the Web is a linguistic environment further increases the importance of using the right vocabulary » (Nielsen, 2013 : 111). Donc, l'arabe littéral ne correspond pas à la spécificité de cette situation de communication locale. Ajoutons à cela le désir des jeunes de la nouvelle génération « d'affirmer leur distinction sociale » (Tatossian, 2011 : 182) à travers une nouvelle écriture. Par ailleurs, un Arabe comprendra le dialecte égyptien, largement diffusé dans le monde arabe à travers les feuilletons et les films.

Les nouvelles habitudes de lecture de l'utilisateur induisent un changement au niveau de la stratégie communicationnelle de l'entreprise. L'objectif étant d'informer un utilisateur jeune sur le trafic, *Bey2ollak* utilise le *franco* aussi bien sur le site mobile que sur l'application. Cette dernière est téléchargée depuis le marché des applications du mobile tandis que le site mobile, forme réduite du site web, est consulté depuis un navigateur. Il contient plus de boutons, moins de textes, d'hyperliens et de choix dans le menu (Yunker, 2010 : 150).

Combinaison linguistique franco-dialecte égyptien?

Peut-on dire qu'il s'agit d'une combinaison linguistique *franco*-dialecte égyptien ? Dans notre étude, nous comparerons la version anglaise à la version arabe en nous référant à la version initiale parue en *franco*. Nous maintenons le nom de la « version anglaise » tout en analysant un contenu qui s'apparente plus au *franco*. Dans un premier temps, une réflexion sera menée sur les deux versions de l'application en analysant le passage du *franco* à l'arabe. Dans un second temps, il s'agira de l'analyse de la version du site mobile.

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[2] Étant utilisatrice de l'application, nous avons eu deux entretiens avec deux développeurs de l'application.

Observons la version dite anglaise. Les quatre boutons, situés en haut d'écran, sont en anglais : « All », « Avoid », « Areas », « Near Me ». En appuyant dessus, les noms des villes, des routes et des quartiers s'affichent en *franco*. Dans les cinq boutons, situés en bas, trois sont en anglais : « Favorites », « Near me » (service de géolocalisation) et « More ». Deux sont en *franco* : « Madintak » (ta ville) et « Tazbeet » (avantages). Ce dernier vocable nous interpelle. Dans la réalité socio-linguistique égyptienne, il signifie régler/rendre quelqu'un satisfait/lessiver quelqu'un/verser un pot de vin. Un Arabe, l'interpréterait, de prime abord, par « réglages » car il dérive du verbe ضبط (dabata) en arabe littéral qui signifie « régler ».

L'icône du cadeau emballé placée au-dessus du vocable attire notre attention. À la vue de l'icône, l'utilisateur peut comprendre qu'il s'agit d'une autre signification que « réglages ». L'application offre-t-elle à son utilisateur des cadeaux ou des avantages particuliers ? En effet, ce bouton permet à l'utilisateur d'identifier ses centres d'intérêt personnels (technologie, cuisine, etc.) pour en recevoir les nouveautés. D'où l'importance des icônes et leur participation dans la communication du sens « les icônes sont plus parlants que les mots » (Yunker, 2010 : 101). Il semble évident que le vocable « tazbeet » renvoie dans l'application à une réalité différente car son observation sur le site mobile montre qu'il signifie « réglage ».

Figure 1. Icône du vocable « tazbeet » sur l'application mobile Bey2ollak.

Analysons la version arabe qui maintient le nombre et l'ordre des boutons de la version initiale. La traduction du vocable anglais « avoid »[3] (éviter) par « embouteillage » زحمة (zahma) en arabe nous interpelle. L'usage de l'impératif en anglais exprime un conseil. L'utilisateur est invité à échapper à un itinéraire pour ne pas être pris dans les embouteillages. Cela sous-entend une incitation à une action : changer de direction. En arabe, la stratégie de communication est différente. Notons le recours au vocable « embouteillage » زحمة (zahma) qui est d'usage aussi bien en arabe littéral qu'en dialecte égyptien. Alors que dans le code oral, il est utilisé en tant qu'adjectif pour décrire l'état du trafic (voies obstruées), en arabe littéral, il est utilisé comme nom. Ici, il passe du statut de nom à celui d'adjectif.

Notons en arabe l'absence de conseil et d'incitation à l'action. Aucune implication de la part de l'application. C'est à l'utilisateur de décider s'il veut éviter telle ou telle voie. Qui connait l'affluence des voitures au Caire comprend la réalité désignée par ce vocable. Dans ce contexte, « embouteillage » implique dans son sens « changez de direction ». Ce sens implicite est fort évident dans le code oral. Il est courant en Égypte de dire que telle route est encombrée dans le sens d' « évitez-là ». Dans le contexte socioculturel arabe actuel, il est plus efficace de décrire l'état que de conseiller. L'usage de l'impératif dans la version arabe risquerait d'être interprété comme un ordre notamment dans un contexte géopolitique arabe qui a connu des révolutions dont l'impact est évident sur la mentalité de la population qui refuse de se plier aux ordres et de suivre des conseils. Donc, « embouteillage » fonctionne mieux pour un utilisateur arabe.

Jargon de l'application

Il s'agit du guide routier constitué d'émoticons en couleurs ou d'icônes. A chaque couleur correspond un état de circulation accompagné de vocable : *7alawa* (super), *Lazeez* (cool), *Mashy* (ça roule), *Zahma* (embouteillage), *Mafish Amal* (Aucun espoir). Par exemple, un émoticon rouge en larmes est synonyme de terribles embouteillages. Les utilisateurs de l'application se comprennent dans leurs échanges à travers le jargon (Crystal, 2004 : 189). Ce dernier apparait en *franco* dans les deux versions. Analysons le vocable *7alawa* (super). Dans la réalité sociolinguistique égyptienne, il est sujet à une pluralité de lectures : Beauté/dessert/super/oh là là (sens ironique)/facilité (expression locale) et cire d'épilation. Les développeurs de l'application y ajoutent une autre signification : fluidité du trafic. Donc,

[3] Ce vocable qui figurait dans la version franco a été remplacé par "avoid".

le vocable acquiert une autre signification dans le contexte de l'application. Un égyptien comprendra ce à quoi il réfère vu qu'il est utilisé au quotidien dans le registre familier pour exprimer une situation sans complications. Un Arabe n'a pas le même référentiel. Il pensera à « dessert ». Toutefois, il sera guidé par la couleur verte foncée et l'émoticon riant qui le renseignera sur cette situation de communication.

Combinaison linguistique franco-anglais

Le site mobile de Bey2ollak est en *franco* mais la page d'accueil est en version bilingue *franco*-anglais. L'observation de cette version nous renseigne sur les spécificités de cette situation de communication. L'utilisateur veut accéder à une information précise à la fois rapidement et facilement : quel itinéraire prendre ? Il est invité à créer un compte s'il n'est pas utilisateur. Voici un exemple :

« El password tani » (Le mot de passe encore une fois)	« confirm password »

Ici, l'utilisateur devra ressaisir son mot de passe. Notons l'usage du *franco* « el, tani » avec l'anglais « password ». Ceci reflète la réalité du franco qui implique l'usage de l'anglais dans le dialecte égyptien, perçu comme un « effet de mode » (Caignon et Bouffard, 2006 : 821). L'utilisateur devra s'inscrire pour accéder au service. L'usage du franco suivi de l'anglais devra en principe lui faciliter les étapes d'inscription rapidement et facilement.

À l'examen du site mobile, nous constatons que la stratégie rédactionnelle relève plutôt du code oral. Les vocables utilisés pour inviter l'utilisateur à s'identifier, à effectuer une recherche et à partager l'information routière, favorisent l'interaction. C'est l'une des spécificités du *franco* utilisé par *Bey2ollak* : utiliser le moyen de communication quotidien des jeunes, voire leur code.

Si la page d'accueil bilingue *franco*-anglais offre une solution optimale pour un utilisateur en mobilité, voulant savoir rapidement quel itinéraire prendre, la question qui se pose reste liée à l'enjeu linguistique. L'arabe dialectal existe sous deux formes : en lettres arabes et en *franco*. Nous sommes face à une situation de communication qui exprime l'évolution des pratiques langagières en Égypte et leur impact non seulement sur la langue arabe littérale mais aussi sur l'anglais. La version *franco* (dite anglaise) représente-t-elle une forme d'anglais « local »? : « many languages–such as spanish, French, portuguese, chinese, or even english–

have different flavors based on the countries in which they're spoken ». (Yunker, 2010 : 15). Certes, notre observation atteste de la présence de cette forme locale de l'anglais.

Booking.com

Contrairement à Bey2ollak, l'application et le site mobile de Booking.com ont été créés en complément au site web globalisé. Traduite de l'anglais en 42 langues, Booking.com s'adresse à un utilisateur désireux de réserver une chambre d'hôtel en ligne. L'étude du comportement de lecture chez l'utilisateur nous renseigne sur les stratégies de réécriture adoptées pour le mobile (Nielsen, 2013, pp.101-129). Si l'application convient pour la recherche rapide d'une information précise, la tablette semble convenir mieux « à l'achat de voyages » (Pelet, 2014 : 38) vu que l'écran est plus grand et la vision est plus claire. Toutefois, la réservation depuis le mobile peut dépanner un utilisateur en cas d'urgence.[4]

Notion de minimalisme

Observons le site mobile et l'application en les comparant au site web dans les trois versions (anglaise, française et arabe) : réduction des rubriques et des choix dans les menus déroulants. Certes, il y a plus de boutons et moins de textes dans l'application et le site mobile, ce qui rend la navigation rapide (Pelet, 2014 : 149).

Le choix de la langue dans les trois versions site web, site mobile et application nous interpelle. Booking.com adopte l'approche linguistique et non géographique (pays/région) exprimée par le message « Sélectionnez votre langue » qui s'affiche lorsque l'utilisateur clique sur l'icône du drapeau située au milieu de la page d'accueil sur le site web. Dans l'application, comme sur le site web, le drapeau se trouve à côté de chaque langue. Par exemple, le drapeau de l'Arabie Saoudite pour la langue arabe. Sur le site mobile, le drapeau saoudien n'apparait qu'une fois le choix de la langue effectué. Dans ce contexte, une question se pose : le contenu est-il adapté particulièrement à un utilisateur saoudien ? En effet, la langue arabe, dispose de 22 drapeaux. Pourquoi privilégier un drapeau donné ? Dans ce contexte, l'icône du globe ou de la carte serait plus adapté car le drapeau n'est pas synonyme de langue mais d'emplacement géographique (Yunker, 2010 : 89-90).

[4] C'était notre cas fin mai 2016 lors de la grève des trains en France. Nous avons réservé depuis l'application une chambre d'hôtel.

Une observation intéressante : lorsque l'utilisateur choisit la langue arabe en face de laquelle se trouve le drapeau saoudien, dans l'espace de quelques secondes, s'affiche le drapeau de l'Égypte si l'utilisateur est en Égypte. C'est bien simple : le système de géolocalisation permet de détecter la région géographique de l'utilisateur.[5]

Observons les syntagmes utilisés pour le choix de la langue en français, en anglais et en arabe. Sur le site web, « sélectionnez votre langue », « select your language », *اختر لغتك* sont remplacés sur le site mobile par « modifier la langue », « choose language », *تغيير اللغة* et dans l'application par « toutes les langues », « all languages », *جميع اللغات*. Notons en français le passage du verbe de l'impératif (sélectionnez) à l'indicatif (modifier) et, enfin, à l'adjectif indéfini (toutes). Le contenu est sujet à une réduction du nombre de mots et de lettres. En français, le verbe passe de 12 (sélectionnez) à 8 (modifier) lettres et, enfin, à 6 lettres (toutes). La concision poussée étant la clé de la rédaction pour le mobile (Nielsen, 2013 : 116 ; Crystal, 2004 : 230).

Observations sur la langue arabe

Booking.com s'adresse en arabe littéral aux utilisateurs du monde arabe qui partagent un bagage sociolinguistique et socioculturel commun. Ce choix se révèle pertinent. Le rôle de Booking.com est d'aider l'utilisateur arabe (adulte) dans sa prise de décision pour la réservation. Dans ce sens, l'emploi de l'arabe littéral donne à l'application une certaine crédibilité. En effet, l'arabe littéral fait l'unité de tout le monde arabe. Tandis que l'arabe dialectal est varié (syrien, algérien, etc.). A l'intérieur de l'arabe littéral, il existe différents registres que Labov (1976) nomme « styles ». Un registre peut être guindé, soutenu, standard, familier, relâché, vulgaire, etc. aussi bien en écrivant l'arabe littéral qu'en parlant l'arabe dialectal (Baccouche, 2001, pp. 87-93).

L'orthographe de certains vocables dans l'application nous interpelle et met, une fois de plus, l'accent sur la variation orthographique existant entre le Maghreb, le Machreq (Liban, Syrie, Jordanie, Palestine et Iraq), les pays du Golfe et l'Égypte. L'application représente quelques différences au niveau de l'orthographe avec l'usage en Égypte :

- L'emplacement du signe diacritique « hamza ء sur la lettre و:
Ex. Responsable :مسؤول
Égypte : مسئول

[5] Cf. Yunker (2014, pp. 66-68) pour le recours à la *négociation de langues*.

- L'usage des lettres غ et ج dans la transcription des noms propres :
Ex. Hambourg : هامبورغ
Égypte : هامبورج
- L'usage des lettres كet ج
Ex. Anglais : الإنكليزية
Égypte : الإنجليزية

Conclusion

A l'appui des exemples cités, nous pouvons constater que la saisie sur le mobile étant limitée, le recours aux émoticons et aux icônes est plus fréquent. L'utilisateur de *Bey2ollak*, souvent pressé, consulte un contenu en situation de mobilité avec un accès limité au clavier. L'application facilite la prise en main de l'information en assurant une lecture aisée grâce à une langue (dialecte et *franco*) et à une ergonomie adaptées à la situation de communication. Ainsi, les notions d'utilisabilité et de minimalisme jouent-elles un rôle clé dans ce contexte.

Considérée comme une plateforme, *Bey2ollak*, permet aux utilisateurs l'échange d'information routière dans la langue qui correspond à ce contexte : la langue de tous les jours. Ici, l'enjeu linguistique est lié, d'une part, à l'utilisateur et, d'autre part, au terminal. L'utilisateur a besoin d'un accès rapide à l'information. La langue satisfait ce besoin à travers un langage familier, concis et direct, en recourant aux émoticons et aux icônes. L'aspect personnalisé des applications joue aussi sur le choix de la langue. En témoigne la combinaison linguistique *franco*-dialecte égyptien et *franco*-anglais. Ceci est reflété par le *franco* qui est devenu une langue de travail. Son usage devient aussi fréquent que le dialecte égyptien dans la publicité. Toutefois, *le franco* reste lié à la réalité sociolinguistique et socioculturelle égyptienne. L'enjeu concerne aussi bien la langue arabe que les langues étrangères pratiquées dans un contexte local. Née en Égypte, l'application affirme les spécificités linguistico-culturelles égyptiennes.

L'enjeu rédactionnel y est aussi. Les nouveaux métiers de la traduction dont la rédaction mobile, la rédaction web et la localisation sont un défi important que doivent relever les traducteurs d'aujourd'hui. La génération Y (née entre les années 1980 et 2000) est plus concernée car elle utilise la technologie. L'enjeu de la formation réside dans la mise à jour des cursus (cf. Archibald, 2004). Plusieurs universités ont à leur programme des cours de localisation dont le département d'études langagières à l'Université du Québec en Outaouais et le département linguistique et traduction de la faculté des Arts et des sciences de l'Université de

Montréal. Citons dans ce sens le Master professionnel de l'Université Rennes 2, Métiers de la traduction-localisation et de la communication multilingue et multimédia (MTC2M). La formation à la traduction-localisation dans le domaine du m-commerce implique les compétences liées à la technologie des communications et des plateformes mobiles. Les universités du monde arabe ont un défi à relever pour former les profils (El Husseini, 2014) recherchés sur le marché aussi bien régional qu'international tout en insistant sur l'importance de la créativité en traduction.

Bref, nous pouvons dire que le marché du commerce mobile connait une floraison incontestable. La terminologie, la traduction-localisation et la rédaction sont devenues incontournables. Nos observations soulèvent, à leur tour, de nombreuses questions : le m-commerce favorisera-t-il davantage l'usage des dialectes aux dépens de la langue arabe littérale ? Le *franco*-égyptien sera-t-il favorisé de plus en plus avec les chatbots, cette nouvelle technologie qui permet d'engager avec un agent conversationnel une conversation vocale ou textuelle à travers la messagerie instantanée ?

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LA METÁFORA DEL LÉXICO ECONÓMICO DESDE LA PERSPECTIVA DEL *EMPLEO PREDICATIVO*. ALGUNAS REFLEXIONES PARA LA ELABORACIÓN DE HERRAMIENTAS LEXICOGRÁFICAS BILINGÜES

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ABSTRACT. Metaphor frequently appears in the economic-financial language, as it facilitates the assimilation of its specific abstract concepts. In this study, we will reflect on the metaphorical process in the language of economics from a linguistic perspective. To do this, we will first describe the theoretical notions of predicativity employment ('emploi prédicatif') introduced by Gross (2012). Then, we will propose a classification of metaphors and a lexicographical datasheet based on this linguistic concept. The goal of this work is to serve as a starting point for the development of future lexicographic tools related to comparative studies, as well as to the practice of translation.

Keywords: metaphor, economic-financial language, predicativity employment, translation, contrastive studies.

RESUMEN. La metáfora es un recurso de producción léxica habitual en el lenguaje económico-financiero. Si tenemos en cuenta que los conceptos y sus manifestaciones lingüísticas se basan en la experiencia física y cultural de los seres humanos, la metáfora facilita la asimilación de aquellos conceptos abstractos específicos de toda disciplina. En este estudio, reflexionaremos acerca del proceso metafórico en el lenguaje de la economía desde una perspectiva lingüística, tomando como base el principio de *empleo predicativo* (*emploi prédicatif*) de Gross (2012). Para ello, describiremos, en primer lugar, las nociones teóricas de este principio, para, a continuación, establecer una propuesta de clasificación centrada en los conceptos de *predicatividad* y *actualización*. Finalmente, propondremos un esbozo de ficha lexicográfica contrastiva español-francés donde aplicaremos todas las nociones descritas anteriormente. El objetivo final de este trabajo es que las reflexiones lanzadas sirvan como punto de partida para la

elaboración de posteriores herramientas lexicográficas de apoyo a estudios comparados y la práctica de la traducción.

Palabras clave: metáfora, lenguaje económico-financiero, actualización, predicatividad, traducción.

Introducción

La metáfora desempeña un papel fundamental en los lenguajes de especialidad como recurso de producción léxica. Fiel reflejo de la creatividad y vivacidad del lenguaje científico (Gilarranz, 2010: 245), la metáfora nos remite a significados que nos son de sobra conocidos y nos permite entender conceptos abstractos propios de una determinada especialidad. En este sentido, han resultado especialmente productivas las formaciones metafóricas en el lenguaje económico-financiero. En este estudio, lanzaremos algunas reflexiones acerca del proceso metafórico en el lenguaje de la economía desde la perspectiva del *empleo predicativo,* término que hemos adaptado del francés *emploi prédicatif* de Gross (2012). Para ello, describiremos brevemente las nociones teóricas de este principio, para, a continuación, establecer una propuesta de clasificación centrada en los conceptos de *predicatividad* y *actualización*. Finalmente, propondremos un esbozo de ficha lexicográfica contrastiva español-francés donde aplicaremos todas las nociones descritas anteriormente.

Marco teórico: la metáfora económica desde la perspectiva del *empleo predicativo*

Antes de ahondar en nuestra propuesta de clasificación, consideramos pertinente detenernos en la noción teórica de *empleo predicativo* (Gross, 2012: 33). Este principio surgió como herramienta empírica para resolver, entre otras problemáticas, la polisemia natural de las palabras, de manera que sus conclusiones fueran válidas para su aplicación en un marco estrictamente formal.[1] Este enfoque establece que en el marco de la lingüística computacional resulta empíricamente imposible determinar el sentido de un lexema y luego proceder a su descripción si lo tratamos de manera aislada y no contextualizada (Gross, 2012: 8):

[1] Por marco estrictamente formal entendemos desde una herramienta lexicográfica, como un diccionario al uso, hasta su aplicación en sistemas de tratamiento automático del lenguaje (por ejemplo, la elaboración de bases de datos electrónicas orientadas a la traducción automática o a la generación o detección automática de frases, etc.).

> Un lieu qui intègre le lexique, la syntaxe et la sémantique. Ces instances ne peuvent pas être études de façon autonome. En conséquence, deux emplois distincts d'une même racine prédicative auront des propriétés différentes […]. Décrire une langue, c'est faire le recensement organisé de l'ensemble des emplois qu'elle comporte.

En ese plano, por tanto, estrictamente formal, la observación anterior excluye que podamos estudiar el léxico independientemente de la sintaxis. Este es el postulado principal del Lexique-Grammaire, fundado por Maurice Gross (1981): la unidad de descripción mínima no es la palabra o el signo de Saussure, sino la frase simple de Harris (1976), entendida como un esquema compuesto de un predicado, de forma morfológica variable, y de los argumentos que genera. El predicado es aquel elemento de la frase simple que necesita otros elementos para realizarse (constituyen unidades semánticas que articulan conceptos, normalmente acciones, acontecimientos o estados; de ahí que se asocien tradicionalmente a los verbos, aunque como veremos en este trabajo, existen algunos sustantivos que pueden ocupar esta función). Los argumentos son esos participantes necesarios que intervienen en su realización (sujeto y complementos principalmente). Dentro de este esquema, las propiedades descritas son codependientes: un predicado determina la naturaleza de sus argumentos y las posibilidades de restructuración; su naturaleza semántica condicionará la elección de su actualizador, es decir, del elemento que procurará al predicado distintas informaciones gramaticales (en el caso de los sustantivos predicativos, por ejemplo, de tiempo, modo, aspecto, etc.).

En el plano en el que nos movemos en este estudio –la actualización de los predicados nominales–, las reflexiones que planteamos están intrínsecamente relacionadas con el principio de *colocación*. Este fenómeno plantea una dificultad documentada no sólo para el hablante no nativo o estudiante de traducción, sino también para aquellos especialistas que se precien en profundizar en los intrincados resortes que articulan todo sistema lingüístico. El motivo principal de esta dificultad es que el fenómeno colocativo permite señalar lo que en una lengua es idiosincrásico y no puede ser deducido por el conocimiento de otra. A este respecto, Corpas Pastor (2003: 185) defiende que la colocación (término que condensa, según nuestra propuesta, estructuras que ponen en juego tanto un verbo predicativo –léase causativo– con su correspondiente base nominal como una estructura formada con un actualizador verbal) constituyen "la piedra angular de toda traducción, ya que son responsables de la idiomaticidad y naturalidad de la misma". Para tal afirmación, la catedrática se apoya, entre otros, en el conocido manual *A Textbook of*

Translation de Newmark (1988: 213), donde se reivindica la importancia de su estudio en la práctica traductora:

> Translation is sometimes a continual struggle to find appropriate collocations, a process of connecting up appropriate nouns with verbs and verbs with nouns […] If grammar is the bones of a text, collocations are the nerves, more subtle and multiple and specific in denoting meaning, and lexis is the flesh.

La colocación representa, por tanto, uno de los fenómenos lingüísticos que mejor refleja el anisomorfismo natural de las lenguas, y su dominio por parte del traductor es de vital importancia ya que proporciona "los matices semánticos cuya comprensión es imprescindible para poder conseguir una traducción fiel […], es decir, correcta y coherente" (Corpas Pastor, 2003: 185). Incluso en sistemas lingüísticos como el francés y el español, que tienden a ser considerados sistemas bastante parecidos, las situaciones de anisomorfismo interlingüístico son particularmente abundantes; véanse ejemplos del lenguaje cotidiano como: *albergar dudas/nourrir des doutes; cerrar un contrato/passer un contrat; dar un grito/pousser un cri/emitir un juicio/porter un jugement; lucir una sonrisa/arborer un sourire; soltar una bofetada/filer une gifle; tomar una curva/négocier un virage*, etc.[2]

Los predicados metafóricos en el ámbito del léxico económico

Una de las particularidades que presenta el lenguaje económico es el empleo de la metáfora como recurso de producción léxica para vehicular y estructurar el pensamiento y los conceptos abstractos económicos (Gallego Hernández, 2010: 100). A este respecto, desde que la unión del lingüista George Lakoff y el filósofo Mark Johnson desembocara en la publicación de *Methapohes Whe Live By* en 1980, una gran cantidad de estudiosos han aplicado el enfoque cognitivista que iniciaron estos autores en el campo de la economía. Según estos estudiosos, los conceptos y sus manifestaciones lingüísticas se basan en la experiencia física y cultural de los seres humanos. Las clasificaciones que han derivado de este enfoque son variadas, no obstante, respetan su visión figuralista que distingue entre la

[2] Así y todo, es igual de cierto que esta particularidad sólo es la punta del iceberg, pues en la práctica traductora intervienen numerosos factores que transcienden la mera situación de anisomorfismo interlingüístico y que condicionarán la traducción final.

metáfora conceptual (relacionada con el concepto metafórico) y la expresión metafórica –también metáfora lingüística– que hace referencia a la realización lingüística de dicho concepto metafórico. Lakoff y Johnson (1980: 71-72) lo ejemplifican con el término *inflación:*

> La inflación es una persona/un adversario (metáfora conceptual):[3]
> La inflación me ha robado mis ahorros (metáfora lingüística)
> Nuestro mayor enemigo ahora es la inflación. (metáfora lingüística)
> La inflación ha atacado las bases de la economía. (metáfora lingüística)

Si observamos con detenimiento las principales clasificaciones a las que hemos podido acceder y que respetan esta visión figuralista (Boers, 2000; Charteris-Black y Ennis, 2001; Baran, 2003; Loma-Osorio Fontecha, 2011; etc.),[4] comprobamos que, con sus diferencias, la práctica totalidad de ejemplos que los engrosan pueden ser interpretados como predicados, tanto nominales como verbales, estos últimos relacionados, principalmente, con los verbos causativos. En los siguientes apartados los describiremos brevemente.

Los predicados nominales metafóricos en el ámbito del léxico económico

Un predicado nominal es aquel sustantivo capaz de proyectar argumentos; es decir, compone el núcleo predicativo (Vivès, 1988: 146) de la frase simple. El componente verbal que lo acompaña, sea de origen metafórico o no, tiende a perder su contenido semántico original y ocupar el rol de actualizador gramatical del mismo. Principalmente, aporta las marcas de tiempo, persona y número. Veamos el caso siguiente:

> Dichos mercados estaban principalmente, en Asia, pero sufrieron un colapso cuando a finales de la última década *tuvo lugar la depresión económica* en todo el mundo.[5]

[3] Ejemplos extraídos de Gallego Hernández (2010: 101).
[4] Junto a estos trabajos, queremos reseñar dos trabajos que tratan específicamente la traducción de las colocaciones formadas con el término *crisis* en francés y español y su relación con la metáfora: Gallego Hernández (2012) y García Luque (2010).
[5] Los ejemplos que facilitaremos en este trabajo forman parte de una base de datos personal compuesta de artículos procedentes de la prensa generalista española y francesa.

El predicado nominal *depresión mundial,* que forma parte de la hiperclase de los <acontecimientos> proyecta una estructura argumental monovalente, con un primer argumento que engloba un sustantivo locativo (*en todo el mundo*) y un sustantivo relacionado con el tiempo (*a finales de la última década*). Cabría destacar que los sustantivos de esta hiperclase presentan una gran homogeneidad en lo referente al número y tipo de argumentos que proyectan, a diferencia de los <estados> y de las <acciones>, cuya proyección depende prácticamente de la clase a la que pertenezca el predicado. La locución que lo acompaña, *tener lugar,* es un actualizador de amplio espectro que acompaña a una gran diversidad de sustantivos que denotan algún tipo de acontecimiento: [depresión + crisis + debilitamiento + desequilibrio + bonanza + ralentización + quiebra + fusión + absorción + etc.]. A continuación, ofrecemos algunos ejemplos, para cuya presentación hemos respetado la nomenclatura y clasificación propuesta por Loma-Osorio Fontecha (2011). En mayúscula indicamos la metáfora conceptual correspondiente y en redonda, la metáfora lingüística:

- SALUD: depresión, incertidumbre, recuperación, saneamiento, debilitamiento, debilidad (de la demanda).
- ECONOMÍA COMO SER VIVO: memoria, paternalismo, bonanza, rendimiento, equilibrio.
- MOVIMIENTO/ACTIVIDAD: desequilibrio, expansión, liquidez, auge, contracción, elasticidad, flotación, despegue, apalancamiento, ralentización, desaceleración, capital humano, tasa de crecimiento efectivo, fallos del mercado, estado benefactor, esfuerzo fiscal, área deprimida, neutralización del dinero.
- CONFLICTO: impacto (de una medida económica), estrategia (de mercado), presiones (del mercado) quiebra, caos, puja, bancarrota, objetivo, racionamiento del crédito, punto crítico, barreras a la entrada, rigidez de precios.
- FENÓMENOS DE LA FÍSICA: fusión, absorción, atomización, abrasión, perturbaciones, turbulencias (en el mercado).
- VIDA COTIDIANA: conglomerado, envoltura, desestacionalización, estacionalidad, holgura, asiento, burbuja (inmobiliaria), Bolsa de valores, números rojos, parque industrial, bolsa de pobreza, saneamiento presupuestario, brotes verdes.
- +/- MOVIMIENTO/SITUACIÓN: flujo circular de la renta, elasticidad de la oferta, capital circulante, velocidad de circulación del dinero, suspensión de pagos, movimiento de capitales, flujo de fondos, equilibrio de la balanza de pagos, apalancamiento financiero, activo inmovilizado, estabilidad de precios.

- CIENTÍFICO-TECNOLÓGICO: curva de rendimiento, polígono industrial, polos de desarrollo, ingeniería financiera, curva de la oferta/demanda, volatilidad de los mercados.
- LIBERTAD: liberalización del comercio, libertad de circulación de capitales, libertad de circulación de mercancías/trabajadores, librecambio.

Los predicados verbales (causativos) metafóricos en el léxico económico

Las estructuras que ponen en juego un predicado causativo y las estructuras formadas por un actualizador verbal comparten algunas características sintácticas, como su comportamiento frente a la determinación y la modificación. No obstante, es en la semántica del verbo donde encontramos su principal diferencia. Si sometemos estas estructuras a una serie de análisis distribucionales y de bloqueo, podremos comprobar que la conmutación del componente verbal por una variante sinonímica nos revela que el verbo posee un significado de causalidad del que carece el actualizador verbal. Del mismo modo, el hecho que no pueda ser borrado de la frase simple sin que con ello rompamos el esquema argumental nos da las claves de que nos encontramos ante un verbo predicativo y no ante un actualizador. Por tanto, ambas extructuras se diferencian en el número de argumentos nuevos que introduce el verbo causativo si lo comparamos con la frase simple compuesta por el actualizador verbal (Gross, 1989), como comprobamos en los ejemplos siguientes:

a) La congestión en el tráfico tiene un coste económico que puede alcanzar el 3% del PIB.
b) Gracias a la innovación en el proceso de venta, el cliente absorbe los costes de asesoramiento, los costes logísticos y los costes de montaje.

En la frase *a* el sustantivo *coste económico* sólo posee un argumento N0 necesario: el sujeto (*congestión en el tráfico*). En cambio, en la frase *b,* la combinación del sustantivo con el verbo *absorbe* añade un nuevo argumento N1 (*el cliente*).

Por otra parte, si eliminamos el actualizador verbal de la expresión tras la relativización, comprobamos que no se rompe el esquema argumental, lo que reafirma la función que ocupa el verbo en la frase:

a) La congestión en el tráfico tiene un coste económico
El coste económico que tiene la congestión en el tráfico
El coste económico de la congestión en el tráfico

En cambio, si eliminamos de la oración el verbo causativo, el esquema argumental se verá afectado:

b) el cliente absorbe los costes de asesoramiento
Los costes de asesoramiento que absorbe el cliente
*Los costes de asesoramiento del cliente

A continuación, proponemos algunos ejemplos. De nuevo, adoptamos la nomenclatura y clasificación propuesta por Loma-Osorio Fontecha (2011).

- ACCIÓN: desbancar, ejercitar, blanquear, acotar, absorber (costes), batir (un índice).
- SER VIVO: adjudicar, sondear, pujar, invertir, tranquilizar (el mercado), superar, recalentar, inyectar (dinero).
- GUERRA: combatir la inflación.

Los actualizadores metafóricos en el ámbito del léxico económico

En términos de empleo, la metáfora puede ser definida como el paso de una actualización apropiada de una clase de predicados determinada a otra clase de predicados distinta (De Pontonx, 2004: 266):

> Des verbes originellement appropriés à une classe d'objets [prédicats] donné qui sont utilisés pour actualiser une autre classe de prédicats où on ne les attendait a priori pas. C'est de ce glissement que naît la métaphore.

Debemos destacar que, de igual modo que en la descripción de los predicados metafóricos, desechamos aquí las metáforas inventivas habituales, por ejemplo, en la literatura; únicamente haremos referencia a las metáforas que ya están integradas en la lengua. La elección de un actualizador metafórico se encuentra sujeta a la coocurrencia léxica restringida que mantiene con su respectivo predicado. Estudios de corpus como el de De Pontonx (2004: 271) han demostrado que el predicado nominal es el que determina su actualización ("sa conjugaison"); es decir, autoriza el empleo de un colocativo específico. Para que un actualizador sea interpretado como metafórico debe reunir dos condiciones necesarias: en primer lugar, el actualizador debe ser poco polisémico y, por tanto, ser apropiado a un número pequeño de clases y, en segundo lugar, la metáfora debe poseer una contrapartida predicativa (algo, en cierta manera lógico, ya que esta particularidad permite la posibilidad de que tenga lugar la transferencia). Veamos el ejemplo siguiente, en este caso, en lengua francesa:

> Souffrir <maladie>
> → Souffrir <crise>; <déficit>
> Mais l'Afrique ne sera pas le seul continent *à souffrir de la crise*. Il y encore un grand besoin d'investissements dans la plupart […]
> […] eau sont en-deçà de leur niveau économique et où la filière continue de *souffrir d'un déficit* chronique de financement […]

A diferencia de otros actualizadores considerados básicos, como *dar, tener, tomar,* etc., los actualizadores metafóricos no están vacíos de sentido en el mismo grado.[6] Una de las principales características de estos actualizadores es su conformidad parcial con la definición general de actualizador verbal básico. A este respecto, la gran mayoría son portadores de una marca de tiempo, pero también de aspecto temporal o intensidad.

A continuación, presentamos aquellos predicados (entre comillas angulares) y sus respectivos actualizadores temporales, intensivos y aspectuales que hemos podido recuperar en lengua francesa.

- Actualización temporal básica: souffrir de <la crise>; <déficit>; traverser <une crise>; être affecté par <crise>.
- Actualización aspectual incoativa: éclater <déficit>; éclore <crise>; se déclencher <crise>; se déchaîner <crise>; s'abattre <crise>.
- Actualización aspectual terminativa: s'éteindre <consommation>; passer <crise>.
- Actualización aspectual iterativa: se rallumer <consommation>.
- Actualización intensiva: baigner dans <l'opulence>; peser sur N <crise>; être frappé par <la crise>; secouer <une crise>; sombrer dans <la crise>.
- Actualización aspectual progresiva +/-: se redresser <le pouvoir d'achat>; se stabiliser <prix>; progresser <taux d'épargne>; ralentir <consommation>; se replier <dépenses>; atténuer <dépenses>; rebondir <pouvoir d'achat>; chuter <achats>; enrayer <chute des achats>; se contracter <le prix>; reculer <la consommation>; décélérer <l'indice de prix>, <consommation>; aggraver <crise>; s'approfondir <crise>; s'étendre <consommation>.

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[6] A este respecto, autores como De Pontonx (2004: 266) subrayan que "quand ils sont en usage métaphorique, les mots ne perdent rien de leur signification (au contraire, […] ils s'y ressourcent et l'intensifient)".

Esbozo de ficha de actualización de predicados nominales en el ámbito del léxico económico

En este apartado nos proponemos sintetizar todos los principios que hemos esbozado en los anteriores apartados. A modo de ilustración, resumiremos los diferentes modos de actualización que comparten los sustantivos que hemos reunido bajo la etiqueta de <crisis> tanto en español como en francés. Y a partir de ahí, lanzaremos algunas reflexiones que consideramos pertinentes.

<Crisis>	ES: crisis + crisis económica	
	FR: crise + crise financière	
Actualizador básico	Tener lugar + haber + ocurrir + producirse + suceder + sobrevenir	Avoir lieu + il y avoir + arriver + se produire + survenir + intervenir
Actualizador incoativo + intensivo	Declararse + estallar + desencadenarse + desatarse + abatirse + golpear	Se déclarer + se déclencher + se déchaîner + éclater + s'abattre + frapper
Actualizador progresivo + aumentativo	Intensificarse + reforzarse + agravarse + estancarse	S'intensifier + se renforcer + s'amplifier + s'enliser
Actualizador progresivo	Propagarse + extenderse	Se propager + s'étendre + se développer
Actualizador intensivo	Asolar + devastar	Dévaster + ravager + assoler
Determinación	Indefinido + definido + Det-mod	Indefinido + definido + Det-mod
Esquema de argumentos	ES: crisis/en N0: [locativo]/W: declararse No prepararon el plan B. Cuando se declaró la crisis de Lehman, tuvo que cambiar de opinión y recatar a AIG. FR: crise/dans N0 [locativo]/W: se déclencher Entre le moment où la crise s'est déclenchée et la fin du mois de septembre, 580 milliards de dollars (463 milliards d'euros) se sont évaporés (Le monde, 21/11/2008)	

Tabla 1: Ficha de actualización de la clase de predicados nominales <crisis>

En el modelo de ficha que presentamos en la tabla 1, se ha especificado el actualizador básico no metafórico (en el caso de que este existiese (puede darse el caso de que algunos predicados puedan carecer de él, como *cometer/*hacer una malversación*). Hecho que no impide, por otro lado, que un sustantivo como *malversación* forme parte de la hiperclase de las <acciones>. Al tratarse de una subclase de los <acontecimientos>, el actualizador seleccionado es *tener lugar/avoir lieu*. A continuación, especificamos el actualizador metafórico apropiado en cada idioma, el cual ha sido el que ha permitido definir esta clase en detrimento de otras. En el caso de <crisis>, sus actualizadores metafóricos apropiados, entre otros, pueden ser *declararse*/*estallar* y *se déclarer/se déclencher.* Podemos observar que en esta ficha no hemos incluido otros empleos metafóricos, como *sufrir/souffrir,* o *padecer/être atteint de,* actualizadores habituales de *crisis/crise*. El motivo de esta decisión es la resolución de la polisemia, pues este mismo sustantivo, *crisis,* en otros contextos puede ser relacionado al empleo de <enfermedad>, gracias a su combinación con los soportes apropiados *sufrir/padecer* (por ejemplo, una *crisis nerviosa*); en otros términos, puede ser interpretado como un <estado> y no como un <acontecimiento>, como vemos en la tabla 2:

<Enfermedades contagiosas pasajeras>	ES: sarampión + varicela + tifus + rabia	
	FR: rougeole + choléra + rage	
Actualizador básico	Tener	Avoir
Actualizador apropiado	Sufrir + padecer	Souffrir + être etteint de
Actualizador incoativo	Contraer + pillar (diaf-)	Contracter + attraper (diaf-)
Actualizador terminativo	Pasar	Passer
Determinación	Le + Un-modif	Le + Un-modif
Esquema de argumentos	ES: paludismo/N0: hum/W: contraer El policía que contrajo el paludismo será dado de alta (El país, 30/07/1996) FR: rougeole/N0: hum/W: attraper Le risque de contracter la rougeole n'est pas plus élevé chez un nourrisson admis en collectivité que chez un nourrisson bénéficiant d'un autre mode de garde (Le monde, 17/04/2013)	

Tabla 2: Ficha de actualización de la clase de predicados nominales <enfermedades contagiosas pasajeras>

Por tanto, el traslado de una clase a otra implica además que comparta las principales características de dicha hiperclase. Cuando la *crisis* es interpretada como una enfermedad, esta es entendida como un <estado>, no como un <acontecimiento>, por lo que comparte, además de un gran número de actualizadores, los esquemas argumentales propios de esta clase, como observamos en el cuadro anterior. En cambio, en su comparación desde la perspectiva de los acontecimientos, posee muchas más semejanzas con predicados que denotan <epidemias>, como observamos en la tabla 3:

<Epidemias>	ES: epidemia de [cólera + rabia + gripe]	
	FR: épidémie de [choléra] + pandémie	
Actualizador básico	Tener lugar + haber + ocurrir + producirse + suceder + sobrevenir	Avoir lieu + il y avoir + arriver + se produire + survenir + intervenir
Actualizador incoativo – intensivo apropiado	Declararse + estallar + desencadenarse + desatarse + abatirse + golpear	Se déclarer + se déclencher + se déchainer + éclater + s'abattre + frapper
Actualizador progresivo – aumentativo	Intensificarse + reforzarse	S'intensifier + se renfoncer
Actualizador progresivo	Propagarse + extenderse	Se propager + s'étendre
Actualizador intensivo	Asolar + devastar	Dévaster + ravager + assoler
Determinación	EL + UN + UN-mod + EL-mod	EL + UN + UN-mod + EL-mod
Esquema de argumentos	ES: epidemia/a N0: [locativo]/N1: [tiempo]/W: propagarse El primer caso de gripe del pollo en Rusia se detectó en julio de 2005 en Siberia y la *epidemia se propagó* a la parte europea tres meses después (El país, 19/12/2006) FR: épidemie/dans N0: [locativo]/N1: [tiempo]/W: avoir lieu En France, a dernière *épidémie a eu lieu* dans le sud-ouest en 2005 (Le monde, 17/04/2013)	

Tabla 3: Ficha de actualización de la clase de predicados nominales <epidemias>

En otro orden de ideas, en estas tablas sintetizamos las principales categorías de determinantes asociadas a los sustantivos predicativos propios del lenguaje económico, tanto en la lengua española como la francesa, pues la determinación, junto a los actualizadores verbales, es uno de los principales medios de actualizador de la predicación nominal. Para ello, hemos seguido la taxonomía propuesta por Blanco Escoda (1998) que presenta los distintos paradigmas morfológicos mediante la forma canónica del determinante en mayúsculas (por ejemplo, en francés, LE: *le, la, les)*. La notación *Modif* (modificador) puede corresponder a un adjetivo, a una proposición relativa o a un complemento preposicional).

A modo de conclusión

El presente trabajo puede servir como punto de partida para la elaboración de herramientas lexicográficas relacionadas con los estudios comparados y contrastivos, así como con la práctica de la traducción. Por el momento, y a falta de un estudio basado en corpus más exhaustivo, hemos podido comprobar que, tanto en los casos de actualización metafórica como en la predicación, los sistemas lingüísticos contrastados no presentan grandes divergencias en la utilización de los mismos conceptos y manifestaciones lingüísticas. No obstante, gracias a la perspectiva de trabajo que hemos adoptado, consideramos que este tipo de análisis no sólo llega a reflejar propiedades regulares de los distintos empleos de los predicados extraídos del lenguaje económico-financiero, sino también aquellas situaciones excepcionales, de tal manera que es posible obtener una interpretación suficientemente generalizada de los principales modos de actualización en cada sistema lingüístico.

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THE SATISFACTORY CYCLE OF TERMINOLOGY MANAGEMENT IN TRANSLATION-MEDIATED BUSINESS COMMUNICATION: PROBLEMS AND OPPORTUNITIES

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ABSTRACT. This paper provides an overview of how national and international companies manage terminologies and specific languages in a multilingual communication environment, mediated by translation. Based on several studies carried out by us between 2010 and 2014, but particularly in an experimental study, we describe how some companies, operating on an international scale, manage multilingual communication. Our research focuses on the practice of corporate non-professional translation and discusses the status quo of terminology management at business settings. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in this research, and a descriptive approach was chosen, with the aim to refuse the simple idea of corporate translation malpractice and avoid a biased analysis.

Keywords: terminology management, non-professional business translation.

The non-professional translation process and terminology management in international companies: brief outline

Resende da Silva (2005: 28), argues that "to understand an organization, we should take into consideration three aspects: the reason why the organization exists, its external context and its processes".[1] Hammer & Champy (1995, *apud* Resende da Silva, 2005: 37) state that the concept of "process" was originated by the theory of "total quality management". According to the same authors, process refers to an "activity directly

[1] Quote translated from Portuguese.

connected with valuable results" and can frequently be found in client-oriented companies.

In fact, process management depends on the organizational culture and structure and is included in "Porter's Value Chain" where processes can be linked to "primary activities" or "support activities". The primary activities are directly related to the market and have a larger economic impact.

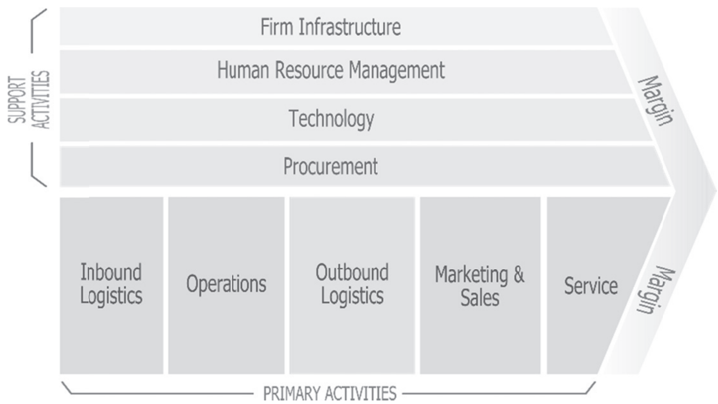

Figure 1. Michael Porter's Value Chain (Singh, 2009)

In companies operating internationally, but that mainly rely on non-professional translation, language management is not a planned and strategic practice, and as a result, translation and terminology management are not primary value activities. Commonly, language in business is a means to an end – a mediation resource to meet goals in a business transaction between client and supplier – and is dependent on the language skills of its personnel (Albuquerque & Neves, 2011). For this reason, instead of clearly being included in the departments of "Marketing and Sales" or "Services", it seems to be under "Human Resources Management", as a support or secondary activity, as we will show in below.

Correspondingly, companies manage investment taking into consideration the future return on it, on a cost-benefit basis. Therefore, costs should only increase if benefits are considered to justify them. For this reason, investment in quality or improvement measures is, usually, calculated taking into consideration the value that clients can give to it or are willing to pay for it. Thus, investment in language increases when customers demand more quality or when it is legally required (Albuquerque & Neves, 2011).

Moreover, recruitment of workforce with foreign language skills is a common strategy among companies, allowing them to communicate in multilingual environments where mediation competencies are required (Albuquerque & Neves, 2011). This practice increases the human capital of the company and, at the same time, decreases the need for external mediators and extra costs.

Nevertheless, as Peltonen (2009) has found, non-professional translation exclusively based on the employees' language skills raises several issues and problems, generally invisible to the company, and can also lead to internal and external costs. Internally, costs can be related to (i) processes (lack of efficiency), (ii) productivity (negative impact on workforce) and (iii) a decrease of profit. Externally, image and credibility of the company have to be considered (and the resulting loss of clients), but also the cost of not doing business, since inefficient communication makes it difficult to keep and attract customers.

Objective and Methodology

The specific aim of this study was to know how small-medium sized companies (SME) manage terminologies and specialized languages in a multilingual translation-mediated communication environment.

Our most relevant theoretical and methodological background was from Terminology, mainly from research groups in Canada (e.g. Rondeau, 1984; Celestín et al., 1990; L'Homme, 2004). These have a long tradition working with multilingual contexts, and their approach is also very translation-oriented, which met our needs. Nevertheless, due to the interdisciplinary character of our research, some theoretical and methodological guidelines from Management Studies (Chiavenato, 2013; Davenport, Prusak, 1998; Probst, Raub &. Romhardt, 2000) were also taken into consideration.

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in this research. In 2010 and 2011, we carried out a survey, answered by over 100 companies worldwide (big, medium and small) which allowed us to collect data on corporate language management and revealed non-professional translation as a too common practice to be ignored or merely criticized (Albuquerque, 2015). Based on these results, we conducted two empirical studies, ITEI I (2012) and ITEI II (2014), described in the following section, which enabled us to collect more structured and detailed data to accomplish our objective.

Empirical Studies

Impact of Translation on International Companies (ITEI I)

As mentioned before, non-professional corporate translation is a common practice at international companies, where:

- employees translate without any training in translation, knowledge management tools (e.g., Terminology Databases) or translation tools (e.g., Translation Memories);
- it is an extra task, i.e., not included in the job description. For these reasons, it is often performed in a non-optimized way, taking too long and even having negative impacts on the employee's main tasks (Peltonen, 2009), not to mention in the target text itself.

These were just some of the findings of the survey we carried out in 2010,[2] also described in the literature, although this particular type of translation – non-professional business translation – has been quite neglected by translation and linguistic studies over the years.

There was, thus, a need for more research to enable us to assess:

- the type and level of difficulties in translation and terminology management felt by non-professional translators;
- the impact of the translated texts on the non-professional translators and the target public;
- the cost versus benefit of the non-professional translation process.

Bearing this in mind, we undertook a new study in partnership with AICEP – Agency for Foreign Investment and Commerce in Portugal in the framework of the 16th edition of INOV Contacto,[3] on the "Impacts of non-professional translation in international companies" (ITEI I). 22 graduate trainees, selected by AICEP, participated in this study, from various background studies (Management, Engineering, Law, Marketing and other). No participant was from the translation or language field.

[2] In the framework of a partnership with the Portuguese Agency for Foreign Investment and Commerce (AICEP), with the help of graduate trainees, who distributed the survey in the host companies and among their suppliers and customers.

[3] Program managed by AICEP that provides training to young graduates in an international context.

ITEI I took place from July to October 2012 and involved 20 companies and 11 countries.[4] The research was conducted remotely since the participants (companies and trainees) were abroad.
The objectives of ITEI I were:

- to describe the non-professional process of specialized and corporate translation, concerning its:
    - methods;
    - technological resources;
    - terminology resources;
    - results.
- To assess the impact of non-professional translation and inexistent terminology management on the target texts of the company, on the non-professional translators and the target public.

The following are only the major findings of ITEI I since this study was later replicated, with some adjustments and with another focus, as ITEI II, described in the next section.[5]

Key findings from ITEI I showed that, in general, in international companies:

- non-professional translators at companies react well to the fact that translation is an extra task;
- both non-professional translators at corporations and the corporations themselves see translation as a natural means of communication in an international environment;
- Non-professional translation is performed without a specific method, technological or terminological resources, except for the internet – namely Google Translator – or sometimes a printed glossary – in most of the cases created by the employees – but which is usually not broadly shared at the company.
- main translation difficulties are at the terminology and language proficiency levels. It was, thus, without surprise that we noticed that most participants indicated “more terminology knowledge” and “technological resources (linguistic, terminology)” as the most necessary resources to improve their translation activity.

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[4] Angola, Algery, Brazil, Belgium, China, Spain, U.S.A, Mozambique, UK, Peru, Timor Lorosae.
[5] The full report on ITEI I can be found in Albuquerque (2015).

It was somewhat surprising that non-professional translation is not considered a problem, either for non-professional translators or the company, even when that task is undertaken outside office hours and when the employee needs to ask other employees for help (mainly concerning terminology). This *modus operandi* has certainly a cost (of time and human capital, at least), but it is not calculated and if it has an impact on the revenue generated by the company it is likewise unknown.

Impact of translation on international companies (ITEI II)

As stated before, during our comprehensive research, we have collected various evidence that non-professional translation is a common corporate process. Consequently, more than continuing describing this process as a problem or a "bad practice" example, we intended to contribute to improving this process, analyzing it in its context, based on a quality and process management methodology.

The findings of our survey (2010-2011) and ITEI I lent support to previous findings in the literature (e.g. Schmitz & Straub, 2010: 5) pointing out that managers seem not to perceive professional translation as an added value, mainly due to its cost and time, except in few specific situations. Non-professional translation is, also, for this reason, regarded as an alternative process to support primary value activities and is rarely or never the object of an activity value analysis. In fact, employees either consider themselves able to do the job, are found competent for it or cannot refuse to do it. As a consequence, this process often brings out some flaws, as far as quality, productivity or effectiveness are concerned.

Taking into consideration the experience with ITEI I, in 2014 we redesigned the study, with some new objectives, tools, and procedures. The primary drive of ITEI II was, essentially: to validate ITEI I in a more controlled setting, *in loco*, and to point out some solutions to the non-professional translation process, especially regarding terminology management. Thus, the purposes of ITEI II were:

- to identify problems/ difficulties in non-professional translation;
- to offer fundamental training in translation and terminology to non-professional translators *in loco;*
- to test translation tools and competencies, after the training;
- to assess results.

Again, we asked AICEP for support to find some Portuguese companies, in the Northern Region, operating at an international scale, where we could perform the study. AICEP was kind enough to give us a list of eight. Four of them never replied to our contact, three declined, and only one accepted, although all of them had non-professional translation practices.

ITEI II took place in a Portuguese international medium company, described as “one of the main companies of the economic sector in Portugal”. In this company, several staff members regularly translate (engineers, secretaries, and others), but we were only allowed to conduct our study in one department, with two secretaries who perform as translators on a daily basis.

ITEI II was carried out in four phases, with the following planning, methods, techniques and steps:

MIASP[6] – COMPANY					Deming Cycle
DATE	PHASE OF ITEI II	STEP 1 – PROBLEM		SUGGESTED TOOL	P
	The problem, in general, had already been identified during GLCIE and ITEI I studies.	What is the problem?	Long translation process, with terminological and stylistic variation.		
		How frequent is the problem?	Frequent		
		How does it happen?	Employees-translators do not have training in translation or terminology and translation is not considered priority at the company.		
		What is the loss (Quality cost)	Efficient translation, accurate and clear communication, efficiency, productivity, business opportunities.		
		What can be the gains?	Productivity, efficiency, long-life improvement, accuracy, terminology harmonization, business culture.		
DATE	PHASE OF ITEI II	STEP 2 – OBSERVATION		SUGGESTED TOOL	
31.1.14 (meeting 1) 3.2.14 3.2.14 (questionnaire) (meeting 2)	Phases 1 and 2	Who are non-professional translators at the company?	In the department where the study took place, both secretaries. Other employees do translation too.	Meetings 1 and 2, *In loco* observation	
		What do non-professional translators translate?	Various types of documents: CVs, standards, regulations, reports, user manuals, specification sheets, flyers, ads, websites, catalogs, contracts, presentations		
		How do non-professional translators translate?	Using Microsoft Office or Adobe, depending on the file.		
		When do they translate?	Whenever necessary (over 20h a month).		

[6] Identification, Analysis and Problem-Solving Method (MIASP or MASP, as it is more commonly known) is based on the quality cycles of the Quality Control Storyboard, created by Ishikawa. It is developed in eight steps, aiming at developing an improvement process at the corporate environment that can bring solutions and optimized results (Campos, 2004).

		Which resources do they use?	No software. Some terminological tools developed by them.		
		Which are their main difficulties?	Terminology management and knowledge of the domain.		
Feb-Mar 2014	Phase 2	1. Concept level 2. Process Level 3. Discourse level	Identify causes	Meeting 2,with employees only.	
				5-Why Method[7]	
DATE	PHASE OF ITEI II	STEP 4 -ACTION PLAN		SUGGESTED TOOL	D
Feb 2014	Phase 3	Step 1– Training and Tools	Step 2 -Corpora Analysis and Analysis of the terminological tools	5W+2H[8]	
DATE	PHASE OF ITEI II	STEP 5 – ACTION		SUGGESTED TOOLS	
Feb-Mar 2014	Phase 3	Step 1– Training and Tools	Step 2 -Corpora Analysis and Analysis of the terminological tools	Wordfast Anywhere SDLMultiterm Extract	
DATE	PHASE OF ITEI II	STEP 6 – VERIFICATION		SUGGESTED TOOL	S
October 2014	Phase 4	Performance Analysis (productivity)	Effectiveness Analysis (terminological resources)	Survey SDL Multiterm Extract	
DATE	PHASE OF ITEI II	STEP 7 -IMPLEMENTATION[9]			A
Depending on the company		Review 5w+2H; define improvement implementation; create standard procedures; communicate procedures; train employees;		Depending on the company	
DATE	PHASE OF ITEI II	STEP 8 – CONCLUSION			
Depending on the company		Identify non-solved problems, access method, adjust.		Depending on the company	

Table 1. MIASP/ PDSA Steps[10]

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[7] Problem-solving method similar to Ishikawa's cause and effect tool, but simpler. It was developed by Sakichi Toyoda, at Toyota (1930). It intends to find out the origin of a problem, by analyzing its causes. The process must be run systematically, enough times until the root cause of the problem has been identified, not always in cycles of 5 questions. This is a simple method that should be used, only, as a fundamental reflection.

[8] Problem-analysis and action-planning tool: *what, why, who, where, when, how, how much*, and due to its simplicity, objectivity and applicability it has been broadly used in Project Management, Business Analysis, Business Plans, Strategic Planning and in other management fields.

[9] This step is usually called "standardization". However, in order to avoid any potential ambiguity with the term terminology standardization, we chose to use implementation.

Some results of ITEI II

At this company, non-professional translation is used for various target languages, English being the most common language employed in external markets. However, apart from English, Spanish appears as the 2nd target language, followed by French. The non-professional translators at the company translate to and from these three languages, although it is more frequent to translate *to* than *from* them.

Whenever the language or the domain is completely unknown to the employees, the company hires professional language service providers (LSP). This happens, nevertheless, very rarely and only when very technical and complex documents are at stake. Moreover, the head of the department mentioned that this option has a high cost and always demands internal revision (in particular as far as terminology is concerned). However, and according to the non-professional translators, their translation is not, as a rule, revised by anyone, apart from themselves. Moreover, "some literal translations of terms" have been spotted in some translations of the non-professional translators, but are undervalued by the head of the department, who stated that "they were promptly corrected and had no significant consequences to the company".

According to both non-professional translators, non-professional translation is a very common activity for them, taking over 20 hours a month, both during office and extra office hours.

Moreover, if on the one hand, the translation activity as such does not seem to disturb the employees, these claim that the time it takes does, however. On the other hand, they state not to have the conditions to perform a good job, mainly because they do not have "enough terminology knowledge" and "enough resources or tools to support the translation activity".

Consequently, they both indicate some resources as necessary to perform better, such as "having terminology knowledge", having useful linguistic resources (dictionaries, terminology databases, translation memories, and so forth)" and "having time". One of the employees also indicated "to be an expert in the field" and "having better linguistic knowledge".

The more commonly used resources were glossaries (created by them, but not shared), dictionaries, the Internet, machine translation and experts' help (friends and colleagues with knowledge of the field) inside or outside

[10] Management method used in control and continuous improvement (Plan, Do, Check, Act) or Shewhart Cycle, which was later improved and known as the Deming Cycle (Plan, Do, Study, Act).

the company (mainly on terminology issues). When terminology is a problem, they also mention that beyond their social and professional circle, they search the Internet, which was also the case in ITEI I.

At a later stage of our research, upon the analysis of a *corpus* which was made available by the employees, we organized the most common problems in their translation activity in three levels:

Concept level

Even though they are aware of the general activity of the company, and albeit having translated technical documents for a long time, the non-professional translators are not experts and are not acquainted with all concepts of the several activity fields of the company. Additionally, in the source technical texts, there are various sub-domains with unknown terminology.

Process level

The translation process is long, mainly due to the problem mentioned in a), but also to the lack of (i) research skills and (ii) suitable software. The employees do translate using computers, but using a text editor and online machine translation only. There are no computer-assisted translation software (CAT tools) or terminology management systems (TMS).

Discourse level

Concerning the specialized discourse and language use, we could notice two problems which were apparently connected and interfere with the translation process: (i) terminology variation, both in the source language (SL) and target language (TL), and (ii) interlinguistic equivalence issues. These two problems resulted in some textual inconsistency, both in source texts (ST) and target texts (TT), which we understand as the evidence of ambiguity between designations or between designation and concept, a fact that clearly interferes with the text meaning.

These problems, which we listed above, are evident in the translation process results. Moreover, we believe that they are mainly dependent on the context of situation and cultural context, to which the non-professional translators belong, where language is not a primary product, but a resource to an end: do business. Their performance is satisfactory and allows the company to do business, and it is not improved.

Figure 2. Vicious Cycle of the non-optimized translation process at companies (Source: authors)

Actions and analysis carried out in the scope of ITEI II (Phases 3 and 4) have proved, however, that the introduction of a controlled translation environment contributes to the reduction of terminology variation and improves the translation process. This improvement was evident at productivity and quality (terminology) levels (Albuquerque, 2015). The *satisfactory* cycle could, therefore, change to the *good* cycle. More, the implemented improvement measures (Phases 2, 3 and 4) could be replicated in other departments, and, together with the improvement of source texts, the company could manage multilingual communication and non-professional translation in a more sustainable and efficient way. However, as we mentioned before, language is not a priority, and satisfactory seems to be enough.

Corporate Culture and Terminology management

Companies are organizational units and complex entities, where several stakeholders, both internal and external, interact. During our research, we identified a *status quo* of language use in corporate environments–which we understand as being all company stakeholders (see Figure 4)–where employees are expected to be linguistically and interculturally skilled, also in translation-mediated contexts.

Figure 4. Corporate Environment (company and its stakeholders) (Grochim, 2008)

For this reason, corporate environments rarely point language as an intervention area. Besides, this is a professional context, with experts and a highly competitive and pro-active environment. This scenario does not cope easily with knowledge sharing and dependence on deadlines, especially on external entities like LSP, and as Peltonen (2009) stated, in many cases, even having in-house professional translators, companies cannot cover all language mediation needs, thus being translation a transversal activity in multilingual environments.

The need to get acquainted with the functional areas of the business, e.g. the products, strategies, terminology, and the need to react and to decide on the spot, demand from most employees to have linguistic and translation competencies. All that knowledge is naturally part of the company's know-how and culture. Thus, whenever possible, the company avoids its transfer to external entities, like LSP, for instance, and saves money by avoiding hiring professional translators.

Language, and more specifically, terminology management is, therefore, mostly inexistent. "In most cases, terminology policies are developed as a crisis management measure after some severe problem has occurred as a result of terminological inadequacies" (Drame, 2015: 7).

Terminology policy at companies is mainly reactive, very rarely pro-active, and "the willingness of companies to introduce terminology management depends on how severe the consequences of not engaging in terminology work might be" (Schmitz & Straub, 2010: 21).

Conclusions

There is clearly a need to change the organizational culture concerning the approach to language, translation, and terminology management. As ITEI II results have shown, terminology is a critical factor in the corporate translation process, be it either non-professional or professional.

This procedural change is slow, not always promoted (Chiavenato, 2013) and cannot be triggered by the company alone since it is not an island. Its culture is influenced both by internal and external factors, in the corporate context, where the language industry is also a stakeholder. Moreover, change is a difficult process, especially when managers are not aware of the problems and change in non-priority areas only take place when problems occur and have significant financial consequences, we would add.

For these reasons, we believe that when some knowledge on terminology management gets to the company, as a proposal or "solution" (Schmitz & Schraub, 2010), it may even have some results at the first level of change and apparently solve some of the managers' problems with language management. It may indeed change some attitudes, processes and individual behaviors (e.g. ITEI II), but it will be quite difficult and time-consuming to change the *modus operandi,* in a broader sense.

As we tried to describe, the satisfactory cycle allows achieving the goal: the business. Therefore, there is rarely the perception in the management of a "performance gap" (Chiavenato, 2013) that triggers a need for change, especially to the optimal cycle, as Terminology agents have been trying for long.

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SPECIALIZED TRANSLATION

Análisis contrastivo francés-español de términos penales, valoración y soluciones traductoras

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ABSTRACT. In legal translation it is essential to have an in-depth knowledge not only about the legal systems involved, but also about the specialised field of law. Therefore, if the translator is not a legal expert, he must accomplish more comprehensive documentation tasks. Multilingual and bilingual dictionaries are some of the resources used to overcome terminological or conceptual difficulties and achieve an equivalence relation. In some cases, however, the information offered by these traditional lexicographical tools may be confusing and insufficient for translators who are not legal experts and may lead them into making serious meaning errors. The main purpose of this paper is to highlight that a contrastive analysis based on comparative law (Šarčević, 1997) can be very useful to avoid this kind of errors. On the other hand, we would also want to show how certain terms not only convey a well-defined specialised knowledge area, but also information of a totally different nature, related to the speaker's point of view. To achieve this second aim, we will carry out a semantic analysis of some criminal law terms by applying the conceptual tools offered by Appraisal Theory (Martin & White, 2005).

Keywords: appraisal, equivalence, legal translation, specialised knowledge, terminology.

RESUMEN. En la traducción jurídica, además de ser esencial el conocimiento de los sistemas legales implicados, también lo es el conocimiento del ámbito temático especializado, de manera que, cuando el traductor no es experto, debe llevar a cabo una tarea de documentación más exhaustiva. Algunos de los recursos utilizados para superar dificultades terminológicas y resolver la relación de equivalencia son los diccionarios bilingües y multilingües. Sin embargo, la información que proporcionan estas herramientas lingüísticas tradicionales a menudo resulta confusa o insuficiente para el traductor no jurista, que acaba incurriendo en graves errores de sentido. El primer objetivo del presente trabajo es ilustrar la utilidad de un análisis contrastivo basado en el derecho comparado (Šarčević, 1997) para prevenir este tipo de errores. Por otro lado, partiendo de la hipótesis según la cual ciertos términos, además de designar una parcela de conocimiento especializado bien delimitada, aportan información de otra naturaleza relacionada con el punto de vista del locutor, nos proponemos como segundo objetivo aplicar de forma experimental el utillaje conceptual de la Teoría de la Valoración (Martin & White, 2005) al análisis semántico de determinadas unidades terminológicas del ámbito penal.

Palabras clave: conocimiento especializado, equivalencia, terminología, traducción jurídica, valoración.

Introducción

En el nivel microtextual, uno de los principales exponentes del carácter técnico-cultural del lenguaje jurídico (Koutsivitis, 1990; Martín Hita, 1996: 66; Falzoi Alcántara, 2005: 761) son los términos, puesto que vehiculan conocimiento especializado estructurado de forma particular en cada sistema legal. Como es bien sabido, los traductores de textos jurídicos deben poseer un buen dominio tanto del campo conceptual como de los contrastes culturales o, en caso contrario, suplirlo con una documentación exhaustiva. Sin embargo, a menudo los únicos recursos que este profesional consulta son los diccionarios bilingües o multilingües, seguramente porque requieren un esfuerzo interpretativo menor y, en consecuencia, existe la creencia de que implican un ahorro de tiempo importante. Sin duda, ello sería cierto si tales recursos contuvieran datos más completos y precisos, pero, de momento, limitarse a su consulta no garantiza como resultado una traducción sin errores de sentido. Para demostrar esta hipótesis tomaremos como objeto de estudio un término francés del ámbito penal, *sursis,* y sus traducciones al español, y partiremos de dos observaciones preliminares: por una parte, la detección de ciertas incongruencias conceptuales en textos en que *sursis* se ha traducido por determinados términos en español y, por otra, la constatación de que las traducciones publicadas y los recursos lingüísticos que utiliza el traductor proponen como equivalentes diversos términos en castellano que no son sinónimos entre sí. Esta falta de sinonimia lleva a pensar que algunos no expresan la misma unidad de conocimiento que el término francés. Un análisis contrastivo basado en la metodología del derecho comparado, que concede una mayor atención al conocimiento especializado y a los contrastes culturales, permitirá confirmar la existencia de posibles equivalencias erróneas.

Tras este primer análisis contrastivo, nos proponemos como segundo objetivo aplicar de forma experimental el utillaje conceptual de la Teoría de la Valoración (Martin & White, 2005) a la descripción semántica de los equivalentes de *sursis* que se puedan confirmar. Este marco teórico, interesado especialmente por la expresión lingüística de la valoración en el discurso, puede ser operativo para determinar si la terminología constituye una de las opciones semánticas que el lenguaje ofrece para evaluar y adoptar posiciones. Partiremos pues de la hipótesis según la cual la terminología, específicamente creada para designar conocimiento especializado, no es ajena a la transmisión de un componente subjetivo; es decir, el núcleo semántico de estas unidades puede expresar una valoración, a menudo derivada de la carga cultural y social que adquiere por sus situaciones de uso.

Marco teórico

Habida cuenta del doble objetivo que persigue el presente estudio, empleamos dos propuestas teóricas. Para el primer objetivo, nos basaremos en la metodología desarrollada por Šarčević (1997), estrechamente vinculada al derecho comparado, y que permite determinar el grado de equivalencia que existe entre dos conceptos de dos sistemas jurídicos. Šarčević (1997: 237) distingue tres categorías de equivalencia según la simetría entre los elementos constituyentes de los conceptos originales y los de la lengua de llegada: equivalencia casi plena (*near equivalence*), parcial (*partial equivalence*) y nula (*non-equivalence*). La equivalencia casi plena es aquella que existe entre dos conceptos que comparten todos los rasgos esenciales y la mayoría de accidentales (válida en todos los contextos); la parcial es la que se da cuando en los dos conceptos coinciden la mayoría de rasgos esenciales y algunos accidentales (aceptable en numerosos contextos); y se habla de equivalencia nula cuando entre dos conceptos no existe ninguna característica esencial ni accidental o pocas.

Para el segundo objetivo, nos basaremos en la Teoría de la Valoración (*Appraisal Theory*), que se ocupa del componente interpersonal del lenguaje. Fue desarrollada principalmente por Martin & White en su obra *The Language of Evaluation: Appraisal in English* (2005), a partir del modelo de la lingüística sistémico-funcional para el inglés (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Hood & Martin, 2005; Hood, 2010). De un modo general, los lingüistas que se sitúan en esta corriente se proponen describir y explicar los sistemas de opciones semánticas que el lenguaje ofrece para evaluar, adoptar posiciones, construir personas textuales o identidades discursivas, asumir roles, negociar relaciones, y transformar en "naturales" las posturas intersubjetivas que son, en última instancia, ideológicas (Kaplan, 2004). Martin & White (2005) consideran que la valoración, entendida como la gestión de la evaluación en el discurso, se estructura de forma modular con tres sistemas principales en interacción, la ACTITUD, la GRADACIÓN y el COMPROMISO, que a su vez se componen de distintos subsistemas. La ACTITUD comprende el AFECTO (emociones), el JUICIO (evalúa el comportamiento humano en relación con las normas sociales) y la APRECIACIÓN (evalúa productos, procesos y entidades). La GRADACIÓN modifica la intensidad de la evaluación y se concreta en los subsistemas de FUERZA y de FOCO. Con la FUERZA se incrementa o se reduce la intensidad de la evaluación a través de la cuantificación o la intensificación de cualidades, procesos o propuestas, y con el FOCO se precisa o hace más difuso el significado ideacional ajustando el valor de los procesos. Y finalmente, el COMPROMISO del hablante con sus enunciados puede dar lugar a discursos monoglósicos (excluyen otros puntos de vista) o heteroglósicos (incluyen posiciones alternativas). Aplicaremos algunos de estos conceptos al estudio de la terminología escogida.

Análisis comparativo del término *sursis* y sus traducciones

Definición de sursis

El significado especializado del término *sursis* designa una medida consistente en la suspensión parcial o íntegra de la ejecución de la pena, de prisión o de multa, durante un periodo de tiempo determinado. En el Código penal francés (art. 132-29 a 132-39) se establecen los requisitos que debe cumplir un penado para poder beneficiarse de esta medida, las condiciones para conseguir la extinción definitiva de la pena, o los casos en que el beneficio de la suspensión quedaría revocado y el penado debería cumplir su pena (una nueva condena), entre otros aspectos. El conjunto de estas circunstancias concretas configuran los rasgos esenciales y accidentales del término *sursis,* propios de la cultura de partida, que, al ser tan específicos, dificultan la existencia de un equivalente pleno en la cultura de llegada.

Las traducciones de sursis

Las soluciones que proponen los diccionarios y otros recursos bilingües, generales y especializados, y las soluciones utilizadas en traducciones publicadas en castellano, como hemos anunciado, son variadas y no todas son sinónimas entre ellas.[1] Las recogemos en la tabla 1:

[1] Las fuentes consultadas para el presente estudio son las siguientes: el diccionario especializado *Dictionnaire juridique français/espagnol – español/francés* de Merlin Walch (DMW), la base de datos terminológica plurilingüe de la Unión

SURSIS	suspensión de la pena / suspensión de la ejecución
	condena condicional / remisión condicional
	con fianza (libertad provisional con fianza)
	libertad condicional
	indulto

Tabla 1: Traducciones de *sursis*

A su vez, cabe notar que las equivalencias propuestas por los diccionarios aparecen desprovistas de información pragmática. En este sentido, distintos autores (Houbert, 2003; Thiry, 2009 u Orozco, 2014: 260, entre otros) señalan que la información de algunos diccionarios bilingües, generales o especializados, no es suficiente para ayudar al traductor no jurista a escoger la mejor solución. Por ello es indispensable, como mínimo, comparar las definiciones de cada solución traductora con la del término original para determinar cuál es realmente la más similar desde el punto de vista conceptual.

a) *suspensión de la pena / suspensión de la ejecución:* ambas formulaciones constan en el Código Penal español (CP) para designar un beneficio que consiste en dejar en suspenso la ejecución de una pena privativa de libertad durante un periodo de tiempo determinado a la espera de que el penado se comporte de la manera prevista hasta que la pena ya no deba cumplirse (art. 80 a 85 CP). Las características de este beneficio, así como las condiciones necesarias para concederlo y las causas de su revocación, son similares a las de *sursis,* como se desprende de la información contenida en la tabla 2:

Europea (IATE), los diccionarios bilingües generales en línea Wordreference y Reverso; traducciones recogidas por el diccionario y buscador Linguee, así como la versión electrónica en español del Código penal francés publicada en Legifrance y la versión impresa del mismo texto de Aránguez y Alarcón (2003) (cf. la bibliografía del presente trabajo).

	SURSIS	SUSPENSIÓN DE LA PENA / EJECUCIÓN
Definición	Medida que consiste en la suspensión de la ejecución de la pena (prisión o multa) durante un periodo de tiempo.	Beneficio que consiste en la suspensión de la ejecución de la pena (prisión) durante un periodo de tiempo.
Requisitos del penado para optar a este beneficio	Ser condenado por primera vez o no haber sido condenado a una pena de prisión durante los cinco años anteriores a los hechos. Pena de prisión no superior a cinco años.	Ser condenado por primera vez. Pena de prisión no superior a dos años.
Posibles efectos según la actitud del penado	Supresión de la pena si el penado no vuelve a delinquir durante la suspensión.	Supresión de la pena si el penado no delinque durante la suspensión.
	Revocación del beneficio y cumplimiento de la pena en caso de nueva condena.	Revocación del beneficio y cumplimiento de la pena en caso de nueva condena.

Tabla 2. Características de *sursis* y de suspensión de la pena

Estas formulaciones en castellano, aunque difieren en algunos rasgos secundarios, designan una unidad de conocimiento especializado muy próxima a la que expresa *sursis*. Desde la perspectiva de la equivalencia funcional (Šarčević, 1997), puede afirmarse que comparten la mayoría de las características esenciales y accidentales del término francés; por lo tanto, son equivalentes parciales de *sursis,* válidos en numerosos contextos.

b) *condena condicional / remisión condicional:* utilizadas antes del Código penal de 1995 para designar el mismo concepto que la suspensión de la pena. Si bien algunos diccionarios generalistas siguen recogiendo la primera de estas expresiones (*condena condicional*), actualmente ambas han quedado obsoletas y ya no constan en el CP.[2] Ante el uso de estas designaciones, cabe hablar de falta de actualización terminológica, justificable durante un determinado período de tiempo, el que tarda en consolidarse la nueva designación.

[2] El jurista Herrero Álvarez (1997: 1) alude a este cambio de nomenclatura: "El nuevo Código Penal de 1995 dedica sus artículos 80 a 87 a la regulación de la institución hasta ahora denominada remisión condicional de la pena, o condena condicional, que pasa a nombrarse como suspensión de la ejecución de la pena". Evidentemente, los diccionarios tradicionales no pueden actualizar los cambios terminológicos que se producen en un campo de conocimiento particular a la misma velocidad que estas modificaciones se incorporan entre los especialistas.

c) *con fianza:* simplificación de la fórmula completa *libertad provisional con fianza* (art. 505 y 529 LECrim1); designa una medida cautelar que permite eludir la prisión provisional a cambio de la prestación de una fianza económica que se pierde en caso de incomparecencia del imputado (Nieva Fenoll, 2012: 163). Si comparamos su definición con la de *sursis,* observamos que sus características esenciales y accidentales no coinciden en absoluto; nos hallamos ante un caso de equivalencia nula.

d) *libertad condicional:* designa el beneficio que se concede al penado cuando este se encuentra en el tercer grado del tratamiento penitenciario, ha observado buena conducta y se han extinguido las tres cuartas partes de la condena (art. 90 a 93 CP). En derecho penal español, la suspensión de la pena y la libertad condicional son dos instituciones próximas desde el punto de vista conceptual y probablemente ello explica su confusión por parte de los profanos; sin embargo, entre ellas existen diferencias fundamentales. La principal es que la suspensión de la ejecución se concede antes de empezar a cumplir la pena mientras que la libertad condicional se otorga una vez se ha cumplido la mayor parte de la condena. En este caso, también nos encontramos ante un caso de equivalencia nula entre el término francés y el español.

e) *indulto:* en derecho español designa una medida de gracia especial (art. 4 CP) que el gobierno puede otorgar a los condenados por sentencia firme, y que consiste en remitir toda la pena impuesta (indulto total) o solo una parte (indulto parcial), o bien en conmutarla por otra pena más leve (art. 130.4 CP); comporta la extinción de la responsabilidad criminal. Esta propuesta supone un falso sentido puesto que una medida que consiste en la suspensión de la ejecución de la pena en la cultura de partida (*sursis*) se convierte, en la cultura de llegada, en una medida de gracia especial con unas características bien distintas. Debemos hablar de nuevo de una relación de equivalencia nula entre ambos términos.

Tras este análisis comparativo, podemos concluir que solo dos formulaciones designan actualmente un concepto similar al que expresa el término francés: *suspensión de la pena* y *suspensión de la ejecución*. Sin embargo, es probable que durante un tiempo continúen utilizándose también las antiguas designaciones de *condena/remisión condicional*. Para nuestro segundo objetivo basado en la aplicación de la Teoría de la Valoración al estudio de la terminología, nos limitaremos pues a analizar estas cuatro unidades terminológicas.

Una aproximación a las equivalencias de *sursis* desde la Teoría de la Valoración

Desde la perspectiva de la Teoría de la Valoración, las unidades terminológicas que son equivalentes parciales de *sursis,* tanto las antiguas como las actuales, pueden interpretarse como recursos evaluativos relacionados con los sistemas de la ACTITUD y la GRADACIÓN, porque las unidades léxicas que las componen vehiculan un determinado punto de vista por parte del locutor. Teniendo en cuenta que la terminología objeto de estudio no se refiere a personas, sino a entidades (figuras jurídicas), de los tres subsistemas que comprende la ACTITUD, el que se ajusta más al tipo de evaluaciones que esta puede expresar es el de la APRECIACIÓN. La APRECIACIÓN se concibe como el sistema mediante el cual los sentimientos humanos hacia productos, procesos y entidades se institucionalizan como un conjunto de evaluaciones, positivas o negativas. Al mismo tiempo, parece ser que en la terminología objeto de estudio la APRECIACIÓN se interrelaciona con el sistema de la GRADACIÓN.

En las formulaciones antiguas, el componente evaluativo es bastante evidente. La formulación *condena condicional* está formada por un sustantivo que muestra una APRECIACIÓN negativa (*condena*) y por un adjetivo que gradúa el foco semántico o el significado ideacional de dicho sustantivo (*condicional*). El sustantivo expresa una idea claramente negativa como pone de manifiesto la definición del verbo *condenar:* "decidir un juez u otra autoridad que alguien reciba un castigo, pague una multa o una indemnización, pague las costas de un juicio por haber sido sentenciado en su contra, etc." (*Diccionario de uso del español* de M. Moliner, en adelante DMM). Esta negatividad también se explica desde el punto de vista etimológico, puesto que el verbo *condenar* deriva del latín "condemnare", compuesto con "damnare", derivado de "dámnum" (daño) (DMM). Por lo tanto, el término *condena* está directamente asociado a valores negativos como los que transmiten los lexemas *castigo, pena* o *daño*.

En el caso de *remisión condicional,* la unidad léxica *remisión* construye una imagen muy distinta a la del lexema *condena,* pues de entrada no vehicula una valoración negativa. Puede evocar la idea temporal de diferimiento, e incluso la idea positiva de perdón (cf. definición en DMM). La idea de aplazamiento, al referirse a la ejecución de una pena, comporta un efecto positivo para su destinatario puesto que la pena, asociada esta sí a una valoración negativa por su significado ("castigo impuesto conforme a la ley", DRAE) y etimología (del latín "poena", *castigo, tormento, pena,* DRAE), no debe cumplirse durante un tiempo y además, en este contexto, abre la posibilidad de que el sujeto quede exonerado de cumplirla definitivamente.

En la creación de estas dos formulaciones (*condena/remisión condicional*), el locutor ha combinado elementos que muestran una evaluación en términos de APRECIACIÓN con otro recurso propio del sistema de la GRADACIÓN: el adjetivo *condicional*. Más concretamente se trata de un elemento perteneciente al subsistema del FOCO, puesto que los sustantivos que se ven afectados por el significado de *condicional* no son graduables. El adjetivo *condicional* que aparece en ambas formulaciones muestra los lexemas que acompaña (*condena* y *remisión*) sujetos al cumplimiento de ciertas condiciones: la condena y la remisión en el momento de mencionarlas todavía no se han materializado. De este modo, el adjetivo aporta un matiz de virtualidad que desdibuja el foco semántico de dichos sustantivos; simultáneamente, en el primer caso se atenúa también la negatividad intrínseca del sustantivo *condena,* y en el segundo, la eventual positividad derivada de un aplazamiento y no cumplimiento inmediato de la pena.

Las dos formulaciones actuales, *suspensión de la pena* y *suspensión de la ejecución,* dejan entrever cierta subjetividad si nos fijamos en la carga semántica de las unidades léxicas que las componen. Optar por formas aparentemente neutras, como *suspensión, remisión* o *ejecución,* constituye un recurso retórico que a la vez no deja de ser una toma de decisión por parte del locutor, en el sentido de que refleja un punto de vista concreto, como puede ser la voluntad de no emitir una valoración explícitamente positiva ni negativa sobre una entidad determinada. El lexema *suspensión* se asocia a una idea de detención temporal que por sí sola no vehicula una valoración positiva ni negativa pero que, al ir acompañado del término *pena,* como hemos explicado, implica un efecto positivo para su destinatario, puesto que la pena, asociada a una valoración negativa, no debe ejecutarse por un tiempo y además implica la posibilidad de que el sujeto quede exonerado de cumplirla.

La segunda formulación, *suspensión de la ejecución,* vehicula una valoración similar porque se refiere igualmente a la ejecución de la pena, aunque de forma indirecta, pues al dejar implícita la unidad léxica *pena* todo lo que ésta conlleva queda relegado a un segundo plano y se prioriza la acción misma de ejecutar, llevar a la práctica o realizar. Con estas formulaciones, el concepto penal designado es visto como positivo, en consonancia con la visión favorable que se desprende de las definiciones lexicográficas o legislativas donde se lo describe como un beneficio para el penado. Así pues, la misma medida penal era vista de forma más desfavorable con la antigua terminología mientras que hoy en día, mediante los nuevos términos, se concibe desde una posición más satisfactoria. El cambio de nomenclatura parece obedecer a la voluntad de eliminar cualquier tipo de evaluación negativa en el lenguaje jurídico.

Otro ejemplo que aquí no desarrollaremos por motivos de espacio, pero que queremos mencionar porque también es ilustrativo de la capacidad de la terminología para vehicular valoraciones es el caso del término *imputado,* perteneciente al ámbito procesal penal y rechazado recientemente por el legislador español por su carácter evaluativo. Se ha considerado que el término *imputado* es portador de connotaciones negativas porque se asocia, en la conciencia general, a la idea de preculpabilidad (los hablantes tienden a pensar que un imputado es un acusado o incluso el culpable cuando en realidad podrá serlo o no); por ello, se ha considerado necesario sustituirlo por otros términos. Así, *imputado* ha pasado a denominarse *investigado* en la fase de instrucción, y *encausado* (junto a *procesado* o *acusado*) en el supuesto de que se dicte un auto formal de acusación (cf. Preámbulo de la LECrim2). Desde la Teoría de la Valoración, podríamos decir que el locutor que utiliza el término *imputado* plasma un juicio negativo: evalúa la conducta de una persona como ilegal, socialmente inaceptable. Esta evaluación negativa deriva indirectamente de sus situaciones de uso pues, aunque *imputado* designa estrictamente “la persona sobre la que tan sólo recaen meras sospechas y por ello resulta investigado, pero respecto de la cual no existen suficientes indicios para que se le atribuya judicial y formalmente la comisión de un hecho punible” (LECrim2), con el tiempo se ha impregnado de una carga cultural y social que lo asocia a situaciones negativas y reprobables. Su sustitución por el término *investigado* pone de manifiesto la tendencia a reemplazar términos con un contenido más marcadamente evaluativo (sobre todo negativo) por otros con una carga semántica más neutra. Tal sustitución de nomenclatura por parte del legislador es la que a la vez confirmaría la existencia de un componente evaluativo en los términos analizados, superpuesto al conocimiento especializado que estos designan.

Conclusiones

En la traducción de la terminología se imponen la prudencia y el rigor pues cada unidad terminológica designa una parcela de conocimiento especializado concreta y bien delimitada. Hemos visto que no todas las soluciones propuestas por obras lexicográficas bilingües son equivalentes válidos y que la consulta de estos recursos no es suficiente para su discriminación. Por el contrario, la opción de un análisis contrastivo basado en el derecho comparado resulta útil para identificar los términos que designan el concepto especializado más similar en ambas culturas. A partir de esta primera aproximación al tratamiento de la terminología en los recursos utilizados por los traductores, son muchos los trabajos que quedan por desarrollar. Además de ampliar el corpus con otros recursos bilingües y más traducciones publicadas, sería interesante tener en cuenta la variable del grado de especialización del texto, ya que parece probable que, por ejemplo, las traducciones de textos divulgativos presenten más confusiones terminológicas que las de los textos especializados. Asimismo, sería conveniente analizar, en el mismo tipo de recursos consultados para *sursis,* el tratamiento que reciben otros términos jurídicos cercanos conceptualmente a fin de comprobar si se observa la misma tendencia a desdibujar los contornos semánticos de términos que en el ámbito del derecho están bien acotados.

Por último, en cuanto al segundo objetivo, se ha puesto de manifiesto que, junto a la expresión de conocimiento especializado, las unidades terminológicas pueden vehicular una evaluación, positiva o negativa, más o menos explícita, y más o menos intensa o difusa, sobre aquello de lo que se habla. Esta evaluación se presenta como compartida por la colectividad de expertos, pero también, por su uso en la lengua general, es compartida por el resto de la sociedad, hasta el punto de que las posibles connotaciones positivas o negativas que evoca un término resultan indisociables de su contenido semántico, como se ha mostrado con las equivalencias de *sursis* en castellano y los términos *imputado* e *investigado*. Sin duda, cabrá completar esta primera aproximación a la terminología penal desde la Teoría de la Valoración con otros estudios más exhaustivos para poder contribuir de alguna forma a un mayor conocimiento de los recursos evaluativos del lenguaje jurídico. La consideración de estos aspectos semánticos podría resultar pertinente también para enriquecer las herramientas lingüísticas de consulta destinadas a la traducción especializada.

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[3] Al final de algunas referencias y entre corchetes se incluyen las siglas utilizadas en el trabajo.

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¿Es conveniente revisar los grados de Traducción e Interpretación en España?

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Abstract. The statistics of the Spanish Instituto de Comercio Exterior (ICEX) show an upward trend of national and regional exports and of the number of export firms in Spain, so we can see that there are bigger needs of cultural and linguistic mediation that must be met by firms in a proper way. Thus, we can analyse what the professional profile for foreign trade is in order to reach conclusions on the adequacy of the profile of Graduates on Translation and Interpreting and on the possible gap between the professional world related to foreign trade and the specialisation offered by the Degree in Translation and Interpreting in Spain. We therefore analyse, on one hand, partial results of research through a survey taken to Andalusian export firms selected from the databases of the Trade & Investment Agency of Andalusia; on the other hand, the curricular content of various official syllabuses related to foreign trade in Spain; and lastly, the results of a content analysis of the foreign trade and related issues integrated in the syllabus of the Degree in Translation and Interpreting in Spain, to obtain conclusions regarding the gap between the professional needs related to foreign trade and the university training in translation and interpreting.

Keywords: foreign trade, training, translation and interpreting, export firms, professional profile

Resumen. Según las estadísticas oficiales del Instituto de Comercio Exterior español, tanto el volumen de empresas como las exportaciones nacionales y autonómicas siguen una tendencia al alza. En consecuencia, hay más necesidades de mediación lingüística y cultural que las empresas deben cubrir a través de los mecanismos adecuados. Ante este panorama, nos preguntamos cuál es el perfil profesional que demandan las empresas internacionalizadas, para reflexionar sobre la idoneidad del perfil del titulado en Traducción e Interpretación y su relación con el mundo profesional en el ámbito del comercio exterior. Para ello, analizaremos, por una parte, los resultados parciales de una encuesta que hemos realizado a empresas exportadoras andaluzas; por otra parte, el contenido de los currículos formativos conducentes a diversos títulos oficiales relacionados con el comercio exterior en España. Por último, presentaremos los resultados del análisis del contenido sobre comercio exterior y materias afines en los planes de estudio de grado en Traducción e Interpretación en las universidades españolas durante el periodo académico 2014-2015.

Palabras clave: comercio exterior, formación, traducción e interpretación, empresas exportadoras, perfil profesional

Introducción

Parece adecuado, si nos proponemos dar respuesta a la pregunta que marca el título del presente trabajo, comenzar por los datos que caracterizan la situación laboral actual con la que se encuentran los egresados en Traducción e Interpretación.

En este sentido, en España nos encontramos con una situación económica determinada en gran medida por una crisis que no parece llegar a su fin y que insta a las empresas a comerciar en mercados extranjeros, apoyadas por las instituciones públicas españolas, a nivel regional o nacional, que promueven dicha internacionalización a través de subvenciones y de asesoramiento. En estos procesos de entrada y consolidación en los mercados extranjeros, las empresas se enfrentan a necesidades de mediación lingüística y cultural que emergen de las actividades comerciales internacionales.

Tal como podemos comprobar a través de las estadísticas oficiales del Instituto de Comercio Exterior español (www.icex.es), la variación en las exportaciones nacionales sigue una tendencia al alza, pues se observa un aumento progresivo tanto en volumen como en número de empresas, desde 2009, año en el que se produjeron los primeros efectos de la crisis económica y financiera que comenzó en 2008. Esta misma tendencia se produce de manera general en prácticamente todas las comunidades autónomas, lo que nos lleva a pensar que cada vez hay más empresas con necesidades de mediación lingüística y cultural, originadas por su actividad internacional y que deben cubrir a través de los mecanismos adecuados.

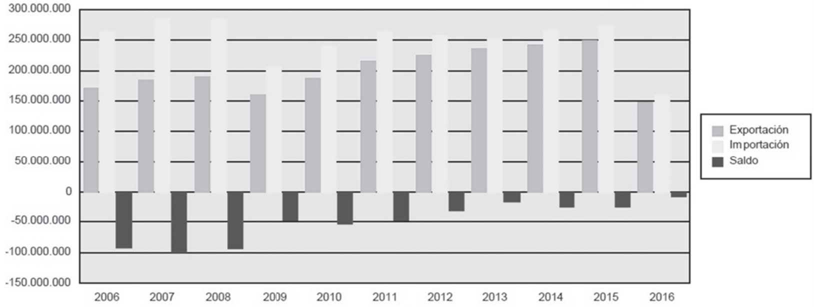

Gráfico 1: Evolución de importaciones, exportaciones y saldos (ICEX)

Como se puede observar en la figura 1, tanto las importaciones como las exportaciones han experimentado una tendencia al alza, que se ha visto apoyada por políticas públicas diseñadas con la finalidad de establecer una economía más abierta a los mercados exteriores que suponga una mejora en la productividad nacional. Esta mejora empieza ya a producirse, como demuestran las cifras positivas de productividad-precios frente a la Unión Europea según el índice de tendencia de competitividad, calculado por el Ministerio de Economía, Industria y Competitividad (2016).

La situación de crisis ha provocado igualmente que las cifras de desempleo hayan llegado a límites históricos, situándose en el 21 %, como muestra el gráfico 2.

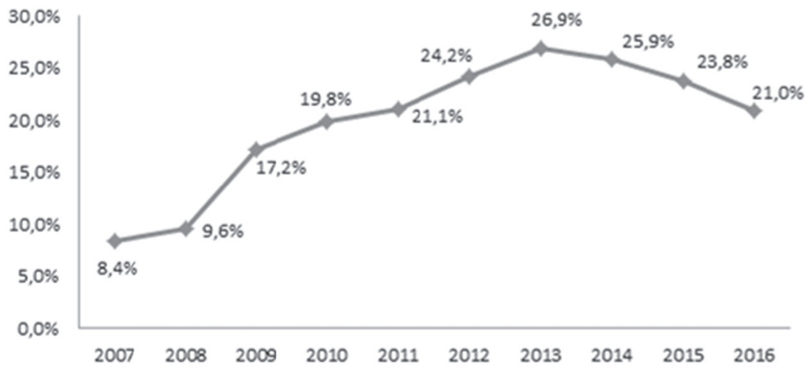

Gráfico 2: Evolución de la tasa de desempleo en España (Diario *Expansión*)

No obstante lo anterior, las cifras correspondientes a la población joven, es decir, por debajo de los 25 años, alcanzan el 45 %. Debemos tener en cuenta que, en España, los egresados universitarios se sitúan mayoritariamente en esta franja de edad,[1] en la que el nivel de desempleo es dramático. Entendemos pues que el aumento tanto del volumen de operaciones con el exterior como de empresas internacionalizadas puede producir un doble efecto positivo: una mejora en la economía española y un incremento de la necesidad de personal cualificado en el que tengan cabida los titulados en Traducción e Interpretación.

Estado de la investigación traductológica en torno al comercio exterior

Ante la situación descrita, nos preguntamos en qué grado se adecúa el perfil de los titulados en Traducción e Interpretación a los requisitos profesionales necesarios para ejercer en el campo del comercio exterior, que suscita interés entre los estudiantes y puede suponer una orientación profesional.

Gallego (2015), por ejemplo, da cuenta de cómo el interés de la investigación traductológica por la traducción económica, entendida en un sentido amplio, ha ido creciendo en lo que va de siglo no solo gracias a las publicaciones, cuyo número va equiparándose al de otros tipos de traducción, sino también a los eventos específicos relacionados con materias económicas, financieras y de comercio exterior. De hecho, analizando la bibliografía reciente, varios autores estudian el comercio internacional en la traducción y la interpretación desde diversas perspectivas (Mayoral, 1997; Calvo, 2010; Morón, 2010; Álvarez, 2011; Medina y Álvarez, 2014, entre otros). De igual modo, encontramos estudios relacionados con la formación en comercio exterior y la orientación profesional de los egresados en Traducción e Interpretación (Informe ELAN, 2006; Morón, 2012; Álvarez, 2015; Morón y Medina, 2016).

En relación con el comercio exterior, es interesante también el trabajo de Gallego, Koby y Román (2016), donde se presentan los resultados de una encuesta dirigida, por un lado, a especialistas del mundo de la

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[1] Según los informes anuales del Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte Datos y Cifras del Sistema Universitario Español, en el curso 2012/2013, el 53,9 % de los egresados tienen menos de 25 años, cifra que asciende al 55,8 % en el curso siguiente, mientras que en el último curso del que se tienen datos, es decir, 2014/2015, se sitúa en el 58,1 %. En este último curso, en el caso de los estudios de Humanidades se sitúa en el 64 %.

economía, el comercio y las finanzas y, por otro lado, a profesores del Grado en Traducción e Interpretación que imparten docencia relacionada con dichas materias. Entre los resultados más relevantes para nuestro estudio, observamos una falta de consenso entre los dos grupos poblacionales estudiados a la hora de incluir diversas materias en el campo de la economía, del comercio o de las finanzas, entre las que destaca el comercio exterior. Los especialistas lo sitúan en el campo de la economía, mientras que los formadores lo relacionan con el ámbito comercial, lo que podría sugerir diferencias a la hora de orientar la docencia y, con ello, en las competencias desarrolladas por los alumnos.

Los resultados de una encuesta dirigida a traductores e intérpretes profesionales sobre su satisfacción con los estudios de Traducción e Interpretación (Henter, 2015) son interesantes igualmente. La autora partió de la idea de que aparentemente existe una brecha entre los requisitos profesionales del mercado y las competencias de los traductores recién egresados. Recabó respuestas de 155 profesionales (la mayor parte de ellos, británicos o españoles, con una media de edad de 36 años y sin haber cursado estudios de posgrado en un 57 %).

Analizando las diversas respuestas incluidas en el estudio, observamos que, entre las especializaciones más frecuentes en las que los participantes declaran trabajar con mayor frecuencia, se sitúa el *marketing* (13 %), los asuntos legales y las patentes (11 %), así como los negocios y las finanzas (10 %). Podemos comprobar, por tanto, que la especialización de los traductores e intérpretes profesionales se dirige, en una proporción no desdeñable, hacia campos que se encuentran estrechamente relacionados con el ámbito del comercio exterior, lo que nos hace pensar que puede haber un nicho en esta área profesional para nuestros egresados.

En relación a su formación, solo la mitad de los participantes en la encuesta declaran su satisfacción y únicamente el 37 % considera que las asignaturas recibidas están relacionadas con la vida real, porcentaje excesivamente bajo que nos debe hacer reflexionar sobre los currículums académicos establecidos en los estudios de Traducción e Interpretación. De igual modo, observamos que más de la mitad de los participantes muestran satisfacción en cuanto a la preparación de los docentes que impartieron las asignaturas, si bien, más del 30 % cambiarían las asignaturas estudiadas.

Debemos tener en cuenta que, por la media de edad de los profesionales participantes, la mayoría habla sobre la Licenciatura en Traducción e Interpretación y no sobre los grados correspondientes al Plan Bolonia, implantados en España en 2010.

A raíz de otra encuesta destinada, en esta ocasión, a traductores económicos, Gallego (2016) se pregunta la relación que mantienen las asignaturas relacionadas con traducción económica de varios grados de Traducción e Interpretación en España y los textos económicos, comerciales y financieros que tales profesionales afirman traducir. De los resultados mostrados no es posible conocer el peso exacto que tiene el comercio exterior en las asignaturas anilizadas, dada, sobre todo, la imprecisión de los contenidos de algunas guías docentes, lo cual no significa que el profesorado no imparta contenidos relacionados, pero sí le da flexibilidad de maniobra a lo largo del curso.

La reseña de trabajos, en absoluto exhaustiva, presentada en este apartado ofrece alguna pista en torno a la relación que mantienen el comercio exterior y los grados de Traducción e Interpretación. No obstante, siguen faltando datos precisos, por ejemplo, extraídos de la realidad profesional y de los prestatarios de servicios de traducción, que nos ayuden a valorar la pregunta planteada en el título del presente trabajo. En este sentido, a continuación, presentamos precisamente los resultados de una encuesta destinada a empresas exportadoras y, posteriormente, nos preguntamos qué tipo de asignaturas incluyen los grados en Traducción e Interpretación que actualmente se imparten en España y si es necesario realizar algún tipo de modificación o mejora de los planes docentes para adecuarlos en mayor medida a la realidad profesional actual.

Trabajo de campo: ¿qué opinan las empresas?

Hemos llevado a cabo un estudio, basado en encuestas, en el marco de nuestra investigación sobre los hábitos relacionados con la mediación lingüística de las empresas exportadoras andaluzas (Álvarez, 2015), dentro del proyecto Comintrad de investigación sobre localización y *e-marketing* como fomento de la internacionalización de las pymes españolas (Medina Reguera, 2015). Pretendíamos obtener información sobre las valoraciones, percepciones y opiniones de las empresas exportadoras andaluzas con respecto al ejercicio profesional de la traducción y la interpretación en el ámbito del comercio exterior, así como sobre la adecuación del perfil del titulado en Traducción e Interpretación para ejercer en este campo.

La encuesta fue diseñada con una profundidad descriptiva, es decir, para tratar de describir las opiniones de las empresas exportadoras en relación con la traducción y la interpretación en el desarrollo de sus actividades internacionales. Para obtener los datos de análisis, nos dirigimos a una población total de 5.705 empresas exportadoras andaluzas integradas en el directorio de empresas de la Agencia Andaluza de

Promoción Exterior (Extenda),[2] incluyendo los cuatro sectores en los que Extenda divide la actividad económica: agroalimentario, consumo, servicio e industria. Obtuvimos un total de 447 respuestas finales válidas, alcanzando así el mínimo requerido para considerarlo representativo, formado por 236 respuestas, cifra calculada considerando un intervalo de confianza del 95 %, con un error de cálculo de 0,05, una probabilidad de que se cumplan las condiciones de la muestra de 0,9 y una probabilidad de que no se cumplan de 0,1 (Álvarez García, 2015).

Entre las diversas cuestiones analizadas en la encuesta, podemos observar una serie de pautas de las empresas exportadoras andaluzas participantes en relación con el empleo de servicios de mediación lingüística y cultural. En primer lugar, los resultados muestran que no existe una tendencia a la contratación de la mediación lingüística profesional (el 58,97 % declara no emplear tales servicios). La gran mayoría declara confiar en personal interno para que lleve a cabo estas funciones (80,7 %). Las razones podrían ser económicas, por cuanto las empresas pudieran considerar un gasto prescindible contar con servicios profesionales de mediación, si bien también es probable que existan razones de índole estratégico, por las que las empresas prefieran no confiar en personal ajeno en negociaciones internacionales, cuyo éxito depende en gran medida de las estrategias que se lleven a cabo.

El hecho de confiar estas tareas de mediación en personal interno tiene el riesgo de que no posea la cualificación requerida, pues, como el propio informe ELAN (2006), entre otros estudios, pone de manifiesto, las pequeñas y medianas empresas en Europa sufren pérdidas considerables por no establecer estrategias lingüísticas y culturales apropiadas en el marco de su actividad empresarial internacional.

Para evitar este riesgo, las empresas internacionalizadas pueden hacer uso de personal interno cualificado, entre los que se encontrarían los titulados en Traducción e Interpretación. Ello podría afectar a la formación universitaria, cuyos egresados están provistos de una serie de competencias que diversos autores han analizado y agrupado en la competencia traductora, pero que cabe evaluar si se pretende complementar con elementos específicos del comercio exterior. Por tanto, ¿qué implica dicha cualificación requerida por las empresas inmersas en negocios internacionales?

En la encuesta encontramos igualmente información al respecto. Por un lado, el 72,3 % de las empresas afirma que emplea el inglés como lengua de negociación en la mayoría de los casos cuando negocian con socios internacionales, aun cuando no sea la lengua materna de ninguno de

[2] Al que se puede acceder a través de la página web de la propia Agencia (Extenda) http://www.extenda.es/web/opencms/directorio-empresas/

los intervinientes. El uso del inglés como lengua franca no llama la atención, pues se considera la lengua de los negocios. Ahora bien, su utilización generalizada nos lleva a pensar que el conocimiento de inglés a nivel negociación es una competencia necesaria para ejercer en este campo profesional y entra en dicha cualificación requerida.

Además de ello, les pedimos su opinión sobre los conocimientos que consideran necesarios en un intérprete cuando interviene en una negociación internacional. Como podemos observar en el gráfico 3, las empresas exportadoras participantes sitúan en primer lugar por importancia los conocimientos de la terminología especializada o vocabulario técnico. A continuación, sitúan la información sobre el mercado y el producto que se negocia o incluso sobre el tipo y la estructura de la negociación en la que participan.

Gráfico 3: Conocimientos que las empresas consideran necesarios a la hora de interpretar en una negociación internacional

Estos datos muestran que existe un alto porcentaje de empresas que considera muy importante que los intérpretes posean conocimientos relacionados con el *marketing* y la empresa. Por tanto, se convierten en expectativas de conocimientos, o cualificación, por parte de las empresas exportadoras a la hora de contratar personal cualificado que intervenga en las negociaciones internacionales.

El último resultado de la encuesta que destacamos por su relevancia con el tema tratado en el presente trabajo es la opinión de las empresas participantes en cuanto al conocimiento sobre cuestiones relacionadas con el comercio exterior que un traductor o intérprete debe poseer para trabajar en este campo profesional.

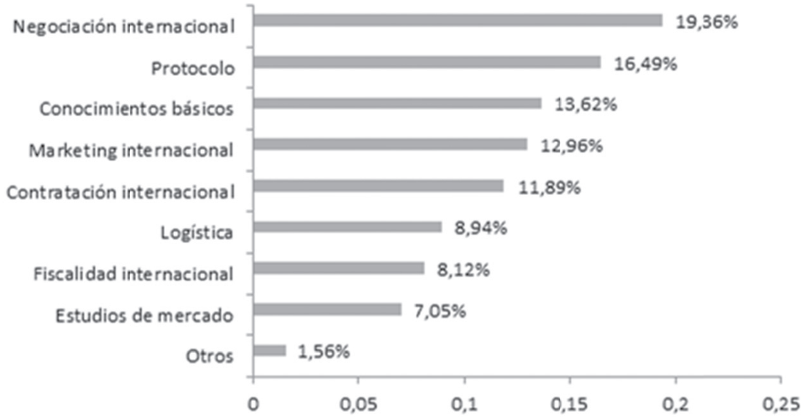

Gráfico 4: Conocimientos requeridos para trabajar en comercio exterior

Como podemos observar en el gráfico 4, la competencia más valorada son los conocimientos sobre negociación internacional. A continuación, valoran los conocimientos sobre protocolo, estrechamente ligado a la negociación y que está relacionado con la cultura y las costumbres, cuestiones integradas en los planes de estudio de Traducción e Interpretación a través de asignaturas relacionadas con la cultura de los países donde se habla el idioma extranjero que aprenden los estudiantes. No obstante, en este caso, el protocolo hace referencia a la cultura y las costumbres que intervienen a la hora de llevar a cabo negociaciones y encuentros internacionales. De igual modo, observamos la importancia de los conocimientos sobre *marketing* y contratación internacionales para las empresas exportadoras participantes.

A partir de estos resultados, podemos inferir que las empresas parecen asimilar la figura del intérprete con la del negociador, lo que sugiere que las empresas posiblemente desconocen las funciones del intérprete y refuerza la idea de falta de confianza cuando contratan servicios externos, prefiriendo personal interno cualificado, como ya hemos apuntado.

Teniendo en cuenta estas competencias que las empresas exportadoras consideran necesarias a la hora de contratar personal cualificado, nos preguntamos si los grados en Traducción e Interpretación en España ofrecen a los estudiantes la posibilidad de desarrollarlas y conseguir un perfil adecuado para el ámbito del comercio exterior y, por tanto, de orientar su carrera hacia este campo.

¿Qué asignaturas relacionadas con el comercio exterior están incluidas en los planes de estudio de los grados en Traducción e Interpretación?

Recientemente, hemos llevado a cabo un estudio sobre los distintos currículos formativos incluidos en los planes de estudios conducentes a la obtención del Grado en Traducción e Interpretación que ofertan las universidades españolas durante el curso académico 2014-2015 (Álvarez, 2016). Nos propusimos identificar aquellas materias que incluyeran formación en comercio exterior y en áreas relacionadas, para reflexionar sobre el grado de inclusión de este campo profesional en los planes de estudio y la importancia que le dan.

El análisis cubrió las 21 universidades españolas que ofrecen grados relacionados con la traducción y la interpretación, teniendo en cuenta que una de ellas, la Universidad Europea de Madrid, ofrece dos titulaciones (grado en Traducción y Comunicación Internacional y doble grado en Relaciones Internacionales y Traducción y Comunicación Internacional). Se centró en la localización del desarrollo de competencias relacionadas con el perfil requerido en el campo profesional del comercio exterior, para lo que analizamos tanto el contenido mostrado por los programas docentes, como los objetivos y las competencias a desarrollar que se proponían a través de la asignatura.

La revisión nos permitió observar que la mayoría de las asignaturas integradas en los planes de estudio de los grados diseñados para la obtención de cualificación académica en traducción e interpretación en España y que muestran alguna relación con el ámbito del comercio exterior, posee una perspectiva traductológica.

Solo el 10,8 % del total de créditos de las 22 titulaciones actualmente existentes corresponden a asignaturas relacionadas con el comercio exterior o materias similares. Si tenemos en cuenta que cada grado supone una carga lectiva de 240 créditos, estamos hablando de un total de 5 280 créditos.

Por otro lado, solo 6 universidades de las 21 existentes incluyen programas docentes que contienen formación en comercio exterior, lo que indica que, para 15 universidades, la formación en comercio exterior no supone un elemento de utilidad para sus estudiantes. De igual modo, la mayoría de los créditos relacionados se encuentran en los grados que incluyen en su denominación las relaciones o la comunicación internacional, debido precisamente a que fueron específicamente diseñadas a formar a los estudiantes en el ámbito internacional.

Por último, destacamos el hecho de que únicamente el 1 % del total de créditos se corresponden con asignaturas que guardan algún tipo de relación con el comercio exterior o con materias similares y suelen impartirse bajo la denominación de traducción especializada, tanto económica como jurídica, siendo esta última más frecuente, ya que la mayoría de las asignaturas que ofrecen formación en traducción económica, lo hacen de manera integrada con la traducción jurídica, aun cuando los textos que se tratan no necesariamente son textos híbridos que pudieran encuadrarse en ambos campos de saber.

Consideraciones finales

Teniendo en cuenta la situación económica de precariedad laboral en España, el campo del comercio exterior se presenta como una opción interesante para los titulados en Traducción e Interpretación, por cuanto supone un incremento de la necesidad de personal cualificado que lleve a cabo funciones en empresas internacionalizadas. Esto supone que, desde las universidades españolas, no debamos dejar pasar la oportunidad de ofrecer a nuestros alumnos la posibilidad de desarrollar competencias que les sirvan de base para comenzar su andadura profesional en este campo.

Hemos observado que la formación en comercio exterior, no solo en asignaturas específicas, sino también en aquellas relacionadas con la traducción económica o similar, es muy escasa en la mayoría de las universidades que ofrecen una titulación en traducción e interpretación, lo que conlleva la necesidad de establecer una formación más específica en materias que puedan integrarse en el ámbito del comercio exterior, ya sea desde el punto de vista jurídico, económico, comercial, ya sea desde una perspectiva conjunta.

Asimismo, hemos podido comprobar que las empresas necesitan personal interno que lleve a cabo funciones dentro del ámbito de la internacionalización, tanto en importaciones como en exportaciones. Deben tomar una actitud activa integrando las estrategias de mediación lingüística y cultural en las estrategias globales que rijan sus operaciones internacionales. Para ello, y contando con la preferencia de personal interno frente a los traductores e intérpretes profesionales, tendrán que optar por personal cualificado que tenga habilidades relacionadas, al menos, con el conocimiento de idiomas extranjeros, especialmente inglés, y conocimiento de negociación y de *marketing*.

De esta manera, consideramos que la universidad debería realizar acciones que reduzcan la diferencia entre el mundo académico y el profesional y que los currículos formativos deberían incluir un mayor número de asignaturas opcionales que permitan desarrollar una base de competencias en comercio exterior más adecuada. Debemos ofrecer a nuestros estudiantes la oportunidad de desarrollar aquellas habilidades que sean valoradas por las empresas internacionalizadas y, junto con la labor de concienciación de las empresas exportadoras, permitan un mayor y más adecuado acceso a este campo profesional por parte de nuestros egresados.

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TWO SIDES OF THE COIN: MAPPING TRANSLATORS' COMPETENCE CRITERIA ONTO THE MARKET REQUIREMENTS. THE CASE OF SAUDI ARABIA

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ABSTRACT. This paper will focus on assessing professional translators in the Saudi translation market as part of a larger project that aims to evaluate and develop Saudi university translation programmes. Therefore, a translator competence questionnaire was developed to assess the professional translators in the Saudi market. The questionnaire aimed to offer estimates about the translators' level of proficiency. The design of the questionnaire started with general information about the translators, including qualifications and experience, followed by 43 criteria in which each statement represents a competence. Participants were 73 professional translators from both the private and public sector of the translation market. Translators' responses to the questionnaire revealed that they ranged in terms of their ability to perform professional translation between competent ability, mediocre and sub-competent ability. Although translators who described themselves as competent were higher in number than the other groups, the existence of poor and sub-competent translators in the market needs further investigation. Furthermore, results of this study will also contribute to assessing the translation market organisation.

Keywords: competence, professional translators, translation market.

Introduction

"Any gathering of translators is certain to be a diverse group […] because by necessity translators and interpreters carry a wealth of different 'selves' or 'personalities' around inside them" (Robinson, 2013: 25). These "selves" and "personalities" require a person to have more than just two languages to make them always alert and ready to perform whenever they receive a new translation task. For decades, research in translation studies has focused on the criteria of an adequate translation. For example, in an ideal situation in any translation market, judgments are always made about the target text, stating whether it is a good translation or a bad one. Instead of solely judging the text, we should first reflect on the quality of the person who produced this translation. In other words, the focus should also be on the translators themselves and the skills necessary to produce a good translation.

Research trends in translation studies, such as translation assessment, translation evaluation and translation quality, have attracted many researchers in order to design guidelines and manuals that describe the criteria of a good translation. Regardless of the long procedures that take place to produce the target text, the translation text is what users, employers and researchers see at the end and it is their main concern. Nevertheless, what makes a good translation and what gives a translation text its features, whether good or bad, is the translator's ability. The skills that translators have are what make them able to succeed in producing a proper translation that meets customers' needs. Many researchers and organisations have attempted to set and design models that describe the skills of a good translator, although there is still no clear picture about what skills make a professional translator.

This work is a continuation of an on-going research project that aims to assess the professional translators in the Saudi translation market (Alshaikhi, 2016). In this paper, we continue the survey to explore their level of proficiency. Following the EMT (2011), translation competence model and the OPTIMALE survey (Toudic, 2012), a questionnaire was designed and sent to the Saudi translation market in the form of a self-assessment tool to measure the proficiency level of the professional translators in a number of translation competences. This investigation will help in evaluating the Saudi translation market by assessing the translators, rather than only judging their translation. Moreover, strengths and weaknesses in terms of the translation competences included in the survey will be highlighted which in turn will help employers and authorities in both the labour market and the educational system to enhance and improve the overall quality of the translation market by promoting its strengths and improving its weaknesses.

Background

What does translation competence mean?

Research in translation studies has revealed numerous definitions of the term *translation competence*. Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow (2011) quoted (EN15038 2006: 7) a description of the translation competence as “the ability to translate texts to the required level”. Another description of the translation competence is carried out by a research group named PACTE (Process in the Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation, 2003) who emphasized that translation competence is neither an activity nor language ability. Moreover, the European Master’s in Translation (EMT) network also defined competence as “the combination of aptitudes, knowledge, behaviour and know-how necessary to carry out a given task under given conditions” (EMT 2009: 3). The different and interdependent definitions and explanations of the translation competence led specialists to hold a continuous research and wide discussion of the appropriate and typical translation and translation competence models.

Translation competence models

Since the focus of this paper is on translator competence rather than the translation itself, a brief overview of the available translation competence models will be presented. One of the broad models is introduced by Bell (1991). It labels translation competence as the language knowledge and tries as well to include the communicative abilities of the translator. However, this could be considered as a model emphasising language rather than translation competence. Neubert (1994) focused only on language, subject and transfer abilities. Each of these components should include a description of several skills that construct them. Hurtado (1996) therefore presented more categories such as extra-linguistic component, comprehending and producing the required texts in addition to the professional skills which should be the main component of any translation model. Beeby (2000) and Kautz (2000) added more competence categories and sub-competencies where consumer needs and business management are introduced.

Moreover, PACTE (2003) tried to modify the previous work and create a set of criteria for professional translators. The notion of this model was proposed in 1998 and the main aim of the model was to elaborately explore the term “translation competence” and the procedures of translation competence acquisition. Another aim was to set criteria that distinguish between what is meant by "competence" and its difference from "performance" in terms of the translation process. A third aim of this model aimed to clarify the concepts that have negative impact, not only in terms of understanding and acquiring the translation competences but also on the translation profession in general. One of them is the similarity between the translation competence and the bilingual competence, where the latter is one of the components that is required to master the translation competence. Further explanation of this translation competence model is that it can be referred to as expert knowledge which consists of a number of sub-competencies that require a procedural process in acquiring them. This in turn casts light on the learning processes and strategies that lead to the acquisition of the translation competences.

In their research for more understanding of translation competence, PACTE in 2003 applied some modification to their 1998 model and redefined translation competence as follows:

> Translation competence is the underlying system of knowledge needed to translate. It includes declarative and procedural knowledge, but the procedural knowledge is predominant. It consists of the ability to carry out the transfer process from the comprehension of the source text to the re-expression of the target text, taking into account the purpose of the translation and the characteristics of the target text readers. It is made up of five sub-competencies (bilingual, extra-linguistic, knowledge about translation, instrumental and strategic) and it activates a series of psycho-physiological mechanisms. (PACTE, 2003: 16)

This definition included further explanation of the procedural processes of each sub-competence during learning and applying them.

Finally, the model we adopt in this article is the European Master's in Translation (EMT) model. EMT was founded to enhance the process of translator training in order to prepare highly skilled translators to work in the EU.

In their progression to initiate this project EMT proposed a basic structure of the major competencies for translators to be achieved through master's programmes in translation supervised and assessed by DGT. Firstly, they started by defining the term "competence" as "the combination of aptitudes, knowledge, behaviour and know-how" needed to perform a translation task. However, the question that concerns many researchers is what comes first. In this regard, Kaminskiene and Kavaliauskiene (2012: 140) state

> the acquisition of translation competence is a gradual process that is strongly influenced by the degree of complexity of the texts/ genres the

translator is working with. Therefore, the greater the complexity of the text is, the higher the level of competence required of the translator will be.

The competences proposed by EMT were discussed under the following symbiotic categories: translation service provision, language, intercultural, information mining, thematic and technological.

To the researchers' best knowledge, no similar model based on translation competences exists in the Middle East and in Saudi Arabia in particular. Therefore, this study attempted to use competences from the EMT model and replicate the OPTIMALE survey to measure the professional translators' level of proficiency in the Saudi translation market.

The Study

The survey started by developing a self-assessment questionnaire that targeted the translation market in Saudi Arabia. The questionnaire was developed on the basis of the validated OPTIMALE employer survey provided by Toudic (2012). This project was sponsored by the European Commission and coordinated by EMT. However, modifications were applied to match the Saudi market preferences. The design of the questionnaire started with general and demographic questions of the participants, followed by 43 translation competence rating statements and ended with open-ended questions where translators could add their comments about the questionnaire and the issues they face in the market. The 43 statements were divided into the following categories; language, translation, technological, intercultural, thematic, information mining and project management. Participants were asked to rate their ability in performing the competences included in the questionnaire in a scale from 1 to 5 (i.e. 1 means *competent* and 5 means *sub-competent*) or they can choose if it is a not required competence.

Participants

This questionnaire aims to collect data about the level of proficiency of the professional translators in the Saudi market. In order to reach the objective of the questionnaire, translators were invited to participate from both the private and the public sectors. Fifty translators from the private sector in the market were approached as well as 50 translators from the government ministries and organisations. It was necessary to invite various groups of participants to create reliable and representative data about the translation level of proficiency. The total number of responses was 73, divided into 22 translators from languages and service providers and 51 participants from the private and public companies other than language service providers. It is important to note that there is no valid data about the correct number of professional translators in the Saudi market. Hence, it is assumed that the number of participants represents a larger part of the market.

Procedure

Since there is no valid data base for translators in the Saudi market it was difficult to approach those translators and ensure that the targeted participants are the relevant ones. Therefore, two methods were followed to collect data for this questionnaire. The first one was by approaching translation agencies and government organisations, whether in person or by phone, seeking translators who can participate in this questionnaire. The second one was by targeting translators' groups in social networks (i.e. forums, websites, Twitter and Facebook).

Results and Discussion

The questionnaire started with five general questions including the type of organisation (i.e. Language Service Provider (LSP) or private or public company other than LSP), qualification or degree of education, major of education, length of experience and the language pair used in translation. Results reveal that 30% (n=22) were LSP translators and 70% (n=51) were translators from private and public companies. The majority of those translators 77% (n=56) have a bachelor degree and mainly in languages and translation studies however, 8% (n=6) were specialised in majors other than languages or translation. The majority of participants 69% (n=50) have five years or less of experience in the market. The length of experience for the rest of participants ranged between five and more than 20 years. Participants' responses to the questionnaire statements are reported in the following section.

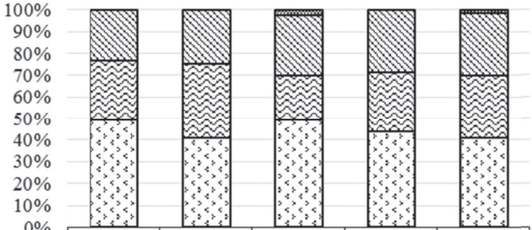
Language Competence

In this category participants were asked to rate their ability in the following competences:

1. Knowledge of the source and target languages.
2. The ability to understand complex topics.

3. The ability to work out the meaning of obscure passages in the source text.
4. The ability to select and combine words in the target language to capture the exact and detailed meanings of the source text.
5. Knowledge of the language industry and professions.

The responses received to each of these five categories are shown in the five columns in figure 1.



	1	2	3	4	5
not required	0	0	2	0	1
sub-competent	17	18	20	21	21
mediocre	20	25	15	20	21
competent	36	30	36	32	30

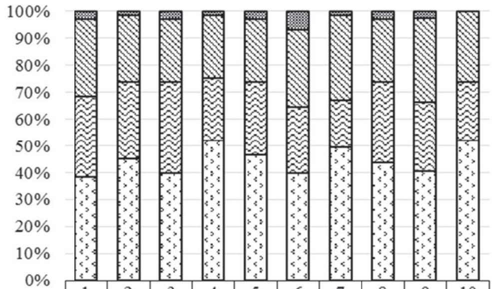
Figure 1 Language Competence

The overall assessment of responses to this category shows that an average of 33 translators labelled themselves as competent in mastering the skills described in the statements of this category. An average of 19 of the participants were ranked as sub-competent based on their responses. Whereas an average of 20 translators described themselves with mediocre abilities, an average of one translator said that skills of this category are not required for his duties. Almost half of them marked competent in terms of their language ability. It is a good indicator of the linguistic quality of those translators. However, the average of 19 sub-competent translators and 20 translators with mediocre abilities may seem surprising and requires further consideration. This means that almost 50% of the sample included in this survey might face difficulties at the language level, which in turn could affect the overall quality of the translation. Being unable to understand the source text and find its appropriate equivalence in the target language is an indicator that the resulting target text will contain inaccuracies. This average number of the sub-competent translators, in terms of the language level in both the SL and TL, is not surprising since various research studies have raised the issue of the language proficiency level of the Saudi universities graduates (Alsaif & Milton, 2012; Masrai & Milton, 2012) and the ability to use them in translation (ElShafei, 2014). However, this study empirically highlights its impact on the translation profession.

Translation Competence

The competences included in this category were as follows:

1. Ability to produce 100% quality.
2. Ability to produce idiomatic (natural-sounding) language in the target text.
3. Ability to produce translations that flow smoothly even when the source text does not.
4. Ability to proof-read in the translator's second language.
5. Ability to justify translation decisions and explain translation problems posed by the source text (e.g., users or revisers).
6. Ability to use translation memory systems.
7. Ability to recast sentences in the target language (to say the same thing in different ways).
8. Ability to produce an elegantly written target text regardless of how elegantly written the source text is.
9. Ability to extract and manage terminology.
10. Ability to convey the intended effect of the source text



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
not required	2	1	2	1	2	5	1	2	2	0
sub-competent	21	18	17	17	17	21	23	17	23	19
mediocre	22	21	25	17	20	18	13	22	19	16
competent	28	33	29	38	34	29	36	32	30	38

Figure 2 Translation Competence

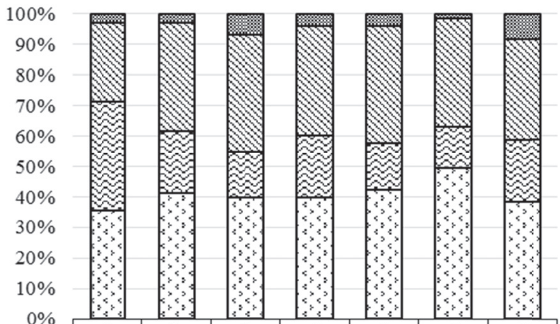
The overall assessment of responses to this category shows that an average of 33 translators labelled themselves as competent in mastering the skills described in the statements of this category. Nonetheless, an average of 19 participants was ranked incompetent based on their responses. Whereas the poor ability grade was chosen by an average of 18 translators, an average of two translators said that skills of this category are not required for their work duties. These figures clearly represent the status of the Saudi translation market described by Fatani (2009). Fatani has stated that translation employers are complaining about the translators' proficiency level which forces them to assign an expert for every group of translators for quality assurance purposes. Having less than 50% of the participants as competent and nearly over 50% of the lower level of proficiency crucially affects the quality of the translation product in the Saudi translation market. These results support the claims of the translation employers in the Saudi market that their major challenge is to overcome the inaccurate and low quality translation that may result in numerous customers' complaints (Fatani, 2009 and Alshaikhi, forthcoming).

Technological competence

The ability to use technology in translation was described in the following competences:

1. Ability to type accurately and fast.
2. Ability to process files in and convert files to different formats.
3. Ability to use translation memory software.
4. Ability to make effective use of electronic terminology tools.
5. Ability to work with more than basic Word functions.
6. Ability to understand mobile technologies.
7. Ability to parameter machine translation systems.

The overall assessment of responses to this category shows that an average of 30 translators labelled themselves as competent in mastering the skills described in the statements of this category. An average of 25 of the participants was ranked as sub-competent based on their responses. Translators who have labelled their ability as in between were an average of 15 translators. An average of 3 translators said that skills of this category are not required as part of their work duties. Since technology became one of the main parts of the translation profession matrix in the last two decades, being a competent translator requires a high level of proficiency in accessing and effectively interacting with one or more of the translation related software. As measured, the responses curve slightly down in terms of the competent translators which reflect the inconsistent integration of technology in the Saudi translation market. However, there is no translation process that does not at a certain stage include technological processes. Having this in mind, the number of those who have low abilities in terms of the technological competences will definitely lead to raise the concerns about the quality of the translation product in the translation market in Saudi Arabia.



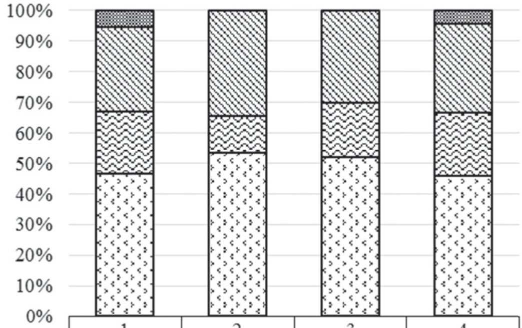
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not required	2	2	5	3	3	1	6
sub-competent	19	26	28	26	28	26	24
mediocre	26	15	11	15	11	10	15
competent	26	30	29	29	31	36	28

Figure 3 Technological Competence

Intercultural Competence

The cultural component in translation was embodied in the following criteria:

1. Knowledge of the source-language culture(s).
2. Knowledge about the different cultural concepts between the SL and TL.
3. Ability to recognise the cultural components in the source and target languages.
4. Knowledge about the intralingua cultural differences.



	1	2	3	4
not required	4	0	0	3
sub-competent	20	25	22	21
mediocre	15	9	13	15
competent	34	39	38	33

Figure 4 Intercultural Competence

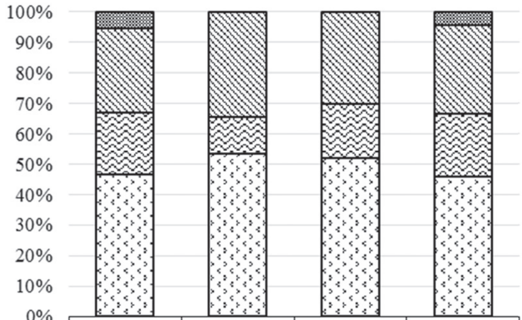
The overall assessment of responses to this category show that an average of 36 translators labelled themselves as competent in mastering the skills described in the statements of this category. An average of 22 of the participants was ranked as sub-competent based on their responses. The poor ability grade was chosen by an average of 13 translators and an average of two translators said that skills of this category are not required as part of their work duties.

To translate appropriately, translators should be aware of the various cultural components of the source language particularly those that could mislead the translator and result in faulty translation (Sheikh, 2014). This could with no doubt contribute to enhancing the translation quality and ensure delivering the source text message. Focusing on the English and Arabic languages which are the most common language pair used in the Saudi translation market, and bearing in mind the different cultures that they are attached to, such as the British, American, Australian, etc., cultures in English and the various different cultures in the Arabic language lead to value the intercultural competences as an important part of the translation profession. The impact of the so-called dialects made it crucial for translators to acknowledge the different cultural components in the language pair they use in translation as well as the intercultural difference in each of the used language pairs. Therefore, the average number of the sub-competent and mediocre translators represents a risk to the overall quality of the translation product.

Thematic Competence

Criteria of the thematic competences included in this category were:

1. Knowledge of the different varieties of the source language.
2. Knowledge of the subject.
3. Ability to track down sources to obtain a better grasp of the thematic aspects of a text.



	1	2	3	4
not required	4	0	0	3
sub-competent	20	25	22	21
mediocre	15	9	13	15
competent	34	39	38	33

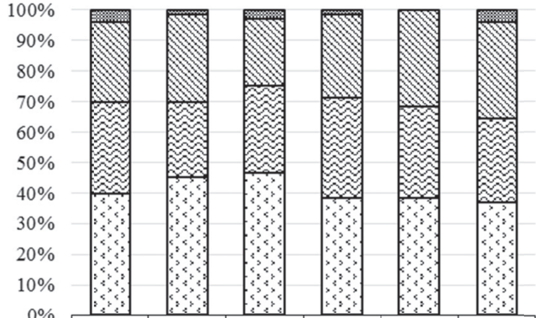
Figure 5 Thematic Competence

The overall assessment of responses to this category show that an average of 35 translators labelled themselves competent in mastering the skills described in this category. However, an average of 18 participants were sub-competent based on their responses. Whereas the mediocre ability grade was chosen by an average of 17 translators, an average of 3 translators said that skills of this category are not required as part of their work duties. However, employers on the other hand, have emphasised the need for translators who have excellent knowledge of the different subjects that they receive in the market (Fatani, 2009). Moreover, Sheikh (2014: 180) has stated that "novice translators face more challenge because they lack the essential knowledge of the subject matter". Thus, it is great to have a good number of translators who are competent and aware of this competence component, but the average total of the translators who rated themselves as sub-competent and mediocre is still a large number and needs to be minimized.

Information Mining

Information mining was described in 6 competences:

1. Ability to detect inconsistencies, contradictions, nonsense, unintended ambiguities, etc. in the source text.
2. Ability to tailor the language of the target text to readers' needs.
3. Ability to ensure the completeness of the target text.
4. Ability to ensure the coherence of the target text.
5. Ability to achieve appropriate tone and register in target texts.
6. Ability to mine reference material for accepted phrasing and terminology.



	1	2	3	4	5	6
not required	3	1	2	1	0	3
sub-competent	19	21	16	20	23	23
mediocre	22	18	21	24	22	20
competent	29	33	34	28	28	27

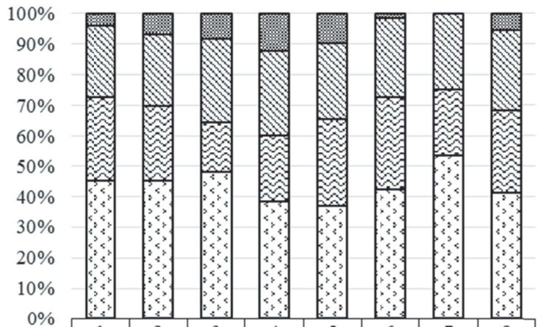
Figure 6 Information Mining

The overall assessment of responses to this category show that an average of 30 translators labelled themselves as competent in mastering the skills of this category. Nonetheless, an average of 20 of the participants was ranked as sub-competent based on their responses. The mediocre ability grade was chosen by an average of 21 translators and an average of 2 translators said that skills of this category are not required as part of their work duties. Information mining represents the quality assurance level of the translation process starting from receiving the translation task ending with delivering the translation version to the user. Therefore, it is important for the translator to be professional in the criteria included in this competence category. However, having almost half of the participants below the competent level should be a cause for concern for translation employers as well as training institutions.

Project Management

Participants had to rate their ability in this category by responding to the following criteria:

1. The ability to identify client requirement.
2. The ability to produce estimates.
3. The ability to define resources required.
4. The ability to lead complex projects.
5. The ability to define and/or apply quality control procedures.
6. The ability to maintain quality when translating under time pressure.
7. Awareness of professional ethics and standards.
8. The ability to negotiate contracts with clients or suppliers.



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
not required	3	5	6	9	7	1	0	4
sub-competent	17	17	20	20	18	19	18	19
mediocre	20	18	12	16	21	22	16	20
competent	33	33	35	28	27	31	39	30

Figure 7 Project Management

The average of responses to this category shows that 32 translators have labelled themselves as competent in mastering the criteria of this category. Nonetheless, an average of 19 of the participants was ranked as sub-competent based on their responses. Whereas the mediocre grade was chosen by an average of 18 translators, an average of 4 translators said that skills of this category are not required as part of their work duties. Project management competences are still perceived by numerous translators around the world as supplementary skills especially for those who work in the government and public sectors. With this in mind, this data can easily be interpreted. Those who work in the private sector, especially in translation agencies, care more about developing their project management skills since it is a major skill, in contrast with translators from the government and public sectors who have large human resource department that deals and manage all the projects including the translation ones. However, the aforementioned level of proficiency in this category has an adverse impact on the size of the translation product in Saudi Arabia.

The data collected from this survey has revealed that although in most of the categories half of the participants described themselves as competent, the remaining group who described themselves below the competent level are questioned. If the Saudi translation market has this number of sub-competent and mediocre translators it is obvious that the translation product will be always be below the users' satisfactory level. Moreover, the existence of sub-competent translators in the market also highlights the needs to revisit the policies of hiring and appraising the professional translators in both the private and government sectors.

Conclusion

To sum up, the general results of this survey have revealed that the majority of the participants consider themselves competent in most of the translation competences included in the questionnaire. However, the other two groups (i.e. those who considered themselves mediocre and sub-competent translators) support the claims to enhance the quality of the translation market represented in the translators' abilities to produce adequate translation. Reading these results raises a number of questions and further suggestions to be applied in order to have a better translation market. The results of this research suggest that the policies stated in Saudi ministerial decree (495, dated 09/10/1401) could be revised and updated to match the current demands of the translation market more closely. Similarly, the translation jobs requirements could also be revised and updated, both in the government and private sectors. It would also be worth updating and revising the appraisal system of these Jobs. Moreover, results also suggest that the criteria described in the questionnaire could become a useful tool in the institutional in the institutional training of the prospective translators as well as on-the-job training of current translators in the Saudi market. To conclude, in order to enhance the current status of the translation profession in Saudi Arabia, policies and regulations of the translation market must be revisited as well as the translator training programmes in most of the Saudi universities.

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L'UTILISATION DU FORUM DE DISCUSSION DANS LA FORMATION DES TRADUCTEURS : UN OUTIL DE PÉDAGOGIE DIALOGIQUE

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ABSTRACT. This paper draws on my experience teaching an online, specialized English-French translation course and particularly on the use of the discussion forum as a training tool focusing on the translation process. Emphasis was placed on training students to develop a methodology based on the selection of reliable sources and the use of non-aligned corpora. More specifically, this chapter assesses the use of the discussion forum as a tool for reflection, self-evaluation and peer learning.

Keywords: translation pedagogy, dialogic pedagogy, discussion forum, translation process, human resources.

RESUME. Cette réflexion repose sur une expérience d'enseignement en ligne et plus particulièrement sur l'utilisation du forum de discussion comme outil de formation au processus de traduction. L'accent était mis sur l'acquisition d'une méthodologie reposant sur la sélection de sources fiables et la consultation de textes non alignés. Ce chapitre porte plus particulièrement sur l'utilisation du forum de discussion comme outil de réflexion, d'auto-évaluation et d'apprentissage par les pairs.

Mots-clés : pédagogie de la traduction, pédagogie dialogique, forum de discussion, processus de traduction, ressources humaines

Préambule : présentation du contexte

Le présent chapitre vise à présenter l'intérêt particulier de l'utilisation du forum de discussion en ligne comme outil pédagogique dans la formation des traducteurs. La réflexion porte sur la formation au processus de traduction et sur l'acquisition d'outils méthodologiques propres à la traduction spécialisée et non sur l'évaluation de la traduction comme produit. En effet, ainsi que l'ont souligné Galán-Mañas et Hurtado Albir (2015), les tendances actuelles en matière de pédagogie de la traduction mettent davantage l'accent sur les compétences traductives que sur le produit fini. Les auteures insistent d'ailleurs sur l'intérêt tout particulier que revêt l'observation du processus de traduction :

> Assessment in translation teaching should not consist solely of appraising a translation, but rather of performing a variety of tasks to assess the process and not just its end product. (Galán-Mañas et Hurtado Albir, 2015: 63)

À partir d'une étude de terrain, et plus particulièrement d'une expérience d'enseignement, je présenterai tout d'abord le contexte de cette réflexion et le format du cours examiné en soulignant l'importance du profil des apprenants, puis la notion de pédagogie dialogique et ses applications dans ce cadre particulier, avant de passer aux illustrations et à la discussion.

Le format du cours qui sert de base à cette réflexion s'inscrivait dans le cadre du certificat en traduction[1] dispensé par l'école de formation continue de New York University (NYU School of Continuing and Professional Studies). Le certificat comportait six cours de traduction, dont quatre cours spécialisés. Le cours dont il est ici question était consacré à la traduction de l'anglais vers le français de documents représentatifs du domaine des ressources humaines : recrutement, programmes d'accueil et d'intégration, avantages sociaux, prévention du harcèlement, formation ou encore évaluation des résultats. Certains de ces textes étaient de nature juridique ou financière et donc plus complexe que les autres, notamment ceux ayant trait aux régimes d'assurance privée ou aux régimes de retraite, et demandaient un travail de documentation particulièrement ardu. L'accent était mis sur le processus de traduction et l'apprentissage d'une méthodologie, autrement dit sur la dimension formative, plutôt que sur le produit fini. Les objectifs pédagogiques insistaient notamment sur la recherche documentaire, l'acquisition de notions et termes spécialisés, ou encore le repérage de difficultés de traduction et leur catégorisation. Les études empiriques en didactique de la traduction font en effet valoir que les traducteurs les plus expérimentés se réfèrent plus fréquemment à des connaissances encyclopédiques (Tirkkonen-Condit, 1989) et consultent une plus grande variété de sources (Jääskeläinen, 1999 ; Künzli, 2001). Par ailleurs, les compétences en matière de recherche documentaire sont essentielles en traduction spécialisée ; c'est pourquoi la sélection et l'évaluation des sources faisaient partie intégrante de la méthodologie

[1] Les cours sont maintenant offerts individuellement pour offrir davantage de souplesse au public visé.

prescrite et devaient être rigoureusement documentées dans le forum de discussion.

L'une des particularités des cours du certificat tenait à leur format condensé, puisqu'au lieu des quatorze ou quinze semaines traditionnellement dévolues aux cours universitaires en Amérique du Nord, ils étaient concentrés sur dix semaines seulement. Ce format particulièrement dense, associé à la nature asynchrone du cours–signifiant une absence de recours aux vidéoconférences et aux salons de clavardage qui auraient permis une interaction en temps réel entre les membres du groupe–constituaient des données avec lesquelles il fallait composer. L'absence d'interaction en temps réel a donc nécessité le recours au forum de discussion comme plateforme d'échange entre les étudiants[2] et l'enseignante.

Il est nécessaire d'insister sur le profil des apprenants suivant un cours asynchrone en ligne. En effet, ce format bien particulier demande un degré d'autonomie élevé, une forte dose de motivation et une parfaite organisation dans le temps de manière à respecter des échéances strictes et serrées. Ces conditions correspondent d'ailleurs à bien des égards à celles qui régissent la profession des traducteurs indépendants et leur valeur didactique doit être soulignée au passage. En ce qui concerne le parcours individuel des étudiants, on doit signaler leur hétérogénéité : certaines personnes avaient déjà fait carrière dans un autre domaine (ingénierie, médecine, enseignement) et étaient titulaires d'un doctorat ; d'autres étaient des traducteurs ou traductrices en début de carrière. Au-delà des variations observées dans le profil des étudiants, il est important de souligner que tous les apprenants étaient des adultes avec charge de famille, dotés d'un haut degré de maturité et animés d'une très forte motivation. Ces remarques, qui peuvent sembler a priori triviales, sont néanmoins loin d'être négligeables, car les notions de motivation et de maturité qui y sont rattachées sont essentielles à l'optimisation du forum de discussion comme outil pédagogique, étant donné les contraintes régissant son utilisation, comme le montre le paragraphe suivant.

Chacun des dix modules du cours suivait la même structure : le thème hebdomadaire était présenté de manière à favoriser l'acquisition de connaissances encyclopédiques spécialisées en anglais et en français. Après avoir lu la sélection de textes parallèles non alignés et consulté les textes de référence suggérés pour la semaine,[3] les étudiants traduisaient un texte de 600 à 800 mots représentatif du thème en question. Une fois la

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[2] Le masculin est utilisé ici dans sa valeur générique. La forme féminine sera utilisée pour faire référence à des groupes constitués à 100 % d'étudiantes.

[3] Les dictionnaires et ouvrages de référence sont indiqués dans la bibliographie (Armstrong & Mitchell ; James & Tirard ; Peretti ; Sekiou *et al.*)

traduction remise, les étudiants devaient immédiatement alimenter le forum en indiquant les lectures supplémentaires réalisées à des fins documentaires, en précisant les ressources terminologiques utilisées, en commentant les points difficiles soit d'ordre conceptuel ou référentiel soit d'ordre terminologique et en indiquant la manière dont ils avaient résolu les problèmes en question. Afin d'éviter que la discussion soit biaisée par la tentation de modifier la traduction en cours–autrement dit par la motivation d'obtenir une note plus élevée–le forum de discussion n'était ouvert qu'à partir du moment où toutes les traductions avaient été remises, sans possibilité de modifier la version rendue. Le forum n'était ouvert que pendant 3 jours et les étudiants devaient, pour obtenir la note maximale de participation, répondre à chacun de leurs collègues. Ce minutage serré demandait par conséquent une organisation et une collaboration parfaites de la part de chacun des membres du groupe.

Étude de terrain : le forum de discussion comme outil de pédagogie dialogique

De nombreuses études empiriques ont été réalisées dans le domaine de la didactique de la traduction et Kim en livre un rapport détaillé (2013 : 18-91). En 1984, Gile avait notamment souligné le côté dynamique, toujours en mouvement, de cette didactique et avait précisé que le travail sur :

> le terrain reste très dynamique ; l'expérimentation se poursuit sans arrêt, de nouveaux outils sont créés, fondés sur les observations des enseignements et sur les commentaires des étudiants (p. 6)

Les travaux empiriques récents font appel à de nouvelles techniques permettant d'observer le processus des apprenants, telles que le protocole de verbalisation à voix haute (Think Aloud Protocols ou TAP dans Tirkkonen-Condit, 1989 et 1997), l'enregistreur de frappe ou bien l'enregistrement de l'écran (Kim, 2013 : 12). Je propose pour ma part de considérer le forum de discussion tel qu'il a été mis en œuvre dans le contexte de ce cours, c'est-à-dire intervenant dans la phase post-traductive, comme un miroir de réflexion des étudiants sur leur propre processus de traduction. En effet, la fonction de ce forum n'est pas étrangère au protocole de verbalisation à voix haute, en ce sens où les étudiants étaient invités à revenir sur leur processus et leur méthodologie individuels. Ils devaient en effet documenter leur cheminement en matière d'acquisition de connaissances encyclopédiques et évaluer l'autorité des sources consultées, revenir sur la logique poursuivie lors de choix opérés dans les passages difficiles tout en sollicitant les commentaires de leurs collègues.

Ce travail de « mise à nu » et de sollicitation de retours argumentés revêt une forte valeur pédagogique dans la mesure où il permet aux étudiants d'apprendre autant du processus de verbalisation écrite que du dialogue avec leurs pairs et, ponctuellement, avec leur enseignante. Washbourne souligne les deux facettes du dialogisme, interne et externe, dans la dynamique des interactions entre enseignant et apprenants en cours de traduction :

> Indeed, the dialogical has been framed as 'adressivity' and 'responsivity' both to the external (others) and to the internal, the one's own inner dialogue (Wahsbourne, 2014 : 244, d'après Matusov, 2009 : 132)

Les exemples présentés ci-dessous illustrent ces deux affirmations. Les interactions les plus riches ont été celles du groupe d'étudiantes[4] ayant suivi le cours au printemps 2015. Leur dynamique de groupe ayant été particulièrement remarquable, les exemples suivants ont par conséquent été extraits de leur forum de discussion.

Illustrations

Les extraits présentés ci-dessous illustrent à la fois le type de difficultés abordées par les étudiantes, leur démarche en matière de documentation et de prise de décision, leurs interactions, ainsi que quelques interventions ponctuelles de l'enseignante.

Traduire des acronymes

> Nathalie
> Bonjour à toutes !
> Cette semaine encore, j'ai trouvé que le thème choisi par [l'enseignante] était très intéressant ! Les entreprises qui investissent dans l'accueil de leurs employés pour qu'ils soient rapidement opérationnels et éviter un taux de renouvellement du personnel trop important me semble être un choix judicieux. Pour avoir vécu les deux situations : d'un côté, pas d'accueil du tout et un apprentissage sur le tas, et de l'autre, un processus d'intégration qui a duré 3 mois dans une très grande entreprise, la deuxième option a été pour moi, sans nul doute, la plus confortable ! […]
> Concernant la traduction de cette semaine, à tort ou à raison, j'ai conservé les acronymes dans leur version originale en ajoutant une explication en français. En effet, je suis partie du principe que tous les employés connaissaient les mêmes acronymes, langage commun à l'entreprise. Pour

[4] Je tiens à remercier ici chacune d'entre elles.

tous ces acronymes, j'ai ajouté la signification en anglais à l'issue de ma traduction.
Pour FERPA, j'ai indiqué : *Loi américaine sur les droits à l'instruction et la protection de la vie privée des familles.* J'ai trouvé cette traduction sur plusieurs sites, et notamment celui-ci, qui m'a semblé être une bonne référence en la matière :
http://dcps.dc.gov/DCPS/Files/downloads/Learn-About-Schools/Enrollment/French/DCPS-Enrollment-FERPA.pdf
Myriam
En ce qui concerne la traduction de FERPA, j'ai d'abord recherché la signification de cette loi, très bien décrite sur le site du Ministère de l'éducation
(http://www2.ed.gov/policy/gen/guid/fpco/ferpa/index.html)
Plusieurs sites proposent des traductions similaires de FERPA en français, en expliquant la signification de la loi et en laissant le terme en anglais, avec son acronyme (site mentionné par Nathalie).
J'ai choisi de traduire de la même façon (traduction en français suivie de l'acronyme anglais et de sa signification, avec la signification en italique) étant donné que le texte s'adresse à un nouvel employé francophone venant travailler dans une université américaine, qui devra donc connaître les acronymes couramment utilisés dans l'université.
Céline
Pour la traduction de FERPA, j'ai consulté le site de l'université, les sites légaux américains du type US Department of Education, puis l'équivalent de cette loi sur le site de la CNIL, les sites d'universités françaises ainsi que lu des articles de journaux sur le thème du piratage de données personnelles des étudiants.
http://www2.ed.gov/policy/gen/guid/fpco/ferpa/index.html
http://www.cnil.fr/documentation/textes-fondateurs/loi78-17/
http://etudiant.lefigaro.fr/international/actu/detail/article/ce-service-universitaire-qui-revend-les-donnees-personnelles-des-etudiants-anglais-4618/
http://www.cnil.fr/fileadmin/documents/Guides_pratiques/Guide_AMUE_2011.pdf
2/ J'ai remplacé NEO par JAO (Journée d'accueil et d'orientation) mais à la lecture de vos commentaires je me rends compte que j'aurais dû le conserver par souci de lisibilité et de vocables communs et j'ai traduits EAA et ETL par des expressions utilisées dans un contexte français en parcourant des sites sur la sécurité des bâtiments type ERP.
http://www.dr1.cnrs.fr/docs_pdf/ps/supports/securite_incendie_2.pdf
http://www.officiel-prevention.com/incendie/evacuation-des-personnes/detail_dossier_CHSCT.php?rub=106&ssrub=114&dossid=204
3/ J'ai traduit "Checklist" par "liste de suivi", expression trouvée dans le texte à lire sur le sujet de la leçon en français et "customer service" par "service client".
Enseignante

Un bon point pour Céline : trouver du vocabulaire en contexte dans un texte unilingue (liste de suivi). J'ai par contre une question malicieuse : sites légaux américains ou bien sites juridiques ? Si ce sont des sites juridiques, j'espère qu'ils sont effectivement légaux... ;-)

Traduire "An inclusive organization" dans une fiche de poste

Myriam
J'ai lu quelques articles sur les notions d'inclusion et de diversité, et j'ai finalement opté pour « intégration » car il me semble que l'inclusion est encore un concept nouveau en France dans le domaine de l'entreprise (voir l'article sur « Les échos »), même si certaines entreprises ont déjà mis en place des programmes d'inclusion sociale. Dans la réalité, je pense qu'il faudrait voir avec le client si l'entreprise en question a effectué des démarches dans le pays « cible » pour sensibiliser le personnel à la notion d'inclusion, et décider ensuite quel terme adopter.
http://www.focusrh.com/strategie-ressources-humaines/diversite-emploi/a-la-une/repenser-la-diversite-en-entreprise.html
http://business.lesechos.fr/directions-ressources-humaines/l-inclusion-pour-donner-toute-sa-mesure-a-la-notion-de-diversite-en-entreprise-58362.php
Laurence
Merci Myriam pour ces articles. J'ai traduit "diverse and inclusive" par "diversifié et ouvert"...J'ai trouvé "travailler dans un environnement multiculturel" dans certaines offres d'emploi et je me suis demandé si ça ne s'appliquait pas justement à ce terme d'""inclusive".
Une fois de plus, sans le contexte, c'est toujours plus difficile de se décider. J'ai le sentiment quand même à la lumière des articles que le terme "inclusive" regroupe plus de notions que celui de multiculturel, plus proche peut-être d'"ouvert", car il comporte une idée d'accueil, d'acceptation de l'autre dans ses différences quelles qu'elles soient (et pas seulement culturelles, puisqu'on mentionne aussi les handicaps par exemple)... Pas évident à traduire ! Ou alors faudrait-il adopter une tournure de phrase, du type : "ouvert à l'autre et à tous types de différences" ???
Enseignante
Merci à toutes pour votre participation, je me régale de lire vos questions et de découvrir les textes consultés. L'article des Échos proposé par Myriam, je crois, était une excellente piste. Il fait mention d'une certaine Charte qui devrait éveiller votre curiosité. Voici de quoi il s'agit : http://www.charte-diversite.com/
Si vous aviez toutes opté pour une traduction s'adressant à un public français, il est important, effectivement, de se documenter sur les mesures mises en place dans l'espace géographique en question. L'idée de lire un maximum de textes unilingues traitant du sujet est excellente (y compris des textes officiels).

Acquérir des notions spécialisées : les systèmes de retraites en Amérique du Nord

Louisa
Bonsoir à toutes,
Merci pour tous les liens que vous avez partagé. Merci Laurence pour ton schéma explicatif, très clair.
Les cotisations de retraite sont pour moi aussi un sujet que j'ai découvert cette semaine. Comme vous, j'ai aussi lu et parfois relu plusieurs articles, sites Internet des banques françaises pour comprendre le fonctionnement des régimes de retraite. En voici un exemple :
http://www.epargne-retraite-entreprises.bnpparibas.com/jahia/Jahia/site/bnp_ere_v2/dispositifs_d_epargne_et_de_retraite/decouvrir_les_dispositifs/le_contrat_de_retraite_a_cotisations_definies_article_83
[…] Je me suis également bien creusée la tête pour traduire certaines expressions.
Cutoff time for payroll : j'ai traduit par avant la date limite du calcul de la paie.
Pension accruals : j'ai traduit par *revalorisation des pensions* mais je n'en suis pas très satisfaite. Dans le terme Accrual, il y a la notion d'accumulation que je n'ai pas fait apparaitre dans ma traduction. Je préfère ta traduction, Nathalie : *acquisition des droits à la retraite*.
Eligible contributions : j'ai traduit par *assiette.* Voici la définition que j'ai trouvée dans le lexique sur les RH, sur le lien suivant :
http://www.capital.fr/retraite/lexique/(offset)/5
"Assiette : Ensemble des éléments servant de base au calcul des cotisations. L'assiette des cotisations est généralement constituée par une partie, ou l'ensemble, du salaire ou des revenus professionnels".
Comme Myriam, je n'ai pas traduit *Pension Equity Plan,* j'ai mis une explication en pied de page (type de Plan à prestations définies dont la retraite est calculée à partir du dernier salaire).
Caroline
Bonjour à toutes,
Ce document était effectivement très technique et d'autant plus difficile à traduire que le système de retraites aux US n'est pas du tout le même qu'en France. Et le dernier paragraphe est tout un poème ! J'ai mis beaucoup de temps à démarrer la traduction, car il m'a fallu bien plus défricher le terrain que les fois précédentes.
Pour mes recherches, j'ai utilisé certains documents déjà mentionnés, ainsi que ceux-ci :
http://www.servicecanada.gc.ca/fra/ae/guide/5_13_0.shtml[…]
http://www.iris-recherche.qc.ca/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/Retraites-web1.pdf
Quant à mes traductions, voici ce que j'ai mis :

Savings plan : j'ai traduit par *régime d'épargne-retraite*, car il me semble qu'il s'agit ici de toutes les possibilités qu'offre la société pour la retraite de ses salariés.
Cutoff time for payroll : je m'en suis sortie par une pirouette, j'ai mis *dans les délais* !
Pension accruals : *montants accumulés au titre de la pension*. Il s'agit des cotisations patronales + salariales cumulées sur le compte épargne-retraite du salarié.
Eligible compensation : j'ai mis *rémunération éligible à l'assiette des cotisations*, puis *rémunération éligible*. J'ai pensé comme Louisa mettre assiette tout court, mais je me suis dit que ça pourrait être abusif : l'assiette se compose du revenu plafonné ou non + d'autres éléments éventuellement ().http://www.agirc-arrco.fr/particuliers/cotiser-pour-la-retraite/calcul-des-cotisations/ Comme nous n'avions pas d'informations sur ces éventuels autres éléments, j'ai préféré jouer la sécurité.
En matière de définition, j'ai trouvé comme Myriam : c'est le revenu entrant dans la base de calcul des cotisations, plafonné à hauteur de… (on ne sait pas).
Matched contributions : *cotisations à parts égales*, puisqu'à chaque cotisation salariale correspond une cotisation patronale d'un montant équivalent.
Frozen pension accruals : montants accumulés au titre de la pension ont été immobilisés…
D'après ce que j'ai compris (j'espère du coup ne pas m'être trompée…), ces régimes d'épargne retraite offrent plusieurs possibilités, une fois les droits acquis (l'histoire du *vesting*) :
soit les sommes accumulées grâce aux cotisations peuvent être restituées au salarié, notamment lorsqu'il quitte son employeur avant d'avoir atteint l'âge de la retraite ou veut changer de régime (un peu comme un contrat d'assurance-vie) ;
soit elles sont immobilisées et, à ce moment là, elles ne peuvent être reversées au salarié qu'au moment de sa retraite sous forme de rente (comme un régime de retraite normal).
C'est bien expliqué dans le document de Service Canada, au point 5.13.1.2 Structure des régimes de pension. Je pense que les salariés aux *frozen pension accruals* sont ceux entrant dans ce dernier cas.
En tout cas, je ne suis pas fâchée d'en être sortie !

Discussion

Les remarques qui émaillent les extraits ci-dessus illustrent bien le caractère introspectif de l'exercice : « d'après ce que j'ai compris », « j'ai préféré jouer la sécurité », « j'ai mis beaucoup de temps à démarrer la traduction », « il m'a fallu beaucoup de temps pour défricher le terrain », « j'ai le sentiment quand même à la lumière des articles », « je me suis également bien creusée la tête pour traduire certaines expressions », « j'ai finalement opté pour […] car il me semble que le concept […] est encore nouveau », « en effet, je suis partie du principe que », « j'ai choisi de traduire le texte de la même façon […] étant donné que le texte s'adresse à […] ». Ces réflexions se rapprochent d'un travail de verbalisation à voix haute, tout en étant moins spontanées et plus structurées puisque les étudiantes devaient documenter leur démarche de manière suffisamment cohérente pour pouvoir échanger avec leurs pairs. Par ailleurs, ce travail d'introspection et, parfois, d'autoévaluation (« j'ai traduit par [...], mais je n'en suis pas satisfaite » ; « j'espère du coup ne pas m'être trompée ») se doublait d'un véritable dialogue avec les pairs (« Ou alors faudrait-il adopter une tournure de phrase, du type : ‘‘ouvert à l'autre et à tous types de différences'' ??? » ; « Dans le terme Accrual, il y a la notion d'accumulation que je n'ai pas fait apparaitre dans ma traduction. Je préfère ta traduction, Nathalie : *acquisition des droits à la retraite* »), leur permettant non seulement de prendre connaissance du résultat final de leurs pairs (choix de traduction), mais aussi et surtout de l'ensemble de la démarche de documentation et du raisonnement d'autrui.

La mise en commun d'extraits traduits sur le forum permet d'illustrer la relativité et subjectivité de la compréhension (Gile, 2009 : 100) de manière particulièrement efficace. Par ailleurs, la documentation de la démarche adoptée par chacune des participantes, tant au niveau du lexique, de la phraséologie ou encore de notions spécialisées, permet à chacune d'internaliser le cheminement d'autrui et de reproduire certaines stratégies dans une traduction ultérieure. Au fil des semaines, j'ai pu effectivement constater chez certaines participantes la mise en œuvre de raisonnements et méthodes de documentation exposées précédemment par d'autres sur le forum. Ce constat renforce le postulat défendu dans ce chapitre, selon lequel l'acquisition du processus de traduction est grandement facilité lorsque les étudiant.e.s forment une communauté permettant la confrontation de leur propre démarche à celle d'autrui, et ce dans une atmosphère exempte de toute notion de compétition. Cette communauté gagne d'ailleurs à être pleinement envisagée comme un écosystème tel que décrit par Echeverri (2005). J'avance en outre que le forum de discussion en ligne tel que mis en œuvre dans le cadre de ce cours permet une meilleure acquisition du processus de traduction qu'un cours en présentiel, même de type atelier de traduction. Je reviendrai sur cette remarque à la fin de ce chapitre.

Il n'est pas inutile d'interroger le rôle de l'enseignante dans cet espace de discussion privilégiant l'introspection et les interactions entre apprenantes. Outre sa mission d'observatrice active, puisque sa tâche première est de prendre connaissance de l'ensemble des billets et de vérifier la validité des ressources documentaires citées par les apprenantes, elle est parfois amenée à intervenir ponctuellement, quoique discrètement, notamment lorsque le groupe suit une fausse piste collective, où qu'une personne sollicite directement son opinion. Il peut aussi arriver que l'enseignante soit appelée à guider une personne manquant de rigueur dans son raisonnement ou à inciter une autre à participer de manière plus active. Par ailleurs, il est essentiel d'intervenir régulièrement à des fins de renforcement positif et donc de saluer les efforts fournis, les bonnes trouvailles, ou encore la pertinence d'un échange qui aura permis à l'ensemble du groupe de progresser.

Il est important de signaler que l'évaluation des traductions individuelles se faisait parallèlement au déroulement du forum. Par ailleurs, peu après la clôture du forum, les étudiantes recevaient un récapitulatif des principales difficultés rencontrées dans la traduction de la semaine, récapitulatif alimenté non seulement par les commentaires apportés dans les traductions individuelles, mais aussi par les points saillants des échanges du forum. Ces commentaires collectifs permettaient ainsi d'apporter des « réponses » aux questions restées en suspens dans le forum, de manière à ne pas transformer ce dernier en espace d'intervention intempestive et systématique de l'enseignante, et à maintenir une atmosphère conviviale propice aux échanges entre étudiants (voir la notion d'écosystème ci-dessus).

C'est à ce titre que le forum de discussion mérite le qualificatif d'outil pédagogique dialogique, où dialogique est compris ici au sens de dialogue se déroulant essentiellement entre apprenants et où l'enseignante joue davantage un rôle d'observatrice et de guide, puisqu'elle dispose de deux autres outils pour offrir retours individuels et collectifs. Par ailleurs, on doit mentionner un intérêt supplémentaire lié au format du forum puisque les étudiants sauvegardent leurs échanges de manière à pouvoir s'y référer ultérieurement, ce que n'offrent pas, par exemple, les discussions menées en classe. Utilisé dans les conditions présentées dans ce chapitre, le forum de discussion présente un intérêt pédagogique manifeste dans l'enseignement de la traduction spécialisée et s'inscrit bien dans le mouvement socioconstructiviste privilégié en Amérique du Nord, qui met l'accent sur l'apprenant et sur le dialogue.

De futures pistes de recherche en matière de didactique de la traduction pourraient comprendre la mise en œuvre, dans un cours présentiel, de certains outils de nature collaborative ou participative, notamment le forum de discussion, jusqu'à présent essentiellement mis en œuvre dans l'enseignement en ligne.

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Use of Comparable Corpora in Specialized Translation

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Abstract. Although corpus linguistics has developed only since the second half of the 20th century, corpora, understood simply as large collections of written or spoken texts, have long had a place in translation and translation studies. Printed texts were used by translators as background documentation well before the advent of electronic corpora. Of course, computers gave new meaning to the word "large" in the definition of corpus and allowed the texts to be mined more efficiently for information. And the translation world has espoused the use of corpora in the modern sense of the word since the 1990s, when Mona Baker introduced this concept in her seminal article "Corpora in Translation Studies. An Overview and Suggestions for Future Research" (1995). However, some types of corpora have been embraced more widely by those in the translation field than others. Thus, parallel corpora have acquired popularity not only among translation researchers and translator trainers, but also among professional translators. However, multilingual comparable corpora seem to have attracted the interest primarily of translation researchers and to some extent of translator trainers, but have had less impact on practising translators. In this article, using a specialised multilingual comparable corpus in the field of oenology, we will demonstrate the usefulness of such tools for the practice of translation.

Keywords: parallel corpus, multilingual comparable corpus, browser, concordance lines, strategies for using multilingual comparable corpora.

Translators and their use of corpora

Translators today are using a number of electronic tools to enhance their performance. Thus it seems natural to assume that they use corpora to help them translate. Certainly, translation teachers and researchers have been promoting corpus use since the late 1990s. In 1998, Bowker demonstrated how corpora can help resolve different kinds of problems according to translators' information needs by comparing translations carried out using conventional resources with others produced with the aid of specialised monolingual native-language corpora and corpus linguistics tools. Since those early days, corpus use has been examined in a number of specific specialized translation fields. For example, in the field of legal translation, Scott (2016) has studied the use of DIY corpora by legal translators, and Monzó-Nebot (2008) has discussed corpus-based activities in legal translator training. Corpas-Pastor and Seghiri (2009) have examined virtual corpora as documentation resources in the tourism field. Corpus use has even been introduced into community interpreter training (Sánchez, 2016).

Despite all this promotion of corpus use in the field of translation, professional translators seem to be somewhat reticent to use corpora in their daily work. This tendency has been noted in several surveys conducted by translation researchers. In the Mellange project survey (2005-2006), 58.2% of 740 respondents indicated that they did not use corpora in their translation practice. Scott's survey (2011), based on the Mellange questionnaire, yielded the figure of 61%. More recently, Gallego-Hernandez (2015) surveyed 526 Spanish translators, almost 50% of whom declared that they almost never or never use corpora as a translation tool. The latter survey seems to indicate some progress in the use of corpora over a decade, however slight it may be.

However, some types of corpora seem to be far more popular than others. Thus, Roberts and Bossé-Andrieu (2006) highlighted translators' new-found enthusiasm for parallel corpora, i.e. translated corpora, But the same cannot be said of multilingual comparable corpora, or comparable corpora of any kind: translators' lack of interest in comparable corpora was clearly revealed in the Mellange project survey, in which only 3.7% of respondents indicated that they used comparable corpora, while 15.9% claimed to use parallel corpora (Bernardini and Ferraresi, 2013). In the Gallego-Hernandez survey, 56% of respondents indicated they used multilingual corpora, but no distinction was made between parallel and comparable corpora. Translators' preference for parallel corpora is certainly understandable, since they provide what might be called "one-stop shopping" for equivalents. However, multilingual comparable corpora can offer language professionals help in many different areas. This is particularly true of specialized multilingual comparable corpora, which can provide the translator with both subject-related knowledge and linguistic knowledge. As Fantinuoli (2016) points out, translators are often laypersons in the subjects they are translating and, even if they are specialized in one or more subjects, they do not generally share the same amount of domain-specific knowledge as experts in that field. This is the reason why they need to acquire both factual information about a specific topic as well as its linguistic realizations in order to reduce the gap between them and the authorship/readership. And comparable corpora provide translators with the means to do so.

In this article, we will describe a specialised multilingual comparable corpus which we compiled in the field of oenology. We will then demonstrate the usefulness of such tools by using this corpus to translate a text in the given field. In the process, we will specify the various types of information that can be drawn from such corpora. We will also outline strategies that will allow translators to rapidly access the type of information they need. In so doing, we add our voices to those of a number of translator trainers who have attempted to demonstrate to translation students and professionals the importance of comparable corpora as translation tools.

Definition and types of comparable corpora

A comparable corpus is a collection of "similar" texts in different languages or different varieties of languages (EAGLES - Expert Advisory Group on Language Engineering Standards 1996). What makes the texts comparable is not the fact that one is the translation of another, but the fact that the texts are selected using the same sampling frame and similar balance and representativeness (McEnery, 2003: 450). In principle, a comparable corpus consists of the same proportions of the texts of the same genres in the same domains in a range of different languages or language varieties in the same sampling period. (Fernandes, 2006)

There are two main types of comparable corpora: monolingual comparable corpora and multilingual comparable corpora.[1] Monolingual comparable corpora contain similar texts in one given language. Multilingual comparable corpora contain similar texts in two or more languages.

Monolingual comparable corpora can be further subdivided into the following categories, according to the types of texts included for purposes of comparison.

- a sub-corpus of translated texts (translational corpus) is paired with a sub-corpus of comparably sampled non-translated texts in the same language. This type of monolingual comparable corpus has

[1] We have used the term "multilingual comparable corpora" since comparable corpora can be in two or more languages. However, they are more often bilingual than multilingual.

been used primarily for translation research, starting with pioneers such as Sara Laviosa.

- a sub-corpus of specialized non-translated texts in one language is paired with a sub-corpus of comparably sampled non-specialized non-translated texts in the same language.[2] This type of monolingual comparable corpus is useful for research into languages for specific purposes.

While a monolingual comparable corpus of any type provides material for linguistic and translation research, a multilingual comparable corpus, which is composed of comparable texts in two or more languages, allows also for cross-linguistic analysis and is therefore more suitable for translation purposes. Multilingual comparable corpora can be subdivided into two main categories on the basis of the type of texts they contain. On the one hand, one can have a general multilingual comparable corpus, containing texts from a variety of fields and representing different text types. Such a multilingual corpus is required, for instance, for the preparation of a general bilingual dictionary. Indeed, the Bilingual Canadian Dictionary Project set up the large English and French corpus TEXTUM (300 million words: 200 million in English and 100 million in French) to serve as a basis for the dictionary. This corpus is a "stable corpus", to use Sánchez-Gijón's term (2002), since it is a large corpus available on the Internet. However, not all translators have access to such corpora in their working languages. And they may not need such a large general corpus because they usually deal with texts in specific fields. For their purposes, the most useful type of multilingual comparable corpus would be field-specific and genre-specific. Such a specialized corpus would not need to be very large (only 50,000-100,000 words per language) as it would be limited and focused in scope. This so-called "ad hoc corpus" would need to be created by the translator himself when faced with the translation of a text in a field for which no stable corpora are available. Good examples of such multilingual comparable corpora are the Wine Tasting Notes corpus and the Scientific Abstracts corpus in English and Spanish, produced by the ACTRES research group based at the University of León. It would be this type of multilingual comparable corpus that would be of most help to translators.

[2] Xiao and Yue do not consider such a corpus comparable, because for them a comparable corpus cannot cover different varieties of the same language. They name corpora covering different language varieties comparative, as opposed to comparable, which involves different languages (Xiao and Yue 2009:241)

Description of a specialized multilingual comparable corpus

We will demonstrate how a multilingual comparable corpus can be useful in the translation of a specialized text through a concrete example. Imagine that you are a translator called upon to translate a tasting note to promote a given vintage. You have access to the ACTRES tasting notes corpus to help you translate. This is a comparable corpus of wine tasting notes in English and Spanish, which was developed in the context of a larger research project, the ACTRES project.[3] This corpus was compiled using pragmatic text selection criteria: the wine tasting notes were chosen to ensure a representative sample of the language of expert members of the discourse community, in this case of expert wine writers. We also considered availability, which refers to the ease with which the texts constituting the corpus could be obtained. The wine tasting notes corpus includes 750 wine tasting notes in Spanish and 716 wine tasting notes in English, which amount to 54,545 and 55,339 words respectively. This corpus began as an ad hoc corpus, but it has since become more of a stable corpus.

An important feature of our corpus is that its rhetorical structure is tagged. We annotated the texts using rhetorical labels that help us set up the semantic units (*moves and steps*, according to Swales 1990, 2004) that constitute wine tasting notes in every language. We were able to identify five different moves in the wine tasting notes with various steps.

Once the English and Spanish texts are tagged with rhetorical labels, using a specially designed tagger, the various moves and steps can be compared and analyzed using a specially created browser, whose search menu includes an option to analyze and contrast rhetorical structures as well as a concordancer. The browser allows the user the possibility of restricting the searches to a given move and or step/substep. See Figure 1 below.

[3] ACTRES, which stands for Análisis Contrastivo y Traducción Especializada/ Contrastive Analysis and Specialized Translation, has developed a vast project designed to create writing generators for specialized genres in English for Spanish speakers.

1) Introductory remarks (IR)
2) Appearance (AP)
    a) Color hue and depth
    b) Clarity
    c) Viscosity
    d) Effervescence
3) Aroma (AR)
    a) Fragance
    b) Intensity
    c) Development
4) Taste (TA)
    a) Flavors
    b) Finish
    c) Astringency
    d) Mouthfeel
    e) Body
    f) Balance
5) Concluding remarks (CR)

Table 2. Rhetorical Structure for Wine Tasting Notes

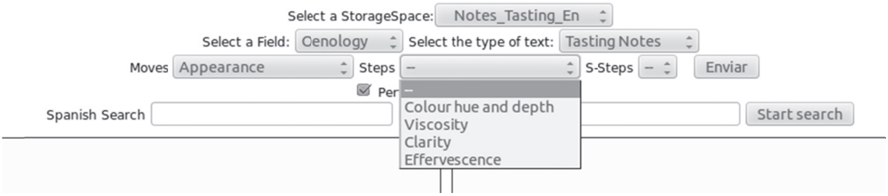

Figure 1. Browser Menu

By launching a query in the browser, the researcher first obtains a list of all the samples in a particular move and step, along with the rhetorical label. See Figure 2 below, which only presents partial results.

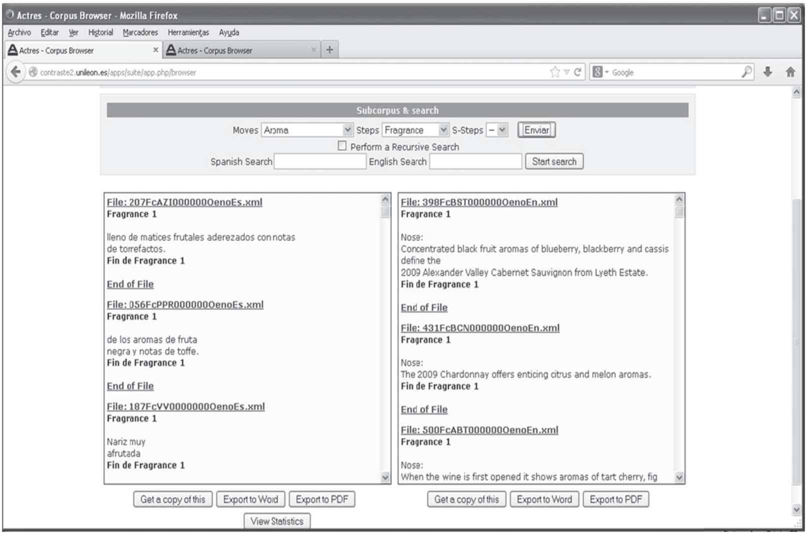

Figure 2. Browser Results

From the browser screen, one can move to concordance lines for any of the results shown therein.

1. 8FcSVE000000OenoEn.xml:... with a clean, pure **AROMA** of tangerine, orange, white flower, yellow plum, lemon drops and lemon grass. ...
2. File 366FcKSN000000OenoEn.xml:... The **AROMA** is filled with dark fruit such as cherries, boysenberries, elk heart plums, currents, pomegranate, cranberries, spice,...
3. File 575FcCWN000000OenoEn.xml:... with a pretty, summer rose garden **AROMA** perfectly accented by a medley of tropical fruit and lychee nuts. ...
4. File 431FcBCN000000OenoEn.xml:... Nose: The 2009 Chardonnay offers enticing citrus and melon **AROMAS**. ...
5. File 500FcABT000000OenoEn.xml:... Nose: When the wine is first opened it shows **AROMAS** of tart cherry, fig and cedar. Once it has had time to breath it demonstrates characters of red currant, blackberry, ea...

Figure 3. Concordance lines

This is the corpus which will be used to illustrate the usefulness of a specialized multilingual comparable corpus in specialized translation.

Use of a specialized mulilingual comparable corpus in specialized translation

Presented below is a short tasting note in Spanish that will be translated into English with the help of the ACTRES tasting notes corpus.

> BRIEGO FIEL 2010
> NOTAS DE CATA
> Excelente color rojo grosella. Limpio y brillante.
> La amalgama de aromas impresiona por su complejidad. Con el paso del tiempo aparecen recuerdos a frutas muy maduras, rojas y negras, frutas escarchadas y confitadas, tonos florales, exquisitas esencias de pasteleria, cueros limpios, tabaco, laurel, hinojos, hojarasca, toffes, cacaos y minerales. La musicalidad en boca, llena de satisfacciones continuas, traslada al consumidor a un mundo de sensaciones agradables. Resulta imprescindible abrir la botella 15-20 minutos antes del consumo.

The process of translation with the support of the corpus will be discussed from two different points of view: first, that of the novice translator (either a student translator or an experienced translator who has never worked on tasting notes); then that of a translator with some experience in the translation of tasting notes.

The Novice Translator

The first aspect that should draw the attention of the novice translator is the nature of the text he has been asked to translate. This short text, which deals with various aspects of a wine, is a tasting note. What is a tasting note? A quick look at a few texts in either language in the corpus provides some answers. Wine tasting notes, a genre used in oenology, are standardized texts, used to record the different organoleptic features or components of a wine. They can have an evaluative as well as a descriptive function. These texts, which vary in length between thirty and a hundred words, include identifying and technical information. The identifying information commonly includes the name of the winery and of the wine, its denomination of origin (if any), the country of origin, type of grape and year of vintage. The technical information is often structured in sections presenting a description of the wine's appearance (color, depth, hue, clarity, viscosity and effervescence), its aromas (fragrance, development and intensity), and its taste and texture (flavors, astringency, body, balance, mouthfeel and finish), and often concludes with general statements on its maturity, value or quality. All this can be deduced from a quick analysis, as shown below, of a few tasting notes in English and in Spanish found in the corpus (Analysis in caps and parentheses).

Sandhill (IDENTIFYING INFORMATION: NAME OF WINERY)
Small Lots three (IDENTIFYING INFORMATION: NAME OF WINE)
2009 (IDENTIFYING INFORMATION: YEAR OF VINTAGE)
Deep ruby red colour (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: APPEARANCE – COLOR & DEPTH) with an interesting bouquet of spiced plum jam, red licorice, smoke and wild red berries. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: AROMA – FRAGRANCE) This dry, medium to full-bodied wine has soft tannins and food-friendly acidity. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE – BODY & ASTRINGENCY) Flavours of cherry, plum and red berry are accented by notes of spice. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE - FLAVORS) Delicate spice notes along with currant and blackberry fruit linger on the finish. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE – FLAVORS & FINISH) Perfect with breaded veal cutlets; Pecorino cheese; steak fajitas; grilled lamb chops; moussaka; wild mushroom risotto; duck ragu with pappardelle pasta. (CONCLUDING REMARKS)

Gallo (IDENTIFYING INFORMATION: NAME OF WINERY)
2004 Sonoma Reserve (IDENTIFYING INFORMATION: YEAR OF VINTAGE AND NAME OF COLLECTION)
Cabernet Sauvignon (IDENTIFYING INFORMATION: NAME OF WINE)
Our Sonoma County Cabernet Sauvignon presents captivating aromas of red currant, raspberry, black cherry and spice. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: AROMA – FRAGRANCE) Rich layers of fresh crushed berries, currant and fine tannins unfold on the palate. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE – FLAVORS & ASTRINGENCY) Medium in body, (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE –BODY) the wine is very approachable now and maintains a balanced mouthfeel. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE – MOUTHFEEL AND BALANCE) The grapes were destemmed but not crushed, leaving whole berries in the fermenter. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: AROMA – DEVELOPMENT) During fermentation, the grapes underwent a 24 hour cold soak. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: AROMA – DEVELOPMENT) This wine completed malolactic fermentation and was partially aged in a combination of French, European and American oak barrels (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: AROMA – DEVELOPMENT) providing an elegant, beautifully balanced wine (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE –BALANCE) with a medium body (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE – BODY) and smooth, lingering finish. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE – FINISH)

Abadía Retuerta (IDENTIFYING INFORMATION: NAME OF WINERY)
Pago Garduña (IDENTIFYING INFORMATION: NAME OF WINE)
2009 (IDENTIFYING INFORMATION: YEAR OF VINTAGE)
Color con especial intensidad, muy saturado recordando las cerezas Picota. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: APPEARANCE – COLOR & DEPTH)
En nariz hay una explosión de fruta roja, muy fresca, toques florales muy característicos de violetas y finas notas de torrefacción y humo, como resultado de un ensamblaje perfecto de la madera. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: AROMA – FRAGRANCE) En boca la entrada es suave y elegante para luego dar paso a una gran carga frutal. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE – MOUTHFEEL & FLAVOR) Increíblemente intenso. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE – BALANCE) Nuevamente destaca la excelente calidad de los taninos, maduros, sedosos y nobles. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE –ASTRINGENCY)

Bodegas Alizán. (IDENTIFYING INFORMATION: NAME OF WINERY)
Chatrian (IDENTIFYING INFORMATION: NAME OF WINERY)
crianza 2010 (IDENTIFYING INFORMATION: YEAR OF VINTAGE)
Fase visual: Limpio e interesante color rojo cereza intenso con ribete granate. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: APPEARANCE – COLOR, CLARITY & DEPTH)
Fase olfativa: Muy sugerente y sutil con un sugerente conjunto aromático bien estructurado y armado, con recuerdos torrefactos de buena madera, de calidad y regaliz. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: AROMA – FRAGRANCE & INTENSITY)
Fase gustativa: Goloso de entrada en boca, con puntas tánicas, elegante y con final redondo. (TECHNICAL INFORMATION: TASTE – MOUTHFEEL, ASTRINGENCY & FINISH)

Our analysis of two English and two Spanish tasting notes reveals that all briefing notes contain identification information and technical information, although the details of each may vary.

Next, proceeding to the text to be translated, the novice translator is faced with a number of questions. First, as regards the content, this short text of 83 words seems to jump from one theme to another, from one move to another: from the wine's appearance to its aromas and its taste, and finally to a recommendation for consumption. Is this typical of the tasting note in Spanish and in English? Again, a quick use of the browser and a glance at a few briefing notes (see above) show that each theme or move is only briefly treated in tasting notes. Moreover, not all themes are covered in all briefing notes. But in all briefing notes the writer jumps from one theme to another, with little or no transition.

Another general question that arises is related to the style of the tasting note to be translated. The beginning and the end of the text reveal a rather jerky and informal style, characterized by verbless sentences:

> Excelente color rojo grosella. Limpio y brillante.

However, the core of the note is almost lyrical in style:

> La amalgama de aromas impresiona por su complejidad. Con el paso del tiempo aparecen recuerdos a frutas muy maduras, rojas y negras, frutas escarchadas y confitadas, tonos florales, exquisitas esencias de pasteleria, cueros limpios, tabaco, laurel, hinojos, hojarasca, toffes, cacaos y minerales. La musicalidad en boca, llena de satisfacciones continuas, traslada al consumidor a un mundo de sensaciones agradables.

Is this mixed style typical of tasting notes in Spanish? And what about the style of tasting notes in English? A quick look at some texts from our corpus reveals that verbless sentences are common in both Spanish and English tasting notes (see, for instance, the Bodega Alizán note above and the beginning and end of the Sandhill text); and that verbless sentences can be combined with regular sentences in the same text in both languages (see the Sandhill text). However, the lyrical tone found in the Spanish text is not usual in English notes. This means that the translator can reproduce the structure of the Spanish sentences, but needs to tone down the lyricism.

The corpus is particularly useful for the study of the vocabulary of tasting notes, both the comprehension of source language words and the selection of target language equivalents. Again, a quick glance either at full texts or at sections of texts representing moves and steps shows that, while there are relatively few terms specific to the field of wine and wine tasting, there are a number of terms, particularly adjectives, which take on a more specialized sense in the context of wine. In the text to be translated, this is the case of "limpio" and "brillante", for instance. Unfortunately, wine dictionaries/glossaries are very incomplete and can't be relied on to provide the precise sense of such words, much less provide us with a target language equivalent. However, corpus analysis makes the meaning clear, which makes it easier to identify an equivalent. First, we used the browser to pull out concordance lines for "limpio":

3. File 247FcLIJ000000OenoEs.xml:... De capa media alta, LIMPIO y brillante. Rojo cereza con tonalidades viola‡ceas en ribete que denotan su juventud. De intensidad alta, ...
4. File 407FcPCC000000OenoEs.xml:... uy intensos de especias (canela, menta, hierbabuena) con toques de vainilla, mezclados aún con tonos de fruta madura, LIMPIO y complejo. Boca: , La entrada es fuerte, donde se notan los taninos para posteriormente dejar un...
5. File 036FcKTO000000OenoEs.xml:... Tinto de capa alta, LIMPIO y brillante. Color picota con tonos viol‡aceos. L‡agrima densa y tintada. . , Un vino que nos sorpre...
6. File 361FcAAR000000OenoEs.xml:... Cata fase visual: , l De aspecto LIMPIO uce un intenso color rubí con ribetes violáceos Cata fase olfativa: Intenso y elegante en nariz, con un eq...
7. File 292FcYBI000000OenoEs.xml:... Rojo picota oscuro. , LIMPIO en nariz con aromas frutales (frutillos rojos maduros) que se integran con notas de su paso por una barrica de excelen...
8. File 431FcSNR000000OenoEs.xml:... Vista: , Color cereza madura con ribetes entre grana y ladrillo; buena capa LIMPIO y brillante. Posee brillos aterciopelados y destellos rubí con irisaciones color teja. Nariz: , Seria, el...
9. File 307FcAMO000000OenoEs.xml:... Atractivo color rosa frambuesa con ribete LIMPIO y brillante. .

Figure 4. Concordance lines from the Spanish subcorpus

The first thing to note is that “limpio” applies to the appearance of a wine – the visual phase of wine tasting. This is revealed by its close proximity to the description of colour. In this case, the usual equivalent for “limpio”, “clean” would not work. However, “clear” might. To verify this, one can turn to the English side of the corpus and search “clear”. Here are the results:

1. File 528FcSVE000000OenoEn.xml:... CLEAR and bright with a clean, pure aroma of tangerine, orange, white flower, yellow plum, lemon drops and lemon gras...
2. File 599FcTWE000000OenoEn.xml:... - CLEAR bright yellow colour with classic aromas of lychee fruit, rose petal, summer flowers, tangerine and Chinese 5 sp...
3. File 573FcRPE000000OenoEn.xml:... CLEAR and bright with a fresh, clean aroma of melon, pear, sweet apple and peach. This rooster opens with ...
4. File 475FcBZE000000OenoEn.xml:... 2008 Napa Valley Zinfandel boasts the classic exotic nose of its hallmark lineage while displaying a delicate CLEAR rim surrounding beautifully clear garnet color with a touch of blue. Nose opens to give way to hibiscus flower, C...

5. File 475FcBZE000000OenoEn.xml:... the classic exotic nose of its hallmark lineage while displaying a delicate clear rim surrounding beautifully CLEAR garnet color with a touch of blue. Nose opens to give way to hibiscus flower, Chinese five spice, dried kumquat a...
6. File 467FcBBT000000OenoEn.xml:... Inky garnet core and translucent ruby rim are brilliant, vibrant, and crystal CLEAR. Nose delights with unmistakable Brown Estate notes of Asian apple and exotic spice that give way to gardenia, hi...
7. File 548FcTIT000000OenoEn.xml:... - CLEAR and bright with a fresh, clean aroma of white peach, apricot, pear, pink grapefruit, lime and mineral. ...
8. File 576FcCXT000000OenoEn.xml:... CLEAR and bright with delicate blossoms, pear, apricot, yellow plum and a dash of marzipan on the nose. Th...

Figure 5. Concordance lines from the English subcorpus

Comparison of the concordance lines in Spanish and in English make it evident that "clear" is the right equivalent for "limpio". Moreover, while "limpio" is often used with "brillante", clear is often used with "bright", with the latter being an appropriate equivalent for "brillante" in the context of the appearance of a wine.

Once all the points above have been resolved, the translator can proceed to produce an English version of the text:

- Excellent fire-red color. Clear and bright.
- The combination of aromas impresses by its complexity. With time, there appear hints of very ripe red and black fruit, floral notes and exquisite scents of pastry, polished leather, tobacco, bay, fennel, fallen leaves, toffee, cocoa and minerals.
- The delightful moutfeel, with a lingering finish, evokes a world of agreeable sensations.
- Bottle must be opened 15-20 minutes before the wine is drunk.

The Experienced Translator

If the translator has prior experience translating tasting notes, he will already be familiar with the nature of the tasting note, its style in Spanish and English, and its structures. So he will use the corpus mainly for vocabulary research.

For example, he may wonder if the word "cueros" in the source text can rightly apply to a scent. A quick search of the Spanish corpus reveals 12 examples of "cueros" applied to both aroma and taste:

1. File 319FcCLE000000OenoEs.xml:... Intenso rojo cereza con leves reflejos teja. Aroma: Fruta roja madura con suaves toques de hierbabuena, tabacos y CUEROS. Boca: Amplio y vigoroso, con fuerte persistencia ta‡nica y un largo final. ...
2. File 318FcCLG000000OenoEs.xml:... con matices vivos y elegantes. Aroma: . Singular aroma de frutas maduras y especias, con suaves toques de tabaco y CUEROS al final Boca: , , Estructurado carnoso y persistente hace gala de una acertada combinaci—on de roble p...
3. File 046FcBBF000000OenoEs.xml:... rutas muy maduras, rojas y negras, frutas escarchadas y confitadas, tonos florales, exquisitas esencias de pasteler'a, CUEROS limpios, tabaco, laurel, hinojos, hojarasca, toffes, cacaos y minerales. La musicalidad en boca, llena de satis...
4. File 423FcRPV000000OenoEs.xml:... dable gama de aromas Se entremezclan las notas que evocan a frutas negras en sazón con recuerdos tostados, también de CUEROS y cafés- , , . En boca resulta muy carnoso, aterciopelado sápido estructurado, fresco y dotado de ...
5. File 478FcVTM000000OenoEs.xml:... muy vivo, intenso y muy cubierto. .Naríz Entrada muy intensa, con notas acarameladas ,tofes, tostados, CUEROS y un gran recuerdo a chocolate negro. Presenta unos tonos balsámicos muy fuertes, pero con una base de vino muy imp...

Figure 6. Concordance lines from the Spanish subcorpus

These concordance lines answer the translator's question above.

Another question he might ask himself is whether his initial translation of the sentence "La amalgama de aromas impresiona por su complejidad" as "The combination of aromas impresses by its complexity" is too literal, too close to the Spanish. More specifically, he might question his use of the noun "complexity" in the initial translation. Indeed, a search in the English subcorpus provides no example of the use of the noun "complexity" in connection with fragrances, but 21 examples of the adjective "complex".

1. File 371FcKSE000000OenoEn.xml:... as cherry, currants, raspberries, pomegranate, and blueberries. While sifting through the layers of this complicated and COMPLEX wine you will be greeted by spices such as cinnamon, nutmeg, cardamom, and tea leaves. As the wine continues to reveal i...
2. File 523FcSXN000000OenoEn.xml:... with a wonderful, COMPLEX bouquet of sweet oak, Chai spice, blackberry, black currant, boysenberry, violet and leather. ...
3. File 535FcCWN000000OenoEn.xml:... exhibits a COMPLEX nose of fresh ginger, rose blossoms, peach, nectarines and pineapple. ...

4. File 309FcCRF000000OenoEn.xml:... with a COMPLEX nose of green dried herbs, bramble bush, and wet stone. ...
5. File 417FcRVE000000OenoEn.xml:... Nose: The wine opens with layered and COMPLEX notes of grapefruit, jasimine, guava and citrus followed by white pepper and tropical fruit. ...
6. File 473FcBCT000000OenoEn.xml:... The nose is instinctively drawn to the COMPLEX yet immediately gratifying bouquet that begins with predominant top notes of honeysuckle, star jasmine, and lily. Secon...
7. File 558FcRMN000000OenoEn.xml:... A COMPLEX bouquet of cedar, forest floor, earth, red currant, smoke, red licorice and sweet vanilla. ...
8. File 561FcRCT000000OenoEn.xml:... with a COMPLEX bouquet of sweet ripe apple, nut, new oak, biscuit, vanilla bean and a touch of caramel. ...
9. File 672FcAGWP000000OenoEn.xml:... The nose is lifted and fragrant with blueberry and violets leaping from the glass before a COMPLEX background of licorice, boot polish, freshly turned earth and cooked meat emerges. Each sniff reveals more intriguing ch...
10. File 680FcAGLS000000OenoEn.xml:... The aromas are COMPLEX and intriguing. Each time you put the glass to your nose there is something new to discover. For what was a ripe year th...
11. File 679FcAGLG000000OenoEn.xml:... The nose is wonderfully COMPLEX and inviting with a mixture of spice, pepper, cedar, floral blossoms and a touch of capsicum tied together by a subtle r...
12. File 693FcAGHH000000OenoEn.xml:... The nose is perfumed, juicy and ripe with fresh blackberry dominant before a COMPLEX back-ground emerges of fresh mint and an earth character reminiscent of summer rain....
13. File 628FcAGDA000000OenoEn.xml:... with a COMPLEX combination of fragrant spices and violets, dark cherry, blackberry and blueberry, are made more complex with great liqu...
14. File 628FcAGDA000000OenoEn.xml:... with a complex combination of fragrant spices and violets, dark cherry, blackberry and blueberry, are made more COMPLEX with great liquorice, pepper and integrated svelte of boot-polish like characters....
15. File 629FcAGDD000000OenoEn.xml:... with a COMPLEX combination of fragrant spices, red fruits, plum dark cherries, cranberry and blueberry notes with a back drop of very f...
16. File 633FcAGCR000000OenoEn.xml:... of coffee, cassis, black currants, blueberries and dried cherry notes. As the wine opens there are COMPLEX spiced, tarry, hung meat elements and fine-grained oak characters lifting through....
17. File 638FcAGGG000000OenoEn.xml:... Upon release the nose shows a COMPLEX array of blackcurrant, cassis, compost, mulberries, dark plums, cherries, violets and cut flower stems. Prominent spices...
18. File 643FcAGGA000000OenoEn.xml:... evident without being dominant and allows the tomato vine, herb and leafy earthiness to play an equal part of what is a COMPLEX aroma....

19. File 650FcAGDV000000OenoEn.xml:... e, earth and red fruits including strawberries and freshly-picked mulberries. This is serious stuff, layered, lifted and COMPLEX....
20. File 639FcAGGE000000OenoEn.xml:... The nose shows a COMPLEX array of green flower-like florals, blackcurrant and cassis from the Cabernet, sweet dark fruits and compost from the Ad...
21. File 112FcWHSZ000000OenoEn.xml:... dark berries with COMPLEX spice and earth aromas with a hint of graphite.

Figure 7. Concordance lines from the English subcorpus

These examples show that English clearly prefers the use of the adjective over the noun. This should lead the experienced translator to try to reformulate the given English sentence to avoid the use of the noun. He might then come up with one of the following rephrasings: "the combination of aromas is impressively complex" or "the aromas combined are impressively complex". In this case, the corpus serves to orient the translator's word choice ("complex" rather than "complexity") from the point of view of part of speech.

Conclusion

We have tried to show above that a multilingual comparable corpus would be of great help in specialized translation. And we are by no means alone in promoting the use of comparable corpora in practical translation. Some of the latest calls to action on this front are found in two edited works: Corpas Pastor and Seghiri Dominguez's edited work *Corpus-based Approaches to Translation and Interpreting: From Theory to Applications* (2016) and Gallego-Hernández and Rodriguez-Inez's *Corpus Use and Learning to Translate, Almost 20 Years On* (2016). Yet, the number of translators who use such a corpus remains very limited because of a number of factors. Primary among them is the unavailability of readymade corpora of this type (also called "stable corpora" by Sánchez-Gijón (2002) and therefore the need to compile such corpora to meet specific needs (ad hoc corpora). This requires time and some computational skills which many translators do not have or are not willing to acquire. While many authors, starting with Bowker and Pearson (2002), have described how to compile and exploit a comparable corpus, corpus construction tools and corpus searching tools are not always user-friendly for those who are not tech-savvy. This further discourages translators from compiling ad hoc corpora to perform a specific translation assignment. And even when the corpus is compiled, it does not provide direct answers to the translator's questions. The translator needs to deduce the answers, using various strategies such as those presented above (full text analysis; concordance line analysis; comparative analysis of concordance lines in two languages, etc.) to draw the required information from the corpus. Appropriate use of a comparable corpus during specialized translation takes time and effort. But the result is a translated text that is not only accurate from the point of view of content, but also reflects what is typical of such texts in the target language.

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