The Translator, the Interpreter and the Dialogue of Languages in the Digital Age

Edited by

Adriana Neagu

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Table of Contents

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FOREWORD

The challenges digital culture poses to translation are, as the contributions to this collection show, being received by academics and practitioners as an opportunity to reaffirm the values of translation as a practice and translation studies as an academic discipline, rather than as a threat.

I have always regarded translation studies as a discipline at the very heart of the humanities because of its fundamental intercultural dimension. It is not just the field of literary translation that requires more than simply an ability to understand two languages. Translation and interpreting are not simply about transmitting meaning from one language into another; they always involve an aspect of mediation and a sensitivity to the broader society and culture of the target language, as well as the social and interpersonal context in the moment of interpreting. Good translators have to be connoisseurs of society and culture, as translation involves communication between two people from different traditions, customs, and cultures.

This primacy of intercultural understanding has not changed in the contemporary digital revolution, and although technological innovations may push translation and interpreting into a new realm, one where the human appears of secondary importance to the machine, the human capacity to guide and condition technological aspects of translation is more important than ever. This knowledge is revealed by the popular appreciation of the value of translation. While non-academics and non-specialists in translation may automatically welcome technological advances in translation studies because of the promised benefits of technological modernisation (i.e. developments in technology are making it easier to communicate to those who speak different languages), a deeper anxiety is revealed in the way the practice of translation and the figure of the translator is represented in popular culture.

Consider the 2016 movie *Arrival*. Besides the familiar alien-invasion trope, immediately recognisable from blockbuster movies like *Independence Day*, this film was notable for focusing on the value of translation. The alien visitors are eager to communicate with humankind and therefore a specialist in translation needs to be deployed by the US army. The one chosen, Dr Louise Banks, is a Professor of Linguistics who is transported to Montana to co-ordinate the interplanetary translation effort. This depends on technological innovation as the aliens' visual form of communicating must be captured by computer and then analysed as a form of code. But, in addition to the technological competence Banks and her team utilize, it is her ability to understand the aliens on an intercultural level that is crucial—not only to understand the language, but to recognise that the visitors (at odds with the standard tropes of the genre) do not wish to do harm to humanity. It is this intercultural empathy that averts a potential interplanetary conflict, which would be disastrous for humankind.

The film, therefore, presents a refreshing alternative to the conventions of the alien-invasion genre, or even sci-fi as a whole, in that it does not just present an affirmation of the values of science and technology, but the values of the humanities in general, and translation studies in particular. While depicting a time-honoured sci-fi scenario, it also clearly articulates the sense of global risk that is typical of much of the tenor of our age. It deploys the tropes of science fiction to express an anxiety that is very much of our time: how liberal values are in danger of being overtaken by a self-interested, forceful, and intolerant kind of politics. Its plot imagines alien beings visiting Earth, the disastrous consequences of which can only be averted by a transnational, indeed transplanetary, feat of translation.

Arrival thus articulates what we might consider an appreciation that translation is at the heart of the humanities. The film depicts a collaborative project that brings together researchers from the humanities and the sciences. In doing so, it conveys the more general values of human interaction, which lie at the very heart of the activity of translation. Translation is an activity sustained by a faith in the 'human': the values of remaining open to otherness, believing in self-fulfilment, and promoting intercultural communication. Translation has always been crucial in allowing different varieties of humans, with different languages, throughout the world, to come together 'as one'. Now, more than ever, and not simply because of the consequences for translation of developments in digital technology, the values inherent in translation, as both a practice and an academic discipline, are vital to our transnational world.

Digital culture has had a dramatic impact on global society in a wide range of spheres, influencing how we belong to communities, how we consume cultural production, and how we participate in politics. The contributions to this collection provide a valuable complementary analysis on the specific consequences for translation in the digital age in a way that enables us to explore specific developments, such as online tools and virtual platforms; computer assisted translation (or CAT); practices in education or at conferences; as well as appreciating the continuing vitality of translation studies as a discipline.

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Translation Agency in the Digital Era: Freedom or Limits to Freedom in the Post-Communist Romania of the 21st Century

Silvia Blanca Irimiea
and Adina-Maria Cornea

Agency

As an investigative concern, the concept of agency in translation attracted the interest of translation scholars in the 1990s when the term was defined by Sager (321). His definition of the agent, as quoted by Mary Shuttleworth in the *Dictionary of Translation Studies*, was 'an intermediary position between a translator and an end user of a translation' (in Shuttleworth, Cowie 7). John Milton and Paul Bandia expand on the role of agency in translation and credit agents for the 'major historical, literary and cultural transitions/changes/innovations through translation' (Milton & Bandia 1). As to who may be an agent, Milton and Bandia suggest that they can be text producers, mediators and all those who contribute to changes by means of expressing an attitude or creating a trend of thought that influences the audience's and the editors' perception of texts. Milton and Bandia also recognize the translator's own contribution to the translated text (1). Further examples of agency include magazines, journals, and institutions, i.e. all those who contribute to the perception of a work (of art). Milton and Bandia opine that, through their direct or indirect contribution, agents can change cultural, linguistic, and translation policies (2).

Sager states that agents are often individuals who perform several functions or roles simultaneously. For example, they may be individuals who devote their lives to principles or ideals and fight for them, while translating, teaching, and, finally, disseminating the works they have become attached to. Reference is made, in this respect, to those translators who have greatly contributed to the dissemination of foreign literature in their own countries in the past. In their 2009 book, *Agents of Translation*, Milton and Bandia emphasize the role of agents in changing and innovating culture and literature and insist on the contribution of those outstanding examples who challenged commonplace assumptions, thereby risking imprisonment, fines, or their own professional and personal lives (5). This has been the case for many translators in many countries who denounced and fought against tyrannical regimes, endangering themselves and even risking their liberty.

However, most of the agents who changed cultural and linguistic policies and behaviours, as well as many of those who studied agency-related phenomena, primarily dedicated their insights to literature, while neglecting, to a certain extent, the translation of non-fiction texts.

Milton and Bandia refer to two specific types of agent: 1) those who have affected or influenced the style of translation in force, who have made a number of translations available to their readership, and who have contributed to the spread of a particular kind of literature or the works of a particular writer; and 2) those who 'have helped or attempted to innovate by selecting new works to be translated and introducing new styles of translation' in their own literary culture (Milton & Bandia 2). Examples include Cemal Demircioğlu, Denise Merkel, Francis Jones, and Paul

Bandia. In some other cases, stylistic innovations related to politics and political views have been introduced by translators through their translations of Marxist, nationalist, and other ideas. Such examples are characteristic of authoritarian regimes, where translators purposefully select elements or translations that fit their own views about the society they live in and which they wish to change.

Patronage, Power, and Influence

Agency has been linked to several concepts all of which have influenced the evolution of human thought and cognition. After the *linguistic turn* of the early twentieth century, the *cultural turn* of the late twentieth century had a profound impact on literature and translation studies. The latter was the outcome of major social shifts in society and the analytical traditions of academia. It emerged among scholars of humanities and social sciences who brought culture to the foreground of scholarly debate. In translation studies, the cultural turn rose to prominence in the 1990s as scholars became more interested in translators and their work and in the factors that influenced translators, among which the necessity to pay more attention to the role of the target culture in translation was emphasised.

An often discussed concept is that of *patronage*, a product of the cultural turn of the late twentieth century, as coined by André Lefevere who discussed the role of patrons in the production of works of art. He defined the term patronage as ‘a religious body, a political party, a social class, a royal court, publishers, and, last but not least, the media, both newspapers and magazines and larger television corporations’ (Lefevere 15). Patrons have played different roles in different societies, such as regulating the literary system, awarding prizes, exercising censorship, and influencing the education system. Systemic patronage was operating as early as Shakespeare's time, for example, whose works were patronised by the Earl of Southampton. In later times, states and education systems played significant roles in channelling the readership and mainstream cultural or literary trends in their desired direction. By means of their book, *Agents of Translation*, Milton and Bandia present a broad scene for the comprehension of patronage.

In his 1992 book, *Translation, Rewriting, and the Manipulation of Literary Fame*, Lefevere classifies patronage into: undifferentiated patronage, which exists in totalitarian systems where the writers are attached to rulers, party leaders (as in single-party systems) and benefit their patrons in the way they praise them; and differentiated patronage, which is the kind of patronage that functions in free market environments (15).

As a rule, in totalitarian systems patronage that is favoured or patronised by (political) institutions, rulers, leaders, is somewhat overt and is political; while endowed or talented individuals, who are less favoured by authorities, can also play a role in influencing culture and published literature by showing their dissatisfaction or disagreement with the status quo, or trying, in their own way, to bring about change.

Some other influences of patronage can be exerted by agents who act on behalf of national authorities or appointed institutions, with responsibilities to raise national consciousness by promoting a form of culture or literature, such as ones related to discriminated groups or minority ethnic groups. Other acts of patronage, national, cultural, political and social in nature, may take a stronger national form: promoting the creation and spread of national languages or minority/ethnic cultures and languages; creating or fostering identities; and acquiring national recognition of particular values. Such practices follow overt or hidden strategies of harmonising national cultural landscapes, examples of which include the same policies and strategies that are employed by democratic regimes across the world (such as those found in the US and the European Union).

Milton and Bandia state that ‘many minority cultures have survived the onslaught of dominant global languages through a deliberate translation of themselves into such global languages, which they subvert through innovative linguistic practices for the purpose of asserting their national identity, making their national cultures more visible and known’ (Milton & Bandia 3). Milton and Bandia argue that ‘the crisis of identity is being addressed through the agency of creolisation as self-translation’ (Milton & Bandia 3). They also admit that writers who come from peripheral, marginalised, dominated or minority cultures have become *agents of translation* insofar as their works enter the international literary marketplace as a reaction to the hegemony of globally important or powerful languages and cultures.

A particularly important role in the education and dissemination of cultural, linguistic and literary values is played by *publishing companies*, whose traditional role as agent has been to influence and change public literary or cultural taste by promoting a particular culture or literature. This phenomenon has become a common practice in all societies and will be analysed further in the following. For example, Heinemann Educational Books, as an agent of changing literary taste, has played an active role in the promotion and dissemination of African literature both in its original form and in translation across the world. Heinemann had the educational or didactic mission of marketing British books in Africa, but soon realised that spreading African literature around the world offered better opportunities. As a result, it became ‘the vanguard of the movement for representing African identity in the world’ (in Milton & Bandia 4).

By spreading and increasing the production of books, Heinemann, along with other well-healed publishing houses, saw the possibility of selling books at low prices and making them more affordable to a broader readership. Heinemann acquired yet another remarkable success by selecting marginalised women writers from particular patriarchal regimes for publication. Last, but not least, Heinemann also made known to the world many writers who had fled into exile from totalitarian regimes or who were imprisoned for their political views. Milton and Bandia state without any hesitation that the agency and patronage of Heinemann in disseminating and canonising African literature 'is without parallel' on the continent (Milton & Bandia 5).

However, patronage, just like any other social or cultural process or phenomenon, is linked to power, and once the translator is associated with the "wrong" or "opposition" party, they and their patron may end up being persecuted, imprisoned, and, in some cases, even assassinated. A particular case, in this respect, is provided by Bento Monteiro Lobato, who adapted *Peter Pan*. He altered the original story and turned it into a political work the content and message of which expressed opposition to the Brazilian political system. As a consequence, Bento Monteiro Lobato, a writer, translator and publisher who criticised Brazil through negative and disdainful imagery, was imprisoned for three months in 1941.

In his writings, Lefevere tackles the concept of power, the influence patronage may exert on agents of translation, and the role that personal relationships play within the system. Lefevere speaks about an 'undifferentiated' form of patronage, which exists in countries where a totalitarian regime favours a writer committed to serving the court or the power; and 'differentiated' patronage, which exists in free market systems (15). Lefevere concludes that patronage is both important and influential in regards to who and what gets published, but reveals little about the individual agents who influence the publishing policies and who are dissatisfied with the *status quo*, opposing the existing regime. On the other hand, Stephen Greenblatt, a proponent of New Historicism, presents the *agency of individuals* in society as ‘these selves, conditioned by the expectations of their class, gender, religion, race and national identity, are constantly effecting changes in the course of history’ and states that ‘it is this insistence on agency’, which is inevitable, and which even as ‘inaction or extreme marginality’ acquires meaning and implies intention (Greenblatt 164, in Milton & Bandia 6). Greenblatt argues that ‘Every form of behaviour […] is a strategy: taking up arms or taking flight is a significant social strategy, but so is staying put, minding one’s own business, turning one’s face to the wall’ and concludes that ‘[a]gency is virtually inescapable’ (in Milton & Bandia 6).

Although not perceptible, academic and literary power and relations may influence issues such as who is published, who is promoted, who receives a scholarship, tenure, or a job, and who is removed from the literary landscape and exiled.

Milton and Bandia argue that ‘[t]he way in which ideas in Translation Studies gain currency, even the way in which Translation Studies itself has gained influence, and conflicts between agencies, is a theme’ scholars interested in agency issues should reflect on and discuss (Milton & Bandia 8).

Habitus

Individuals live in societies and hold various roles as members of that particular society. They act by virtue of their job, their affiliation, the influence they possess over other members, and by virtue of the life experiences they have acquired through their exposure to the environment in which they live and act. In order to be accepted by society and be successful professionals they have to act in compliance with the social norms or conventions set up by society. These norms or conventions, for example, will tell professionals how to act or perform their accepted or assigned roles. As such, in order to be employed and published or rewarded, professional translators have to comply with the conventions set up by the society in which they work.

To explain the relationship between individuals and the society they live and work in, Pierre Bourdieu (1930-2002) used the concept of *habitus*. According to Bourdieu, *habitus* stands for the *cultural capital* of individuals, i.e. the deeply ingrained habits, skills and dispositions that individuals possess due to their acquired life experiences. Bourdieu, one of the most influential twentieth century social theorists, used sporting metaphors to described *habitus*, explaining it as a 'feel for the game', being the way in which individuals know how to react to certain social situations or 'games' they find themselves in.

Bourdieu's work has influenced translation studies scholars and has shed light on the role of agency in translation. *Habitus*, as a form of governing capital, was taken up by Daniel Simeoni to point out the role of translation agency in his essay "The Pivotal Status of the Translator's *Habitus*". Simeoni holds that, just like in any profession, translation trainees learn norms from their teachers and practitioners, norms which they need to follow if they hope to become successful translators or interpreters. However, according to Milton and Bandia, Simeoni separates *habitus* from norms 'stressing the roles of translators' as agents of translation (8). Quoting Toury, Simeoni argues: 'It seems to me that Toury places the focus of the relevance on the pre-eminence of what controls the agents' behaviour—"the translational norms"', while, a '*habitus*-governed account, by contrast, emphasizes the extent to which translators themselves play a role in the maintenance and perhaps the creation of norms' (Simeoni 26). Simeoni wished to further understand what enhances 'socio-cognitive skills' and, finally, what generates 'the micro-level of stylistic variation' (Simeoni 31). Looking at present-day translators, Simeoni argues that they have departed from other older models or patterns of *habitus* where translators defied the mainstream tradition, and have become more servile and loyal to the author, as they have to cope with a broader array of tasks and experiences. Simeoni reasons that this passivity in their *habitus* is the outcome of the complex environment translators work in and the variety of client demands they have to comply with (31). Indeed, translators face new challenges, and have to adapt to different norms, different texts, and different translation requirements. Additionally, the translator works in a different environment governed by other dominant factors, such as computers, translation tools, and applications, which have changed their work entirely. Finally, in order to survive in a competitive professional environment, translators need to be permanently updated about relevant software tools and keep up with advancements in translation studies. Indeed, nowadays translators attend academic and master's degree programmes to familiarise them with translation theories, traditions, and best practices.

In opposition to the passive *habitus*, Milton and Bandia quote Helen Buzelin's article, "Unexpected Allies: How Latour's Network Theory Could Complement Bourdieusian Analyses in Translation Studies", in which she presents another case: more pro-active translators who adopted the theories of Henri Meschonnic and Antoine Berman in France and who, at that time, were thought to presage a change in the *habitus* of literary translators in France. These tendencies of pro-active translators were considered dangerous and were blamed for their rigidity and having lost sight of the ‘pleasure’ of the text (Buzelin 204 in Milton & Bandia 9).

As presented by Milton and Bandia (10), Bourdieu’s contribution to translation studies in his 1990 essay “Les conditions sociales de la circulation international des idées” was analysed by Meylaerts, who discussed the relationship between ideas and national/international boundaries and insisted on the view that ‘intellectual life’ is rather confined by national contexts (278). Milton and Bandia suggest that Bourdieu tackles the role of those agents who introduce new elements into a foreign culture calling them ‘gate-keepers’; he exemplifies this particular case with Heidegger who was ‘imported’ to France to reduce the dominance of Sartre’s ideas. Perhaps, most of the time, gate-keepers try to change a translator’s *habitus*. This is the case with Lobato, whose translation ‘introduced a more colloquial Portuguese’ (10).

Habitus and Politics

Politics has made its way into all aspects of human life and has also penetrated the translation environment. Politics is an inherent characteristic of any human society and individuals are ‘by nature political animals’ (Aristotle) who enter into social relations with one another or with other communities. In this perspective, individuals made social contracts with institutions and created governments for their own defence, which they eventually feared, resisted, overthrew, or improved; they accepted institutions, political relationships and processes in exchange for their preservation and welfare. From the political point of view, translation agents are either partisan and defend the nation's *status quo*, or they fight an oppressive system that works against the nation's best interests.

In liberal democracies around the world, where an individual's rights are protected by constitutions and laws, translators are at liberty to follow the constraints of their profession. They are very much 'regulated' by the theories, traditions, and conventions established by professional or scientific communities, by appointed commissions, by training institutions, and finally, by clients, the regular consumers of translation products, and the readership. In many Western cultures, professional intermediaries work as literary agents or agencies, whose role is to promote and market the literary works of various writers.

Politics is about the use of power, the distribution of power, relations of power, ideology, and typical discourses and genres harboured in/by different societies. An increasing number of research traditions have turned to the study of language and discourse used to express power relations in society. Traditions like critical linguistics and critical discourse analysis investigate how and to what extent discourse reflects power relations between power holders and weaker members in a society. Writers use a particular form of language or a particular discourse as part of their *habitus* to express support or disagreement, or even to fight against an unfriendly or autocratic regime.

Translator agency has come under closer scrutiny in the last two decades and has been studied from different perspectives. Many of these studies have focused on individual agency or agents, the way in which they influence the selection (or rejection) of translated books, and how such translation was carried out. Their personal contributions rely on the choice of translation strategies, the use of which source texts, issues of typography and layout, and fees etc. (Paloposki 206). Other scholars have discussed the collective norms instituted or imposed to guard the translation process and limit the freedom of writers and translators. At the same time, translation scholars have shed light on the balance between individual agency and collective norms, taking place in an ever more complex translational space dominated by several influential actors, including writers, translators, norms, publishers, the readership, intermediaries, and all the issues that affect these actors.

This study seeks to showcase the freedom of a translator or lack thereof in Romania before and after the 1989 revolution to draw some conclusions on the relationship between translator-agency and society.

The Role of Individual Agency versus the Role of the Social

Individual agents of translation have been studied from different perspectives since the 1990s. The freedom of a translator depends, firstly, on the position they hold in society, or rather the role assigned to them by society. Among the factors that determine the translator's position are the expectations of the reader. Over the past few decades, diverse researchers have insisted on the importance of various issues related to the agency of individual translators and the subjectivity apparent in their translations has been studied more and more.

Regarding *individual agency*, Kaisa Koskinen (99) classifies the visibility of the translator as either textual, paratextual, or extratextual. Paloposki (191) argues that Koskinen's classification can be applied to agency as well, with textual agency referring to the translator's voice, which is perceived in the text through strategies of 'deliberate manipulation, stylistic preferences or habits (Baker 2000; Gullin 2002; Pekkanen 2007) or functionalist-oriented adaptation or anything in between' (191). Paratextual agency is made visible in the insertions, notes, and prefaces written by the translator, while extratextual agency refers to the capacity of the translator to have a say in the selection of the book to be translated, the use of different editions or intermediary translations, and the role of translators to stand up and speak in favour of a translation explaining their point of view and strategies. Furthermore, the translator may make a further contribution by selecting books for a broader audience, thus addressing the whole market and acquiring a formative role in influencing or educating the people and their tastes.

On the other hand, those interested in *collective translation agency* have examined the norms and constraints imposed on translators by various institutions and authorities. Some researchers, including Siobhan Brownlie, have note the difference in approach between Barman and Toury on the relation of the individual to society; the conclusion put forward is that: '[w]hile not denying the role of the other pole, Berman thus gives emphasis to the individual, and Toury to the social' (Brownlie 102). After comparing these frameworks and perspectives, Brownlie reconciles them by setting them in different social circumstances: 'Rather, difference may be seen as a question of supplementarity. Toury's work was a necessary move away from a prescriptive, source-text oriented framework in Translation Studies, but in no way does it erase or make redundant earlier work on translations'. 'Translation is not separate from any other human action: the role of the social and the role of the individual vary and are negotiated each time anew in new circumstances'. Brownlie justifies such an approach by stating that the 'study of such negotiations is and has been one of the major concerns of modern sociology' (Brownlie 102 in Paloposki 190). According to Paloposki, '[t]racing the origins of this discourse to Karl Marx, Anthony Giddens (1984: xxi, 162-179) formulates an account of human agency and “structure”, i.e. the constraints imposed by economic and political systems’ (190).

Agencies in the Service of Authors

Economy activity has been the engine of progress in human society and has required social change, including in education and the labour market. The labour market has often driven society forward by finding means to solve a professional or consumer-related gap by matching certain needs and demands. This is also the case for writers or authors who are at a loss when they are to publish a book or are in search for a publisher who might be ready to take the risk or share the success of publishing their writing. The gap between writer and author and publishing house has become filled by agencies—businesses that find the right publisher for a writer or find the writer for a publisher.

In the UK, several agencies operate nationally and internationally, providing writers with opportunities to be successful and become recognized in an increasingly competitive market. Such agencies work with a large teams of specialised editors, typesetters, designers, illustrators, and proofreaders who have the success of the author in mind though their work is for both author and customer, while keeping a keen interest in dissemination to the mainstream readership. Agencies operate successfully in the USA, France and many other democratic countries and display a high degree of specialisation and professionalization. This need for specialised agencies or intermediaries has been felt in Romania as well, where agencies have been less popular. Looked at from the perspective of the *habitus*, this does not imply a restriction on the writer or author’s rights or status, but rather a diversification and broadening of the spectrum of qualifications that are linked to writing, as new opportunities given to a writer to help their writing/authorial persona and enjoy public recognition. Publishing with an agency appears attractive to any writer or translator, seeming simple and fast. Once the electronic version of a manuscript is submitted to the publishing house, an editorial team assesses the content, the subject matter, the quality of the manuscript, and its suitability for the publishing house's list of work. If the work is found appropriate, the publishing house or an editor may make an offer and suggest the terms and conditions for publishing the work. A simple search of the Internet brings up an impressive number of results such as 'find a publisher', 'join our team', 'no agent needed', or 'send us your work', with online offers and specialised literary agency directories testifying to the size of the 'find a publisher' market.

This is a two-way process, however, which also works from agencies towards writers. Sites focused on 'publishers seeking writers' also tend to make their way onto the market. Apart from assisting young or unpublished writers make their work known, this unprecedented boost of publishing offers can signal another phenomenon: publishing too many works leading to quality being compromised. Once books become means of making money in various ways and become commodified, quality may be deemed to suffer.

In France, for example, publishing houses and editors prefer to deal directly with the writers or authors, and foreign authors contact translators rather than publishing houses. In the case of well-known or successful authors, French publishing houses approach foreign publishing houses instead of liaising directly with the writers. Apparently, this system functions satisfactorily since France is a country where a large number of translations are published. At the same time, literary agents prove to be efficient and do their work well and French literature is the most widely translated literature domain in the USA.

In Romania, in spite of the many sites inviting writers to send their manuscripts to helpful agencies or agents, well-known writers work directly with translators and publishing houses and vice-versa, as direct and trustworthy relationships are more treasured, and because such a relationship is based on mutual trust and experience. Lesser known writers or young writers may appeal to the services of agents, but then they may experience long and winding relationships where confidence and mutual trust have to be built over time. The fact that the website of the Romanian Writers' Union and its Bucharest branch promotes the services of foreign agencies is encouraging for less experienced writers and offers a new, modern approach to the issue.

Freedom or Limits on Translators' Freedom in Communist and Post-Communist Romania

Firstly, it should be stated that little literature has been published on the issue of individual and collective translation agency in Romania. Secondly, there is little or no recorded evidence regarding the circumstances in which translators performed their duties in the past and even less information on how translators do their job today. In the past, during the communist years, translations were rarely undertaken, and translation agencies and the role of translator were even less widely known. Translations were published in literature books, magazines, and dailies. Translators published their comments on translated literature in reviews, analyses, commentaries, and interviews primarily in literary magazines. Literary magazines published commentaries and editorials on translations, mostly written by reputable poets and writers.

The scarcity of literature on agency in translation in the period that followed the 1989 revolution is partly due to the decentralisation and the fragmentation of Romanian society. Romania became a democratic republic; it was subject to a less heavily controlled economy with a market driven by various forces, where state enterprises and private ones competed for power and financial profit.

Literary critics and writers of the twenty-first century have become more involved in contemplating and (re)constructing the translational *persona* of the literary translator. Contributors have built an online community, which has made the activity of translators known to a larger audience, enhanced debates, and encouraged contributions.

For most of the *communist period*, translators were little known and little promoted; their routines were hidden or overshadowed by other more significant cultural, political, or social issues. Their existence was, in general, overshadowed by the personality of the writer of the source text or by the topic itself. However, in spite of a lack of substantial evidence, this study will highlight some aspects and put forward some pieces of information from the specialist literature, which can be used to build a case on the freedom or lack thereof of translators in communist and post-communist Romania.

1. The Pre-Communist Period

The post-war period was a period in which the greatest Romanian writers and poets undertook to translate classics of world literature. Mihai Eminescu and Ion Luca Caragiale were followed by a plethora of poets and writers. Lucian Blaga, one of the most representative poets of Romanian literature, translated Goethe's Faust as well as the work of G. E. Lessing into Romanian in the late 1950s. Tudor Vianu translated Shakespeare and Goethe into Romanian in the 1960s; Alexandru Philippide translated Baudelaire and E. A. Poe; Ion Vinea translated Shakespeare's tragedies (*Henry V*, *Hamlet*, *Othello*, *Macbeth*, and *The Winter's Tale)* for ESPLA (Editura de Stat pentru Literatură și Artă) and E. A. Poe's romantic stories (especially *Berenice*, *Ligeia* and *The Fall of the House of Usher*). Vinea is given credit for translations of Balzac, Romain Rolland, and Washington Irving. As with many of the writers, poets, and translators of this period, Ion Vinea was kept under surveillance, subject to wire-tapping, and persecuted by the Securitate[1]. This period, as well as the one following, was characterised by the resistance and struggle of writers, poets, and translators against wartime policies and the belligerent powers or their leading parties. Collective agency was weak, given the focus of the powers involved in the distribution of power and military conflicts and translators had to try to find their way through these troubled political and military circumstances.

During these decades, Tudor Arghezi, a controversial intellectual, poet, and translator, was imprisoned without trial in a penitentiary along with several other political prisoners like Gheorghe Gheorghiu-Dej, Ion Gheorghe Maurer, and even Nicolae Ceaușescu. After his release, and after Gheorghe Gheorghiu-Dej consolidated his power over the state and the Party post-1952, Arghezi came to be considered an asset to the new, popular regime and was awarded several prizes. Recognition abroad made him a recipient of the Herder Prize. He held a unique place in Romanian

[1] The Securiate was the repressive state organ assigned the role of protecting the communist regime in Romania.

literature for his contribution to poetry and children's literature; but he is also remembered for his translations of Molière, La Fontaine, and Krîlov in the 1950s and 1960s. His remarkable translations from Russian were considered masterpieces. Such translators emphasised the role of individual agency in translation; going beyond translation they managed to create masterpieces that stood as an expression of their own talent and represented the writer less. Their translations were dominated by their creative genius, which could break down the pre-communist limits of collective agency and, given the swift political changes in society, they could be pardoned and rehabilitated for their dissident ideas or activities after the fall of contested regimes.

In general, the writers and poets who distinguished themselves in the post-war period and lived through the 1950s and 1960s expressed their views openly and accused the regime of crimes. Most of them were dissidents and tried through their work or translations to pay tribute to the great writers of world literature. Some of them had supporters or shadow patrons, who tried to protect them from the Securitate or the communist authorities. This was the case with Arghezi who was protected by Gheorghe Gheorghiu-Dej.

At the conclusion to the communist period, Paul Cernat ("Traducerile fac o literatură. Pentru o istorie a literaturii române prin traduceri") states that the period was one of 'cultural survival' through translation. In the 1950s, prominent writers underwent a so-called requalification process as they produced unsurpassed translations of world literature.

From the perspective of translation agency, the pre-communist period created a generation of translators who contributed to the dissemination of foreign literature in Romania, in spite of the harsh, outspoken political post-war changes and the communist threat that swept over Central and

Eastern Europe. Their dedicated attitude stimulated them to create unique translations, whose stylistic innovations and creative genius made their works representative of a significant body of translation. Blaga, Vianu, Philippide, Vinea, Arghezi and many others enriched Romanian literature by selecting, translating, and disseminating the works of renowned Western writers and poets.

2. The Communist Years

The communist period stretched over more than five decades in Romania (from the 1940s to 1990s), including the popular regime of Gheorghe Gheorghiu-Dej, which preceded the period known as ‘communist’. Communism in Romania is best known as having led by Nicolae Ceaușescu and his wife, Elena (from 1965 to 1989).

Generally, historians distinguish two periods making up the Romanian communist era: the first between 1965 and 1971; and the second between 1971 and 1989. In his first year as ruler, as General Secretary of the Romanian Communist Party, Ceauşescu’s policies were more liberal and oriented towards the West and the USA. This was a period of economic relief when blocks of public housing were built for workers and the entire population was given access to free education. Later on, in particular after Ceauşescu’s visits to other communist countries, he adopted a different approach, one based on a personality cult and extreme nationalism; he broke relations with Western countries and the Soviet Union. All activities and relations were controlled by the Communist Party and those who did not obey the Party’s rules were punished. Peoples’ lives changed drastically after Ceaușescu decided to pay off all the external debt of the country in the 1980s. This decision reduced people’s welfare, imposed food rationing on the population, and limited and controlled imports, including the import of books from Western Europe and the USA. People were forbidden to engage in relations with foreign citizens and travelling abroad was subject to severe oversight. Cultural imports, including literature, were closely controlled and censored. It was reasoned that any Western cultural, political or social ideas could alter the minds of the people and would instigate them to revolt against the system. As such, imported literature was thoroughly censored, as were translations of it into Romanian. Under such close scrutiny, liberal ideas that could influence the people or ignite a more liberal spirit were either avoided or excluded from publication.

Besides being strictly censored, writers, poets, and translators had to use simple language that best expressed the political, economic, social, and cultural realities of the day, dominated primarily by party politics, events, and activities. The language they used was ‘specialised’, tailored to meet the needs of the Communist Party whose purpose was to persuade the masses to follow the party line, to dominate and lead the people to communism. Those were years of political surveillance, persecution, and restrictions. The people’s desire to revolt and frustration with the system, represented by Ceaușescu and the Communist Party, found expression in the 1989 revolution. However, some outstanding writers and poets managed to break down the communist cultural or linguistic barriers and bring Western literature into Romanian culture. Looked at from the point of view of the balance between individual agency and collective norms, the communist period was a deeply unbalanced period, in which Party norms suppressed or limited individual agency.

On the other hand, the communist period promoted the idea of a *multilateral individual*, hence, this was a period in which many publishing houses and translators undertook translations of world literature. Translation was a means of providing access to all members of society to culture and literature; a means to improve their status and increase their level of knowledge and culture. Education was free and obligatory, and anyone, in particular adults, who wished to attend high school, could take evening classes to reach the desired level of education. School children had to read Romanian literature and to learn about prominent writers and poets and their works.

Later writers and poets, including Anatol Emilian Baconsky, whose opposition to communism was notably manifested in his activity as editor of the *Steaua (The Star)* magazine, published an anthology of world poetry in 1973, *Panorama poeziei universale contemporane* (*Panorama of Universal Contemporary Poetry*), which was praised by the Hungarian literary historian János Kohn as an important step in the history of Romanian translation. The volume comprised work by 99 authors, all of which were translations by Baconsky himself. His literary and translational effort was rewarded by the Romanian Writers' Union Prize in 1973.

Other scholars and writers who published their work in the 1970s and 1980s, including Leon Levițchi, Dan Duțescu, Aurel Covaci, Romulus Vulpescu, Dan Grigorescu, Eta Boeriu, Teodor Boșca, Ștefan Augustin Doinaș, and Petre Solomon, translated classics of world literature and are still remembered as outstanding translators.

Leon Levițchi wrote the first handbook on literary translation in 1975: *Îndrumar pentru traducătorii din limba engleză în limba română* (*A Guide for English to Romanian Translators*). This book was used by translation teachers for decades. His concern for the development of future translators resulted in another handbook, *Manualul traducătorului de limba engleză*

(*A Manual for English Translators*), published in 1994. In terms of agency, the work and teaching activity of this generation of translators had a formative contribution on the cultural and professional education of future translators.

Dan Duțescu, a prominent professor of English literature translated Chaucer and, in co-authorship with Levițchi, published the *Shakespeare Bilingual Anthology* in 1964. As an outstanding translator, Duțescu was twice awarded the Romanian Writers' Union Translation Prize for his translations of Chaucer and *Meșterul Manole*. Both Duțescu and Levițchi translated Eminescu's poems into English. Together with his fellow researcher and professor, in 1991 Andrei Bantaș, Levițchi edited what is so far considered to be the most comprehensive English-Romanian dictionary ever published, with over 70,000 entries. The two scholars and translators had also previously published a bilingual Romanian-English edition of Mihai Eminescu's poems, translated into English by themselves.

This period was marked by ideological impositions and the translations were subject to strict censorship. Translations that did not meet Party requirements were rejected and the writers were considered dissidents (Irimiea 122). The most illustrative example of a dissident book was Pacepa's *Red Horizons*, which was illicitly published in Hungary and the USA. Pacepa was appointed head of Romanian espionage and Nicolae Ceaușescu's adviser for industrial and technological development. He defected to the USA in 1984 and served the Central Intelligence Agency in undertaking action against the socialist Eastern Bloc. He was considered by the USA the highest-ranking defector from the Socialist Bloc. It is noteworthy to mention that Ion Mihai Pacepa's book was transmitted as a serial by the *Free Europe* radio station for the Romanian people and it was said that at the time when the serials were aired the streets in Romania were empty, as all Romanians were inside listening to his memoirs. The recorded transcript of Ceauşescu's trial shows that most of the accusations brought against him came from facts presented in *Red Horizons*. After the 1989 revolution, in January 1990, the book was serialised again in the new official Romanian communist newspaper *Adevărul* (*The Truth*), which, on that very occasion, replaced the communist *Scînteia* (*The Spark*). The newspaper editorial admitted that the book's serialisation by *Radio Free Europe* had 'played an incontestable role' in overthrowing Ceauşescu's regime. Pacepa's book remains the most notorious case of dissident revolt in communist Romania's cultural history.

However, these translators lived in different circumstances. Although their means of expression and their liberty were limited by the final years of the communist regime, they managed to continue their translation work and translate outstanding works. Most of these writers and translators were also intellectuals and university professors who shared their experience with students and with future writers or translators. They stand out as a category of translators who imparted knowledge, translational wisdom, and passed on their own experience to future generations of translators. Their agency in the area of translation through their activity devoted to forming translators and shaping literary tastes acquired greater prominence, and they were leading personalities in the fall of the communist regime and its aftermath.

A younger generation of poets, including Nichita Stănescu, Ștefan Augustin Doinaș, and Mircea Dinescu, who have all been translated into other languages, criticised the Ceaușescu regime and became active dissidents. Their work has also been translated into other languages by cultural agents associated with or working for Romanian embassies abroad. In the communist period, embassies played an active role in disseminating the outstanding work of Romanian writers and poets. However, their contribution worked both ways, as they also helped Romanian writers or poets come into touch with broader European culture.

Besides the Communist Party, the role of collective translation agency was taken over by the Romanian Writers' Union, some prestigious publishing houses, and some literary magazines. In this period, some state publishing houses, such as Editura de Stat pentru Literatură Universală, and later the collections of Editura Univers, Editura pentru Literatură, and Editura Minerva, played a significant role in disseminating world literature. The anthologies of poetry brought world poets home to Romanian readers, as well as Romanian poets to other readerships. Some literary reviews, like *Secolul XX (The 20th Century)*, published outstanding writers, poets, and translations. Everything that was published under the auspices of these publishing houses and reviews was driven by quality.

3. The Post-Communist Period

The post-communist period brought about new political circumstances and saw Romania become a democratic country, governed by a democratic government. Romania joined the European Union in 2007 and has been a member of NATO since March 2004. As a result, Romanian writers and translators enjoy all the liberties and rights that citizens around the world enjoy in democratic regimes. The break with the old communist regime unleashed a wave of creative energy and lifted all political or cultural restrictions. The consequence was that publishing houses offered their services to more writers and translators and an unprecedented number of books were published for all tastes and readerships. In the absence of a centralised policy, publishing houses work out their own publishing strategies, some of which are market driven, while other publishers have remained loyal to their longstanding cultural and literary values. Given the vast variety and diversity of goals and national editorial fragmentation, agency has been difficult to trace in the first decades of the twenty-first century. The editorial market has been subject to both private and state interests, depending on the kind of ownership of the publishing house. State-owned and academic publishing houses continue to pay tribute to valuable writers and poets and maintain standards of quality, while private ones practice a looser publishing and marketing strategy, catering to less demanding, more mainstream readers.

The formative and educational role in this loose *laissez-faire* market has been assumed by translation teachers who are making efforts to tune their students into European translation traditions and schools, as well as to European Commission quality norms and standards. The domain of translation is thus coordinated or regulated both in the norms and standards of its practice and its teaching. The agency of these teachers is, thus, a recognised service in the area of translation.

Leading literary magazines, such as *Revista de Traduceri Literare (The Review of Literary Translations)*, publish editorials, analyses, commentaries, and interviews with writers and translators and present their views to the public in an attempt to develop the public taste and educate both the public and translators, and last but not least, to assess the market as well.

Efforts by magazines to promote local and national translators are aided by the efforts of professional associations, such as the Romanian Writers' Union and its local and regional branches. As an expression of collective agency, the associations assume various roles, including: trend setters; commentators on ongoing processes and the challenges of the profession or the market; selecting books to be translated and methods of translation; and finally, calling attention to the merits of reputable translators. The website of the Romanian Writers' Union keeps the literary readership updated on events, releases, and literary interactions. The Union only accepts successful writers, poets and translators, having established acceptance criteria for its members. Members are rewarded for their efforts through the numerous events organised by the Union's national and territorial branches. It has created a community of elite writers, poets and translators interested in the fate of literature; its role is to further encourage the translation of works of literature both into Romanian and from Romanian into other languages.

A similar endeavour to stimulate literary activity is the goal of *Revista de Traduceri Literare* (*The Review of Literary Translations*), established for the purpose of highlighting the special character of literary translators, a job that is usually ignored by literary critics, who, according to Peter Sragher (*Revista de traduceri literare: 2 ani și 24 de numere*), focus their attention on the interpretation of a work, and on its European or universal context, rather than on the quality of the translation or its challenges. As an editor of the *Review of Literary Translations*, Sragher initiated some review sections, such as the section *work-in-progress*, which makes a translator's work better known to critics, academics, and the public. Contributors to the *Review* seek to bring committed translators together to organise translation workshops and colloquia.

The translator associations in Romania benefit from the expert services of experienced translators who promote their services and have their voices heard by all the translators, by the beneficiaries of such translation services, and by readers. These associations have understood their role and have committed themselves to serving their professional goals. Just like literary reviews, the associations encourage the active exchange of ideas, practices, and a drive towards common goals.

In terms of collective agency, it should be noted that national *fora*, such as the *Romanian Writers' Union,* the *Review of Literary Translations*, and the professional translators' associations have changed the status and role of the translator continue to strive to improve the translator's *habitus*.

The Impact of the Digital Revolution on Translation Agency

Digitalisation has speeded up processes and activities in all professional environments. In the domain of translation and the translation market electronic websites, advertisements, blogs, messages, and pop-ups bring desired information to a translator's fingertips in no time at all. The same fast transmission of information works to the benefit of editors and editing houses, whenever they wish to survey customers or the translation market.

Instant chatting with customers helps editors assess and make rapid decisions regarding what translations should be published and what is the right time for their publication. At the same time, instant or immediate reaction or feedback from publishers can help translators and writers improve their work more easily and at home, sparing them time-consuming formal visits to editors. As such, both parties can have an immediate understanding of the situation and reach agreement on solutions to problems.

Is there any disadvantage that may derive from this remote collaboration? First of all, demanding writers need confirmation of an editor's professionalism and their capacity to deal with various issues and this calls for close scrutiny or investigation of the editor. On the other hand, the editor must also carefully assess the writer's work and views. In an extremely competitive and saturated translation market, a rapid, distant collaboration may run the risk of delivering to the market too many literary products of lesser quality and ones that are not needed on the market. In the rush for a prosperous e-business, both translators, writers, and publishers may fail.

Reaching out to an unprecedented mass of readers makes promotion and translation agency faster and more professional. The editors or publishing houses now have the digital means to reach out and persuade their customers in relation to their own views. Additionally, the technical qualities of different competitive applications or tools assist the translator in their work. Starting from the early 1990s, computer-assisted translation (CAT) tools have been made available, as well as online dictionaries, and a rapidly growing body of full-text databases. The European Commission, with its professional and specialised translators, has provided translators working in the European and global markets with reliable tools. The same tools are used today by teachers and trainers to teach students how to work in the modern translation environment and to get up to date with the latest and most reliable translation tools.

In addition, social media tools have provided translators with opportunities to liaise and establish *fora* for communicating and networking, offering open spaces for professional information, discussion, and cooperation.

In general, for most professions digitalisation has meant, at least initially, a change to a more fragmented and puzzling professional working community. For some professions though, digital technology has opened up possibilities for establishing closer professional communities and cooperation. Translation is a profession that has benefitted from this change, as most translators have traditionally worked alone, except for meetings with editors or employers. Translator working conditions have changed substantially due to the digitalisation of information resources and Internet access (Tveit & Byström 2). New communities have emerged, making the world smaller by permanently shrinking distances between. The world has turned into a global workplace, and even if you may be on different continents, at home or in an office, you may still communicate and share experiences, or give translation tips to a distant collaborator.

Although there is no published research work on the Romanian translator community's interaction through professional websites and digital tools, they benefit from the same advantages as other European translators, including rapid information distribution, instant chats, and webinars, etc.

Conclusions

Over the past three to four decades, relatively little has been written on translation agency in comparison to other subject matter falling under the domain of applied linguistic studies. In a complex world, governed by political instability, the tides of immigrants that drive present global history, and by the digital revolution, it has been the goal of this study to catch a glimpse of *translation agency* in Romania, a country which has experienced war, Nazi occupation, Stalinism, the popular regime, the communist regime, and finally democracy after 1989.

The diachronic picture of the decades over which scholars and linguists have written on agency in translation has revealed tumultuous activity, with emphasis on different aspects. The period following WWII in Europe was characterised by a diversity of manifestations of agency, reflecting

Europe's long-lasting and troubled history, dominated by different policies, ideologies and a distribution of power that reflected the influence of political leaders and their hegemonic ambitions.

In Romania, the period after WW II was a period of cultural relief, one in which great writers and poets took to translating both as a means of improving their own creative skills and of promoting foreign literature in Romania. It was a period in which the translational *habitus* was deeply ingrained in individuals of literary genius. At the same time, *collective agency* was limited to parties and leaders or leading groups with different and diverging interests. Their agency, an oppressive one, restricted creative freedom and threatened creative minds, in particular those who looked forward and who managed to pursue their agency in spite of their aversion to the regime. This period saw remarkable works of translation, such as those by Blaga, Vianu, Philippide, Vinea, Arghezi and many others.

In the communist period, individual agency was represented by outstanding translators such as A. E. Baconsky, and later ones, whose translation activity was enriched by their transmitting to the young generations of translators their experiences and imparting knowledge. Collective agency was assumed by the authorities of the Communist Party who censored literature and provided strict guidelines for publishing and translation. In spite of their communist views, which hindered the entrance of Western literature into Romania, they promoted Romanian literature abroad in countries like France, Germany and other neighbouring countries that Romania had good relations with. However, in the 1980s, reputable professors of English started to publish works on translations and comprehensive dictionaries that were helpful to the younger generation of translators.

The post-communist years brought about new circumstances, new democratic views on political issues, a break from the previous narrow-minded translation policy, and gave more freedom to all those who wished to express their literary talent or genius. This period is characterised in terms of its fragmentation, diversity, tolerance, and lack of constraint. This is the outcome of a more liberal view of society and its institutions and the right of individuals to express their opinions. The free market in democratic regimes has seen the expression of a myriad of views and opinions, and the co-existence of private and state or academic publishing houses providing their services to communities with which they are associated. The degree of partisanship or lack thereof among these entities would make a suitable object of study for a different, more insightful work.

Romania has undergone many political and social events and processes and has inherited a complex historical past with a rich heritage of translation. Throughout the historical periods touched on in this study, translations have made their way into world literature and have brought world literature to Romanian readers. While individual and collective agencies have often been at odds, they have contributed to the development of literature and its spread through translation.

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Riding the High-Tech Wave: Conference Interpreting and the 'Geeky' Edge

Adriana Neagu and Renata Georgescu

Interpreting: Pre and Post-Digital

As the art of the spoken word, interpreting, the world's 'second oldest profession', has, since time immemorial, been associated with hands-on experience: the practitioner acquires the necessary skills and knowledge directly (i.e. from performing the activity), rather than scholastically (i.e. from reading and research). Acting *viva voce*, interpreters originally operated spontaneously, by word of mouth, with little if any preparation, guided by a sense of language, intuition, and the desire to facilitate communication, or better still, to prevent conflict. Doubtless, from the 'low tech', *impromptu* diplomacy-democracy exercise that originated in antiquity to the high-tech, professionalised occupation of the global era, interpreting has undergone considerable changes, particularly with the birth of the profession of conference interpreting. Yet, despite the significant departures from interpreting's early setting, the various stages of the evolution of the profession, and from the early experiments in simultaneous interpreting of the 1920s to the remote interpreting of today, there is a set of golden principles that have remained staples of interpreting practice, irrespective of the mode in which it is conducted. As a skill that involves advanced oral communication aptitudes, to interpret is to convert one spoken language into another, in so doing mediating communication and getting a message across as fluently and as naturally as possible, while keeping in mind the cultural context behind the message. It involves rendering both the content of a message and its tone as fully and as faithfully as possible, doing justice to both what is being said and to how the speaker says it. It requires: focus; a wide/long attention span, fast information processing; and multitasking. An unscripted, *ad lib* activity performed *in extempore*, interpreting calls for on-the-spot decision making, and, among the other practical skills that it builds, it maintains one's relationship with one's handwriting; at least it did, until the emergence of tablet interpreting not so long ago.

The advent of information and communication technologies (ICTs) and their integration into conference interpreting pedagogy leading up to 'technology-assisted interpreting', has facilitated an empowering new stage in the evolution of the profession. There is no question that the digital revolution has changed the face of professional interpreting, adding to the practical intelligence and sagacity of the interpreter's speaking abilities. Reliance on mobile devices for electronic glossaries and no longer having to carry a cohort of dictionaries and print-outs around the conference site, not to mention the greater portability and the prospect of paperless work, have made the interpreting 'arsenal' of the older days look outmoded or even redundant. Even though computer-assisted interpreting (CAI) has seen a slower start than computer-assisted translation (CAT), and arguably had a less immediate impact, it has not only altered, but also greatly diversified the interpreter's working environment. CAI has given rise to various modes of remote interpreting, ranging from basic telephone interpreting, which had already taken off in immigration contexts in the 1970s, to videoconferencing, and a whole array of virtual/distance interpreting settings, culminating in multilateral audio and video communication at distance; in other words, to a growing market of brand-new opportunities. Laptops, notebooks and personal digital assistants have certainly been very enabling, ensuring real-time access to terminology and the delivery of fast-paced interpreting services.

Acting as invaluable, enabling tools in professional, language-related work environments, leading-edge technologies do not necessarily offer added value in the education process in general, or the classroom situation in particular. As such, a significant number of scholarly articles in cognitive psychology and education published over the past decade and examining large samples of subjects trace a direct relationship between the extensive use of information and communication technologies and a decrease in overall academic performance, resulting in a considerably lower GPA (grade point average) among students. Developments in the field of study evidence that, when used outside the classroom setting and for the purpose of gathering information, ICTs can, for the most part, benefit students. In contradistinction, engaging in real-time streaming and multi-tasking while in the process of completing a required activity, invariably proves detrimental to the response to the task at hand (Junco & Cotton 2012):

> Research on multitasking has uncovered clear evidence that human information processing is insufficient for attending to multiple stimuli and for performing simultaneous tasks (Chun, Golomb & Turk-Browne, 2011; Koch, Lawo, Fels, & Vorländer, 2011; Marois & Ivanoff, 2005; Rosen, Lim, Carrier, & Cheever, 2011; Tombu et al. 2011; Wood & Cowan, 1995; Wood et al., 2012). Almost all of the research on multitasking is conducted in the cognitive sciences and focuses on simple tasks such as attending to a stream of words presented to one ear while a distractor stream is presented

to the other. However, there is evidence that these performance decrements extend to more complex tasks (Junco 2012: 1).

Tablet Use in Consecutive and Simultaneous Interpreting

Benefitting unequivocally from state-of-the-art technology, the interpreting profession has zeroed in on its leading edge, moving to a new era of boundless opportunity. One of the latest developments engendered by the ICT revolution, tablet interpreting has proven to be one of the most popular and beneficial for consecutive interpretation, almost unanimously reported as helpful at the stages of both preparation and practice. In *A Comparative User Evaluation of Tablets and Tools for Consecutive Interpreters* (2017), Joshua Goldsmith of the University of Geneva, extensively researches the phenomenon, presenting the results of a revealing pilot study and of a series of surveys conducted in order to determine the scope of tablet interpreting. Whether stand-alone or two-in-one computers that can be used as both laptops and tablets, they appear to have already been successfully integrated into consecutive interpreting practice:

> Tablets like the iPad have become rather popular among interpreters. They are helpful for all phases of the interpreting process—from preparation to follow-up, in the booth for simultaneous and as a digitally-enhanced notepad for consecutive interpreting. […] Although little academic research has been published on this phenomenon, interpreters have turned to blogs and social media to share their experiences using tablets for consecutive interpreting (Rosado, 2013; Behl, 2013a, 2013b), preparation and simultaneous interpreting (Magistris Cruickshank, 2012). A manual on tablet interpreting has been released (Drechsel 2013), and some European institutions have begun training their interpreters to use tablets. Tablet

> interpreting is clearly on the rise. Even those who traditionally avoided IT are drawn to this new, more intuitive experience: tablets have gone from a simple tool used primarily for home entertainment to a useful complement for interpreters on the move (Drechsel & Goldsmith 2016: 1).

Although, as Goldsmith notes, the study is still in progress, there is already conclusive evidence that the features reported to be the most relevant to interpreters working in consecutive interpreting mode are the swift, friendly note-taking experience and the easy readability of notes:

> Overall results indicate that interpreters seek tablets, note-taking applications and styluses that are reliable, durable and comfortable to use, offering a smooth writing experience and resulting in clear, easy-to-read notes (Goldsmith 2017: 49).

In the booth, on the other hand, despite its indisputable benefits, the sea of information instantly available at the click of one's finger can also pose problems related to concentration, information management, and selection. Sifting through the myriad of references, term bases, and potential solutions is absorbing and bound to divert attention, although its sheer volume detracts from its value in terms of speed and accessibility. Emancipating though this may at first appear, at the same time, the use of tablets can at times add to rather than relieve the pressure of conference interpreting, particularly as far as multi-tasking is concerned. As with consecutive interpreting, a series of pilot studies have been conducted with a view to establishing the pros and cons of using mobile devices. The vast majority of these point to opinions being divided as to actual benefits. Thus, whereas digital note-taking can actually enhance consecutive interpreting performance (after all, tablets are becoming increasingly speedy and writer-friendly), having a tablet for a booth-mate can be distracting and does not necessarily buy one precious booth-time. Granted, tablets occupy less space in the booth than laptops, which is of course convenient. In addition to this, as a preparation tool they enable faster and more effective highlighting and instant checking of terminology. On the other hand, listening to a speech while following presentation slides and looking up online material at one and the same time can severely stretch the simultaneous interpreter's mental resources beyond the conventional distinct stages of active listening, processing, and re-expression. While using a powered stylus to tap on a screen or the latest apps to convert and sync notes may boost the consecutive interpreter's performance, in the booth these can cause problems in terms of psychological and cognitive management, taxing the interpreter's already overstretched resources. In this sense, Goldsmith (2017: 41) speaks of the cognitive overload that mobile devices bring about and of the higher stress levels that they may induce. Depending on one's tablet interpreting experience, tablets can have important benefits for consecutive interpretation, but tend to be distracting and indeed counterproductive in the booth, where you only have one 'crack at it'.

It is almost unanimously agreed within the interpreting community that overreliance on technology in the booth can easily shift an interpreter's attention away from the task at hand, breaking concentration and diminishing the genuinely communicative objective behind the interpretative act. Being glued to a screen searching for terminology or answers to questions is counterproductive and can alienate the interpreter from the communication process. In addition to this, as many practicing interpreters and trainers have pointed out, technology can pose problems of confidentiality, raising serious concerns as to the potential leaking of sensitive information and protected data. Clearly being beneficial in terms of accessibility and portability, smartphones enable participants to take pictures, record content, and live feed information that is otherwise highly confidential.

Keenly self-aware, interpreters are very attached to the idea that the very nature of what they do is pure, unadulterated multitasking, and they boast of their capacity to juggle several operations simultaneously. While interpreters' unblinking confidence in the reality of it may be reassuring, in light of the latest research, it appears interpreters may take multitasking at face value. Recent developments in cognitive psychology have thus pointed out that 'multitasking' is in fact a misnomer: there is no such thing as 100 % multitasking and the activities involved in the process are more accurately described as a form of task-switching, which significantly diminishes precision and productivity and can prove detrimental to the quality of the end result, as well as being prone to error. In this respect, there is evidence that switching between tasks limits the activity of the prefrontal cortex. Findings in the field of cognitive psychology seem to be further confirmed by studies in human-computer interaction (HCI). A series of experimental tests studying the effects of multitasking in the classroom were applied to students in an upper level communications course by Cornell University's HCI Group. The students were divided into two groups. The two groups of students heard the same lecture, with group one being allowed to use their laptops to engage in browsing, searching, and/or social computing behaviours during the lecture; whereas students in group two were asked not to use any electronic devices. Helene Hembroke (HCI Group Associate Director) and Geri Gay (HCI Group Director) describe the preliminary findings thus:

> Students in the open laptop condition suffered decrements on traditional measures of memory for lecture content. A second experiment replicated the results of the first. Data were further analyzed by ‘browsing style’. Results are discussed from Lang’s Limited Process Capacity model in an attempt to better understand the mechanisms involved in the decrement (Hembroke & Gay 2018).

It is outside the scope of the present paper to deconstruct the myth of multitasking. Here, we simply share the assumption that one is considerably less productive and effective while multitasking because there are only so many cognitive tasks one can attend to successfully at once. In other words, having to handle multiple streams of information is bound to divide one’s attention, which is why specialists argue that it is best to avoid task-switching. For best results, they recommend batch-processing (i.e. dealing with one task for a consistent amount of time) instead. This clearly brings up the issue of the psychological price interpreters pay for the gadgets now assisting their work, pointing to inattention and communicative alienation as the cost of multitasking and sounding a note of caution in terms of the need to adopt these in interpreting pedagogy.

In a paradigmatic article on the shift engendered by digital literacy, Mark Prensky puts his finger on the crux of the digital matter, tracing a distinction particularly relevant to novice versus professional interpreters, i.e. between ‘digital natives’ and ‘digital immigrants’. Prensky thus distinguishes today’s students from older generations, ‘digital immigrants’ as ‘native speakers’ of the ‘digital language of computers’, or else, as natural-born ‘digitalists’ quicker to process and absorb digital as opposed to conventional, analogue information, essentially the exponents, of an unprecedented generational gap:

> Today's students have not just changed *incrementally* from those of the past, nor simply changed their slang, clothes, body adornments, or styles, as has happened between generations previously. A really big *discontinuity* has taken place. One might even call it a "singularity"—an event which changes things so fundamentally that there is absolutely no going back. This so-called "singularity" is the arrival and rapid dissemination of digital technology in the last decades of the 20th century. Today's students—k through college—represent the first generations to grow up with this new technology. They have spent their entire lives surrounded by and using computers, videogames, digital music players, video cams, cell phones, and all the other toys and tools of the digital age. Today's average college grads have spent less than 5,000 hours of their lives reading, but over 10,000 hours playing video games (not to mention 20,000 hours watching TV). Computer games, email, the Internet, cell phones and instant messaging are integral parts of their lives (Prensky 1).

The thesis of radical change in the very structures of cognition foregrounded here by Prensky offers one of the most apt *rationales* for the different levels of high tech congeniality involved in encounters between today's students and instructors, as well as the hiatus in cultural logic underlying it:

> […] the single biggest problem facing education today is that our Digital Immigrant instructors, who speak an outdated language (that of the pre-digital age), are struggling to teach a population that speaks an entirely new language. This is obvious to the Digital Natives—school often feels pretty much as if we've brought in a population of heavily accented,

> unintelligible foreigners to lecture them. They often can't understand what the Immigrants are saying. What does "dial" a number mean, anyway? (Prensky 2)

Barbara Moser-Mercer, a pioneering figure in interpreter training and Professor of Conference Interpreting at the Geneva School of Translating and Interpreting[1] takes a trenchant, intransigent position in contributing a distinct perspective to the issue of ICTs in interpreter training. In an interview conducted for *Online Educa Berlin*, an annual international conference on technology-supported e-learning organised in Berlin, Moser-Mercer celebrated digital tools for their connectivity and portability as both learning and practising materials, making a convincing case that they play an invaluable role in setting up effective learning platforms, as well as in the lives of interpreters working in conflict zones. Pedagogy-wise, however, Moser-Mercer (2015) stresses the need to introduce ICT tools gradually, alongside, rather than in sync with, ongoing learning objectives:

> Even for those most adept at using tablets, information access via tablets during the early stages of skill acquisition in interpreting is cognitively too demanding and we do not recommend it. As their skills evolve, cognitive resources are freed up and can be redeployed to accessing information on screen. Our booths are all equipped with computers and screens, speakers are either presenting live or on screen, tablets thus represent additional visual input that is not synchronised with the main input. This type of multi-tasking requires considerable practice and increasingly interpreter trainers need to incorporate the acquisition of appropriate strategies into

[1] Moser is founder and director of the University of Geneva's Centre for Interpreting in Conflict Zones (InZone).

> their course syllabus. Currently, the evidence-base for how to optimise work with multiple inputs is scant at best, and anecdotal evidence is usually the only source of information. Trainers thus need to invest in appropriate research projects to better understand how learners acquire interpreting skills in technologically rich environments (Moser-Mercer 2015).

We share Moser-Mercer's position that the enormous potential of speed, information and accessibility that ICT tools provide needs to be well adapted to the educational purpose and to the degree of cognitive relevance they have at the appropriate stage in the learning process. Granted, in the humanitarian field, the use of ICT can make a crucial difference, being instrumental in helping interpreters meet the challenges of out-of-the ordinary working conditions. In such contexts, 'phraselators', automated conversion and machine interpreting solutions, can intensify real-time interpretation services, and decrease reaction times, hence their need to be incorporated into the training of humanitarian interpreters in the field. In the conventional setting, where their assistance is not vital, however, it is important to view ICT as an additional aid, rather than as part of a new pedagogical approach altogether:

> Q: How are new technologies improving interpreters' working conditions?
>
> Much depends on how we define working conditions and which generation of interpreters we speak to. Quite a number of interpreters feel overwhelmed and prefer to rely on strategies they acquired a long time ago and leveraging only basic technologies for pre-conference preparation. Others, again, export the strategies they have acquired using technologies for a large number of daily tasks onto interpreting and maintain that these

> technologies have truly improved the way they work. Cognitive overload is a serious issue if not properly understood and managed; if it were to become too present in the interpreter's professional life, there is real potential for negative impact on working conditions. Just like traders on the stock exchange used to juggle multiple phones to do their job, interpreters are by definition able to juggle multiple tasks; but research into the long-term impact of this type of multi-tasking is needed in order to obtain the necessary evidence base to pass judgment on whether a technologically rich work environment translates into improved working conditions. (Moser-Mercer 2015).

In the training process, as well as in preparing for a one-off interpretation mission, tablets can be used for documenting, storing, and accessing topic-related information. Interpreter training, on the other hand, is a long-term, arduous process, and in most cases it takes a long time to build a healthy body of technique and solid skills. This is a process in which gradual and systematic progression and consistency are far more crucial than the need for CAI and cutting edge technology. Resource management in the learning process is key to the acquisition of the necessary skills and to the transition from novice to expert interpreting, as Daniel Gile (1997) illustrated in his now seminal article on the intrinsic difficulties of conference interpreting. Adopting CAI tools in the early stages of training, as both Moser-Mercer and Goldsmith indicate, will take their toll, having a considerable cognitive impact and leading to 'cognitive overload' (Goldsmith 2017: 41).

An additional argument against pushing the 'technological boundaries' of interpreter training is to do with the quality of electronic reading. As many studies in cognitive psychology and education have already pointed out, electronic reading is anything but deep reading; faster, doubtless more convenient and congenial—especially for the digital generation and definitely more immediately available—digital reading affects comprehension, severely impairing information processing skills. Various studies conducted on this effect have demonstrated that students who read texts in print on a regular basis score significantly higher than those that operate primarily online. Far from being straightforward, the question of digital literacy and the edge it can bring to interpreting practice remains a complex one, as losses in interpretation competences seem, for now at least, to outweigh gains in speed and instantaneity. It thus appears that in the classroom at least, it may not yet be the time to 'ditch' the good old notepad and become comfortably detached from one's handwriting.

On the other hand, the professional realities of virtual versus on-site conferencing, and the growing market for videoconferencing, remote interpreting and tour guide systems, as well as the predicament of interpreting in extreme situations such as conflict zones, all call for familiarisation with and employment of the latest technologies, to ensure competitiveness, optimal conditions, and even safety. As Moser-Mercer points out:

> It is difficult to ascertain whether new technologies improve interpreters' working conditions; they certainly have had an impact on them. As we have embraced new technologies in our daily lives, in the hopes of automating chores, externalising our memory, remaining socially connected and becoming more productive, not everything that shines is actually gold. We are at the mercy of technology updates that require us to relearn how we use devices at ever shorter intervals, we need to stay connected—even in the booth—if we want to have a visual support for the presentation the speaker is about to present. We certainly won't be hired unless we were able to download an entire conference worth of

> presentations, nor would the world's largest employers of interpreters offer contracts to those who aren't reachable—even when they happen to be sun bathing on some distant beach while on vacation (Moser-Mercer online interview 2015).

While the incorporation of new technologies into the classroom is beginning to show significant training potential, if properly integrated, the real 'geeky edge' lies in what these enable in the realm of actual interpreting practice, i.e. a whole new medium, indeed an entire landscape, of opportunity inevitably pushing interpreter job markets to expand and evolve. As such, the right audio-visual infrastructure, access to a broadband internet connection, and I-pads and smart-pens, give interpreters a competitive advantage, contributing to increased performance and productivity. Exploiting cutting edge software, translation and interpretation agencies have considerably improved the way in which they conduct business. Empowering on the one hand, highly demanding on the other, digital tools have unquestionably altered the manner in which interpreters exert their profession, calling for ever higher degrees of digital literacy.

In a survey we conducted of nine professional conference interpreters working in both local and EU markets, respondents almost unanimously declared mixed feelings about the benefits of new technologies, reasserting their continuing faith in human interpreting. Whereas respondents mostly indicated they would for now place limited confidence in CAI, they expressed a full sense of awareness that interpreting in the digital age can no longer afford *not* to take stock of the new modes of literacy endemic to professional communication today.

As both Goldsmith and Moser-Mercer underline, more empirical studies need to be conducted in order for the conference interpreting community to reach a fair, well-balanced, and edifying understanding of the role played by new technologies in conference interpreting training and practice. At the current stage of research, the issues that seem to be the most consequential are generation-specific and concern the cultural propensities digital literacy inevitably entails, along with the rapidly changing interpretation services on demand in the global market. To these, of course we add the individual choices of practitioners, whose final say in the matter of technology will remain, as it should, defining and ineffable:

> Skilled use of tablets may actually decrease cognitive load. Even back in 1995, Gile recognized the potential benefits of "microcomputers" for glossaries. He uses a gravitational model to show that units of linguistic knowledge (e.g. specialized terminology or target language phrases) are only useful if they are available to the interpreter. Glossaries or other pre-processed information can help to make these units more available by (temporarily) enlarging the available linguistic knowledge. Technology can be combined with some of the "coping tactics" mentioned by Gile: delaying the response provides a time window to look up a term in a glossary, quickly search for a definition or an image of the object mentioned by the speaker or retrieve a quotation.
>
> Although a traditional laptop could also be used for the aforementioned operations, we would argue that cognitive load may actually be lower on tablets. The concept of cognitive load, which stems from the field of cognitive psychology, applies to the user experience of technology as "the sum of elements you need to learn and get familiar with in order to use (Drechsel & Goldsmith 2).

Running in both directions, arguments regarding the effectiveness of integrating ICTs in the pedagogy and practice of conference interpreting, ultimately converge on this as a structural issue pertaining to the type of cognitive mindset in question. In this respect, Prensky's distinction is by far the most relevant and productive model in the literature. Rather than a question of interpreting mode or situation, it comes down to the mode of literacy one is an exponent of. Consequently, whereas to a 'digital native' the use of ICTs in both the training process and in the ensuing professional experience, may not only turn out to be productive, indeed it may even lessen the pressure on the cognitive load, users of what Prensky calls an 'outdated language', with their strong, 'digital immigrant accent' would most probably be better off sticking to conventional multi-tasking. Despite the increasingly indispensability of digital tools and relative success of real-time machine interpreting solutions, human interpretation, at least for the time being, appears to be here to stay.

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Tradurre in Romeno *Il Gattopardo*: Il Valore Della Coerenza Stilistica

Anamaria Milonean

1. Tradurre: "un'appassionata complicità"

Ancora alla ricerca di una definizione complessiva dell'ampio e problematico fenomeno chiamato *traduzione*, gli studi di traduttologia sembrano convergere oggi nell'offrire al compito traduttivo una posizione affatto privilegiata, all'incrocio tra diverse discipline che delineano il contesto culturale specifico del testo di partenza, da un lato, e quello specifico del testo di arrivo, dall'altro: semiotica testuale, socio- e psicolinguistica, letteratura comparata, studi culturali ecc. Partendo dalle teorie della ricezione del testo, le definizioni della traduzione sembrano prediligere, negli ultimi decenni, gli aspetti che riguardano i contesti culturali e le modalità d'innesto del testo di partenza nella cultura di arrivo[1], attraverso la traduzione.

Eugeniu Coșeriu (1997) considera la traduzione un atto complesso, in stretta connessione con il nuovo contesto culturale, mentre per i promotori della *Skopostheorie*[2] la traduzione rappresenta un atto linguistico comunicativo con una fisionomia propria, che è determinato dalla cultura in cui si inserisce e dallo scopo della comunicazione. Sulla scia di questa ampia corrente traduttologica, anche Raffaella Bertazzoli ribadisce lo

[1] Per il concetto di cultura come "somma di testi" si veda anche Lotman, 1974.
[2] La teoria di Reiss e Vermeer, spiegata in Nord, 1997.

statuto culturale della traduzione e afferma che tradurre significa fare un “confronto dialettico tra interi sistemi culturali” e implica “l’accesso a una molteplicità di saperi all’interno di un sistema interdisciplinare e nella piena consapevolezza che la traduzione ci fa incontrare l’altro non solo come differenza semantico-linguistica, ma come individuo sociale, come entità storica” (Bertazzoli 7-8). Dunque, proiettata sullo sfondo dell’interdisciplinarità, la traduzione rappresenta una mediazione linguistico-culturale, che deve dare la giusta attenzione al nuovo contesto di ricezione e alla figura del lettore modello.

Tradurre significa, quindi, adattare il testo tradotto e “lo statuto ontologico dell’adattamento risiede proprio nel contenere l’essenza dell’originale e la vitalità del nuovo, per cui il prodotto ha piena autonomia rispetto al modello” (ivi 15). Nel valorizzare le differenze linguistiche e culturali, il testo di arrivo (*metatesto*) sarà sempre un prodotto imperfetto rispetto al testo di partenza (*prototesto*[1]), ma sarà anche un testo originale, un “prolungamento” semantico che metterà in luce, nel nuovo contesto linguistico-culturale, aspetti inediti, che diventeranno strumenti di arricchimento del testo fonte, all’interno di un fertile dialogo tra lingue e culture.

Il concetto di “imperfezione” sembra “perfetto” (permettendoci un gioco di parole) per caratterizzare prima di tutto la traduzione letteraria, processo che affida un ruolo centrale ai fattori idiolinguistici, allo stile individuale dell’autore, dove ogni segno ha un suo significato e ogni parola un senso preciso. Tenendo conto, in un certo periodo storico e in base al tipo di testo da tradurre, di pratiche specifiche della cultura di arrivo, il traduttore deve quindi operare continue scelte, privilegiando

[1] Per i concetti di *prototesto* e *metatesto* si veda anche Bertazzoli, 2018, che cita Osimo, 2000.

alcuni aspetti del testo di partenza e individuandone la *dominante*[1], ossia "l'aspetto peculiarmente costitutivo", l'elemento considerato il più importante, il quale garantisce l'unità della struttura.

Visto che si traduce sempre da una cultura all'altra e non solo da una lingua all'altra (Eco 161), il traduttore deve scegliere e *negoziare* continuamente il senso del testo[2], perché il nuovo prodotto compia la sua azione comunicativa e attivi la maggior parte delle configurazioni testuali generatrici di senso.

Processo dinamico, intuitivo e pragmatico, la traduzione presuppone decisioni e svolte, e la scelta del traduttore riguarda principalmente due aspetti: *l'adeguatezza* (quando la traduzione si concentra sull'originale, sulla lingua, sullo stile, sulla cultura di partenza) e *l'accettabilità* (per essere facilmente comprensibile, la traduzione utilizza un linguaggio che rispetta le convenzioni letterarie e linguistiche della cultura di arrivo)[3]. Ed è proprio l'algoritmo specifico di queste decisioni quello che sta alla base dell'originalità del testo di arrivo – un testo autonomo, con il proprio dinamismo.

Gli studi di traduttologia cercano di usare di meno i concetti tipo *fedeltà*/*infedeltà* della traduzione, e l'equivalenza (o la fedeltà) del testo di arrivo dovrebbe essere vista piuttosto come "capacità di negoziare a ogni istante la soluzione che ci pare giusta" oppure come "tendenza a credere

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[1] Il concetto di *dominante* appare in Jakobson, 1987.

[2] "Ci si potrà chiedere quali siano le parti in gioco in questo processo di negoziazione. Sono molte, ancorché talora private di iniziativa: da una parte c'è il testo fonte, coi suoi diritti autonomi, e talora la figura dell'autore empirico – ancora vivente – con le sue eventuali pretese di controllo, e tutta la cultura in cui il testo nasce; dall'altra c'è il testo di arrivo, e la cultura in cui appare, con il sistema di aspettative dei suoi probabili lettori, e persino talvolta l'industria editoriale." (Eco 18)

[3] Per i concetti di *adeguatezza* e di *accessibilità* nella traduzione, si veda anche Bertazzoli 33-34, la quale cita Toury, 1980.

che la traduzione sia sempre possibile se il testo fonte è stato interpretato con appassionata complicità" (ivi 364). Avendo come punto di riferimento la funzione della traduzione nella cultura di arrivo, il metatesto dirà sempre "quasi" la stessa cosa e, nell'assenza della perfezione, non gli resta altro che diventare un ottimo testo autonomo, il cui valore risieda soprattutto nella sistematicità e nella coerenza del metodo traduttivo.

Da un altro lato, nel tradurre è necessario adattare per poter creare un rapporto tra le varie culture non solo a livello spaziale, ma anche a livello temporale (visto che le traduzioni invecchiano), e la relazione particolare che si instaura tra il testo di partenza e il testo di arrivo (sullo sfondo del contesto culturale) diventa ancora più visibile nel caso delle ritraduzioni.

2. Tradurre e ritradurre un testo

Il lettore è a volte tentato di domandarsi perché siano necessarie le ritraduzioni. Cosa rappresentano esse? Una moda linguistica, un eccesso di zelo, una necessità intellettuale? Se la prima traduzione potrebbe essere considerata un intervento che mira a "rendere domestico" il testo di partenza (ossia un processo di assimilazione), le ritraduzioni sono necessarie o addirittura obbligatorie per almeno due ragioni: l'evoluzione linguistica (dovuta all'evoluzione storico-culturale, dei costumi, al cambiamento dei generi letterari) e l'esigenza di avere un giudizio di valore sulla traduzione/sulle traduzioni precedente/precedenti.

Le varie traduzioni di un testo letterario (date, ovviamente, le differenze tra i contesti storico-culturali in cui appaiono) rappresentano progetti di traduzione differenti, seguono filoni estetici diversi, si propongono mete diverse. E si presentano, dunque, come prodotti/testi originali, a sé stanti.

Per una valutazione imparziale delle successive traduzioni di un testo, gli studi di traduttologia propongono tre tappe: la loro lettura come oggetti distinti, la lettura dell'originale per poter analizzare le scelte e le decisioni dei traduttori, l'analisi del percorso individuale e culturale dei traduttori.

Il presente lavoro si soffermerà su alcuni aspetti che riguardano la traduzione e la ritraduzione di un romanzo italiano classico, *Il Gattopardo* di Giuseppe Tomasi di Lampedusa, romanzo apparso presso la casa editrice Feltrinelli, nel 1958. La prima traduzione in romeno, quella chiamata "classica", è di Tașcu Gheorghiu e appare presso la Casa Editrice per la Letteratura Universale (Editura pentru Literatură Universală), nel 1964, con una ristampa del 2003, presso la casa editrice Humanitas. La seconda traduzione appartiene alla traduttrice Gabriela Lungu e appare presso la stessa Humanitas, nel 2011, essendo ben accolta dal pubblico.

In un'intervista pubblicata sulla *Revista de Traduceri Literare* (*Rivista di Traduzioni Letterarie*) nel settembre del 2018, la traduttrice parla della necessità di offrire ogni mezzo secolo una nuova traduzione dei capolavori della letteratura, per portare il testo sempre più vicino al pubblico. La sua traduzione si propone di evitare prima di tutto gli arcaismi di cui il testo di T. Gheorghiu abbonda, con l'intenzione di dare la possibilità al lettore di leggere con piacere, senza obbligarlo a ricorrere in ogni momento al dizionario.

Da quanto detto sopra, sembra che il metodo traduttivo adottato da G. Lungu sia incentrato sul principio dell'accessibilità. Però, nella stessa intervista, la traduttrice confessa di aver avuto l'intenzione di restare, il più possibile, fedele all'originale, il che indica anche l'adozione del principio dell'adeguatezza.

Una buona traduzione deve infatti abbinare i due metodi, ma questo percorso risulterà il più difficile e l'unica garanzia del valore del prodotto (il testo di arrivo) sta nel seguire costantemente i principi traduttivi prefigurati, ossia quella „coerenza di metodo" di cui parlano i traduttologi. Una volta data per scontata l'originalità di qualsiasi traduzione, come testo autonomo, diverso dall'originale e dalle altre traduzioni, uno dei migliori strumenti di valutazione del testo di arrivo sembra sia la propria coerenza stilistica.

Nella linguistica, lo stile viene definito come l'insieme delle particolarità di un testo/discorso che conferiscono a quest'ultimo originalità e autonomia in un contesto in cui appaiono altri testi/discorsi similari. Allo stesso tempo, lo stile consiste nell'uso consapevole di certi strumenti linguistici per raggiungere uno scopo comunicativo. Nel suo rapportarsi al messaggio, lo stile viene definito come devianza, come aspetto insolito, con una funzione poetica. Nel suo rapportarsi all'emittente, lo stile viene considerato un atto volontario che riguarda l'atteggiamento dell'autore (traduttore, nel nostro caso) nei confronti della lingua che utilizza; dunque *stile* significa, in poche parole, scelta, combinazioni, espressione del pensiero e del sentimento dell'autore. Allo stesso tempo, lo stile può indicare gli elementi-sorpresa che mirano ad avere un certo effetto sul ricettore (Parpală Afana 69-81).

Tutte le caratteristiche stilistiche di un testo gli conferiscono originalità e gli garantiscono autonomia nel contesto culturale a cui appartiene. Infatti, il testo di partenza e le sue traduzioni sono prodotti individuali, con la propria lingua, con il proprio stile. Nel paragonare le varie traduzioni di un romanzo, dobbiamo cercare di capire in che cosa consiste la coerenza stilistica dei diversi testi di arrivo, se è importante trovare strutture equivalenti, a livello stilistico, tra il testo di partenza e quello di arrivo, e qual è l'impatto dello stile di ogni traduzione sul destinatario/lettore modello, in sincronia e in diacronia.

3. Tradurre in romeno *Il Gattopardo*

Il Gattopardo di Giuseppe Tomasi di Lampedusa, romanzo incentrato sul destino del personaggio principale, il Principe di Salina, descrive le trasformazioni politico-sociali nella Sicilia della seconda metà dell'Ottocento, le quali portano alla dissoluzione del ceto aristocratico e alla fulminante ascensione della borghesia. Gli eventi sono filtrati attraverso la coscienza del Principe (testimone e interprete degli avvenimenti), la cui voce sostituisce spesse volte la voce del narratore onnisciente, in brani narrativi con un'architettura enunciativa impressionante, con una densità polifonica nata prevalentemente dall'intreccio del discorso del narratore con il discorso indiretto o indiretto libero del personaggio principale.

Sono specifiche del romanzo lampedusiano le ampie descrizioni di luoghi e di personaggi, una peculiare struttura polifonica (con l'importanza del discorso del personaggio principale, diretto, indiretto o indiretto libero), la configurazione dell'ironia (costruzioni allusive di grande sottigliezza), le espresioni dialettali, l'uso mimetico del linguaggio, tutti elementi con multiple riverberazioni a livello traduttologico, che implicano un'immensa responsabilità da parte del traduttore.

Basta leggere alcuni brani dell'incipit del *Gattopardo* nella traduzione del 1964 per capire subito la necessità di una nuova traduzione. Si riporta, di seguito, un frammento della prima parte del romanzo, che descrive la fine della recita quotidiana del rosario, nel palazzo della famiglia Salina. La prima citazione contiene il testo originale (I), la seconda, la traduzione di T. Gheorghiu (II), e la terza, la traduzione di G. Lungu (III)[1]:

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[1] Rispetteremo lo stesso ordine anche per le citazioni successive.

> Dalla porta attraverso la quale erano usciti i servi l'alano Bendicò, rattristato dalla propria esclusione, entrò e scodinzolò. Le donne si alzavano lentamente, e l'oscillante regredire delle loro sottane lasciava a poco a poco scoperte le nudità mitologiche che si disegnavano sullo sfondo latteo delle mattonelle. (I 23)

> Prin ușa pe care ieșiseră *slugile*, dogul Bendicò, *mâhnit* de *surghiunul* la care fusese silit, intră și *se gudură*. Femeile se ridicau *încet*, și *legănata* retragere a *jupelor* descoperea câte puțin *goliciunile* mitologice ce se desenau pe fondul lăptos al *pardoselii*. (II 11)

> Pe ușa pe care ieșiseră *servitorii*, dogul Bendicò, *întristat* de propria-i *excludere*, intră *dând din coadă*. Femeile se ridicau agale și unduitoarea retragere a *fustelor* descoperea încetul cu încetul *nudurile* mitologice care se desenau pe fondul lăptos al *pavimentului*. (III 29)

Il brano citato è una prima testimonianza della necessità di offrire al lettore romeno di oggi un testo fruibile, a portata di mano, una traduzione funzionale, comunicativa[1]. Per capire il rapporto diacronico di alcuni dei termini sottolineati, metteremo in risalto la loro evoluzione nella lingua romena[2].

Rispetto al termine *servitor* (it. *servo*), il termine *slugă* è percepito subito dal lettore romeno contemporaneo come più antiquato, sebbene siano entrambi messi oggi in ombra da neologismi come *menajer/menajeră*, il cui senso ricopre lo stesso significato della parola *servo* in italiano: "chi presta la propria opera come domestico" / "chi si

[1] Di cui parlava la traduttrice G. Lungu nell'intervista sopra menzionata.
[2] Si useranno, a questo proposito, il dizionario della lingua romena del 1929 (di Lazăr Șăineanu), quello del 1939 (di Augustin Scriban), il dizionario della lingua romena letteraria del 1955-1957 e il dizionario esplicativo del 2016.

dedica con devozione e fedeltà a servire una persona, un ideale"[1]. *Slugă* è considerato un termine preso in prestito dallo slavo, ma ci sono linguisti che parlano addirittura del fatto che sia stato un prestito nel protoslavo dalla lingua dei Traco-Daci[2]. Il che dimostra la sua anteriorità nella lingua romena rispetto al termine *servitor*, il quale rappresenta un prestito dal latino[3].

A livello dell'accessibilità della traduzione, risulta poi evidente il rapporto tra *întristat de propria-i excludere* e *mâhnit de surghiunul*, dovuto non tanto alla scelta di *întristat* al posto di *mâhnit* (sinonimo con valore letterario), quanto alla scomparsa della parola *surghiun*, un arcaismo di origine turca, raramente usato nel romeno contemporaneo (in contesti piuttosto ironici).

Nella stessa categoria possiamo collocare la locuzione verbale *a da din coadă* ("scodinzolare"), al posto del regionalismo *se gudură* (dal latino *codulare* – "muovere la coda" – oppure da *gaudere* – "essere contento/felice"), usato nel romeno odierno soprattutto in costrutti ironici o dispregiativi.

Evidente poi la differenza stilistica tra il francesismo *jupă* (*retragerea jupelor*)[4] e l'odierno *fustă* (sebbene la parola *jupă* sia ancora usato, nel campo dell'abbigliamento, come termine tecnico per *i sottovesti*/*le*

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[1] Per il senso delle parole in italiano abbiamo consultato *Lo Zingarelli 2008*.
[2] Si veda Mihai Vinereanu, *Argument la dicționarul etimologic al limbii române*, sulla "Revista de Cultură și Lingvistică Românească", 2/2014, <https://limbaromana.org/revista/argument-la-dictionarul-etimologic-al-limbii-romane/>, consultato il 24 novembre 2014.
[3] Accanto alla parola *servitor*, circolava nel Medioevo la variante *serv*, la quale indicava la *servitù della gleba* – termine conservato nella lingua dei testi religiosi della Transilvania con il senso di chi dedica la sua vita a servire il Signore. (Nello spazio cattolico sono conosciuti gli ordini religiosi dei *Servi*: *Servi della Carità*, *Servi di Maria*.)
[4] Considerato, nel dizionario romeno del 1939, un barbarismo, e nel dizionario del 1955-1957, un francesismo fuori uso.

sottane), nonché tra il sostantivo *goliciune* (*nudità*), attestato all'inizio del XVII secolo e usato oggi soprattutto con il senso di povertà interiore, spirituale[1], e il più recente *nuditate* (che compare nel XIX secolo), impiegato su larga scala nei contesti che rinviano alla nudità fisica o alle opere d'arte. La stessa dialettica riguarda la coppia sinonimica *pardoseală-paviment*: rispetto a *paviment* (prima attestatazione – 1838), il termine *pardoseală* (attestato tra il 1660 e il 1680), ancora in uso nel sintagma tecnico *încălzire prin pardoseală* ("riscaldamento a pavimento"), è percepito in altri contesti come letterario/antiquato. Più letterarie sembrano invece le proposte "se ridicau *agale*" e "*unduitoarea* retragere" (della seconda traduzione), al posto delle corrispondenti *încet* e *legănata*.

Per illustrare meglio la dinamica traduttiva e le caratteristiche peculiari delle due traduzioni in romeno del romanzo lampedusiano, proponiamo l'analisi di un altro frammento dell'incipit, che descrive il giardino in cui il Principe soleva passeggiare, accompagnato dal cane Bendicò:

> Ma il giardino, costretto e macerato fra le sue barriere, esalava profumi ontuosi, carnali e livemente putridi come i liquami aromatici distillati dalle reliquie di certe sante; i garofanini sovrapponevano il loro odore pepato a quello protocollare delle rose ed a quello oleoso delle magnolie che si appesantivano negli angoli; e sotto sotto si avvertiva anche il profumo della menta misto a quello infantile della gaggía ed a quello confetturiero della mortella, e da oltre il muro l'agrumeto faceva straripare il sentore di alcova delle prime zágare. (I 26-27)

> Dar grădina, strânsă și chinuită între *ostrețe*, răspândea parfumuri grase, carnale și ușor putrede, ca *licorile* aromatice prelinse din relicvele *unor*

[1] Con il senso di "nudità fisica" appare ancora nel linguaggio religioso e nella saggistica popolare.

aumite sfinte; garoafele acopereau cu mirosul lor piperat mireasma protocolară a rozelor și pe cea uleioasă a magnoliilor, care atârnau grele prin colțuri; și sub acestea se mai simțea și aroma *izmei*, amestecată celei, *copilărești*, a salcâmului și, *de bomboană*, a mirtului. Iar pe deasupra zidului, livada își revărsa balsamul de alcov al celor dintâi flori de portocal. (II 15)

Dar grădina, râncezind închisă între *marginile sale*, răspândea esențe onctuoase, carnale și ușor putrede, asemeni *lichidelor* aromatice secretate de moaștele *anumitor* sfinte; mirosul pipărat al garoafelor îl acoperea pe cel protocolar al trandafirilor și pe cel uleios al magnoliilor înghesuite prin colțuri; *pitulat* sub ele, se simțea parfumul *mentei* amestecat cu cel *delicat* al mimozei și cu cel *dulceag* al mirtului, iar de dincolo de ziduri, din livada de citrice, se revărsa aroma de alcov a primelor flori de portocal. (III 33)

Il testo della prima traduzione può "mettere in imbarazzo" il lettore romeno odierno per ragioni che riguardano, da un lato, il livello lessicale del testo e, dall'altro, la struttura sintattica di alcune frasi. Ci soffermiamo su due lessemi il cui contenuto semantico è recuperato oggi dalla maggior parte dei lettori solo con l'aiuto del dizionario: *ostrețe* e *izmă*.

Ostreț è una parola presa in prestito dal bulgaro (*ostreț*) alla metà del XIX secolo. Considerato oggi arcaismo/regionalismo, con il senso di "palo recinzione" o "recinzione con pali", il termine appare nel dizionario della lingua romena del 1929 e del 1939 anche con il senso di "ringhiera" o di "recinzione acquatica" (rete da pesca). L'uso del termine *ostrețe* per l'italiano *barriere* (termine comune, quotidiano) non può essere considerato una scelta felice, data appunto questa carica semantica della parola romena, percepita subito come lessema arcaico, regionale.

La parola *izmă* appare per la prima volta in uno scritto religioso del 1574. Nel dizionario romeno del 1929 viene definita come "pianta ornamentale e medicinale dall'odore piacevole e sapore piccante", mentre nel dizionario del 1939 (il quale specifica la sua origine neogreca) viene presentata come equivalente di *mintă*, variante fonetica antiquata della parola *mentă*. Il termine *izmă* si usa ancora nelle denominazioni botaniche (*izma creață, izma pădurilor, izma bălților* ecc.), mentre il termine usato nel romeno di oggi è il suo sinonimo, *mentă* (apparso nella seconda metà del XIX secolo, con la forma *mintă*).

Da notare poi l'uso della parola *licori* (singolare *licoare* – dal latino *liquor* –, il cui senso, nei dizionari del 1929 e del 1939, è di "sostanza liquida"; ulteriormente vi si aggiungono altri sensi: "bevanda fine, saporita" e "liquido usato come reattivo in certe reazioni chimiche"), corrispondente, nella traduzione "modernizzata", al termine *lichide* (derivato dal latino *liquidus*, variante di *limpidus*, con il senso di "sostanza che cola"). La parola italiana *liquame* viene definita nel dizionario Zigarelli 2008 come "1. Liquido che scola da materie organiche in decomposizione; 2. Liquido putrido formato dalle acque di rifiuto, convogliato nelle rete fognaria". Allo stesso significato rinvia infatti anche il contesto ("profumi ontuosi, carnali e lievemente putridi"), il che indica sensi totalmente diversi dalla "limpidezza" della parola *lichid* o dal senso della parola *licoare*. Proporremmo, in questo caso, una nuova variante di traduzione, la quale sostituisce *licori/lichide* con il termine *scursori* ("liquido sporco", usato anche in contesti anatomici): "asemeni *scursorilor* aromatice prelinse din relicvele anumitor sfinte".

Strano poi l'uso, nella traduzione "classica", del sintagma *unor anumite*, forma analitica illogica, un aggettivo (*anumit*, *anumită*, *anumiți*, *anumite*) accompagnato dall'articolo indeterminativo in dativo (*unor*), il cui sostituto, corretto dal punto di vista grammaticale, è *anumitor*, aggettivo preposto al nome, che riceve la terminazione del dativo (usato nella traduzione moderna).

Inoltre, a livello sintattico, la presenza nella traduzione di T. Gheorghiu delle due strutture attributive (*copilărești* e *de bomboană*), messe tra le virgole, appesantisce la frase e danneggia alla naturalezza del ritmo della lettura.

La traduzione di G. Lungu propone un testo "modernizzato", più accessibile al lettore modello contemporaneo, tanto dal punto di vista semantico, quanto dal punto di vista sintattico. A livello semantico notiamo la scelta delle parole di uso quotidiano *margini* (invece di *ostrețe*) e *mentă* (al posto di *izmă*), nonché la forma corretta dell'aggettivo *anumitor*. A livello sintattico, si nota la modulazione del senso della frase „mirosul pipărat al garoafelor îl acoperea pe cel protocolar al trandafirilor și pe cel uleios al magnoliilor", frase che diventa più chiara, sebbene meno letteraria; la traduttrice fa poi un'ottima scelta nel caso del brano „se simțea parfumul *mentei* amestecat cu cel *delicat* al mimozei și cu cel *dulceag* al mirtului", che evita la struttura pesante e artificiale della traduzione classica („se mai simțea și aroma *izmei*, amestecată celei, *copilărești*, a salcâmului și, *de bomboană*, a mirtului"). Riteniamo migliore anche la scelta degli aggettivi *delicat* (invece di *copilărești*) e *dulceag* (invece di *de bomboană*), che conferiscono al testo precisione e scorrevolezza. Inoltre, c'è da sottolineare la scelta idonea del termine *mimoză* (per la parola *gaggía*), un esempio di restituzione del senso originale del testo che la traduttrice ricorda nell'intervista a cui si è accennato sopra.

Si conferma, dunque, nel caso della ritraduzione, la necessità di portare il testo verso il lettore contemporaneo, attraverso la scelta giudiziosa delle parole e di una sintassi più chiara, il che metterebbe il processo traduttivo sotto il segno dell'accettabilità. Nonostante ciò, il testo della traduzione moderna è cosparso a volte di parole „letterarie"[1] (*onctuoase*, *pitulat*) la cui presenza, accanto a lessemi più recenti tipo *lichidele secretate*, potrebbe indicare un temporaneo abbandono del principio della coerenza stilistica.

Poi, il sintagma "il giardino, costretto e macerato fra le sue barriere", tradotto in romeno con 1) "grădina, strânsă și chinuită între ostrețe" e 2) "grădina, râncezind închisă între marginile sale" resta un nodo problematico per qualsiasi traduttore, non solo per quanto riguarda la parola *barriere*, sulla quale ci siamo soffermati sopra, ma anche per quanto riguarda i due determinanti (*costretto* e *macerato*). Ovviamente, per recuperare il senso dei due lessemi si devono cercare punti di approdo nel contesto testuale immediato: l'aggettivo participiale *costretto* è strettamente collegato alla parola *barriere*, mentre il senso del determinante *macerato* deve essere recuperato in maniera cataforica, dopo aver percorso l'intero paragrafo che descrive il giardino in decomposizione: "esalava *profumi ontuosi*, *carnali e livemente putridi* come *i liquami aromatici distillati dalle reliquie* di certe sante; i garofanini sovrapponevano il loro *odore pepato* a quello protocollare delle rose ed a *quello oleoso* delle magnolie che *si appesantivano* negli angoli". La variante di T. Gheorghiu, soffermandosi piuttosto sul concetto di *recinzione* (*strânsă și chinuită* fanno pensare entrambe alla parola *barriere*), perde la carica semantica della parola *macerate*, importantissima in questo contesto. Più vicina al testo di partenza, la

[1] Da sottolineare, nello stesso brano, l'anteriorità del termine *moaște* (presente nella lingua romena della prima metà del XVII secolo), usato nella seconda traduzione, rispetto al più recente *relicve* (prima attestazione - 1829).

traduzione di G. Lungu (*râncezind închisă*), facendo uso della modulazione e di una metafora, recupera i due valori semantici: infatti, il verbo *a râncezi* fa pensare a un sapore e a un odore spiacevole (specifico della carne alterata). Risulta così un interessante costrutto letterario, che tuttavia potrebbe essere accolto con diffidenza da una parte dei lettori, i quali accetterebbero probabilmente con una maggiore apertura un termine di uso quotidiano tipo *descompusă*.

Sempre dal punto di vista della coerenza stilistica, sembra strano l'uso della forma regionale *pipărat* (it. *pepato*), specifica dell'est del paese (secondo il dizionario di Augustin Scriban, del 1939), al posto della parola *piperat*, di uso quotidiano.

Oltre a questi pochi esempi testuali dell'inizio del romanzo, sulla stessa scia possiamo elencare innumerevoli brani testuali della prima traduzione in romeno la cui "pesantezza" lessicale o sintattica spiega la necessità della seconda traduzione. Ci soffermeremo di seguito su un frammento dell'incipit della seconda parte, una descrizione di Tancredi durante il viaggio verso Donnafugata, nel momento in cui l'intera famiglia si ferma per il pranzo, alla fattoria di Rampinzèri:

> Tanto più brillava fra *il sudiciume* la correttezza elegante di Tancredi. Aveva viaggiato a cavallo e, giunto alla fattoria mezz'ora prima della carovana, aveva avuto il tempo di spolverarsi, ripulirsi e cambiare la cravatta bianca. Quando aveva tirato fuori l'acqua *dal pozzo a molti usi* si era guardato un momento nello specchio del secchio e si era trovato a posto, con quella benda nera sull'occhio destro che ormai serviva a ricordare più che a curare la ferita al sopracciglio buscata tre mesi fa ai combattimenti di Palermo; con quell'altro occhio *azzurro* che sembrava aver assunto l'incarico di esprimere la malizia anche di quello

temporaneamente eclissato; col filetto scarlatto al di sopra della cravatta che discretamente alludeva alla camicia rossa che aveva portato. (I 60-61)

Cu atât mai mult strălucea *în această neorânduială eleganta ținută* a lui Tancredi. Făcuse *drumul* călare și, *ajuns* la fermă cu o jumătate de oră înaintea caravanei, avusese timp *să-și scuture hainele*, *să se spele* și să-și schimbe cravata albă. Când scosese apă *din fântână cu felurite foloase*, el se privise o clipă în oglinda *ciuturii* și se găsise *fără cusur*, cu bandajul *acela* negru pe ochiul drept, *care mai curând sublinia decât oblojea* rana căpătată *cu trei luni în urmă* în luptele de la Palermo; cu celălalt ochi, de un *albastru-închis*, care părea să-și fi *luat* sarcina *să exprime* și maliția *celui vremelnic ascuns*, cu firetul stacojiu *trecut* peste cravată, *amintind cu măsură* de cămașa roșie pe care o purtase. (II 55)

Cu atât mai mult strălucea *în toată dezordinea aceasta ținuta elegantă* a lui Tancredi. Făcuse *călătoria* călare și, *pentru că ajunsese* la fermă cu o jumătate de oră înaintea caravanei, avusese timp *să se scuture de praf*, *să se curețe* și să-și schimbe cravata albă. Când scosese apă din *fântâna cu multe întrebuințări*, se privise o clipă în oglinda *din găleată* și se găsise că *arăta bine* cu bandajul negru pe ochiul drept, care acum *folosea mai mult să amintească decât să oblojească* rana *de la sprânceană* căpătată *în urmă cu trei luni*, în luptele de la Palermo; cu celălalt ochi *albastru* care părea să-și fi *asumat* sarcina *de a exprima* maliția și *pentru cel deocamdată ascuns*; cu firetul stacojiu *pus* peste cravată, *aluzie discretă la* cămașa roșie pe care o purtase. (III 69-70)

Nel caso dei brani citati, il primo merito della ritraduzione in romeno è quello di restituire il vero senso di alcune parole/alcuni sintagmi. Il sintagma "aveva tirato fuori l'acqua *dal pozzo a molti usi*" non significa "scosese apă *din fântână cu felurite foloase*" (il che vuol dire che l'acqua tirata fuori in quel momento avrebbe dovuto essere usata per diverse cose), ma "scosese apă din *fântâna cu multe întrebuințări*", ossia il pozzo era usato per varie cose – senso ironico che si perde nella traduzione classica. Poi, *occhio azzurro* significa semplicemente *albastru* (eventualmente *albastru precum cerul*), ma non *albastru-închis*. Inoltre, dalla prima traduzione manca *de la sprânceană*, il che rende meno precisa la posizione della ferita. C'è da notare poi l'accuratezza del sintagma *aluzie discretă*, rispetto all'espressione, meno chiara, *amintind cu măsură*.

Da un altro lato, tra le due traduzioni ci sono, per alcuni sintagmi, semplici differenze di prospettiva (la tecnica della modulazione) o mere inversioni: *drumul/călătoria*, *să-și scuture hainele/să se scuture de praf*, *să se spele/să se curețe*, *care mai curând sublinia decât oblojea/ folosea mai mult să amintească decât să oblojească*, *cu trei luni în urmă/în urmă cu trei luni*, *să exprime/de a exprima*.

Ci sono poi passaggi da un linguaggio più letterario o antiquato al romeno d'uso quotidiano: *oglinda ciuturii/oglinda din găleată*, *fără cusur/arăta bine*, *luat/asumat*, *celui vremelnic ascuns/pentru cel deocamdată ascuns*, *trecut peste/pus peste*, *în această neorânduială eleganta ținută/în toată dezordinea aceasta ținuta elegantă*. L'ultima coppia di sintagmi rappresenta in realtà una perdita per entrambe le traduzioni: *sudiciume* del testo originale (insieme di cose sudice, sporcizia, ossia in romeno *murdărie*), è stato tradotto con l'eufemistico *neorânduială*[1] (it. *disordine*) – variante evidentemente più elegante, più letteraria.

[1] Termine equivalente, in entrambe le traduzioni, proprio della parola *disordine* della prima pagina del testo.

4. Considerazioni finali

In conclusione, la meta che si prefigura la seconda traduzione del *Gattopardo*, ossia quella di "modernizzare" il testo, viene raggiunta in molti contesti in cui la prima traduzione pecca perché sembra pesante, imprecisa. Per esempio, all'inizio della prima parte del romanzo, in seguito al primo brano analizzato in questa sede, troviamo la descrizione del soffitto della stanza dove si svolgeva il rituale quotidiano della recita del rosario: "Nell'affresco del soffitto si risvegliarono le divinità. Le schiere di Tritoni e Driadi [...] apparvero di subito colme di tanta esultanza *da trascurare le più semplici regole prospettiche*" (I 11-12). La prima traduzione in romeno offre come equivalente "păreau să disprețuiască, cuprinși de o nespusă bucurie, până și cele mai simple reguli *de perspectivă*", il che sarebbe l'equivalente del sintagma italiano *regole di prospettiva*, il quale non ha però lo stesso significato del sintagma *regole della prospettiva* – senso recuperato dalla seconda traduzione: "încât nu mai țineau cont nici de cele mai simple *reguli ale perspectivei*"[1].

L'aggiornamento del testo è assolutamente necessario poi per sintagmi tipo "fețe hulpave de pomanagii cu proptele" (II 18) / it. "facce chiuse di sbirri, face avide di questuanti raccomandati" (I 29), dove la difficoltà del lettore riguarda soprattutto la densità di parole antiquate che compogono il sintagma. Facile da capire risulta invece il sintagma della seconda traduzione „chipuri lacome de milogi cu pile" (III 35), come d'altronde altri microcontesti che propongono varianti più moderne: „fără să miște un deget și fără niciun chef de a remedia situația" (III 32), al posto di „fără să simtă nevoia de acțiune sau măcar dorința de a se împotrivi

[1] Notiamo che la traduzione preferisce un sintagma meno letterario anche per la struttura verbale: *a ține cont* invece di *a disprețui* (per l'italiano *trascurare*).

evenimentelor” (II 14); „cunoştinţe de-ale mele care au fost să se distreze la Palermo” (III 49), invece di „cunoştinţe de-ale mele care se duc la Palermo să petreacă” (II 31); „subvenţionezi revoluţia” (III 50), invece di „sprijini revoluţia” (II 32); „patria aranjamentelor” (III 56) invece di „ţara compromisurilor” (II 38); „o vulgaritate ignorantă” (III 138), al posto di „o vulgaritate ignară” (II 126).

Sulla stessa scia della modernizzazione lessicale, la seconda traduzione propone sintagmi tipo „acum *i se fâlfâie* de fiice” (III 87) / „nu-i mai pasă” (II 72) – un verbo (*a se fâlfâi*) che appare nei dizionari più recenti come familiare, usato in contesti gergali –, in un macrocontesto dove appaiono bellissimi sintagmi letterari, o addirittura poetici, cosparsi a volte di parole antiquate: “în sângele lui *dospeau* şi alte esenţe teutonice” (III 31), „clipe de *abstracţiune*” (III 62)[1], “familia Salina putu *să se bucure de vilegiatură*” (III 72), “menite să dispară *în vâltoarea zilei*” (III 74), „*sufletul ei neprihănit*” (III 85), „copila de treisprezece ani, *şleampătă şi urâţică*” (III 92), “cu ajutorul unor strălucitoare arabescuri de cerneală şi sentimente” (III 108) ecc. Il che ci fa pensare alla necessità di un’approfondita rivalutazione di qualsiasi testo di arrivo, per identificare le isole testuali, i microcontesti in cui la coerenza stilistica viene a mancare.

Dunque, la valutazione finale di una traduzione dovrebbe essere incentrata su due aspetti: il rispetto dei principi della coerenza stilistica prefigurata in base alla funzionalità testuale prevista e la permissività della lingua di arrivo (partendo, ovviamente, dal primo criterio).

La coerenza stilistica dovrebbe essere vista come una rete di rapporti di compatibilità a livello di termini e sintagmi che mira a creare un’armonia linguistica macrotestuale. Nello scegliere tra l’adeguatezza e

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[1] Termine più antiquato rispetto a quello proposto dalla prima traduzione: „abstracţiile sale” (II 59).

l'accessibilità, la traduzione (processo decisionale, intuitivo e pragmatico), afferma la sua originalità e il suo valore attraverso la sistematicità delle procedure stilistiche, attraverso la coerenza del metodo prescelto.

In questa "zona di guerra", come venne chiamata la traduzione, instabile dal punto di vista linguistico e culturale, operare scelte per creare equivalenze non solo a livello spaziale, ma anche a livello temporale, significa tener conto dell'adeguatezza, della coerenza stilistica, nonché "tener conto di determinate pratiche ricorrenti all'interno della cultura d'arrivo, in un dato momento storico e relativamente al tipo di testo tradotto" (Bertazzoli 31).

Lo specifico della traduzione in generale e della traduzione letteraria in particolare sta proprio nella capacità del traduttore di trovare in ogni istante la variante migliore, ossia quella che riesce a tener conto del maggior numero possibile di fattori linguistici e culturali che convergono nel creare la coerenza globale di un prodotto testuale che si inserisce in un determinato contesto di ricezione.

In questo ambito, la coerenza stilistica svolge un ruolo essenziale ed è compito della mente umana, e mai della macchina, quello di paragonare, di scavare nella profondità delle lingue e delle culture, per poter negoziare, durante il processo traduttivo, la variante migliore. Un buon traduttore gode di una competenza, di un sapere che sorge all'incrocio di varie discipline ed è corredato da operazioni che solo l'essere umano, con la sua creatività e originalità, può compiere. Infatti, le "virtù stilistiche" di un testo letterario non diventeranno mai l'appannaggio della traduzione automatica, ma, nel mettere alla prova il traduttore umano, evidenzieranno sempre le sue inuguagliabili competenze.

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The Changing Landscape of Translation Competence

Gabriela Bulgaru

Since translation began establishing itself as a properly defined discipline in academia, scholars have brought into focus the fact that competence in translation depends on the eclectic demands a translator is expected to meet through the successful performance of their job. These demands rely upon a translator's cognitive faculties and skills and are directly dependent on a job's intricacy, wherein professional tasks are informed by the translation market's requirements. Numerous job specializations, highlighting rapid global progress and change, demand an adequate level of expertise from the translator.

Nowadays, there is common agreement that there is not just one translation competence, but actually a set of competences, not just in terms of the source and target languages, but also in various connected professional fields and the specialized domain that provides the content of translation. We need to mention that there are also other competences, including those related to: sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics. These are all known to have an impact on the translation process, but they have not yet been sufficiently researched in this perspective. As such, it may easily be inferred that translation competence has a relative dimension: it is not a static concept, but one that evolves under the influence of the social context and development. What perhaps makes this competence "unique" is that it is eclectic being formed of a set of interrelated sub-competences, which, in order to be acquired, may first have to be studied individually and then in combination with each other, before finally being put into practice. Alternatively, a translator may have to be introduced to all these aspects at once and then practice them in a constructive manner until performative expectations are meet. This aspect has been a prolific subject of debate in the field of translation studies (TS).

This paper aims to emphasize this particular nature of translation competence and how its definition has evolved over recent decades in the work of translation scholars. The object of our study is by no means exhaustive, nor is it intended to be; one might find other potential directions to shed light on this subject. Our main purpose is to raise awareness about the pedagogical side of the complexity of competence in translation and the need to take a suitable approach to training that is likely to develop expertise and professionalism in prospective translators.

A Reappraisal: Common Interpretations

Common dictionary definitions offer more or less limited perspectives on the meaning of *competence*. Merriam-Webster online dictionary gives:

> the quality or state of being competent: such as:
>
> a) the quality or state of having sufficient knowledge, judgment, skill, or strength (as for a particular duty or in a particular respect)
> b) law: legal authority, ability, or admissibility
> c) the knowledge that enables a person to speak and understand a language—compare PERFORMANCE sense 6 [definition of performance, 6: the linguistic behaviour of an individual: PAROLE; *also*: the ability to speak a certain language]

d) biology: the ability to function or develop in a particular way.

Oxford University Press's *Lexico.com* dictionary defines *competence* as "[t]he ability to do something successfully or efficiently", encompassing three domain entries: "[t]he legal authority of a court or other body to deal with a particular matter; linguistics—a person's subconscious knowledge of the rules governing the formation of speech in their first language, often contrasted with *performance*; biology, medicine—effective performance of the normal function". The Oxford Thesaurus, on the other hand, gives a series of synonyms covering a wide range of meanings, and headed by a word in bold: "*capability*, ability, competency, capacity, proficiency, accomplishment, adeptness, adroitness, knowledge, expertise, expertness, skill, skilfulness, prowess, mastery, resources, faculties, facilities, talent, bent, aptitude, artistry, virtuosity". This series is completed by other synonyms for law and for another unspecified domain. Apart from the general meaning of the "ability to do something well" and those specific to the law domain, the Longman dictionary brings up another perspective on competence as "a skill needed to do a particular job". The Larousse dictionary in French seems to prefer the meaning of *ability* or *skill* in the domain of law ("[a]ptitude d'une autorité à effectuer certains actes. Aptitude d'une juridiction à instruire et à juger une affaire") and that of *ability* or *capacity* in a given domain that is recognised as such due to knowledge, and which authorizes somebody to pass judgement on a subject ("capacité reconnue en telle ou telle matière en raison de connaissances possédées et qui donne le droit d'en juger"). A webpage dedicated to new terms in French, especially in science and technology and approved by the Commission for the Enrichment of the French Language, France Terme, presents five entries, one general and four domain-specific. We have selected those that relate to our study: *savoir-faire* or *experience*, with *know-how* as an English equivalent, for the general meaning; and *savoir-être professionnel* or *compétence comportementale*, equivalent to *soft skill* in English, and *savoir-faire professionnel* or *compétence technique* (*hard skill*), both of them for the domain of jobs and professions. Without taking these dictionaries as benchmarks, one can still see there is a certain amount of free variation between *ability/skills* and *knowledge/savoir* at the general level, with a correlation between *competence* and *performance*, and a noticeable distinction of *savoir-être* and *savoir-faire* for professions. Nuances appear along with such domain classifications. These are nonetheless aspects that are motivated, to a certain extent, by scientific research and practical realities in order to legitimate the use of these terms. As such, they can be made relevant to any approach to comprehend and describe the concept of competence as applied to a particular domain, such as the translation domain.

Conceptual Variations of Translation Competence in the Bio-socio-linguistic Field

In 1959, the American psychologist Robert White, one of the first users of the term "competence", approached this concept in its general meaning from a biological point of view as "an organism's capacity to interact effectively with its environment". In his motivational theory, humans are not born with this competence, but develop it by dealing with their environment. White insists upon treating competence as having a motivational aspect, since it cannot be fully acquired from drives and instincts only. Should we bring the concept of translation competence under White's motivational framework, translators develop their competence by interacting with their environment, which is, by the nature of their profession, a double environment: on the one hand, one of reason, through comprehension or knowledge of source and target languages; and on the other hand, the professional one, in the act of doing or through performance (which can be situated within an interpersonal environment). One can instantly observe that competence in translation stands at two primary levels. Moreover, one may differentiate between biological motivation, i.e. someone's capacity to deal with their environment, and psychological motivation, i.e. a willingness to acquire something or to grow professionally. However, competence remains a concept that is difficult to delimit, especially if we broaden the perspective with the hypothesis that if a candidate translator is competent or possesses the necessary toolkit of translation competences, they should easily be able to participate in the job market (Torres-Hostench 787-811). Once again, the contrast between the skills and attitudes of translation (and therefore specific) competence. However, these skills and attitudes manifest their psychological motivation (perhaps an unwillingness to enter the job market). This subtle distinction is not always visible and thus can be misleadingly treated.

On the linguistic side, in 1965 Chomsky was the first to categorize and define linguistic competence ("the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language", being a rather unconscious ability) by differentiating it from "performance" ("the actual use of language in concrete situations", i.e. a deliberate act of speaking). His theory is

> … concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech-community, who knows its language perfectly and is

> unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance (Chomsky 4).

Chomsky proposed a model of language principles and parameters and an internal universal generative grammar in order to express or explain the "creative" processes of language (Chomsky 8). This dissimilarity between competence and performance is presented, after almost half a century, as "a distinction between language and its use" (Chomsky 118), connected to the concept of de Saussure's *langue* versus *parole*. For the last fifty years, the Chomskyan theory has been, and continues to be, easily transferred between and exploited by many connected scientific fields. No matter how idealistic or ambiguous its formulation, for which it has been criticized (see Hymes 269-277), from the standpoint of translators whose competence we seek to unveil in all its complexity, this theoretical picture, regarded in its literal formulation, allows us to assume that competence in translation is actually a double or a bi-competence (similar to White's biological theory of competence). Firstly, the translation process implies a transfer from one language to another language. Therefore, there are two competences a translator needs to master: competence in the source language and competence in the target language; or the possibility of understanding, recognizing, building and feeling the constructions of those languages (Ducrot & Todorov 158). Due to this infinite number of possibilities, their performance is theoretically unlimited. However, linguists agree that human memory cannot build and encode an infinite number of sentences. Furthermore, there are utterances or performative occurrences that are attributable to the socio-cultural context, rather than products of linguistic activity/competence (Ducrot & Todorov 159). These facts are contrary to de Saussure's idea of performance as an individual, unique, personal act (language usage usually complies with habits, customs, rules and conventions), or to Chomsky's opinion of linguistic competence as a universal linguistic ability, with a non-social performance. However, translators still need to transfer linguistic-socio-cultural utterances or performative occurrences from one language to another. This is where translation competence rises up above its limited perception as primary linguistic competence. Translation competence is not just competence or performance. For it is not just linguistic, but also socio-cultural, and the main challenge of a translator is to produce, by means of a bifold competence, a single performance, i.e. from two socio-cultural-linguistic contexts brought into contrast to produce good performance in the target language.

The framework provided by transformational linguistic theories can underline, through opposition, that translation competence is eclectic and consonant, comprising a bi-linguistic competence, performance and socio-cultural knowledge. However, the Chomskyan dichotomy between competence and performance does not cancel out a common denominator: competence is a dynamic, generatively creative concept and so it is, theoretically, on the performative side. This idealistic perspective has led to a broader conceptual meaning being given to competence, communicative competence (Hymes 281; Bussmann 208, 212), as described in various disciplines including sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and psychology.

In the preliminary part of his paper on communicative competence published in 1972, Hymes presents the case of the tribes of the northeastern Amazon, where linguistic competence means to be in control of at least four languages, starting to actively command them during adolescence and continuing to develop the necessary "repertoire" and "perfection of competence" throughout life. As such, the ideally fluent speaker-listener is multilingual and Hymes notes that

> …fluent members of the communities often regard their languages, or functional varieties, as not identical in communicative adequacy. It is not only that one variety is obligatory or preferred for some uses, another for others (as is often the case, say, as between public occasions and personal relationships). Such intuitions reflect experience and self-evaluation as to what one can in fact do with a given variety (Hymes 274).

Hymes insists very much on the importance of socio-cultural factors and their influence on a speaker-listener's linguistic competence in a heterogeneous speech community, and how "[s]ocial life has affected not merely outward performance, but inner competence itself" (Hymes 274). He repeatedly brings up the importance of differential competence; community diversity; acceptability in language production; linguistic competence varying by interlocutor and context; multilingual mastery; the relativity of competence in a given language; as well as other socio-cultural features, which emphasize that the nature and evaluation of linguistic competence varies cross-culturally and depends in part upon social factors (Hymes 277). In his approach, competence means *knowledge* and *ability to use*, where *knowledge* is seen to underlie a person's behaviour and inform all parameters of communication, while *user ability* is likely to differ from one individual to another. Competence is also influenced by non-cognitive factors, such as motivation (as mentioned by White); a particular aspect that Hymes stresses is that "it is essentially important not to separate cognitive from affective and volitive factors" and, moreover, within a comprehensive view of competence, this aspect must be addressed; as Goffman put it, with "capacities in interaction such as courage, gameness, gallantry, composure, presence of mind, dignity, stage confidence" (in Hymes 283). As far as performance is concerned, Hymes deprives it of the meaning of actual use, or individual behavioural record, launching a theory of communicative competence. In this case, a human's performance "takes into account the interaction between competence (knowledge, ability for use), the competence of others, and the cybernetic and emergent properties of events themselves" (Hymes 283).

The performative concept was rendered devoid of its Chomskyan meaning relating to one's individual use of a systemic knowledge of language, but continued to be employed with the meaning of linguistic acting within the new communicative coordinates. The idea of a differential competence that keeps on developing and changing following the course of one's life, is given great attention as well. Sociolinguistic inferences and attitudes towards the difference between linguistic codes, as well as the functional roles they are assigned and their usages, and linguistic relationships codes (exemplified through verbal repertoire, linguistic routines, literary genres, textual organisation, and domains of language behaviour) are critical dimensions of the sociolinguistic framework in which linguistic competence should be analysed (Hymes 288-291).

If the description above reflects only linguistic competence, or communicative competence as developed by Hymes, we consider it valuable and sensible to sharpen our definition of translation competence. Translators work with linguistic codes. They also need to distinguish communicative adequacy (especially communicative adequacy for translation) and language diversity and usage; they also develop intuition through experience and self-evaluation of practice, refining their craft over time throughout their professional life. In their work, they resort to a collection of *savoirs* (language, culture, domain specific knowledge, technology, project management, business etc.) and *savoir-faire* in order to deliver the performance required. A translator's competence is also seen in interaction with the competence of others (as there can be several performers in the translation process) and the organised or even instantaneous technological factors of the translation event. The difference relies on the fact that translators deal with linguistic codes intertwined in a technically advanced and dynamic process of meaning transfer and multi-modal text production. We perceive linguistic competence used in translation as a dynamic competency at the core of which numerous factors interplay; factors which are very different in nature and influence, as we will see later in this paper.

Translation Competence Untied from Linguistic Tradition

Even before the presentation of Hymes's theory of communicative competence, there were various attempts to define translation as an autonomous field of study and give it a scientific definition. In 1963, Mounin presented several views about translation as contact between languages and as a special and very rare act of bilingualism; a sort of professional bilingualism that is more conscious and more organised and which fights any deviation from linguistic rules and errors caused by interferences, something that is habitual for ordinary bilingual speakers. As such, translation was, and continues to be, rejected and disregarded by many linguists who fail to conceptualize translation competence as different to bilingualism: firstly, they doubt it, because they find this type of bilingualism very rare; secondly, there may be a lack of interesting "linguistic facts" in professional bilingualism to be collected and analysed; thirdly, studying translation as a contact phenomenon between languages would see no results, and this would only be useful if employed as a direct method to elucidate some general linguistic problems (Mounin 4-9). Mounin acknowledges this perspective on translation as bilingualism, but he also changed the focus by proposing the use of structural and functional linguistics as a means to solving translation problems. From this point of view, his achievement was to recognize translation as a branch of linguistics, not only because the great volume of translation activity could not be considered an empirical craft anymore, but also because this translation-linguistic activity, a "scandal" on the linguistics stage in those days, should be assigned the status of a distinct linguistic performance (Mounin 8). In 1976, Mounin reinforced his theory in *Linguistique et Traduction*, taking advantage of other previous studies, such as those of Fedorov (1958), Vinay and Darbelne (1958), and Jakobson (1959), who also agreed with this distinction of translation as a branch of linguistics.

However, researchers and professionals, at the same time, without denying the importance of knowledge of language, disapproved of this linguistic derivation, starting with the well-known translator and interpreter Edmond Cary (1957, 1958) who advocated domain-specific knowledge as a *sine qua non* condition to perform translation (according to Mounin 14). Continuing up to the present, scholars argue that the practice of translation is communicative and that "is more importantly part of an event, requiring the active involvement of numerous participants" (Pym, *Translation Solutions* viii, for instance). Disagreements have involved members of both parties, linguistics and translation. In 1965, Catford highlighted translation as a branch of comparative linguistics dealing with "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)" (20). In his view, meaning, which is a "property of a language", is "the total network of relations entered into by any linguistic form—text, item-in-text, structure, element of structure, class, term in system—or whatever it may be" (Catford 35). His approach remains a linguistically basic one, even though he tackled the problem of untranslatability due to cultural reasons; these problems are not classified as "cultural shock", but rather as "collocational shock", leaving a very hypothetical and limited space for linguistic untranslatability (Catford 102-103). Almost at the same time, in 1964, Nida made a slight shift within the linguistic approach to translation, emphasizing the fact that translators need to interpret the source text and decide upon the type of translation according to the purpose. This asked translators to not only use their linguistic knowledge, but also make use of ethnographic, social, cultural, and discursive knowledge in both languages, in order to fulfil the specific purpose of translation. In 1987, Pergnier continued to wonder if and how translation trainees become acquainted with the de Saussurean notion of *parole* and how important the sociolinguistic dimension is. He also made some functionalist observations, but his work is traditionally linguistic in form.

Starting in 1970, contrastive linguistics increasingly fell by the wayside as the discipline of translation started to develop. In 1972, Holmes made a point of mentioning how translation, incidentally or desultorily approached by "a scattering of authors, philologists, and literary scholars, plus here and there a theologian or an idiosyncratic linguist" (173) up until World War II, was growing in importance:

> As this interest has solidified and expanded, more and more scholars have moved into the field, particularly from the adjacent fields of linguistics, linguistic philosophy, and literary studies, but also from such seemingly more remote disciplines as information theory, logic, and mathematics, each of them carrying with him paradigms, quasi-paradigms, models, and methodologies that he felt could be brought to bear on this new problem (Holmes 173).

This apparent confusion and tension between researchers was seen by Holmes as a profitable condition for delimiting the new scientific field and legitimizing the emerging discipline called translation studies. Classifying it as a purely empirical domain, he defined three main branches: *descriptive translation studies* (DTS), focusing on product, function and process; *translation theory* (TTh); and *applied translation studies*, all of which he described in the subdivided categories. He also noted translator training as being a major area to be researched in applied translation studies (Holmes 181). Afterwards, the work of scholars, researchers, and professionals proliferated, especially in descriptive translation studies: Reiss (1971, 1984); Toury (1978, 1995); Vermeer (1978, 1989); Lefevere (1982); Wills (1982); Ballard (1984); Seleskovitch and Lederer (1984); Berman (1985); Gutt (1991); Baker (1992); Nord (1997); Hatim and Mason (1997); Venuti (2000). These are just a few of the better-known (many of these works being included in Venuti's *The Translation Studies Reader*). Consequently, there was a call to define translator competence, since there was clear evidence that this is not just a matter of linguistic competence, but much more than that, as we can see in the evolution of the discipline itself.

Models of Translation Competence

In 1991, Bell made a coherent attempt to define translation competence as a multifold notion. First of all, competence was to be regarded as a combination of knowledge and skills and the translator was to be viewed as either an "ideal translator", or an "ideal bilingual", or an "expert", i.e. a human translator as compared to an expert system or specialized software package (Bell 38-39). Bell found this metaphor interesting because of the increasing interest in computer-assisted translation, which was developing rapidly at the time. However, as strange as it may seem, a metaphor or analogy with a more advanced machine translation (MT) system could still be meaningful today, if we take into consideration commercial expectations. For Bell, "ideal-bilingual competence" means introspection while in search of the required knowledge (and, perhaps, the process) to translate; while "expert competence" is formed from a knowledge base (knowledge about: the source and target languages; text-type; and domain; as well as contrastive knowledge) and an inference mechanism to decode the source text and encode the target text (38-40). The third definition Bell provides is that of multicomponent "communicative competence", encompassing four sub-competences: grammar, socio-linguistics, discourse, and strategy (related to communication strategies) (41-42).

Another attempt, contemporary with Bell's, was undertaken by Campbell (339), who proposed a model of translation competence made up of *disposition* and *proficiency*. *Disposition* includes a translator's attitudes and psychological qualities and their balance between the characteristics of *risk-taking* versus *prudent* and *persistent* versus *capitulating*. *Proficiency* is understood as certain set of special bilingual skills, covering three aspects: *lexical coding of meaning*; *global target* *language competence*; and *lexical transfer*. These components are independent of each other and individual skills can also be developed independently. The idea of a translator's disposition having an effect on task achievement was relatively new when Campbell created his tentative model of competence; it was later investigated more deeply in various cognitive approaches.

The functionalist approaches of the 1990s shed light on the "first-interpreting-then-translating" or *interpreting* model, wherein translators needed to develop "the basic ability to grasp the meaning of a translation brief and retextualize a source text according to the standards or target-culture conventions" (Nord 105). Such interpretive theory had already been tackled in France in 1984 by Seleskovitch and Lederer. Taking advantage of their conference interpreting experience, they observed that the interpretive method could be successfully applied to translation. According to Lederer (2014), translators need competence in understanding and re-expressing a text. First of all, these French scholars defined a difference between knowledge of one's mother tongue and knowledge of the target language, and stated that insufficient command of one's own language "pollutes" the target language. As such, a high level of competence in both languages involved is required to achieve both textual understanding and re-expression. Translators also need linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge as part of their *encyclopaedic/world knowledge*. They have to understand not only the relevant linguistic components, but also the implicit content of the discourse, which they then make relevant through personalized cognitive features (notional and affective). These implicit and cognitive inputs contribute to the development of a translator's contextual knowledge, which is permanently activated during the expression of the target text. This ultimate stage of written expression is viewed as a form of controlled communication. This model of competence was intended to make translators aware of how important the communicative purpose of any textual production is.

Without necessarily being described as such, pragmatics came to bare significant weight in defining translation competence. Since, starting with Hymes' communicative theory, competence came to be regarded as not just a matter of knowledge, but also one's ability to use it, the notion of "performance" seemingly did not attract the attention of researchers. As a result, they set it up as an object of another linguistic branch of study, pragmatics, in order to recover it from its de Saussurean, Chomskyan, and Wittgensteinian origins, despite the theoretical differences between these doctrines (Vlad 1). Pragmatics has been considered the study of linguistic competence (integrated pragmatics), or in performance (radical, external pragmatics) (Moeschler, Reboul 30-31). As a theory of performance, pragmatics seems to distance itself from linguistics. On the one hand, it analyses the interpretations an utterance may trigger within its context; on the other, it describes the relationship between the referential usage of language (signifier-signified) and the performative process, as distributed in several branches (interpretations in context—pragmatics, contextualization—sociolinguistics, acquisition—psycholinguistics) (Moeschler, Reboul 34-35). Even though pragmatics is barely delimited as an autonomous field of study, usually being classified as a sub-discipline of linguistics, easily confounded with semantics, and previously subsumed under sociolinguistics (Bussmann 926). One can certainly recognize how a pragmatic process of analysis intersects translation activity and how translators are supposed to be able to handle it. Translation studies has taken advantage of the work of pragmatics, beginning with speech act theory and continuing with the concepts of naturalness, conditions of appropriateness, and the illocutionary features of both a speech sequence and a text act, inspiring and eventually also criticizing text-type and *skopos*-orientated translation theories. Moreover, Grice's cooperative principle (1975) and the notion of implicature are likely to be extremely relevant and helpful in any approach to the training of translators and interpreters and to assessing translation equivalence:

> In purely receptive terms, appreciation of implied meaning facilitates comprehension which would otherwise be blurred. In terms of reproducing the message in the target language, on the other hand, the meanings which are implied and not stated could be the last court of appeal in assessing adequate equivalence (Hatim 181).

Hickey gives a broad overview of pragmatic approaches in translation, stating that pragmatics attempts to explain the procedure, process, and product of translation from the point of view of what has (potentially) been produced by the original author, what is done by the translator, and how and why it is done in that context, mentioning the fact that some pragmatic scholars "investigate[s] virtually all aspects of language seen as a social institution" (4). Many other researchers and professionals in the field (Blum-Kulka 1981; Baker 1992; Hatim & Mason 1997; Rafieyan 2016) have drawn attention to the fact that translation competence should thus be enriched with this cross-cultural dimension of applied pragmatic analysis, which leads to higher quality translation.

Froeliger's 2013 thesis purports to form translators through real-world practice. This concrete professional exercise relates not only to developing competences in clearly understanding and re-expressing a text, but also enables a translator to acknowledge the various facets of the market, which will eventually call upon how to engage with the practicalities of applying acquired competences. This can help make up a pedagogy of pragmatic translation, intended to stimulate the moral principles of a translator: the *mêtis* (a Greek term meaning practical intelligence, cleverness, craftiness) and the skill (Froeliger 71). Froeliger posits that the process of translation lies at the confluence of psychology and sociology. He believes that emotional states and psychological phenomena play a role in the construction of translator's identity. From this theoretical standpoint, he points out that some translators lack confidence in their professional competence compared to domain experts and text commissioners. This is likely to hinder them in applying personal strategies and diminish the quality of the final translation. Alternatively, their lack of confidence results in a paradoxically isolated status on the translation market. One should observe that, in those contexts, confidence should determine how a translator makes use of their authority (Froeliger 92) so that finally the text inspires confidence. This statement allows Froeliger to make a switch in focus from psychological factors to pragmatic markers, i.e. markers of confidence, markers of a translator's impostor syndrome, or markers of real language "impostors" who use their knowledge in additional ways, to render humour for example; hence these markers are embedded in the text and reveal the sociological feature of a translator's identity (93-95). As such, pragmatic competence is thus essential to understanding the descriptive and productive rules of writing in translation and having an appropriate attitude towards machine translated products for example.

Each revelation about the translation process, about translation as a profession, or translation as the personalized product of a translator's activity, with various implications for target recipients, has triggered internal striving in the current century and has put pressure on professional and academic communities to come up with a more sensible description of what translator competence is and how it should be approached in the training of future translators. The need for awareness has been a subject of greater attention and competence in translation has been given a more comprehensible definition as a set of interrelated competences:

> Translation competence is clearly seen as demanding expertise in various areas: these will include at least knowledge of the languages, knowledge of the cultures and domain-specific knowledge. […] In discussing translation competence and its sub-competences, the term competence is often linked to other concepts and qualities seen to be requisite for the task of translation, most prominently to the following: knowledge, skills, awareness, expertise. The term competence, thus, acts as a superordinate, a cover term and summative concept for the overall performance ability which seems to be so difficult to define (Schäffner & Adab ix-x).

Schäffner and Adab (and many other scholars) agree that in this unique but eclectic competence, the fundamental objective of any translator training programme is difficult to identify, let alone quantify, calling into question many aspects, such as "*how*, but also *when* translation competence can be developed, and through what stages" (Schäffner & Adab x). Given the dynamic nature of the translation process and that of the learning process itself, these questions are still to be addressed fully. Translation competence has been largely researched either from the point of view of the product, the translation text, or the point of view of the process, more specifically the decision-making process. Scholars have investigated issues such as whether the level of competence can be evaluated on performance, which is the translated text, or on progress in developing competence and how this progress can be quantified. These issues are still debated and recent cognitive and psychological studies have brought about further discussions on the topic.

Neubert has identified several overall features of translation competence, including: complexity; the heterogeneity of required skills (especially domain-related); approximation (since translators cannot be fully competent in all fields, they need to approximate the subject area, to develop skills, in-depth knowledge and thus overall comprehension before finally make the appropriate communicational transfer); open-endedness (resorting to all sorts of knowledge resources, terminology, and specialist advice etc.); creativity in translation; awareness of the situationality of translation (old and new); historicity (in a translator's work); and change (factors of time and place triggering different solutions to problems of translation) (4-6). All these contextual features should help to develop a translator's skills of critical reflection, being a secondary component in translation competence. As a result, there are several primary components or parameters:

> There are roughly five parameters of translational competence, viz. (1) language competence, (2) textual competence, (3) subject competence, (4) cultural competence, and, last but not least, (5) transfer competence. It is precisely the interplay of these kinds of competence that distinguishes translation from any other areas of communication. Equally, the way these competences are configured into a complex whole singles out translation studies from other kinds of communication research. To be precise, competences (1), (2), (3), and to some extent also (4) are shared with other communicators, whereas competence (5), viz. transfer competence is the distinguishing domain of a translator. In this profession, competence (5) dominates over all the other competences, i.e. transfer skills integrate

> language, text, subject and culture knowledge with the sole aim of satisfying transfer needs (Neubert 6).

Even though these components may be unevenly developed among translators, they are all interrelated to such an extent that if one is missing, the work of translation cannot succeed. Competence in transfer, as the most dominant, emphasizes the practical aspect, triggered by aspects of knowing, and this might be one reason why practitioners tend to disregard theory: "[t]hey favour the dynamics of doing as against the statics of 'just' knowing" (Neubert 6). However, most domain specialists agree that knowing remains essential to any future professional translator. Trainees need to "know" in order to become professional translators, because this aspect represents the foundation on which they can build competence in translation (especially in terms of transfer). Moreover, we think there is another aspect that is also relevant here: *reflection*. This aspect links knowing with doing. It is necessary to reflect upon knowing/knowledge in order to convert it into practice/doing. Knowing often relates to broad, general, all-encompassing concepts, which must be made functional in various contexts. The reflective aspect, if comprehensively purposed, can make them operative in professional activity.

In Neubert's view, "transfer competence has to be inculcated by the teacher in the aspiring student" (12). We consider there to be a step-by-step building and development of student competence in the transfer aspect. A gradual process of familiarization with the principles, strategies, and processes of translation are merged with the gradual development of the first four competences, eventually leading to the development of the final competence, i.e. transfer competence. However, this inculcation is not complete without transfer competence being put into practice in a professional working medium, on the real commercial translation market, where trainees take advantage of real translation tasks; deal with real commissioners and real briefings; make real decisions; enter into real collaboration and negotiation with other parties; make real use of technology; meet real deadlines; and, last but not least, receive real feedback. This experience is actually the salt and pepper of translation trainee formation.

Fraser attempts to define translation competence by initially questioning the contrast between the mode of translation taught on university programmes and the real world of translation. The importance of empirical translation studies are underlined, as well as the role they have to play in a translator's training (51-52). In her opinion, based on personal experience, research, and TAP studies in the field, translation competence can be tackled through a series of professional aspects:

> …the identification and significance, in translational decision-making, of a translation brief (including target-language (TL) readers' existing knowledge of source-language (SL) culture and their needs and expectations); the way dictionaries and other reference books are used; and how professional translators develop self-confidence and a successful translator personality (Fraser 52).

It has been almost two decades since Fraser's assertion and the set of tools and resources used in translation has, of course, improved immensely and become technologically diversified. But the other two aspects are still valid, enriched by professional translators in their daily work and regarded as a real or prospective objective in training courses.

In his constructivist approach to translator education, Kiraly sets out a rich judgment and offers a fresh overview of translator competence:

"[a]ttaining competence in a professional domain means acquiring the expertise and thus the authority to make professional decisions; assuming responsibility for one's actions; and achieving autonomy to follow a path of lifelong learning. This is empowerment" (Kiraly 1). Rejecting the cognitive processing model of the translator he proposed in his early research, Kiraly advances a model of a social process characterized by the give-and-take of a multi-faceted phenomenon involving negotiation. Translator competence is, therefore, true expertise that "can only be developed on the basis of authentic situated action, the collaborative construction of knowledge, and personal experience" (Kiraly 3). He makes a clear distinction between translator competence and translation competence. The latter is one part of a translator's competence. More explicitly, Kiraly prefers the term translator competence as a superordinate concept, encompassing translation competence, i.e. the specific skills needed to produce an acceptable target text; the ability to join communities of language scholars, technology experts, domain specialists, proficient users of old and new technologies for inter-linguistic purposes and understand and produce specialized texts; and the ability to adopt (or, if necessary, to break with) norms in the communities to which they seek access (Kiraly 13). Collaboration is a critical tool and has a central place in translator competence, given that we construct knowledge and meaning through interpersonal and inter-subjective interaction: "[p]erhaps most importantly, it means knowing how to work co-operatively within the various overlapping communities of translators and subject matter experts to accomplish work collaboratively; to appropriate knowledge, norms and conventions; and to contribute to the evolving conversation that constitutes those communities" (Kiraly 14).

Multi-Competent Translator or Competence Singularization?

The new millennium has matured considerations about translation competence. Translation (as well as conference interpreting) has come to be perceived as a profession of cultural and linguistic mediation, for which translators need to develop complex interdisciplinary skills (Toader 173; González Davies 161-177). Practice and findings of constant reflective and empirical research, and taking into account social progress and technological advancement, highlight the main trends in the profession and training of translators. In the 2003 and 2017 versions of PACTE's holistic, dynamic model of translation competence (classically understood as knowledge, skills, and attitudes), based on systematic empirical research and a cognitive approach carried out for more than a decade, translation competence is presented as qualitatively different to bilingual competence, which, in their model, is a sub-component of, though not necessarily specific to, translation. This model of translation competence comprises five interrelated sub-competences, accompanied by relevant psycho-physiological components. The strategic sub-competence is given the central role, while the knowledge about translation sub-competence, the instrumental sub-competence, the bilingual sub-competence, and the extra-linguistic sub-competence are all well represented and in direct interdependence with each other. Within this framework, translation competence is seen as a form of acquired expertise for communicative purposes. The PACTE group's aim was to empirically validate this definition and propose further advice for improving the curriculum design of institutional training programs for translators.

This model was followed by others, such as Göpferich's model (2009), which sees competence in terms of a hybrid set of interrelated sub-competences (bilingual/communicative; domain; tools and research; translation routine; psychomotor; strategic), based on the translation brief and norms, the translator's professional ethos, and the translator's psycho-physical disposition. Taking advantage of his personal insight into translator education in French higher education (HE) institutions, Gile made the distinction between school translation and professional translation and limited his approach only to non-literary professional translation, while acknowledging that literary translation is a difficult area to tackle, due to its many aesthetic and emotional features and implications (Gile 1-5). His contribution was one of the first to clearly address professional translator training, which should equip a translator with a good knowledge of the languages they work in; extra-linguistic (encyclopaedic) and specialized knowledge; good editing skills in the target language; skills of translation transfer; and service provision skills (Gile 8-10). Gouadec drew up a profile for a multi-competent translator and a compendium of the numerous professional facets and sub-activities translators are faced with (*Translation as a Profession*). EMT presented its 2012 framework of competences, in which language, intercultural, info-mining, technological, and thematic competences were grouped around competence in translation service provision. None of these factors and sub-competences is new, and they have all been looked at and tackled previously, in one way or another, in TS research.

Investigation into the professional translation profile and impact in/of the business market started to follow and intertwine more visibly with social and digital progress in the world. A direct consequence of this has been the addition of more pieces to the existing models of translation competence. Gémar reiterated that encyclopaedic knowledge has to be enriched with both the *savoirs* and the set of *savoir-faire* of the community that translators join; ideal training consists of a double formation, both in translation and the specialized domain in which translation is to be performed (34). Gouadec exposed the need not only for specialization, but also for hyper-specialization in a domain (in terms of material or tools in a technical field) (175-176). Munday noted that "specialized translation courses should have an element of instruction in the disciplines in which the trainees are planning to translate—such as law, politics, medicine, finance, science—as well as an ever-increasing input from information technology to cover computer-assisted translation" (25). More recently, Eser has called for translation business competence and business management competence (10); Klimkowski has called for a focus on entrepreneurial traits (81); and Hurtado Albir has made an addition to the definition of competence by settling for what was already agreed upon, i.e. translation "is also a behaviour: the various tasks that the translator carries out in the work place in accordance with market needs and different professional profiles" (4). In 2017, EMT updated its competence framework, proposing the following set of competences: language and culture; translation; technology; personal and interpersonal; and service provision. This last competence officially called for the integration of translators into the larger community of language service providers (LSP), whose industry is increasing year by year.

Starting in the 1960s and, notably, in the 1970s, translation competence has continually enlarged its conceptual framework and gradually evolved from a model of "unique competence" into a set of interrelated sub-competences, as synthesized in the figure below:

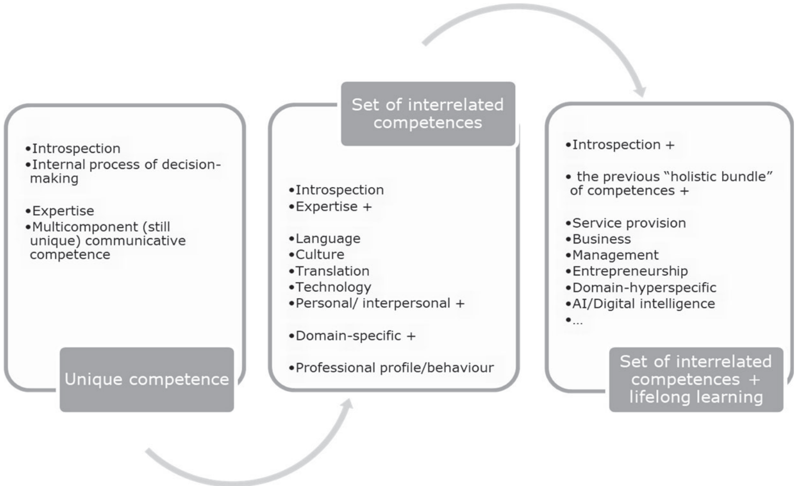

Fig. 5-1. The changing landscape of translation competence

Translation as a form of inter-lingual or multilingual and multicultural mediation has had to adapt professionally to historical change in society and industry and take on new dimensions, as reflected in the changing demands placed on translators. In general, translators are expected to be multi-competent. Professional translators operating in the market today believe that it is more important and profitable to specialize in a domain niche, and have what Gouadec called a hyper-specialization (175), while adopting machine translation in daily work (*International Translation Day, 1-3 October 2019*). If we access an up-to-date website proposing (online) training dedicated to translators, interpreters, and other language service providers (eCPD Webinars, for instance), we can see the great variety of webinars, courses, and other resources tackling dozens of sub-specializations in different domains. We wonder whether, in such a globalized business market, we are not actually facing the phenomenon of competence singularization.

New Trends Calling for New Translation Competences?

New media and new technologies have seen the practice and theory of translation embrace new concepts and develop in accordance with the modern phenomena of globalization, internationalization, and localization. Digitalization is challenging everything. Demands for content localization have risen dramatically. Liu's 2018 statistical study shows how the global machine translation market is expanding. This means that competence in technology will keep on gaining in value. Translation professionals have come to recognize the major role artificial intelligence will play in translation activity in the future. Specialists explain that the digital transformation is oriented to improve consumer experience, by providing them with very personalized, real-time and cutting-edge content. Digital intelligence is based on the combination of domain, data, humans and technologies and it is envisaged that all domains of activity will be covered.

The phenomenon of digitalization is characterizing more and more disciplines and fields of study, which are not necessarily technical, as new technologies are found to be useful and commonly implemented, then new specificities and skills become required. This aspect has opened up more professional opportunities and put greater focus on business skills. Many applied branches of numerous disciplines are nowadays taking into consideration graduate or trainee market professionalization and this is very much due to digitalization. Intelligent tools using natural language processing and machine learning techniques are now able to extract and treat information from documents, images, audio, and video, representing valuable scientific instruments.

At the 2019 European Society for Translation Studies (EST) congress, TS specialists presented new attempts and new fields of investigation, such as extra-disciplinary approaches or how translation strategies can be exported to tackle problems in other disciplines (such as mass-media), and the trend of "translaboration" or collaborative translation, i.e. "networked" translation activity. Cronin has also talked about how ubiquitous computing and the "everywhere" phenomena will have an impact on social life and how translation also has a role to play (497). He pointed out that volunteering, crowdsourcing, and translation for fun is increasing worldwide: "the rapid dissemination of online social networking practices not only generates new translation needs but has far-reaching consequences for the profession of translator in an age of globalization" (Cronin 498). Some of the critical issues he mentioned include: the traditional status of the translator and its visibility (due to global demands) and invisibility, at the same time, as the labour of translation, which is challenged by new translation technologies and collaborative forms of translation practice (498).

Despite the scarcity of examples, one may say that, in this proliferating map of transformations and developments, the best competences, which may complete any translator or professional profile, are the skills of adaptation, conversion, and life-long learning.

Competence in Quality Standards

Given the large expansion of research and work in the field, scholars, such as Holmes (1972), van Doorslaer (2009), and Munday (2012), among others, have distinguished between translation as the act of translating in absolute terms, and translation studies, which encompass approaches, theories, research methods, and applied translation studies, with mainstream terminology and linguistic transfer. This has drawn out the need for didactic approaches in translator training, especially because of the interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary nature of the discipline. Since translation is interconnected with so many disciplines, there are many discussions about the necessity of reorganising and structuring this field and how to avoid the over-proliferation of paradigms. Nevertheless, multidisciplinarity or interdisciplinarity in translation sees both benefits and risks.

The professional benefits are great, both in terms of employer and trainee expectations. More and more, companies are coming to envisage their employees as able to use complementary technologies; not just those related to their current activities, but also new ones, such as cloud environments, which are thought to be more secure. With a view to the enrichment of this working area, more questions arise, such as what prospective translators should be trained in, what learning outcomes they should achieve, and how expectations are met.

Considering how our world is constantly changing, compliance with "rules" and attachment to principles seems to be both important and necessary. These overarching rules within our subject field are educational policies. In line with this focus on progress and change, the 2015 Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (ESG), for example, state that institutional programmes in HE should be periodically reviewed and adapted so that they respond to the changing needs of students and society (EHEA, Standards and Guidelines 15, S.1.9). At a 2018 meeting in Paris, EHEA members made commitments to developing new quality assurance policies in higher education. They are seeking to encourage HE institutions "to provide inter-disciplinary programmes as well as to combine academic and work-based learning" and to "enable our education systems to make better use of digital and blended education, with appropriate quality assurance, in order to enhance lifelong and flexible learning, foster digital skills and competences, improve data analysis, educational research and foresight, and remove regulatory obstacles to the provision of open and digital education" (EHEA, Paris Communiqué 3). Moreover, they have proposed the use of ECTS-based short-cycle qualifications as stand-alone qualifications, within the overarching EHEA qualification framework; each country will still be at liberty to decide on them at the national level. This step encourages us to question whether this type of short-cycle qualification will eventually come to meet or supplement the need to train, specialize, and qualify undergraduates, so that they can easily enter such an interdisciplinary and interculturally-enriched job market as translation. EHEA commitments have been made, but implementation and reform, driven by the Bologna Process, are still a national matter, dependent on national legislations and regulations, national educational systems, HE institutions policies, and the opinions of other stakeholders involved in the process.

There is also an interdisciplinarity share of risk in that the gap between theory, practice and training programmes can be deepened, as envisaged by several TS scholars, such as Munday (2012) and Pym (2014). Generally speaking, given the multifaceted nature of translation competence, translation training programmes have to build an effective connection between curricula and time-frames. On the one hand, there are curriculum objectives, outcomes, competences, and content to be delivered, taught and assessed, as well as stages of progression and development of various sub-competences. On the other hand, there is the timing of the three European qualification cycles of the Bologna Process, and the focus on a student-centred learning and teaching approach, preparing trainees not just for direct employment, but also for superior qualifications, continuous professional development, and life-long learning.

As far as the translation learning process is concerned, since it is about a living discipline, it has a complex dynamic nature. This is not only in pedagogical/didactic terms, but also in terms of the contents to be delivered. This is why a preliminary answer to the question of *when* study should occur (as mentioned previously) seems to start from the acquisition of proficiency level in a foreign language, along with the initial stage of educational formation and continuous professional development. As for the question of *how*, translation competence can be more effectively developed if tackled academically and occupationally. However, we thoroughly agree with those scholars who posit translation competence as most effectively developed in academic institutions. A major reason is that the proper formation of students and graduates depends on their capabilities and access to resources to develop translation competence. Some of them are brilliant language users, but not so keen on technology. Others show innate technological skills, but are reserved when it comes to using language. These competences can of course be developed, but through a well-ordered and methodologically adapted learning process and depending on the trainee's learning style. This process would be difficult to fulfill in other types of institutions, such as companies, where time is often more limited. In order to achieve the highest degrees of competence, translator training should, in our opinion, start at the undergraduate level. Once trainees have fulfilled their needs in developing basic sub-competences in translation, they can, and should, be confronted with real job experiences through joint business-academia arrangements. These empirical experiences combined with academic guidance and support will certainly nurture their exploration, skills, potential, and critical self-reasoning, which will help them to decide and select a future professional niche. Job experience without theoretical, academic insight can be limited, restrictive, and short-sighted not only for prospective trainees, but also for the enrichment of the domain, while theoretical preparation without professional exercise can lead to failure in searching for employment on the job market.

All in all, there is common agreement on the fact that translator training programmes, at least within the Bologna Framework, have a short duration compared to the competences and skills translators should acquire (Greere 60), the quantity of which, as far as we can see, is continuously being increased by market demands. Usually, the first two HE cycles of a qualification are focused on acquiring as many practical skills as possible to enable graduates to get jobs, while training in research, for example, is rarely approached or even disregarded. In Gile's opinion, educational programmes in translation and interpreting studies (TIS) should support and not limit initial training in research among prospective graduates, which will undoubtedly be very profitable for the field (25-29).

In EHEA, the concept of competence revolves around knowledge, understanding, judgement, skills, ability, capability, engagement, awareness, and work or activities. Most of these notions are not new, but they gain visibility through more prominent realities and practices. A focus on learning, teaching, flexibility, and the constant adaptation of educational programmes has been extensively addressed. HE is expected to help students form broad competences and soft skills:

> Emphasis must be placed on forming *soft skills*: graduates will need such competences as creativity, critical thinking and the capacity for autonomous learning based on evidence and verified facts, resilience, team working abilities and leadership, communication and digital skills (EHEA, *BFUG Work* 5).

In our study, soft skills, in terms of linguistic or translation competence, are not new concepts. They have been addressed previously as "capacities in interaction" (Hymes 283); "translator's disposition" (Campbell 339); translator's identity or, more precisely, "sensitivity" (Froeliger 71); "translator's behaviour" (Hurtado-Albir 4) or attitudes in general. To conclude, EHEA's educational standards promote life-long learning.

The internationally recognized standard for translation services, ISO 17100:2015 (which replaces EN 15038:2006) is, by contrast, more specific. It defines translation as a "set of processes to render source language content into target language content in written form" and competence as the "ability to apply knowledge, experience, and skills to achieve intended results". This standard is translation process-oriented with the aim of achieving quality. It is not intended as a measure of the quality of the final translation product. Nonetheless, it lists six professional competences translators or translation agencies must have to ensure the quality of their work, including: translation competence; linguistic and textual competence in the source language and the target language; competence in research, information acquisition, and processing; cultural competence; technical competence; and various domain competences. In order to meet this ISO qualification, translators need to have either a degree in translation, linguistics, or language studies from a recognized institution of higher education; a recognized degree in any subject plus the equivalent of two years full-time professional translation experience; or the equivalent of five years full-time professional translation experience (ISO 17100:2015 and Qualified Status). If all three variants of eligibility are equally sufficient for a translator to achieve the highest level of qualified status, then we can make some observations on translator training and qualification.

A bottom-up analysis reveals that, in the third case of eligibility, five years of full-time professional translation experience could be enough not only to equip translators with the necessary hard and soft skills, i.e., achieving those six competences named above, but also with a great potential to inductively, accidentally, unintentionally, "discover" and comprehend the theories and principles written in textbooks on translation studies. The second alternative implies that a degree in any subject would be the equivalent of domain competence development and partly of other competences as well, perfected or acquired during two years of professional experience. As far as the first variant is concerned, there are several interpretations that can be made. Firstly, translation, as well as linguistics or language studies, has evolved in terms of field research and computational applied branches in such a way that a translator can develop most of the necessary competences. Secondly, the theoretical and instructive approach needs to mature the translator's capacity to easily adapt and rapidly develop previously unacquired/unpractised skills. The third tentative interpretation would be that recognized HE institutions are given credit for an intertwined academic and professional approach to the training of future language and culture mediators or language service providers. A fourth interpretation would be rather tradition-oriented and idealistic, i.e. translation considered to be rooted in contrastive linguistics or even in language learning and teaching (communicative language education), which has a much longer disciplinary history, and all discipline specificities and advancements are ignored. As such, all three specializations can prepare future translators. No matter how many exceptions can occur, this last interpretation cannot, in our opinion, legitimize such a gross generalization.

Concluding Remarks: Differential Translation Competence

Looking at this landscape of translation, which will seemingly never stop evolving, it is a conglomeration produced by social progress and through contact with other disciplines. We share the same impression as that given by Pym, who critically observed that "the more scholars look, the more things they put in, with no limit in sight" (487). We also embrace his arguments against multicomponentiality, though we do not reject it (as we shall explain) and agree with his minimalist approach to defining translation competence.

We are not going to render Pym's full definition here. Summarizing it, we consider that the core of translator competence is what represents it most: transfer competence, strategic competence, or translation competence, in opposition to domain, technological, or extra-linguistic competences, to mention some of the various components of the translational models we have tackled. In addition, transfer competence is intertwined with cultural-linguistic competence and both together form a translators' unique competence. The other sub-competences are not so specific, since all of them can be found in neighbouring disciplines or be seen to characterize clearly different domains of activity. They are rather business specific competences and one can easily call them, for terminological or domain-linked purposes, sub-competences of the translation business (going further, one can envisage the two major competences that a translator needs on the market to be: translation and business competence. This differentiation can easily be used in other applied disciplines, such as linguistics, political science, sociology, health etc.). Also of note is the distinction made in ISO 17100 between a translation service provider (TSP) and a language service provider (LSP), which is a broader term, and the clear specification that LSPs are considered to be TSPs only when they perform translation activities. Therefore, translation performance or service is unique and so is the competence involved. Other business-related competences are also necessary and help translators put into practice their translation competence, which is a self-evident requirement especially for freelancers.

By means of the dynamic nature of cultural-linguistic competency or translational linguistics, with the help of other sub-competences required by the market, translators prove themselves to have a differential competence that is unique in itself. There is no doubt that the linguistic component is vital in defining translation competence. Translation means transfer from one language to another, but if there is no meaning, there will be no transfer. Meaning is grasped by mastering cultural-linguistic competence, which is not a static value, but a dynamic one and achieved through transfer itself. Translators need to understand, approach, research, acquire, select, strategize, and transmit intuitions about language use, based on experience gained in a diverse community diversity and deeply embedded in discourse, very often alongside feelings. Translators have to differentiate between all information at their disposal and provide an acceptable target text. This differential human competence is certainly hard to make operational through machine or statistical translation tools.

These machines are likely to produce not only errors in fluency, but also semantic, pragmatic, and cultural errors. Advertising, movies and animated serial subtitles; personalized interviews; humour or political discourse; literary and poetic discourse are only a few examples of areas that need more than a linguistic (automated) treatment. For example, humans can produce poetic phrases, but it seems impossible to treat and translate them by even well-trained and autonomous machine software, unless one takes the artificial language produced by artificial intelligence as acceptable, risking the abandonment or failure to identify the metalinguistic resources of those phrases and the impact their interpretation would have upon text reception and translation!

To put it in a nutshell, translators need to seek a differential competence, whose core is made up of cultural-linguistic and translation transference skills. All the other sub-competences attributed in multi-competence models are necessary, but they are not translation specific and are likely to fit any other professional profile. They are attributes of the growing trend of business development and digitalization. Since a too wide dispersion can lead to an unrecoverable disintegration and loss of disciplinary status, we believe that a sensible reassessment of definition of translation will have considerable input in TS and translator training.

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Translation Studies through the Lens of Classical Translation Procedures, Techniques, and Strategies in the Digital Age

Andreea-Maria Sărmașiu

Preliminaries

Translation involves the transfer of messages between two different language systems and cultures; Munday notes that translation is “by its nature … multilingual and also interdisciplinary”. Translation subjects are texts in various forms and published for different levels of reader; moreover, language systems, linguistics, communication studies, and cultural studies are also a part of this subject, contributing to the difficulties of translation fulfilment. Numerous scholars, with important contributions to the field of translation studies, have carried out many comparative analyses. The taxonomy of translation procedures has distinguished various procedures, techniques, and strategies of translation: *direct* or *oblique* translation; word by word quotation or interpretation and summarization; a focus on the original message or explicit contents of the original; and borrowing, *calques*, or literal translation versus transposition, equivalence or adaptation.

But what is the role of the translator during this process? The translator seeks to accurately reproduce the linguistic elements of the source language, or to engage in a morphological, syntactic, or stylistic readjustment, focusing on the understanding and transmission of the message, and not necessarily on the exact reproduction of all the elements existing in the source structure. Do classical translation procedures remain applicable today? Have traditional translation techniques and strategies become obsolete? This chapter offers an analysis of translation methodology from the point of view of the applicability of its procedures according to context, audience, or any other factor relevant to the practice of translation.

Vinay and Darbelnet*: Merci et Au revoir*?

In order to emphasize, offering theoretical and practical examples, the idea that classical methodology and methods are still applicable during the translation process, or that there are some situations when they are considered obsolete, I will present from the very beginning the theory, exemplified through personal research, of two significant scholars, Vinay and Darbelnet. Vinay and Darbelnet carried out a comparative analysis and distinguished two major methods in their taxonomy of classical translation procedures.

A *direct translation*, which generally resembles a word-by-word quotation of the original message in the target language, and the translator aims to accurately reproduce the linguistic elements of the source language. This method includes borrowing, *calque*, and literal translation procedures. In an *oblique translation*, the translator interprets, elaborates, or summarizes the explicit contents of the original. The translator has to engage in morphological, syntactic, or stylistic readjustment, focusing on the understanding and transmission of the message and not necessarily on the exact reproduction of all the elements existing in the source structure.

This method embraces translation procedures, including: transposition, modulation, equivalence, and adaptation

Vinay and Darbelnet note that, due to the structural and metalinguistic parallelisms that occur between languages, it is often possible to overcome gaps between the source language and the target language by transposing the source language (SL) message piece by piece into the target language (TL). In such cases, when the translator notices a gap in the target language, they can employ a parallel category or a parallel concept to convey the meaning of the source text. This can be accomplished through one of the following direct translation procedures.

The *procedure of borrowing*, which is perhaps the simplest of all procedures used in translation, involves using foreign phrasing in the target text. It is frequently used because of a need to denote new technologies that rapidly become part of the surrounding reality. Furthermore, the translated structure is presented in a much simplified form. When a translation needs to be important and effective in terms of linguistic economy, borrowing can be a viable linguistic option. As an example we can look at the term *mass-media* in a source text. Its direct Romanian equivalent is *mijloace de comunicare în masă*. As such it is far more convenient to borrow the term in the target language, in this case Romanian, and avoid using an overly-cumbersome structure. As pointed out by Vinay and Darbelnet, perhaps the most interesting aspect of using borrowings relates to the creation of specific stylistic effects, e.g. introducing the flavour of a foreign culture into a translation. The counter-argument against using this method is that although its applicability is extensive, some contextual restrictions are required in terms of the style chosen and the message transmitted. These restrictions aim to avoid the use of a "borrowing" that could lead to errors in meaning and context in translation (false friends).

A *calque*, a second procedure, is a special kind of borrowing in which the target language borrows an expression from the source language by literally translating each of the original elements. Regarding the scope and motivation of choosing calques for translation, we refer to the use of similar linguistic roots, many of which are already integrated in everyday language. For example, in the Romanian legal context, for the terms *communitisation*, *subsidiarity*, or *comitology*, the *calque* version is preferred. There are also situations when these calques should be ignored or avoided, as in the case of false friends.

Word-for-word translation relies on the direct transfer of a text from a source language into a grammatical and meaningful text in a target language. Using this procedure, the translator focuses predominantly on adhering to the linguistic rules of the target language. In practice, literal translation occurs most commonly when translating between two languages of the same family, such as French to Italian, and works most effectively when they also share the same culture. However, using this method in an inappropriate context leads to the creation of meanings other than those originally attributed to linguistic elements, as well as to meaningless structures; structures that are impossible to interpret idiomatically or syntactically; erroneous equivalents or equivalents existing in the target language; and elements that are partially or totally inappropriate to the communicative register. Some relevant examples for this counter-argument can be illustrated in literal translations of Romanian expressions into English: as *mustard will jump off* (literal translation from Romanian, *a-i sări muștarul*), instead of to *lose temper*; *to take someone out of his watermelons* (literal translation from Romanian, *a scoate din* *pepeni*), instead of *drive someone nuts*; or *gone a raft* (literal translation from Romanian, *dus cu pluta*), instead of *crazy*. Negative examples of literal translations can also be identified in French phrases with specific equivalents in Romanian in the colloquial register: *c'est à la fin du bal qu'on paie les musiciens* (the literal translation from Romanian is *la sfârșitul balului se plătesc muzicanții*), instead of *om trăi și-om vedea*; *marier le premier chien coiffé* (*a se mărita cu primul câine coafat*), instead of *a se grăbi ca fata mare la măritat*; or comme une chevre coiffée (*ca o capră coafată*), instead of *urât/ă ca moartea*.

Vinay and Darbelnet also emphasize that there are major structural and metalinguistic differences between languages, and in such cases more complex methods must be employed to convey the meaning of a source text.

Transposition involves replacing one word class with another, without changing the meaning of the text. It can be applied intra-linguistically, i.e. within a particular language. An example, extracted from a French translation course, illustrates this method with the following sentences: (1) *Si le ventilateur est utilisé en aspiration* (translation into Romanian: *În cazul utilizării unui ventilator pentru extracția aerului din încăpere*); (2) *Avant la mise en route du ventilateur* (translation into Romanian: *Înainte de a pune în funcțiune ventilatorul*). In sentence number 1, we can see that the French verb (*utiliser*) is converted into a common noun (*utilizare*). In sentence number 2, the nominal phrase structure in French (*la mise en route*) is transposed into a verbal phrase structure (*a pune în funcțiune*).

Modulation involves changing the form of the message through a change in perspective. An alteration of this kind may be required in contexts where a literal or transposed translation sounds unidiomatic or awkward in the target language, despite being grammatically correct. An equivalent text can be produced in the target language by using completely different stylistic and structural methods. Translating proverbs is a good example of employing equivalence to render more elaborate structures from a source language into a target langauge: *il pleut à seaux/des cordes* (it is raining cats and dogs/a ploua cu găleata); *comme un chien dans un jeu de quilles* (like a bull in a china shop/om lipsit de tact); or *deux patrons font chavirer la barque* (too many cooks spoil the broth/copilul cu multe moașe rămâne cu buricul netăiat).

Adaptation is used when the type of situation referred to by the source language message does not function in the target language culture. In such cases the translator must recreate a situation that can be regarded as more or less equivalent. From this outlook, adaptation is a specific kind of situational equivalence. Examples of different criteria may include the situation in which communication is taking place; cultural aspects; the special linguistic aspects of a language; or any other aspect requiring adaptation by the translator so that the target audience receives the message correctly and efficiently. More specifically, cultural adaptations (in book titles, films, sports, habits, customs) can be taken as points of reference; it is notable that, in almost all cultures, film titles are adapted to increase the degree of reception among the target audience, for better understanding.

A Complete Assumption of Classical Translation Procedures

Any translation process is conditioned by the thematic, linguistic, and cultural knowledge that the translator possesses. The two procedures of borrowing and calque can be transposed in the context of any type of translation, as long as the aim is to simplify an expression or for the rendering of stylistic nuance. When information is transformed into a state of uncertainty or overstates the sense, these methods of transfer become traps and lead to the use of inappropriate structures. If a text cannot be integrated into the general context of the transfer of information and gives imprecise structures or inaccurate equivalents, the only solution remains oblique translation. The use of transposition, modulation, equivalence, or adaptation is conditioned by the degree of culture possessed by the translator in combination with the degree of acceptance imposed by the context and the needs of the client. In order to demonstrate the complete assumption of all these classical translation procedures I will set out an exemplification of their application in specific contexts.

Christiane Nord (Nord, 146) points out that "translation is learned by translating", implying a long process of continuous work, but also requiring a set of specific competences. Among these, we may list *linguistic competences*, being the knowledge of appropriate linguistic aspects in the source language and especially in the target language; *cultural competence*, an understanding of a set of basic aspects ranging from everyday life to social and political institutions; *specific or factual competence*, thematic knowledge from specialized fields that can highlight the capacities of the person performing the act of translation, capabilities that lead to the desired or expected outcome of the target audience; *technical competence*, for documentation and research; and all these aspects combine to form a single overarching competence, *transfer competence*, viewing, accepting, and assuming specific language, cultural or field equivalences.

The use of the abilities mentioned above leads to the complete assumption of the translation act: an assumption of the difficulties, of the problems encountered, as well as of the proposed and validated solutions needed in order to obtain the expected result. Concerning the difficulties and problems of translation tasks, Nord (Nord, 151) separates them out in a clear manner, suggesting that such difficulties are subjective and have to do with the translator themselves and their specific working conditions; while problems are objective (irrespective of the translator's level of competence and of the technical conditions of work) and the translator has to solve them during a particular translation task. Thus, during the translation act, the translator faces both their own subjectivity and objectivity, and has to strike a balance in order to analyse and resolve critical situations.

To classify difficulties and problems of translation, Nord (Nord, 151) proposes four types for each of them. The list of difficulties includes: text-specific difficulties, related to the degree of comprehensibility of the source text; translator-dependent difficulties, related to the translator's knowledge and competence; pragmatic difficulties related to the nature of the text to be translated; and technical difficulties related to the necessary documentation and research competences. In terms of translation problems, Christiane Nord (Nord, 151) proposes four types: (1) pragmatic translation problems, related to the nature of the source text; (2) linguistic translation problems, related to the internal structure of the elements from the source and target texts; (3) cultural translation problems, normative and conventional aspects that separate the source text from the target text; and (4) text-specific translation problems, related to specific aspects of the source text.

We present a first example of the complete assumption of the classical procedure in connection with the pragmatic problem that can arise in the transfer of information from the source language to the target language, with the translator having the task of taking into account a number of specific aspects, such as recipient, medium/context, motivation, time, and space. Specifically, reference is made to extra-textual factors (units of measurement, names of institutions, an institutional name acting as a recipient in translation, or various temporal or spatial elements) that have a major role in translation and which must be adapted or modified in the target language according to different contextual or cultural aspects. The first translation, from Romanian into English, is from a purchase agreement used as a sample for a practical course in English translation (May, 2014):

> Partea care este pusă în imposibilitatea îndeplinirii obligaţiilor sale contractuale, trebuie să avizeze prin fax cealaltă parte, [...] trimiţând totodată şi un document oficial emis de Camera de Comerţ sau de o altă autoritate cu competenţă similară, care să certifice exactitatea faptelor, datei şi împrejurărilor notificate.

The role of the translator in this case is to choose between direct or oblique procedures with regard to the correct equivalent English denomination of a number of institutions. A choice has to be made between several possibilities: *The Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Romania*, because the contract was concluded on Romanian territory and had a contractual partner, a buyer, of Romanian nationality; *The German-Romanian Chamber of Industry and Commerce*, the appropriate term in the context because the contract was concluded between a German seller and a Romanian buyer; or *The National Chamber of Commerce*, a standard term for the two contracting parties of both countries, but also a general term used in several English-speaking countries. After analysing the proposed solutions, through research and documentation, as well as the particular context from which it was extracted, the sale-purchase agreement/contract, *The National Chamber of Commerce* was chosen, thus avoiding any interpretation of the role and actions of the parties involved and preserving a neutral identification of a party (be it seller or buyer) who may be unable to meet its contractual obligations. The final version of the translation was:

> The part for which it becomes impossible to fulfil its contract obligations, shall notify by fax the other side/part, [...] accompanied by an official document issued by The National Chamber of Commerce or any other authority who has a similar competence, which certifies the exactitude of facts, dates and notified circumstances.

The second translation sample, from Romanian into French, deals with another institutional name: the *M.A.I.* (*Ministerul Afacerilor Interne*). The example is taken from an employment contract used as a sample during a practical course in French translation (June, 2014):

> Controlul respectării prevederilor reglementărilor în vigoare în domeniul raporturilor de muncă și al securității și sănătății în muncă în structurile M.A.I. se exercită de către structurile de inspecția muncii ale M.A.I.

During the translation process, the translator may have a tendency to render such terms in a literal manner, i.e. *Ministère des Affaires intérieures*. Indeed, the term *Ministère des Affaires intérieures* is used in French political or administrative contexts with reference to Romania, and to particular countries such as Romania and Japan. However, when the direction of translation is towards a French recipient and refers to France or other countries where the term is common, the correct formulation is *Ministère de l'Intérieur*. In addition, the term *Ministère de l'Intérieur* is also used in a number of other countries, including Spain, Russia, Denmark, and Italy. Therefore, in the case of the internationalization of such a contract, the correct term in most contexts would be *Ministère de l'Intérieur*, a term also stipulated in the Official Journal of the French Republic as having an international character.

The final example is taken from a translation project by first-year students of the European Master's in Translation Studies and Terminology, Cluj-Napoca (2016). This was a project in the field of judicial psychology and the context of juvenile delinquency. The source text, from the *Introductory Handbook on the Prevention of Recidivism and the Social Reintegration of Offenders*, proposed titles and rules with specific meanings, and dealing with accredited information, such as UNICEF Romania, the European Court of Justice, and the Council of Europe. These are all bodies that through their terminology and translation services can provide a terminological base and parallel texts that contribute to the presentation and development of a correct and coherent context from the point of view of the transferred information. For example, the equivalent title of the *Convention on the Rights of the Child* (*Convenția cu privire la Drepturile Copilului*); *The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights* (*Pactul internațional cu privire la drepturile civile și politice*); *The United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice or the Beijing Rules* (*Regulile Standard Minimale ale Naţiunilor Unite în Administrarea Justiţiei Juvenile sau Regulile de la Beijing*); and *The United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty* (*Regulile Naţiunilor Unite pentru protecţia minorilor privaţi de libertate*).

In the complete assumption of classical translation procedures, the linguistic problems resulting from the lexical and grammatical differences between source and target language are analysed and used in order to derive a final equivalent. Problems related to the vocabulary of a language (idiomatic expressions, proverbs); the terminology of a language (specialized terms); or its grammar (morphology and syntax) can be identified here. In this theoretical exposure, some legal terms, from Romanian into French, extracted from a translation realized for the French Institute of Cluj (September 2014), can be helpful in understanding this process:

> Prin contractul de prestări servicii, o parte (prestator) se obligă să presteze celeilalte părţi (beneficiar) anumite servicii, iar beneficiarul se obligă să plătească suma convenită. Obiectul contractului de prestări servicii îl constituie serviciile de orice natură, adică ceea la ce se obligă prestatorul; cu alte cuvinte, acele acțiuni sau activități care trebuie să le facă prestatorul de servicii pentru care el va fi remunerat.

In this case, the translator should identify the French equivalent of the term *Contract de prestări servicii*. Terminological databases offer a number of ways to solve this problem: IATE (InterActive Terminology for Europe) offers *marché de services* or *marché public de services*; and EUROVOC presents *marché public de services*, while specifying that all the assigned contexts do not provide the same information found in the context of the Romanian language. In this situation, the translator needs to undertake broader research, even going so far as consulting a monolingual dictionary, such as LAROUSSE (the target language is French). Analysing the definitions and performing a literal translation results in new variants: *contrat de prestation de service* or *contrat de mise à disposition*. Besides the *linguistic problem*, which also presents a technical difficulty regarding the correct and efficient use of documentary resources, the *cultural aspect* also appears. The term "translation" is different from one country to another depending on the understanding of the meaning, and therefore a corpus of texts is needed to clarify and resolve this transfer. Being a topic of personal and professional interest, I contacted a law firm in Lyon and asked them to provide me with a set of legal texts where the term coinciding with the meaning found in the Romanian definition was *contrat de prestations de service*; this term was also found in the *Official Journal of the French Republic*, which confirmed its standardization in French contracts:

> Comme la vente, une prestation de service implique un contrat créant des droits et obligations pour les parties en cause: le prestataire et le client. La prestation de service est ainsi un contrat entre deux personnes, le prestataire et le client, dont l'objet est de fournir à ce dernier un service moyennant une rémunération pour ledit prestataire.

A second illustration of searching for an equivalent when faced with a linguistic problem, being one of historical terminology as well, is taken from a series of historical fragments extracted from a Romanian historical publication, the Journal ARHIVA SOMEȘANĂ (2014), and translated from Romanian into French:

(a) Concluzia de ansamblu a lucrării este că această nouă civilizaţie îşi are originile în prefacerile petrecute în culturile locale la finele Bronzului Târziu.

(b) La 21 august 1851 drapelul a fost decorat de către împăratul Francisc Iosif cu “Medalia de aur”, pentru loialitatea față de monarhie dovedită de grănicerii năsăudeni în timpul Revoluției de la 1848.

(c) punând în valoare contribuția lor la România întregită.

In deciding whether a direct or an oblique approach should be used, the research takes place at the level of the terminological transfer from the source language (Romanian) into the target language (French). The specialized terms, known more or less by the translator and with or without equivalents in the target language, include: *Epoca Bronzului*, whose equivalent in French is *Âge de Bronze*; *România întregită*, whose equivalent in French is “la Roumanie complete”, does not fully cover the historical significance of the term and seems to be a literal translation, *grăniceri*, whose equivalent in French is *des gardes-frontières*. In this situation, cultural valences appear too, as some terms in the source language are more meaningful than in the target language. The translator can solve this transfer problem either by rendering the existing equivalent, as in the case of *Epoca de bronz* or *grănicer*, or via an alternative solution. In the example of *România întregită*, the term could be kept in Romanian and an explanatory note or reference could be added. However, in the case of *Revoluția de la 1848*, broader documentation and a context-based adaptation would be needed, as this term has two meanings in French, and is reproduced in two different terms: *Le printemps des peuples* or *Printemps des revolutions*, when a general reference is made to the 1848 revolutions; and *La Révolution roumaine de 1848*, with strict reference to events in Romania:

(a) De la conclusion générale de ce travail, il en résulte que la nouvelle civilisation tirait ses origines des transformations produites dans les cultures locales à la fin de l'Âge de Bronze tardif.

(b) Le 21 août 1851, le drapeau a été décoré, par l'empereur François-Joseph, de l'ordre "Médaille d'or" pour la fidélité des gardes-frontières de Năsăud à la monarchie pendant la Révolution roumaine de 1848.

(c) en mettant en valeur leur contribution à la 'România Întregită' (en français, une expression équivalente, « la Roumanie complète »).

A third series of examples are taken from the same translation project of the first-year of the European Master's in Translation Studies and Terminology, Cluj-Napoca (2016). The terminology used in the text raised a number of linguistic problems in relation to the field of social assistance: *social worker—asistent social*; *social work—asistență socială*; *rehabilitation—reabilitare*; *paralegal—asistență judiciară*; *diversion—diversiune*; *aftercare—asistență ulterioară*; as well as the legal field: *probationary period—eliberare condiționată*; *probation officer—ofițer de eliberare condiționată*; and *suspended sentence—pedeapsă cu suspendare*. Many of the equivalents used are formed through the procedure of *borrowing*.

Another complete assumption can be visible in the results of differences in habits, norms, conventions, and behaviours expressed in a singular manner in both the source and target languages. Examples may be found in the ways specific texts are written, including manuals, menus, legal texts, laws, or advertisements. We present an example that highlights the differences between the source language and the target language in terms of the writing or design of a student certificate in Romanian and how it should be translated into French making cultural differences invisible and allowing the same message to be transmitted. Here then a cultural transfer is accompanied by a linguistic transfer, in the requirement of the correct validation of an official document—*attestation* or *certificate*—and also by a technical transfer, with the validation of the information to be read/adapted into French, but also the information to be identified as new/particular. For example, although we may consider the equivalent in French for *a student certificate* to be *certificat/attestation d'étudiant*, after consulting various parallel corpuses, *certificat de scolarité* would be the term that generates the most common features with the format. Strong documentation, both terminologically and in terms of drafting, can generate a standard solution (a borrowing procedure) and be used in common contexts.

The last element presented in this chapter relates to text-specific translation problems and their equivalents, a category of issues deriving from the specific features of the source text (word games, invented words). An example is taken from the translation of the *Francophone Film Festival* brochure of 2015 (French to Romanian) and designates word games found in movies titles: (1) *Pays de Cocagne* and (2) *Aimer, boire et chanter*; and the Romanian translations, (1) *Unde curge miere și lapte* and (2) *Să iubești, să bei și să cânți*. In this case, the decision on how best to translate is the translator's. It would also have been possible to keep the title in the source language.

A second example is taken from the Romanian version of the opera *Médecin malgré lui*, in which it can be seen that the translator has kept the elements in Latin and in Italian for the amusement of the public due to the interpretation of the characters:

> Cabricias arci thuram, catalamus, singulariter, nominativo hæc Musa, « la Muse », bonus, bona, bonum, Deus sanctus, agnus dei pecata mundi. Rosa,

> rosas, rosae, rosum, rosis. Quando le neve di silenzio imbianco. Tutto quel chiasso al centro della citte. E le nostre parole gelo. Lo ti amo. Il mio refugio … sei tu!

A third example is extracted from the DIS-MOI DIX MOTS 2014 competition regulations, written in French and translated into Romanian. The words in French, emphasised by quotations, are the most important elements and, in this context simple translation being ineffective, there was a need to try and identify an equivalent that would not suppress the importance of the words and of the textual message:

> Pour illustrer l'imagination et la folie de la langue française, les dix mots retenus pour le concours sont : « Ambiancer », « à tire-larigot », « charivari », « s'enlivrer », « faribole », « hurluberlu », « ouf », « timbré », « tohu-bohu » et« zigzag ».

Translation into Romanian:

> Pentru a ilustra bogăția și inventivitatea limbii franceze, cuvintele alese pentru ediția de anul acesta sunt: "Ambiancer", "à tire-larigot", "charivari", "s'enlivrer", "faribole", "hurluberlu", "ouf", "timbré", "tohu-bohu" și "zigzag".

A final example is identified in wedding customs presented as part of an international project. The fragment was extracted from the international project "Youthpass for youth exchanges—Romania, Bulgaria, Turkey and France". Among the customs, there are a number of specific poems/songs:

> Cu petele de mătasă / de la mire şi mireasă/ este slujbă sîncinare de la împăratul cel mare / cu de la împărăteasa/ să roagă mirele şâ mireasa/ şâ so rugat şâ părinţi să lăsaţi tinerii mâni/ şâ să viniţă şi dumalorvostă.

Identifying an equivalent in this case would imply a *literal translation*, which would lead to a removal of the message's authenticity; the regional lexical colour; the rhythm; the created rhyme; and the pathos found in the words. In such a situation, the translator could come up with a solution of interpretation and problem-solving through retaining the play on words and explaining it and by trying to paraphrase it in the context of wedding customs.

Conclusions

The documentation, identification, analysis, and validation of translation problems and solutions exemplified above through specific techniques, procedures, and strategies, leads us to a key: a guideline for a translator in order to completely assume the application of the classical translation procedures; being in permanent contact with pragmatic, cultural, linguistic, and text-specific aspects and bringing together extra-textual factors, vocabulary, terminology, grammar or other language-specific elements; and highlighting globalism and the relevance of all these parts of classical methodology and methods in the digital age.

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ACCESSION TO THE EUROPEAN UNION AND THE TRANSLATION OF THE *ACQUIS COMMUNAUTAIRE*: IMPACT AND LEGACY FOR LANGUAGE PROFESSIONS

ANCA GREERE

Romania joined the EU in 2007. A prerequisite for accession was the translation of the *acquis communautaire* into the Romanian language. This took the combined effort of a number of translation professionals, EU experts, government institutions, university academics, coordinating agencies, and specialists in various fields. The translation of the *acquis communautaire* was undoubtedly a cornerstone of Romania's accession to the EU. More than ten years on, this study outlines the impact this specific act of translation had on the professionalisation of the language industry in Romania and seeks to identify the multiple areas driven forward by this important project.

The *acquis* is by no means a static corpus; since 2007 the body of EU law has been constantly amended and added to. We may acknowledge here the efforts made by colleagues working in language units across multiple European institutions who ensure accessibility to Romanian as an EU language. However, our focus is primarily on the original act of translating the *acquis* (i.e., pre-2007) and we will only look at current activities related to the translation of the *acquis* into Romanian where this serves our purposes.

For this study, we reviewed scholarly publications that highlighted the priorities of the *acquis* project; we analysed quantitative and qualitative data captured in annual reports elaborated by the European Institute of Romania between 2000 and 2007[1]; and we collected qualitative testimonials through an open-question survey distributed in 2016[2]. The findings from these sources are reported in the following

1. Adopting the *Acquis Communautaire*: Enabling Romania to Succeed in the Accession Process

The European Commission website defines the *acquis* as "[…] the body of common rights and obligations that is binding on all the EU member states" (EC, *Conditions for Membership* n. pag.).

[1] All references to and reproductions from the European Institute of Romania reports for 2000-2007 are made with the explicit approval of the Translation Coordination Unit (approval granted on 10 October 2016). All quotations were translated by the author from Romanian into English.

[2] A survey of testimonials (with open questions) was conducted in September-October 2016. This was distributed through Babeș-Bolyai University mailing lists, the Romanian Translation Association (ATR) membership forum, and contacts at various European institutions (the European Commission, European Parliament, and European Council). The survey was addressed specifically to individuals who, through various roles, had either participated in the initial project of translation of the *acquis communautaire* and the associated work on terminology, or had subsequently made use of the original translation corpus and/or terminology databases as part of their ongoing professional career. Twenty responses were received covering a good range of roles that had contributed to this project: management, operations, administrative, translation, revision, and terminology. A number of key stakeholders/contributors put forward their views.
Individual quotes extracted from the responses (marked R1, R2, R3, …) are attributed where permission by respondents/testimonial providers has been explicitly granted. Quotes are treated anonymously when respondents/testimonial providers did not indicate their name and/or affiliation. The majority of responses/testimonials (18) were received in English and are reproduced verbatim. Responses/testimonials in Romanian (2) were translated by the author into English.

European Union accession criteria lay out the essential conditions all candidate countries must satisfy to become a member state, including "the administrative and institutional capacity to effectively implement the *acquis*". This requires that "candidate countries have to accept the *acquis* before they can join the EU and make EU law part of their own national legislation" (EC, *Conditions for Membership* n. pag.). The act of translating the *acquis* into the language of the candidate country is thus mandatory for the accession criteria to be met.

The translation of the *acquis-communautaire* into national languages, and subsequently its transposition into national legislation, represents the only element of commonality for all candidate states; each country will start from what are otherwise different economic, political and social positions, and will have different conditions imposed on them. The resources allocated and the organisation of this activity, however, depend exclusively on the national administration of each country (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2002* 14).

In the case of Romania, the responsibility for the translation of the *acquis* fell on the European Institute of Romania (EIR), set up under the authority of the Romanian Government through Government Ordinance no. 15/1998, and under the coordination of the Romanian Ministry of European Affairs (Statute of the European Institute of Romania: Article 3). This Ordinance explicitly stipulates that in order to meet its objective specified in Article 2 (c), the EIR has a responsibility:

> [...] to ensure the translation into Romanian, as well as the linguistic and legal revisions of the *acquis communautaire* adopted before Romania's accession to the European Union and of the case-law of the European Court of Human Rights, as well as the translation of Romanian legal texts

> into other official languages of the European Union, through terminological unification and coordination of the translations at national level; (Ordinance no 15/1998, Article 3 (c)).

To fulfil its responsibilities in relation to the *acquis*, the EIR, through its Translation Coordination Unit (TCU), oversaw the various contracts that supported this activity and ensured the quality of their outputs.

Between 2000 and 2007, there were multiple rounds of contracting. These included: 2000-2001 through PHARE RO 9706.01.02/Component C; 2002 through MEI Contract no. 181/14.05.2002; and 2003-2004 through MEI Contract no. 336/21.04.2003 and Addendum no. 537/C/02.06.2004. These covered translation/revision services. The translation company Diamondo SRL in Bucharest and a consortium comprising the translation company Poliglot SRL and the Department of Applied Modern Languages of the Babeș-Bolyai University in Cluj-Napoca constituted the main contractors. Concurrently or in sequence other projects were also contracted out to support the work of *acquis* translation. Throughout this time, the implementing authority remained the European Institute of Romania.

Early on, it became clear that attention needed to be placed equally on achieving both quality and quantity. Hildegard Puwak, Minister of European Integration, in a speech delivered in 2001 (Baconsky et al. 16) highlighted the necessity for the "translation to be as close as possible to the original from the viewpoint of quality and accuracy" emphasising the fact that "[c]ommunity documents regardless of the language in which they are written, have the same legal force; [hence] stylistic and terminological unification acquires a special importance in the long run". Notwithstanding the quality targeted through the translation of the *acquis*, there was clear recognition of the fact that "we [government] are nevertheless [also] concerned with quantity" (Baconsky et al. 16).

Indeed, in summarising the outcomes from the *acquis* translation, the EIR reported on the great volume of work required and indicated that "[...] over 158,000 pages of Official Journal (primary and secondary legislation) were translated and revised, with contributions from over 100 translators and revisers from Bucharest and Cluj, over 200 experts from 30 institutions (national ministries, research institutes and universities)" (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2007* 14, author's translation) and 31,600 terminological entries were produced, of which more than 25,000 were subsequently transferred to the Directorate-General for Translation of the European Commission to be included in the EU's inter-institutional terminology database IATE (Inter-Active Terminology for Europe) (EIR, *About Us* n. pag.).

The bulk of this work was initially supported through the PHARE and Tempus programmes and subsequently funded by the Romanian government. Estimates put forward in 2001 (Puwak 16) acknowledged the need for a state budget commitment of 500,000 euro annually in order for the process to be successfully completed; i.e. all *acquis* pages in force had to be translated and revised for Romania to fulfil its duty as an applicant country and ensure non-discriminatory access by the public administration, citizens, and companies to EU regulations. This was set against a total of 650 million euro, representing the total financial support for the entire pre-accession process (Puwak 18).

On 1 January 2007, the date of Romania's accession to the EU, the translation of the *acquis* was to be taken on by the European Commission; hence, the responsibility for the quality of the language versions of the *acquis* documents adopted after the completion of this fifth wave of enlargement was to be transferred to the institutions of the European Union (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2007* 5, 14). At this time, the EIR shifted attention from EU primary and secondary legislation to the case-law of the Court of Justice of the EU and the European Court of Human Rights. It also continued its translation/revision/terminological activities in support of post-accession work.

2. Preparing for the Translation of the *Acquis* into Romanian: Building Capacity to Meet Demanding Requirements

Even before the EIR was set up and *acquis* translation services contracted, developments at national level were taking place to ensure that professional translators and revisers could be found in sufficient numbers to carry out this complex task and, most importantly, that they were adequately trained in the necessary competences. Universities and the EIR sought to anticipate some of the challenges that evidently lay ahead, such as: insufficient practice in engaging in what was a complex project with a physically disparate team and a multi-layered workflow; insufficient expertise in specialised domains and lack of collaboration among experts from various fields and backgrounds; lack of standardised methodologies and inconsistency in the approaches used by experienced professionals; and potential reluctance among these professionals to conform to the demands for fixed patterns of use, tight deadlines, and strict quality controls.

In 1997, the Department for Applied Modern Languages at Babeș-Bolyai University (BBU), which had offered undergraduate applied language training since 1991, founded a master's level programme to focus exclusively on translation studies and terminology. The programme was developed with ministerial support and was implemented with colleagues from European universities in France, the UK, and Germany who assisted in the training of trainers and students in a variety of related areas. The aim was the crystallisation of a professionally-oriented approach to translation training; one that focused heavily on market practices. As such, both trainers and students were initiated through practically-driven approaches to enhance their knowledge and skills in: translation theories applicable to domain-specific translations; translation/transfer methodologies appropriate for highly specialised texts; computer-assisted procedures for translation and terminology work (specifically *Trados Workbench* and *Trados MultiTerm*); and translation and terminology project management, quality assurance, and effective workflows. The theory was augmented with examples and projects derived from *acquis*-related content to ensure familiarity with and a clear understanding of the complexities that governed *acquis* texts in translation.

Prof. Rodica Baconsky (R12), Head of the Department of Applied Modern Languages at that time, recalled: "[…] the Department was positioning itself to be able to tackle the challenge of the *acquis*. The partnership with University Rennes 2 allowed our Department to acquire relevant know-how and the Master's programme was a direct consequence of this collaboration, facilitated through Tempus projects, most notably Tempus JEP 13079/1998. The master's programme was to serve a clear objective of preparing professionals with the knowledge and skills necessary to contribute to the transposition of the *acquis communautaire* into Romanian. […] By the time actual contracting for the translation of the *acquis* started, the Department was well placed to offer academic guarantees, trained professionals, and competent revision" (author's translation).

To fulfil the stated objective, Greere and Aldea (Greere and Aldea 349), teaching assistants at BBU at the time who were trained within the Tempus project, called for a change in translation teaching methodology across the Romanian higher education landscape of emerging Applied Modern Languages programmes. Such a methodology was to be geared towards acquiring a wide range of professionally-oriented skills, rather than being solely focused on increasing language proficiency. They noted that traditional approaches, which predominantly focused on linguistic issues, "are deemed unacceptable for the purposes of Applied Modern Languages" and advocated the importance of consistently adopting the functionalist approach as a theoretical framework, and as the foundation of didactic strategies for translation and terminology. The aim was to encourage students to "show more flexibility and understand that a translated page does not have to look like a carbon copy of the original" (Greere and Aldea 351); "to instil a new mentality […] of giving students a sense of direction and professional identity" and, ultimately, "allowing them to more confidently approach specialised, technical texts". This was supported by Dr. Beverly Adab, the representative of the UK in the above-mentioned Tempus project, who, in formulating recommendations about the future of translator education in Romania, also argued that "it is essential to give students a reliable framework of relevant theoretical concepts of contemporary, functionalist approaches to translation, as a basis for developing confidence in translation performance"; such a framework would be "essential to underpin, inform and rationalise the decision-making process" (Adab, *Warning: Translation Theory* 104). Adab went on to demonstrate how the functionalist approach "takes into account all relevant features of the translation situation" by enabling the development of five types of sub-competences, of which language is just one (Adab, *Warning: Translation Theory* 109).

To exercise the full set of competences within a professionally driven framework, such as functionalism, master's students were trained in state-of-the-art methodologies applicable to large-scale translation and terminology projects. These methodologies were designed in full consideration of theoretical knowledge and understanding of what constituted professional requirements within the language industry. One master's student commented: "Having been of a philological background [BA in Philology], I had to learn that translation is not just a switch of labels, but a highly technical matter and that it requires team work to complete properly […] I learned the importance of respecting the specificity of specialised terminology in context, and how valuable engagement with specialists really was" (R2 Anonymous).

Quality assurance mechanisms were highlighted throughout the training and aligned with professional requirements, such as "working to a fixed brief and to a set deadline; respecting text type conventions; using a standardised terminology, using all available computerised electronic resources […] working as part of a team; proof-reading and revising texts" (Adab, *Conclusive Remarks* 417). One tutor noted: "As regards the review [technical/specialised revision], the fact that it was done with input from and validation by domain specialists, i.e. various types of specialists from the same domain, but covering well-defined areas of expertise, demonstrates the commitment to the final products being of high quality" (R14 Anonymous, author's translation).

In this initial phase of the programme, master's students were also involved in successive terminology management projects that fed into the terminology database of the European Institute of Romania; they were trained to collaborate with domain specialists in order to validate specialised terminology in context.

Prof. Sanda Cherata (R15), software developer, terminologist, and course leader at BBU, outlined in detail the multilingual (English, French, German and Romanian) terminological data collection conducted under the Tempus and COCOP projects: "For both projects we had—as starting working materials—documents of the *acquis-communautaire* for the domains under scrutiny. The size of each corpus was, however, substantially different. The corpus on *Environment* (Tempus) contained many more documents than that on *Proprietary medicinal products* (COCOP). […] We received documents in batches; the English corpus was the richest and the German one contained the least number of documents. We decided to select the terms appearing in the English corpus. Due to the complexity of this task, the term selection had to be automated. So, a computer application was developed to identify the words of major grammatical categories and create an alphabetical list, which was then analysed and candidate terms selected. […] From a computational point of view, the database system—TeRo—was developed complying with the GENETER model (at the time pending ISO standardisation, now standardised). This contained rich terminological information because it was designed to also play a didactic role, i.e. to teach the theoretical aspects of terminological data structures and dependencies. Once selected, terms were distributed to master's students for treatment. This entailed: completion of the terminological information for the concept designated by the selected term, for the terms designating the concepts in their working foreign languages, to find the Romanian designation and all terminological information relating to it."

The methodology adopted was concept-oriented and the main functions, as by Cherata (Cherata 202-208), were implemented so as to allow for the "seizing of terminological data, checking and updating information in the database, querying the database and providing a multilingual glossary in a printable form", which could provide appropriate terminological support for the translation of the *acquis*. Anca Mircea and Cornelia Moldovean (Mircea and Moldovean 271-273), master's students participating in the *acquis* project, highlighted the efforts deployed by the team and the main difficulties encountered, including: a lack of research sources in electronic format and/or reliable up-to-date sources in printed format; and a lack of standardised Romanian terminology in the relevant domains and having to work with "recommended" terms. Such difficulties did not deter the team from aiming to improve and enrich the end product, but served as lessons and encouraged a constant readjustment of methodological strategies. This, in turn, proved to be an important step in the professionalisation of the project participants. Reflecting on the experience, the master's students recognised: "We were engaged in pioneering work which was to become a benchmark for future translation work in the fields we were conducting terminological research in" (R2 Anonymous)". "Team work was well organised and there were successive stages of revision before terminology entries were validated […] The fact that glossaries were published with credit to master's students as contributors recognised our input and is testimony of the responsibilities we undertook […] this was very important for my future career" (R19 Anonymous).

In this spirit of professionally-oriented training, over the course of 10 years, i.e. until the academic year 2007/2008, the programme at BBU trained more than a hundred master's students in approaches to translation and terminology with a specific focus on the *acquis* texts. Many of the graduates went on to work for EU institutions once Romania joined the EU and are currently in key positions in Romanian-language units (according to internal statistics of the Department of Applied Modern Languages, Babeș-Bolyai University compiled as part of the European Master's in Translation membership application 2009, unpublished).

Other universities, such as the University of Bucharest, the West University of Timișoara, and Alexandru Ioan Cuza University of Iași, contributed their master's students to the efforts of producing high-quality terminological work that could be taken on by the EIR and utilised within the broader workflow of the projects the EIR was coordinating (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2000* 20).

Additionally, the personnel policy at the EIR was conceptualised to acknowledge the need for highly-qualified professionals with advanced knowledge and skills in domains of interest to the *acquis* translations. Throughout the reports issued by the EIR between 2000 and 2007, one can see a consistent preoccupation with the continuous professional development of staff members, even when staff turnover was difficult to manage. At the onset, the majority of EIR employees held qualifications in political science and philology/languages. Specifically, the TCU counted on eight employees, seven of which held philology/language degrees and only one had a law qualification. This proved to be an impediment as there were too few staff with qualifications in law and economics (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2000* 4, 22). To address this, EIR-TCU staff solicited training in fields such as comparative and EU law, delivered by the Faculty of Law in Bucharest and the Faculty of Law at Edinburgh. Subsequently, training in computer-assisted translation tools, such as Trados MultiTerm, Translator's Workbench, and Win Align, was offered through TAIEX and Trados Belgium. Further study visits were organised to Hungary, the Czech Republic, the European Commission, the Council of the EU, and the European Economic and Social Committee (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2000* 23). In the years that followed, frequent training events continued to be organised to ensure that staff could meet the responsibilities of their specific workload. By June 2005, the total number of posts within the TCU was 36 (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2005* 23) signifying a sustained effort to finalise the lengthy translation and revision process.

EIR staff were being trained in a variety of fields, directly or indirectly related to the translation of the *acquis*, and there was a clear drive towards developing necessary competences, initially for pre-accession tasks and subsequently with long-term implications for post-accession requirements. There was also investment in technical tools to assist the work. The automation of workflows and the need for electronic management of data was greatly assisted by repeated renewals of the technical and IT base (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2005* 36). Software and hardware were purchased for TCU employees and these were aligned, to maintain consistency of approach within the *acquis* project, with CAT tools that were taught at university.

All in all, there was a strong commitment to the success of this complex project and various stakeholders assumed key roles in ensuring the capacity was built up to deliver it effectively; that the human and technical resourcing needs were met; and that the necessary tools (technological and IT), where available, were being used consistently across all stakeholder groups to help manage the broader challenges of implementation.

3. Delivering the Translation of the *Acquis* into Romanian: Designing a Methodology to Guarantee a Quality Product

Following accession to the EU, national languages become official EU languages, as per EEC Council regulation 1/1958, which determines the official and working languages to be used by European institutions. All official languages are considered working languages and may legitimately be used in European institutions. As such, the EIR has repeatedly emphasised its obligation that translation activity focuses on the quality and accuracy of the translated texts (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2000* 18; EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2001* 18; EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2002* 15). In full recognition of the fact that the translations carry the same legal force as the originals, and that terminological and phraseological items used in the pre-accession translations become referential and are used identically in post-accession texts, stylistic, semantic, and terminological consistency was deemed of paramount importance and methodological procedures were designed to meet such exigencies.

The first step in approaching the translation of the *acquis* involved the identification and collection by the EIR-TCU of existing translations, i.e. Community texts translated into Romanian or Romanian legislative texts translated into English, which were found in various ministries or held by Price Waterhouse Coopers (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2000* 19-20). In most instances, electronic copies were secured. However, especially in the domain of agriculture, many translations were in printed format only and even among those in electronic format, many were found to only have been partially translated or summarised. As such, an accurate count of translated pages was difficult to ascertain (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2000* 19-20). Additionally, priorities had to be negotiated with public administration and ministerial representatives, so that the work could be effectively organised to meet the needs of Romanian and EU officials engaged in pre-accession negotiations.

The next step was to define the mandatory parameters for this activity. In assuming its coordinating role, the EIR-TCU acknowledged the need to revise, in multiple rounds, all translations to ensure consistent use of terminology and conformity with textual conventions, as promoted in the legal language conventionally used in the EU (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2000* 18). The main stages were identified as follows: terminological research; translation; linguistic revision; legal revision; technical (specialised) revision; acceptance of the translation by the relevant ministry; and the introduction of the final text into the database. Procedurally, only after the linguistic, technical, and legal revisions by the TCU were complete, could the translation become official, making it subject to an authentication process by the European Council before Romania's accession (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2000* 18-19). The EIR-TCU also acknowledged that in order for this complex methodology to give the desired results, appropriate communication with and collaboration amongst linguists, domain specialists, and legal experts was paramount (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2000* 18-19).

Notably, the PHARE project RO 9706-01-02/C established the resourcing capacities; the methodology including the workflow; and the accountability mechanisms. The project was conducted over 10 months from December 2000 to October 2001, with an operating budget of 585,000 euro and led by a consortium formed by Diamondo SRL in Bucharest, the agency who was awarded the tender, and its sub-contractors

Poliglot SRL and the Department of Applied Languages of Babeș-Bolyai University in Cluj-Napoca. The contracting authority for the project was Berhard Brunhes International (a company based in Paris) and the implementing authority was the EIR, the latter being responsible for: the design of the working methodology; the preparation of the documents for translation, including the updating of priority lists and completion of translation orders (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2000* 20); and effective communication between stakeholders, including ministries.

From the very beginning, the working methodology was designed to include the stages noted above. This methodology explicitly acknowledged the need for detailed terminological work; the imperative for collaboration between linguistic and legal experts; and a commitment to promoting a consistent approach. The Tempus and COCOP projects, developed with academic expertise from multiple universities, resulted in the first terminological support for priority domains. Multiple rounds of revision (linguistic, technical and legal) ensured that the end product was of high quality. The Romanian Style Guide coordinated and published by the EIR (with editions in 2000, 2004 and 2008) focused on orthographic, grammatical, phraseological, and formatting consistency.

As noted in the final report on the component translation services, the project was viewed as without precedent for the Romanian translation market, in terms of both the volume of activity and the number of specialists engaged. Of the 60,000-70,000 pages of the Official Journal estimated by the European Commission Report on 13 November 2001, the RO9706.01.02 project produced professional translations in Romanian of 17,792 pages of the Official Journal and professional translations into English of 223 pages of Romanian legislation, drawing on a team of 200 translators and revisers who were specifically selected and trained for this task. At the time this represented "[…] the most numerous professional translation team ever to be convened in Romania" (Final report project RO9706.01.02, 2001: 2, report made available by Doina Diaconu, Diamondo SRL, unpublished). Additionally, terminological lists and glossaries resulted in 20,000 terminological entries being created/imported into a MultiTerm-TRADOS database in English, French, German, Latin, and Romanian (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2001* 21).

This initial project set the bar high for quality assurance processes in translation services. The project coordinator Doina Diaconu (R13) of Diamondo SRL recalled: "Fortunately, it all started in a very professional way, within the PHARE Project (Component C) in 2000: there was a very strict tendering process organised by Bernard Brunhes International [contracting authority] for the selection of a translation provider, which covered three stages and lasted nine months; very professionally written Terms of Reference, requiring experience in translation for every specialist included, [requiring] that every translated document be revised and reviewed by different specialists, [requiring] that terminology lists be submitted for every document and approved by reviewers and beneficiaries, etc.". Translators concurred and highlighted the key components of the quality system, the workflow, and the resources at their disposal: "the project was well organised, quality oriented, had a well-thought-out workflow methodology and a quality system producing good results" and "[…] useful resources (style guide, instructions, work methodology) (R1 Anonymous); "the project was […] very focused on quality assurance despite the huge workload" (R4 Anonymous); "the workflow was smooth, the roles were clearly assigned, the instructions were clear and adhered to" (R6 Nadia Fărcaș). Such principles of quality would underpin the intense collaboration of all the stakeholders, in spite of geographical dispersal and diversity of expertise and professional, academic, and administrative experience and background, and set the expectations for what was a long-term engagement.

In parallel to the PHARE project and over an even more limited period (5 months), a state-funded project was initiated. Driven by the necessity to move up in "*acquis*-translation" rankings in comparison to other candidate countries from second to last position in 2000 (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2001* 18), the Ministry of European Integration contracted with the National Institute for Information and Documentation (NIID) the translation of 40,000 pages of the Official Journal (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2001* 20), i.e. a figure more than double that of the PHARE project.

Different to the PHARE project, which covered all stages mirroring the EIR quality model (translation, revision (linguistic revision) and review (technical/specialised revision), bar legal revision, which was deemed exclusively the responsibility of EIR), the NIID project only included translation with revision work to be contracted out in subsequent years, i.e. 2002-2003. Indeed, by the end of 2001, Romania could report a quantitative success having moved up to fourth position in the statistics reported for the number of pages of the Official Journal translated by candidate countries: a total of 62,000 translated Official Journal pages, representing the majority of documents composing the primary legislation (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2001* 21). However, achievement of this quantitative ambition was not without consequences. One respondent recalled: "Our enthusiasm […] enabled us to produce the required quantity—however intrinsic quality was reserved for individual documents, but there was no consistency throughout" (R8 Anonymous). Colleagues who received texts translated by NIID for revision classified them as “appalling, having no consideration for the EIR Style Guide or terminological recommendations” (R11 Anonymous). “The finished product was, [in general], of good quality, except for the translations generated when the government changed the policy and had the texts translated by the lowest bidder—those were sent to us [Diamondo-Poliglot consortium] for revision and were utterly appalling” (R5 Bogdan Aldea).

In summary, what could be deemed a political success, in quantitative reporting terms, saw a heavy toll taken on the qualitative component with poor quality translations being produced in great numbers (the NIID project totalled more than 40,000 pages). However, importantly the EIR did not compromise on the quality model it had developed and these translations were subsequently subject to all the revision stages that the EIR determined in 2000 as being necessary for the delivery to the European Commission of a high quality end product.

Looking back, we must also highlight an important and possibly unanticipated positive outcome. Fragmenting the quality management process into stages and recognising that these stages could and sometimes had to be contracted to different agencies for implementation, transformed revision into a more prominent activity; one which could be viewed as a stand-alone service on the translation market. Doina Diaconu (R13) reflected on this significant change in mentality: “Romanian authorities were not used to allotting large amounts of money to translation projects; it was also difficult to explain why a translated text needs to be revised (and revision paid for separately) […] translation clients [including the government] understood more about translation processes, deadlines, and budgets”.

Reiterating the main aim of producing semantically correct and terminologically consistent translations, the EIR continued its coordination activity in 2002 and contracted out to the Poliglot-Diamondo consortium (this time enriched with Prosper ASE Language Centre as a partner) a total of 10,000 pages for translation and linguistic and technical/specialised revision; and 20,000 pages exclusively for linguistic and technical revision, which had all been translated in 2001 [by NIID] (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2002* 15). Contracting continued in 2003 with 10,000 pages of translation and revision and a further 11,000 pages of revision. Declared EIR priorities for 2003 focused on the revision of legislation translated between 2000 and 2002, clarification of terminology, and development of internet accessible content relevant to *acquis* work (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2002* 19). The methodology initially adopted, entailing multiple layers of revision and specialised input (technical and legal), was to be retained as a major commitment moving forward (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2003* 8). However, several pressing issues could not be ignored; in 2004 the most prominent difficulties were identified to be the dynamic nature of the corpus and the requirement for terminological precision in the legal domain (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2004* 14). Additionally, for the EIR, staff turnover was continuing to create complications, as Romania was drawing near to completing accession negotiations and many staff members were becoming interested in working for international organisations, also with a view to joining EU institutions.

Acquis-translation projects continued throughout 2005 and 2006 and focused on revision work and terminology validation. During this time, the EIR (and respectively its TCU) also underwent an expansion and restructuring process making it better positioned for post-accession engagements (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2005* 9-11).

In 2007, the EIR finalised the translation and revision of secondary legislation; and handed over responsibility for the Romanian version of the *acquis* to the EU institutions and the Romanian language units that were being set up at the time (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2007* 5). Romania had now successfully completed its obligations in relation to the translation of the *acquis communautaire*.

4. Summarising the Outcomes: Reflecting on Challenges and Achievements

4.1. Quantitative Outcomes and Statistical Relevance

Detailed statistics taken from the various EIR reports indicate that in 2000, when Romania started accession negotiations and the translation of the *acquis* commenced, the Official Journal was estimated to have between 60,000 and 70,000 pages. In 2004, when Romania completed negotiations, the number had gone up to 90,000; by 2007, the figure came to nearly 100,000 pages. [Official Journal pages being noted as equivalent to two standard pages of 1,500 characters (without spaces) (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2000* 19).] These estimates do not take into consideration the number of repealed documents, which would have also been translated/revised while still in force. Importantly, all translated/revised documents were in force at the time of translation and/or revision.

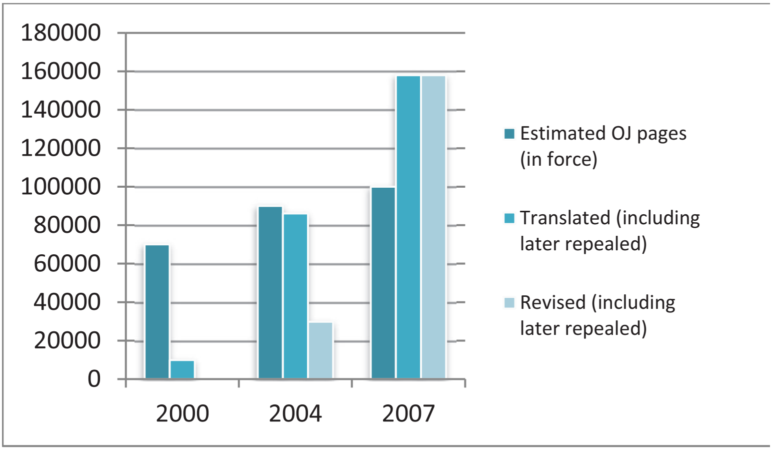


Figure 1.
Number of pages (translated/revised) of Official Journal 2000-2007

Figure 1 shows the evolution of *acquis* translation work at key moments, i.e. 2000, 2004, and 2007. On 25 October 2005, the European Commission in the first comprehensive Monitoring Report for Romania corroborated this data and highlighted that Romania still had to revise 50 % of *acquis* pages translated up to that moment in a direct notification formulated to the EIR (and TCU) (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2005* 11).

For more precise statistical data on the evolution of the project, Table 1 below records the number of pages translated and revised (as extracted from the respective EIR reports; blank spaces indicate that the information was not included in the report).

	Pages of OJ (estimated)	Translated into Romanian	Of which in force	Of which revised	Of which in force	Source
Dec 2000	60-70,000	9,880		0		EIR 2000:19
Dec 2001		62,000		17,569 (preliminary)		EIR 2001:18
June 2003		69,000		13,000 (final)		EIR 2002:16
Dec 2003		80,042	68,026	15,612 (final)		EIR 2003:8
Dec 2004	90,000	86,100	71,253	29,827 (final)	27,120	EIR 2004:15
Dec 2005	87,321	72,461		38,896 (final)		EIR 2005:24
Oct 2006		131,000	102,180			EIR 2006:13
June 2007	100,000	158,000		158,000 (final)		EIR 2007:14

Table 1. ***Exact number of pages translated/revised, 2000-2007; statistics extracted from EIR reports***

The seeming discrepancies in the figures above are generated by data being referred to in exact terms in some reports, and as approximations in others; as well as some figures, in some years, dealing more precisely with the number of repealed documents up to the moment of reporting.

The body of EU law is dynamic: new legislative texts are adopted and others repealed. In acknowledging this reality, it is important to note that the statistics related to the *acquis* and the number of pages translated has had to be constantly updated with lists of priorities guiding EIR contractual obligations. As such, in 2006 it was estimated that 22 % of the translations produced between 2000 and 2006 were repealed or excluded from the list of priorities (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2006* 13). An example of such fluctuations operationalised within a given time span is illustrated in Figure 2, below, with data extracted from page 15 of the EIR Report 2007. It presents the evolution of the volume (reported as number of pages of Official Journal) of secondary legislation translated between 12 December 2006 and 09 November 2007, based on the list of priorities and the changes experienced over the course of this timespan.

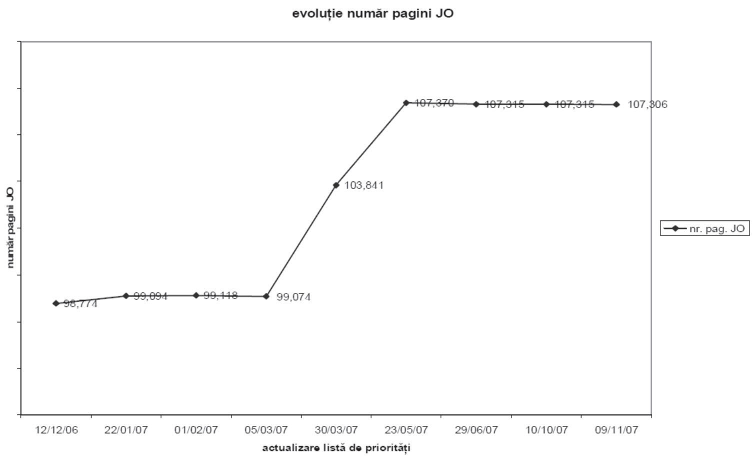


Figure 2. *Number of pages of the Official Journal, by priorities* (EIR Annual Report 2017: 15)

For effective management of the project's progression, total numbers were broken down by domains and monitored extensively page by page. Below (Fig. 3) is a screenshot from one of the first EIR reports (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2001* 19), which shows such a break-down; and on the right, Fig. 4 offers a summary of the statistics of translation and revision work (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2006* 14).

Cod sector	Sector	Nr. documente	Nr. pagini JO
	Acquis comunitar	**2.276**	**17.569**
0.	Legislație primară	5	79
1.	Libera circulație a mărfurilor	15	444
2.	Libera circulație a persoanelor	19	72
3.	Libera circulație a serviciilor	15	134
4.	Libera circulație a capitalurilor	4	38
5.	Dreptul societăților comerciale	9	116
6.	Politica în domeniul concurenței	35	277
7.	Agricultura	1013	4863
8.	Pescuitul	254	1285
9.	Politica în domeniul transporturilor	59	362
10.	Impozitarea	16	33
11.	Uniunea Economică și Monetară	8	23
12.	Statistica	147	2012
13.	Politica socială și de ocupare a forței de muncă	97	509

Figure 3. *Breakdown of pages by domains (for illustrative purposes only)*

Legislația primară		**Legislația secundară adoptată până la 31.10.2006**		**Jurisprudența istorică**	
	reprezentând		reprezentând		reprezentând
100 %	3 741 pagini de JO	99, 5 % tradus 97, 7% revizuit	127 259 pagini de JO traduse	7, 5%	1 435 pagini de Culegere de jurisprudență

Figure 4. *Statistics by pages of translation/revision (for illustrative purposes only)*

Similarly, terminological work resulted in statistically relevant products, as summarised below (Table 2). Throughout the projects, the EIR constantly reiterated the need to achieve terminological unification and consistency. To this end, intense collaboration with specialists in various fields became a priority as early as 2002 (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2002* 17).

	Terminological entries in database	Out of which validated	Languages	Sources
2001	20,000		EN, FR, DE, LA, RO	EIR 2001:21
2002	37,000	3,978	EN, FR, DE, ES, IT, LA, RO	EIR 2002:17
2003	40,000	4,792	[not indicated]	EIR 2003:9
2006	52,008	19,043	[3-8 languages]	EIR 2006:14
2007	53,000	23,500	[3-8 languages]	EIR 2007:14

Table 2. ***Statistics on terminological entries, 2001-2007***

Initially drafted and published as lists of terms and/or glossaries specific to various domains and covering languages such as EN/FR/DE—e.g. Glossary of Terms relating to the Internal Market taken from the White Paper (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2001* 23); Glossary on the Common Customs Code (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2003* 9); Glossary on Milk and Milk Products (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2004* 31)—the database EIR developed with MultiTerm TRADOS support became available on the website for translators and revisers to consult throughout this work and it was constantly being enriched (as shown above in Table 2). In time, the data fields it contained were fully populated and relevant information in up to eight languages for some entries, including sources, definitions, comments, contexts, etc. was presented (see screenshots of entries below; provided by the EIR in 2017, unpublished).

The first screenshot (Fig. 5) shows the database entry as it is visualised on the EIR website (still currently available). This is publicly-facing information that has been on offer since the beginning of *acquis* translation work for the use of *acquis* translators/revisers and any specialised audience interested in specific terminology. The next two screenshots (Fig. 6) show the database in MultiTerm—this is an enhanced, more visually-friendly view used internally by the EIR, which also contains images, comments and non-validated entries.

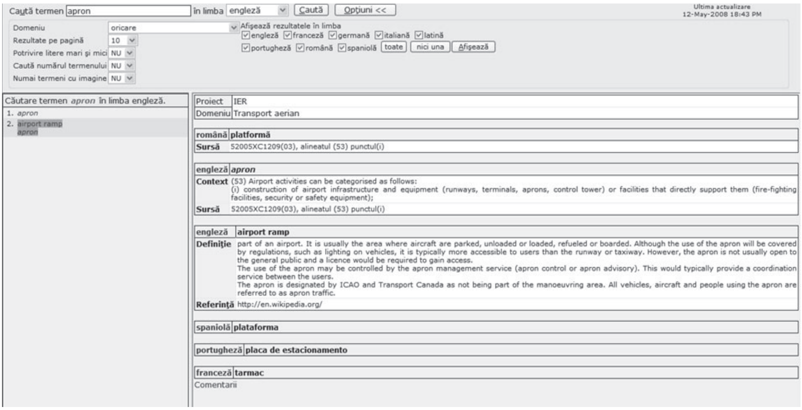
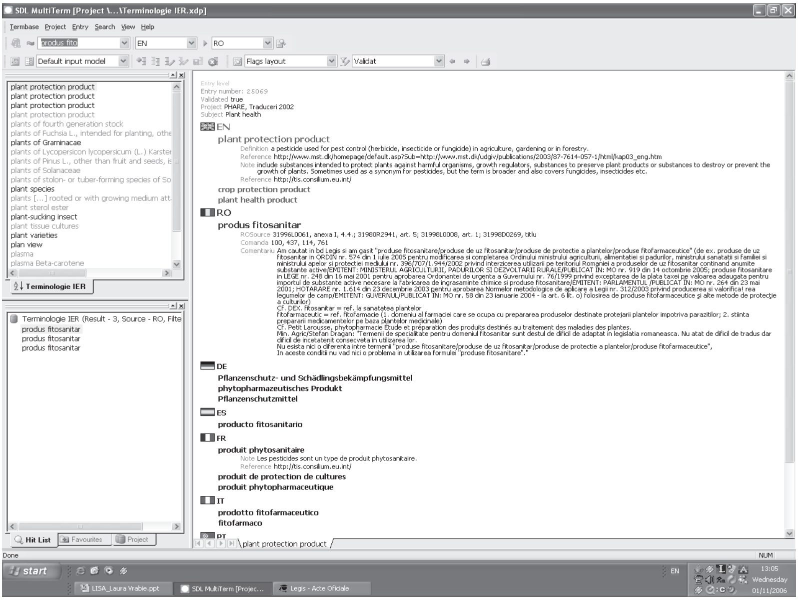


Figure 5. *EIR database on the website, publicly accessible (for illustrative purposes only)*



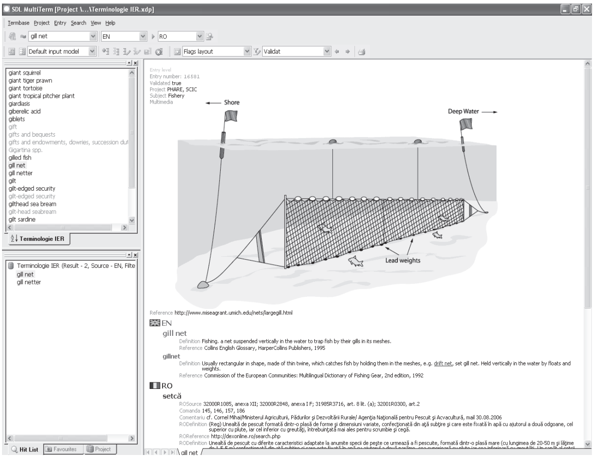


Figure 6. *Screenshots*[1] *of EIR internal MultiTerm database (for illustrative purposes only)*

[1] Reproductions of European Institute of Romania internal terminology database screenshots are made with the explicit approval of the Translation Coordination Unit (approval granted on 14 December 2016).

By 2007, through its TCU, the EIR had coordinated the translation and revision of over 158,000 Official Journal pages and had engaged more than a hundred translators and revisers from Bucharest and Cluj and more than 200 experts from 30 institutions (ministries, research institutes and universities), contributing to a terminological database of over 23,500 validated entries in three to eight languages with supplementary information. This database is still available free of charge on the EIR website (EIR, *Annual Activity Report for 2007* 14).

4.2. Qualitative Outcomes and Professional Awareness

Unanimously, survey respondents agreed that the *acquis* translation project was and would remain one of a kind. Laura Mihăilescu (R16), currently Head of the EIR Translation Coordination Unit and previously a terminologist (2000-2006) and Head of the Support Service (2006-2007) at the EIR noted: "The *acquis* translation project was the most complex project I was ever involved in, quite challenging in terms of volume, areas covered, novelty of procedures and methods used". Doina Diaconu (R13), PHARE project coordinator agreed, saying it was: "The most complex [suite of] translation projects in Romania and enhanced awareness in the sense that translation done in a structured and professional way can give intellectual and financial satisfaction". Ioana Rus (R7), translator and linguistic reviser with Poliglot SRL and senior linguistic reviser with the EIR concurred: "The largest, most professional and standardised project I have ever taken part in". "The 'four eyes' principle for the revision process, seeking terminological validation from specialists, and the existence of linguistic guides to ensure consistency" (R7 Ioana Rus) are all listed as having significantly contributed to the smooth running of this complex project. Most importantly, testimonials refer to the "new mentality" (R2 Anonymous; echoed by R12 Rodica Baconsky, R15 Sanda Cherata) it generated, i.e. a quality-driven, professional mentality with new professional attitudes and that included a better understanding of the value that could be attributed to the work and its various stages: "This led to fairer prices on the market" (R7 Ioana Rus) and "more confident language professionals, with increased self-esteem in the expertise they could subsequently put forward" (R8 Anonymous). Nadia Farcaș (R6), *acquis* translator between 2001 and 2006, highlighted: "I think the very concept of the profession changed: it became clear that ours is not necessarily a solitary profession, but one which, with a sufficient degree of organisation, can work well as a larger team endeavour" (a sentiment echoed by R1 Anonymous, R2 Anonymous, R5 Bogdan Aldea, R7 Ioana Rus and R10 Anonymous).

A number of other benefits were enumerated by survey respondents who had participated in the *acquis* project, and they recalled particularly positive aspects that allowed them to grow individually and collectively as professionals. Such testimony noted specifically how involvement in the project boosted the participants' professional careers: "I was at the beginning of my freelance translator career [during the *acquis* project]. As such it was of great help to me personally: the training received was useful, the work instructions and style guide were of great help, while working with a remote team was also an interesting exercise" (R1 Anonymous; echoed by R2 Anonymous, and R4 Anonymous); "I attribute my professional skills to [the *acquis* translation] project: work organisation and time management, research, translation routines, linguistic revision. It was very rewarding to have been part of such an important project and a great team, which gave me the confidence that I would be able to work effectively within any important project ahead" (R10 Anonymous). Doina Diaconu (R13), project coordinator (2000-2001) and team leader (2002-2004) noted: "It was pioneering work, very rewarding professionally and financially […] I consider my participation in this project as the peak of my professional career. I have gained many professional friends (customers and collaborators) I work with to this day".

Prof. Rodica Baconsky (R12), Head of the Department of Applied Modern Languages at Babeș-Bolyai University, also highlighted the importance of cross-domain collaborations in forming clusters of professionals who had the opportunity to develop a team synergy based on similar mindsets, similar methods, similar quality principles, and a positive dynamic: "The translation of the *acquis* brought together many collaborators from a variety of fields. [...] Translators educated within the Department of Applied Modern Languages effectively worked as a team for many years to come, even outside the *acquis* translation setting" (author's translation).

Testimonials were dominated by a strong recollection of the quality assurance process "with revision by senior colleagues, provision of instructions and guidelines by the EIR" (R4 Anonymous; echoed by R1 Anonymous, R3 Anonymous, R4 Anonymous); and its strong drive towards standardising the processes and products: "It was for the first time when the importance of unified terminology at European level and the importance of using the very same formulas in legislative texts was pointed out (NB the language used in Romanian legislation is usually very uneven)" (R11 Anonymous; echoed by R10 Anonymous and R16 Laura Mihăilescu).

Strong leadership, effective coordination, and consistent project management were also repeatedly highlighted throughout the testimonials as having contributed fundamentally to educating an emerging market in terms of process, prices and quality assurance for translation purposes. “The project management was admirable […] [the process] was well developed and organised, predictable and routine. It involved effective communication so that everyone knew what to expect and what to do. Procedures were simple and clear and the products generated were relatively reliable [considering the limitations]” (R10 Anonymous; echoed by R3 Anonymous, R6 Nadia Fărcaș, R19 Anonymous); “The fact that very competent persons were in charge of this project—that made it run more smoothly” (R11 Anonymous).

Understandably, respondents also widely acknowledged the multiple challenges they faced during the *acquis* translation project. Laura Mihăilescu (R16) summarised them: “Difficulties varied over the course of time (imposing standards and translation conventions, shortage of staff, volume of work, deadlines, various fields of expertise needed)”. Others highlighted the “huge workload and time pressure” (R4 Anonymous); the “tight timescales and the difficult-to-meet deadlines” (L16 Laura Mihăilescu); the distance and availability, i.e. “many people in different parts of the country, with different backgrounds, who never met worked on the project” (R17 Anonymous), but also “many competent translators only worked part-time on the *acquis* as they had other jobs” (R13 Doina Diaconu). This created problems of continuity, which was also notable in the terminology projects that were being implemented in the master’s programme. Sanda Cherata (R15), BBU teaching staff member, recalled: “The projects [COCOP and Tempus] were carried out over several years, involving several series of master’s students. The students had to cooperate and exchange information and hand over results. It was difficult to organise and supervise this work, as some students also had scholarships abroad during their studies and they continued, during the scholarships, to also work on the terminology projects. The only means of communication was, at the time, by e-mail, so the information exchange was very difficult".

Indeed, the technology available at the time did little to facilitate the work: "The most important limitations were technology related, i.e. computer-assisted translation tools were not as good [and could not be used consistently], and internet speed was mostly modem/dial-up" (R1 Anonymous; echoed by R6 Nadia Fărcaș, R9 Antoanela Duca). Respondents recognised that "it was impossible to render high quality *and* consistency in working only with Word translations" (R8 Anonymous; echoed by R7 Ioana Rus, R18 Anonymous). "Many experienced [translators] had insufficient CAT skills" (R13 Doina Diaconu) but even when they did the fact that "the source format was uneditable, [in most circumstances] made it impossible to use CAT tools" (R18 Anonymous). There was general consensus in the testimonials that the use of such tools "would have greatly helped to avoid repetitive actions and to improve consistency, to ensure errors were corrected and not perpetuated, including errors in the guidelines and terminological databases" (R7 Ioana Rus); and to reduce the time otherwise spent on trying to achieve consistency in the absence of an automated process to support this. The hardware was also difficult to manage: "At that time, translators had to send their work on CDs and then people [in roles such as project assistant] extracted the data into folders for the first revision" (R9 Antoanela Duca). Working on hard-copy texts further increased the complexity and time demands of the whole process.

In addition, there were no virtual project management tools or data sharing platforms to enhance collaborative working among team members and across coordination roles. This meant that decisions taken passed through multiple stages and multiple stakeholders, each with a view on what should constitute the translation/terminological solution. Doina Diaconu (R13) recalled: "We encountered major difficulties in having term lists approved by beneficiaries [i.e. the respective ministries], mainly because there was no harmonisation and no higher decision maker". "Terminology was not consolidated" (R10 Anonymous) and there was insufficient access to research materials for terminological purposes. Laura Mihăilescu (R16) noted: "As a terminologist [at the EIR-TCU], it was difficult to quickly respond to translator's questions and to get a common response from different experts in the ministries". Translators and linguistic revisers concurred: "Terminology was, in certain subject fields, difficult to confirm or it had to be created or it sometimes changed radically from one year to the next" (R6 Nadia Fărcaș). The difficulty was increased by "the differences between the terminology preferred [and recommended] by English-language experts versus French-language experts [drawing on respective language version parallel texts] … [as well as] the lack of consistency between lawyer-linguists in Brussels and the Romanian authorities [in relation to terminological and phraseological equivalences]" (R8 Anonymous).

Despite the broad recognition of the efficacy of the quality management system developed, its implementation was not without difficulties. Doina Diaconu (R13) acknowledged that at the time there was a "lack of awareness regarding translation quality management" even amongst experienced translators "[who] were sometimes themselves reluctant to submit their work to revision by another translation specialist".

Emphasising the importance of not allowing deviation from the approved quality assurance model, with its multiple stages and multiple layers of revision activity, proved crucial in producing texts of the highest quality attainable at the time.

4.3. Lessons Learned and Recommendations for the Future

More than ten years on (i.e. 2016), when asked what could have been done differently and what lessons were learned that could be passed on to current EU acceding and/or aspiring countries, respondents offered a variety of recommended actions.

More pre-translation terminology work was recognised as constituting an important improvement, offering the potential for more effective outcomes. At the time, Tempus and COCOP projects, which resulted in terminological lists, insufficiently covered the terminological requirements for the multiple domains being translated. As Doina Diaconu (R13) stated: "[Other initial terminological projects] would have smoothed things out a lot and made our work even more professional". Sanda Cherata (R15) noted relevant developments in terminology management, which now could better support such pre-translation terminology work: "[Today], in support of terminology work and terminological data collection management, we have new ISO standards *ISO 16642:2003 Computer applications in terminology—Terminological mark-up framework*, *ISO 704:2009—Terminology work. Principles and methods* and others, which more precisely allow for the database structure and content to be fixed and of better quality—at the time of the *acquis* project much of this work was exploratory".

The major change, however, was irrefutably regarded as the use of newly available online technology: “New electronic project management platforms, allowing for on-line, remote working and effective sharing of information, of documents in a variety of formats and with multiple possibilities of interaction and collaboration would make teamwork much more effective and the outcomes more consistent” (R15 Sanda Cherata), as would “a server-based CAT tool with a real-time translation memory and glossaries capable of streamlining the process considerably. At the time, such tools did not exist, but they are available now” (R1 Anonymous). “Translating/revising using CAT tools from the beginning could allow a more unified terminology and more speed in regards translation and revision work […] [EIR-TCU] used *MultiTerm* throughout, but *Workbench* was only used afterwards, for the case-law of the Court of Justice of the European Union” (R16 Laura Mihăilescu). Using technology to its full potential also requires the (continued) professional development of the actors: “[W]ebinar or video training would be very useful in training new translators/team members in the relevant methodologies, workflows, instructions, style guides, etc.” (R1 Anonymous).

From an EIR perspective, Laura Mihăilescu (R16) reflected on the difficulties encountered in attaining consistent product quality and the resources necessary to guarantee effective quality control; she recommended that the coordinating and implementing authority consider a modified approach supported by a more developed organisational structure. “Translating/revising mostly in-house [i.e. at the EIR] and outsourcing only specific domains” could be an improvement of the process as it could ensure “decreased costs […] and it would be easier to impose standards, translation conventions, a unified way of working”. In the work conducted “[EIR-TCU] revised [i.e. legal revision] the entire *acquis*, but the translation of the primary and secondary legislation was done almost exclusively by external translators". This would, of course, only be possible if "staffing at EIR-TCU could allow for [a minimum of] 16 persons from the beginning with at least 4 posts for legal revisers and 2 posts for terminologists […] the EIR organisational chart only had 8 posts between 2000 and January 2005 with 1 director, 1 terminologist, 1 legal reviser, 5 linguistic revisers". Mihăilescu (R16) went on to say that "the experience [and resources] accumulated in the translation/revision of the *acquis* has shown fruit in the translation/revision of the European Court of Human Rights case-law, which is currently done in-house [by EIR-TCU], using CAT tools".

In terms of workflow, the quality management system, and team dynamics, however, there was general agreement that no conceptual changes would be necessary or desirable if the *acquis* work were to commence today. The EIR quality model established in 2000 was still considered valid at all its stages. These stages would, however, benefit greatly from technology-enhanced implementation: "Nothing should have been done differently in terms of the steps to follow, but updated technology could have a major impact on the efficiency of the process, including time spent, and the accuracy of the end product" (R19 Anonymous; echoed by R3 Anonymous, R10 Anonymous).

Overall, the suite of projects composing work on the *acquis* translation was viewed as having been a resounding achievement with historic consequences for Romania, for language professions, for the translation market, for academia, and for all those personally involved in it. More than ten years on, the legacy is identifiable in both professional and academic environments, and the lessons learned can be passed on to other countries and produce valuable recommendations for implementing a process of such complexity with outcomes compliant to EU exigencies.

5. Identifying Impact over Time: Celebrating Legacy. Contributing to Professionalisation

Since Romania's accession to the European Union, there have been a number of developments that can be traced back to the *acquis* work. These can be split into professional and academic developments revolving around translation as a professionally/market-oriented activity.

5.1. Language Development and Valuable Resources

Linguistically, we must note the impact the translations of the *acquis* had on developing specific jargon (Euro-speak), introducing into the Romanian language fixed phraseological and syntactic formulas for translational transfers, as well as some new concepts connected to domain-specific terminology. The conventional use of language items across *acquis* texts has generated normative structures captured in the EIR style guides and the EIR terminology database, which are "still valid, several [editions]/versions later, and still widely used by translators" (R1 Anonymous).

The translation of the *acquis* generated valuable readily-accessible (i.e. free of charge) resources for language professionals, such as parallel texts, terminology databases, style guides and multiple publications, which serve as background/textbook-type texts for the various domains under scrutiny: "Tens of thousands of translated pages and the groundwork in terms of rules and terminology […] constitute now excellent resources for the translation industry and interested parties" (R11 Anonymous; echoed by

R1 Anonymous, R10 Anonymous, R16 Laura Mihăilescu, R17 Anonymous). Current users of the pre-2007 *acquis* translations noted that “[t]he old legislation [documents] translated [before 2007] are still useful today [for subsequent *acquis* translations and as points of reference, i.e. translating new legislation based on or referring back to older pre-2007 legislation] and its mere existence is already quite a benefit for anyone dealing with the *acquis* today” (R17 Anonymous; echoed by R3 Anonymous, R6 Nadia Fărcaș, R7 Ioana Rus, R18 Anonymous). “Publications issued at the time, including glossaries, translations and background texts for various domains, now serve as relevant documentary sources for both translators and domain specialists” (R19 Anonymous) and many have now found their way into EU institutional resources, managed by the European Commission, the European Council and/or the European Parliament through their specific Romanian language units: “The EUR-Lex database and the IATE terminological database, as well as the Inter-institutional Style Guide [all deriving from *acquis* resources] are all extremely useful sources/tools for translators and revisers nowadays” (R7 Ioana Rus; echoed by R18 Anonymous) (EUR-Lex website, IATE website, EU publications website).

5.2. Professional Enhancement and Further Collaborations

Of great significance for the market was that the *acquis* translation project “allowed for the further professionalisation of many a translator, both commercially (business-sense) and skill-wise (use of full, terminology-translation-revision-spot-checks cycle) […] many of those translators went on to be independent translators or EU translators, thus allowing for further deepening of that knowledge and dissemination of it; […] the

European institutions greatly benefited from the people who translated the *acquis* [into Romanian]" (R3 Anonymous).

Translators reflected on the impact the *acquis* project had for their individual career development: "After all the experience I accumulated, I was able to work more and more professionally and [understood] how to rely on specialists to help out with terminology" (R3 Anonymous); "For me personally, it was an enormously enriching learning process with a focus on quality assurance processes" (R4 Anonymous); "I grew enormously as a translator during these projects. From EU concepts and terminology to translation project management and professional self-management, I learned constantly" (R6 Nadia Fărcaș); "I believe it made me a better translator by the sheer volume of work involved" (R5 Bogdan Aldea). Many translators also acknowledged developing a more acute understanding of market-oriented requirements: "Deadlines are more important than 110 % quality; fit-for-purpose is a key concept; terminological consistency and following a style-guide is paramount; government jobs do not pay well, but, when they are well managed, they can really boost one's professional knowledge and status" (R3 Anonymous; echoed by R10 Anonymous, R19 Anonymous).

This acknowledgement of the formative, professionalising dimension of the *acquis* projects was voiced across all testimonials received and stands as proof of a whole generation of professionals having been trained as part of the *acquis* endeavour: "I believe [the suite of projects having as the primary objective the translation of the *acquis* into Romanian] […] was a great translation school for an excellent generation of translators, terminologists and reviewers. Many of them are still active in the translation industry today" (R1 Anonymous); "The pioneering spirit was supported by a drive towards professionalism; people were being trained at the same time as work was being completed" (R2 Anonymous); "It was a tremendous learning experience for everyone and most people involved were eager to learn because they knew it would give a new impetus to their career" (R13 Doina Diaconu); "The projects allowed several hundred translators to become professional or more professional" and "built translators and translation managers—many who went on to work for EU institutions" (R6 Nadia Fărcaș, echoed by R3 Anonymous).

Collaborations across the various layers of specialised interaction has supported the creation of teams of professionals, informal contacts for future collaboration and formal networks with a clear focus on translation and terminology. Prof. Rodica Baconsky (R12) commented: "The professional and academic relations, which were initiated with the implementation of the *acquis* translation project, were further developed leading to institutional benefits for BBU, especially through the affiliation of the two master's programmes, i.e. translation and terminology, and conference interpreting, to the European Master's Network supported by the European Commission". After 2007 and continuing on up to this moment, "members of the *acquis* translation team find themselves working within similar team formations in the general translation directorates of the European Commission and the European Parliament".

In 2010, the European Commission Directorate General for Translation also initiated the development of a *Network for the Quality of Romanian Language in EU Institutions*, with the explicit aim of "harmonising and improving the use of the Romanian language in the institutional environment; to provide expert advice to the Commission on the drafting of measures of a linguistic or terminological nature in various fields (legal, financial, writing handbooks" (EC, *Register of Commission Expert Groups* n. pag.). Many of the proceedings of this Network have focused on *acquis* translations following the 2007 enlargement and have drawn on specialists involved in pre-2007 *acquis* work and resources produced at that time.

5.3. Standards Appropriated and National Occupations

Most importantly, as Prof. Rodica Baconsky (R12) noted, “the translation of the *acquis* resulted in many beneficial aspects for the translation profession: more awareness in relation to the discipline required for the profession, more rigour for time management, more experience in remote, virtual team working, more responsibility in relation to one’s own performance and more opportunities to reflect on the necessary competences and skills and to embed their development within didactic strategies adopted at higher education level”. It has “brought to the Romanian translation market the awareness of the importance of high quality translations, that these can only be achieved by well-trained professionals” who acknowledge that “a high quality translation of specialised texts is defined by the use of a good, reliable terminology database, which translators have to access, understand and enrich”.

In summary, Laura Mihăilescu (R16) indicated that the *acquis* project “[r]aised quality standards; increased awareness of the importance of terminology, of the revision done by a different person than the translator, of the importance of feedback”. It allowed for “project management of large projects to develop considerably [and for] relevant terminology management to be integrated into translation projects”. Bogdan Aldea (R5) concurred: “It brought a higher level of professionalisation, fostered teamwork and revision practices, and made translators understand the need for terminologists”.

As we have seen, the various stages for the translation of the *acquis* were set up with a clear workflow and associated responsibilities according to role. Multiple stages of revision were deemed compulsory and linguistic revision, technical/specialised and legal revision were part of the specifications put forward by the coordinating authority (the EIR). Revision and terminology work was very much at the heart of this system, striving for quality and consistency in a context where the technological element was under-developed and needed to be supplemented. In retrospect, we can compare the quality management system developed for the *acquis* translation project with the CEN *Standard for Translation Services* EN 15038[1] promoted at the time. The English version was adopted by the Romanian Standards Association in 2006 and translated into Romanian by a Technical Committee of the Association composed of core team members many of whom were also involved in the translation of the *acquis* in various roles, such as coordinator, team leader, translator, reviser, and terminologist.

The CEN Standard outlines the competences necessary for translation services and details the translation process with stages mirroring the model developed and used in the *acquis* translation. As such, it notes the requirement for pre-translation processing (EN15038:5.3.2.2); terminology work (EN15038:5.3.3.2); and the adoption of a style guide (EN15038:5.3.2.3). Terminology work is identified as a value added service, to be paid for separately. The translation process *per se*, includes translation; checking ("the translator shall check his/her work" EN15038:5.4.2); revision ("the reviser shall be a person other than the

[1] Reproductions of the standard EN 15038 are made under the Agreement of the Romanian Standards Association—ASRO no. LUC/10/139-1-2 registered on 25 August 2010.

translator" EN15038:5.4.3), which is deemed a compulsory stage in the process; review (monolingual checking of domain-specific conventions for highly specialised translations), this stage is only necessary when the service specifications include a review; proofreading, subject to service specifications; and a final verification. For added value services, such as terminology database creation, term-base management, and DTP (desktop publishing), efforts should be made to ensure that the same level of quality is applied as to the services covered by the Standard (EN15038:6).

This concise analysis confirms the validity of the model adopted for the *acquis* translation. It also allows us to acknowledge the importance, appropriately-placed, on terminology and revision work as stand-alone processes to be undertaken by specifically-trained individuals; as distinct strands within project management; and as defined roles.

By extension, such work needs to be understood within the broader context of the diversification of language professions and specifically recognised as warranting distinct job titles to be held by individuals with the necessary competences to meet the role description. Recognition of differences between language professions and the necessary standards to be applied is reinforced by the Romanian Translators Association, formed in 2004 with a mission "to promote and represent, at national and international level, Romanian translators, interpreters and terminologists" (Romanian Translators Association website, Mission).

This is supplemented by another national-level initiative directly derived from the *acquis* work, by which the EIR applied to the Register for the Classification of Occupations in Romania and was successful, in July 2010, in introducing three new occupations to the register: terminologist (code: 244410); linguistic reviser (code: 244409); and legal reviser (code: 242915) (EIR, *Occupations in COR* n. pag.). Collaborators on the *acquis* projects applauded the EIR's success and outlined the *acquis* legacy as follows: "As a result of this project, we now have several linguistic occupations for reviewers and terminologists in Romania" (R1 Anonymous, (confirmed by R16 Laura Mihăilescu), which are recognised by national legislative instruments and used by clients and employers alike.

The financial implications of the translation of the *acquis* also cannot be ignored. The initial PHARE project had a total budget of 585,000 euro for the translation of 17,792 pages. Subsequently, the ministry contracted out revision work separately, breaking the translation workflow into relevant components to be dealt with by different teams. Doina Diaconu (R13) recalled: "The benefits [to the Romanian translation market] were professional and financial. The concepts of revision (by a second linguist) and review (by a domain specialist) were actually introduced to the Romanian market in a structured way. Translation specialists understood that translation quality management includes these steps (which are also paid for [separately]) and translation clients understood more about translation processes, deadlines and budgets". It allowed the cost of translation, revision and terminology work to be estimated at real values, commensurate with the type and volume of the work undertaken (R7 Ioana Rus). This, in itself, is a very important professional outcome.

5.4. Academic Development and Higher Education

Unmistakably, the translation of the *acquis* also had a very strong impact on the education system and the level of training available to the translation profession and related language professions. As noted above, the Department of Applied Modern Languages at Babeș-Bolyai

University, which was part of the consortium delivering translation services under the *acquis* project, took a strategic approach to this engagement and in 1997 set up the first national Master's in Translation Studies and Terminology. Other universities were to follow suit (București, Iași, Timișoara, and later also Brașov and Sibiu).

If initially the programme served exclusively the purpose of forming high-level professionals who could take on *acquis* work in the various roles that the project required, subsequently, i.e. after 2007, the programme was completely restructured to address the national, EU, and international needs of the language industry. As Adab (Adab, *Conclusive Remarks* 416) rightly noted, the *acquis communautaire* was to be the short and medium-term task that the programme had committed its support to; "however, the task of translating the *acquis* [would] not account for all of the translation activity in Romania" and if "a demand for specialist translators and interpreters for the EU may be initially significant, this [would] then slow down to a steady turnover" and educational programmes would need to cast their net towards 'the wider market' and plan for long-term objectives as Romania develops international commercial relations". In this new landscape, Romanian as an EU language would see an increase in multiple tasks related to various fields.

The restructuring of the BBU master's programme in 2007 (prompted by the EHEA Bologna Process reforms) was to fully address these new demands awaiting its graduates (Greere, *The Public-Service Translator*; Greere, *Changes to Professional Translator Training*). Indeed, it was to become a definitive reference point for translation education in Romania as confirmed by the successful affiliation to the European Master's in Translation Network and the standards for excellence advocated for translation education across the European Higher Education Area (EC, *European Master's in Translation (EMT)*). Consecutive selection rounds, in 2009, 2013 and 2018, recognised the high quality training offered by the Babeș-Bolyai University programme; the appropriateness of the curricula to meet industry needs; and the relevance of professionally-oriented strategies both intra and extracurricular. To date, the programme at Babeș-Bolyai remains the sole Romanian representative within the European Master's in Translation Network, boasting graduate profiles covering a wide range of language professions, including terminologist, reviser, subtitler, localiser etc. and reporting employment destinations at European institutions, international non-governmental organisations, and worldwide renowned language service providers.

Formally, in recognition of the value and necessity for higher education institutions to adequately train language professionals, the Romanian Ministry of Education thus introduced in its nomenclature of higher education domains of study Applied Modern Languages and Translation and Interpreting as distinct domains of study with curricular standards developed by the C2 Committee on Humanities and Theology of the Romanian Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (ARACIS) (Greere, *Quality Issues* 88). In subsequent years, following the model of the Applied Modern Language programme offered by Babeș-Bolyai University at undergraduate and postgraduate levels, many universities across Romania took it upon themselves to train translators, interpreters, and applied language experts.

6. Beyond the *Acquis Communautaire*. Within the European Union

As a direct consequence of Romania's accession to the European Union, Romanian as an EU official language saw: (i) an increase in demand for language services provided by Romanian translation service providers; (ii) an increase in interest in adding Romanian as a language of translation by language professionals working for EU institutions; and (iii) an increase in educational programmes set up across the EU focusing on training language and intercultural experts for the global language industry.

A study conducted in October 2007 by the Romanian Translators Association reported on the rising demand for Romanian translation services [between 2006 and 2007] "the internal market (49 %), the single [EU] market (47 %) or the global market (17 %)" (Cobliș 150). Within the same time-span, the evolution of the market in regards to turnover was qualified as "spectacular, [with] an 85.5 % rise in total turnover for all company types, a doubling of turnover figure from € 5.4 million to € 10.1 million for companies above the € 300,000 turnover mark, while companies with turnovers in-between € 25,000 and € 50,000 more than tripled their overall turnover highlighting an increase of 260 %". The number of companies registered on the market also increased for [translation] companies with turnovers under € 30,000 almost doubling from 2006 to 2007 from 40 to 73 [data derived from Association of Romanian Translation Agencies reports] (Greere, *Translation in Romania* 803). Equally important, the market was reported to have witnessed a diversification of services with revision and localisation having been noted as increasing by 60 % and 20 % respectively over a similar period (Cobliș 140).

European Commission full time and freelance language staff working with Romanian as a language B or C, who took up Romanian between 2005 and 2007, admitted that the predominant reason was the change in status of the Romanian language (90 %) (Greere, *Translation in Romania* 812). At the same time, EU institutions were setting up Romanian language units, recruiting through EPSO (European Personnel Selection Office) procedures translators with Romanian as language A, who were to take forward all responsibilities for Romanian as an official EU language.

In the realm of education in 2010, from across 26 European countries, 24 universities were offering Romanian language training and 4 universities were considering introducing Romanian either as part or full-time programmes or electives within existing programmes (Greere, *Translation in Romania* 811). Most universities indicated that the programmes had been set up in the period before Romania's accession or immediately after with reasons ranging from demand by enrolees and language market growth, but also thanks to the newly acquired status of the Romanian language after 2007 making it a more appealing option for undergraduate/postgraduate study (Greere, *Translation in Romania* 811).

In conclusion, what is unanimously described by the professional community as the most complex translation project on the Romanian market encountered multiple challenges in its implementation (not least those having to do with staffing, volume of work, deadlines, and technology); however, the positive consequences of the translation of the *acquis communautaire* into Romanian remain indisputable. The impact has been most obvious for the promotion/creation of normative use for Romanian domain-specific language, including terminology; for the development of competences and the standardisation of translation practices; for the professionalisation of the Romanian translation market, as a whole, including increasing client awareness for the value of translation work and quality assurance for translation purposes; and for the enhancement of higher education with programmes specifically designed for market-oriented employability outcomes.

More than ten years on, the legacy of the *acquis* translation work is widely acknowledged by all those involved in various roles in the pre-2007 projects, and those who currently work with *acquis* texts at European institutions. The drive for quality remains a constant preoccupation as the Romanian language, now an established official language of the EU, continues to develop and to attract growing interest within the language industry.

Viorel Șerbănescu (R20), Head of the Romanian Language Department, Directorate-General for Translation, European Commission offered a recent summary: "The translation of the *acquis communautaire* into Romanian was not only a legal obligation for an acceding country, but a test for the administrative capacity of the Romanian authorities, and a tough challenge for translation professionals in Romania. At the same time, it represented, for all those involved, hands-on training, not only in a new approach to translation, but also in regards to the EU's values, institutions, policies, and legislative system. […] The translation of the *acquis* before Romania's accession [pre-2007] was only the start, laying the foundations of what was to become permanent sustained work by Romanian translators in EU institutions. This is highly rewarding work that makes a real-time contribution to enabling and ensuring that all Romanians have access, in their native tongue, to their European citizenship rights and responsibilities, as codified in EU legislation. Our team of translators in the Romanian Language Department [at the DGT, EC] is animated both by the mission of preserving the quality of the

Romanian language in the European legislation, and the necessity of keeping pace with Romanian language modernisation, in concert with that of other EU official languages."

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El Lenguaje de la Economía: Características y Estrategias Actuales en la Traducción

Olivia Petrescu

1. Lenguaje económico y grado de especialización

La metodología empleada en la investigación de la traducción de cualquier lenguaje o texto especializado gira en torno a su complejidad y tipología funcional, su localización en el campo y el grado de especialización, reflejados en distintas situaciones de comunicación que intervienen en el proceso traductor, con sus etapas y dificultades específicas. Con miras a guiar nuestro estudio hacia la problemática del lenguaje económico y sus exigencias en comparación con otras áreas, nos preguntamos si traducir un texto de Economía implica unas competencias generales, o simplemente establecimientos epistemológicos y comunicativos contextuales.

De hecho, con respecto a la naturaleza y función de los lenguajes especializados, muchos estudiosos (Cabré 132 *et seq*.) sostienen que son subconjuntos del lenguaje general, caracterizados por tres variables: la temática, los usuarios y las situaciones de comunicación. Además, sirven para organizar conocimientos científicos y representan instrumentos comunicativos que pueden matizar diversos grados discursivos, terminología específica y géneros textuales que suelen variar en función de los recursos utilizados. Por ejemplo, un informe técnico-comercial o un manual de instrucciones tendrán otro registro estilístico en comparación con un contrato de compraventa o un vídeo publicitario sobre la banca, etc.

Más aún, al caracterizar el discurso especializado, (Carbonell i Cortés 255) unos insisten en las condiciones pragmáticas, semióticas y culturales concretas que lo constituyen, mientras que conocer la terminología y fraseología especializada representa un requisito imprescindible en el proceso traductor. Cabe subrayar que al igual que el lenguaje general, el especializado, suele recurrir a elementos fraseológicos y terminológicos propios de cada lengua, o creados a propósito a través de préstamos, calcos, juegos, paralelismos, latinismos u otros procedimientos lingüísticos, aspectos que aumentan la comprensión y la adaptación en la otra lengua. En lo que nos concierne, estamos de acuerdo con los planteamientos anteriores y solemos aplicarlos en el análisis y traducción de los textos especializados a lo largo del curso de traducción especializada que impartimos en el Máster Europeo de Traducción y Terminología de la Facultad de Letras de Cluj-Napoca, Rumanía.

Consecuentemente, partimos debatiendo el concepto de *especialización* en la materia, cuyo grado viene matizado por el nivel epistemológico del texto original, es decir por los conocimientos transmitidos por el autor –el contenido–, y también por la terminología/fraseología que utiliza –el contenido–. Ulteriormente, los estudiantes/traductores y receptores tendrán que afrontar la misma complejidad, respetando los parámetros especializados, funcionales y estilísticos requeridos.

Al referirnos a la comunicación en sí y los receptores de un texto o discurso, distinguimos entre tres categorías: el público general o no especialista (el público lego que lee diariamente las noticias); el público iniciado, aunque no se dedique profesionalmente al campo (los estudiantes de una carrera concreta o las personas familiarizadas con un área especializada de forma circunstancial); y, por último, el público especialista que trabaja diariamente con esa materia (en el caso del campo económico serían asesores, auditores, economistas, expertos en bolsa, finanzas, banca). De ahí se desprende la idea de que a medida que progresa el nivel de especialización del autor y del receptor, aumenta proporcionalmente, en forma y contenido, el grado de complejidad del texto original, tal y como consta en la siguiente categorización, que respeta el recorrido didáctico y de práctica de traducción que adoptamos:

Texto no especializado, ya que ni el autor ni el receptor son especialistas; ej.: noticias en la prensa sobre la tasa del desempleo o el comportamiento de los consumidores en el período de rebajas;

Texto divulgativo, poco especializado, el autor es especialista en el tema, mientras que el receptor no lo es; ej.: un estudio sobre la política monetaria y fiscal de un estado o los agentes que participan en el funcionamiento de una economía: trabajadores, empresas, inversores, gobierno;

Texto especializado, el autor es especialista en el tema y el receptor está iniciado, pero no a nivel de especialista; ej.: documentos que salen de la banca comercial para la captación de ahorros y concesión de créditos;

Texto altamente especializado, porque tanto el autor como el receptor son especialistas en el tema; ej.: el Plan General Contable 2019, las normas del Instituto de Contabilidad y Auditoría de España.

En el mismo sentido, recordamos que la mayoría de las contribuciones teóricas y prácticas sobre lenguajes con fines específicos o de especialidad, incluidos el económico, comercial, financiero o de negocios, nos dirigen hacia un análisis complejo sobre la función del discurso especializado y sus características más importantes. Aunque hay teorías que siempre estudian el texto especializado desde la perspectiva de la comparación con el texto general, nuestra visión apunta más al grado especialización y a su localización en el campo investigado, para poder, consecuentemente, adoptar unas estrategias de traducción eficaces y funcionales. Por otra parte, Hurtado Albir en su libro *Traducción y traductología: introducción a la traductología*, al referirse a la traducción de textos especializados, cita a varios autores con sus respectivos trabajos, según el ámbito de investigación. Como ejemplos, para la traducción científica y técnica alude a los siguientes estudiosos Wright y Wright (1993), Congost (1994), Göpferich (1995), Bachmann (1996), Gomero (2001); mientras que en cuanto a la traducción jurídica se destacan los estudios de Gémar (1995), Šarčević (1997), Borja Albi (2000) y Alcaraz Varó (2002). Como no había ninguna mención acerca de la traducción en el campo de la Economía, hemos considerado oportuno rastrear algunas fuentes en internet; así, algunos de los enlaces que han resultado muy útiles para nuestra labor han sido los del proyecto COMENEGO (Corpus Multilingüe de Economía y Negocios) de la Universidad de Alicante, materiales ulteriormente publicados bajo la forma de una monografía por la Revista *Hermeneus*, editado por Gallego Hernández y Román Mínguez, al lado de otros trabajos pertenecientes a Koby y Román Mínguez (2014/2015) y Orts Llopis (2010). Bajo los títulos *Traducción económica: entre profesión, formación y recursos documentales* (2014) y *La traducción económica, financiera y comercial: de la teoría a la formación y práctica profesional* (2016), los autores recogen una serie de trabajos de investigación en la materia de la traducción económica especializada, muy útiles tanto para la docencia como para la práctica de la traducción.

2. Características y estrategias de traducción en el campo de la economía

La delimitación del concepto de traducción económica resulta bastante difícil y una de las principales causas se debe a la inestabilidad terminológica que existe en el panorama investigador y académico actual. Las denominaciones utilizadas en las aulas y en la producción científica varían entre: traducción económica, traducción económico-financiera, traducción jurídico-económica, traducción jurídico-financiera, traducción socio-económica, traducción comercial. En la opinión de Román Mínguez (2015), el sintagma *traducción de la economía y los negocios*, al que hacen referencia ciertos autores en diversas publicaciones —Suau Jiménez, Gallego Hernández o Mateo Martínez entre otros—, es mucho más preciso, dado que aborda tanto la traducción de textos relacionados con la economía en sentido estricto, como la traducción de textos de otros, subámbitos de especialidad, a veces imposibles de desligar, que podríamos enmarcar dentro de la traducción del mundo de los negocios o del lenguaje económico.

A todo ello se suma la heterogeneidad intrínseca al concepto de traducción económica y la gran variedad de situaciones comunicativas que participan en la concepción de los lenguajes de la economía y los negocios. Por consiguiente, del estudio anteriormente mencionado resulta que incluso definir la traducción económica representa una tarea compleja, cuyos objetos de estudio podrían agruparse en las siguientes ramas:

2.1. Traducción de textos macroeconómicos, es decir los documentos que se refieren a la economía vista en su conjunto; ej.: la producción de bienes y servicios, las tasas de desempleo, los tipos de cambio, los tipos de interés, el nivel de los precios y, al mismo tiempo, la traducción de textos microeconómicos, que estudian el comportamiento de los agentes determinantes para el proceso económico; ej.: el gobierno, los trabajadores e inversores, las empresas, los consumidores.

2.2. Traducción de los textos relacionados a las finanzas, si entendemos por las finanzas la rama económica que se dedica a la gestión de dinero a través de los negocios, la banca y la bolsa; aquí cabe mencionar los contratos y textos bancarios, las OPA –ofertas públicas de adquisición de valores–, las OPV –ofertas públicas de venta de valores– o la información pública sobre las empresas.

2.3. Traducción de textos contables, que define un campo específico bastante estandarizado a nivel del lenguaje, ya que incluye las normas y demás principios reguladores de la contabilidad nacional o internacional: ej.: el Plan General Contable, el Código de Comercio o la Ley de Sociedades, las Normas Internacionales de Información Financiera.

2.4. La traducción de los textos sobre el comercio, es decir documentos que regulan y permiten el intercambio de bienes y servicios entre regiones y países, independientemente de si se trata de su uso directo —comercio al por menor o *retail*—, o bien para su ulterior distribución o venta, —comercio al por mayor o *whole sale*—.

No obstante, el propósito del presente artículo no es el de analizar exclusivamente los rasgos de la traducción económica, sino observar sus características más destacadas para aplicarlas en ciertas estrategias de traducción. Así, tras reflexionar sobre la clasificación anterior, podríamos deducir que el área económica es uno de los ámbitos más dinámicos de la sociedad actual, a medida que resulta cada vez más necesario estar al tanto de los cambios que intervienen constantemente. Nos referimos a un panorama muy cambiante: las divisas, las empresas que fusionan o quiebran, el protagonismo social de las multinacionales, la situación de los bancos, a los estados a punto de pedir el rescate financiero, a la situación muy inestable de los antiguos pactos económicos y políticos, de las deudas y finanzas públicas, el Brexit, el auge de los independentismos y otros elementos turbulentos que exigen una formación continua y constante en muchos campos afines.

Por consiguiente, consideramos que el mismo proceso de la traducción se ha convertido en un acto profesional multifacético, adaptado a tales cambios y a las nuevas tecnologías y terminologías. Además, en este sentido, nos gustaría reforzar cuatro características que nos parecen sumamente importantes para la actividad traductora.

a) La tarea traductora supone un abanico de *dificultades ampliadas*, debido a la gran complejidad de la realidad global que nos incumbe a todos, en la que coexisten y aparecen nuevos lenguajes, sectores y especializaciones a ritmo de vértigo.
b) La *heterogeneidad* del campo económico da lugar a una rica tipología de discursos y textos híbridos, lo que hace que la delimitación entre las áreas temáticas sea bastante indefinida. Así, a menudo resulta imposible determinar los términos o los conceptos como pertenecientes a un solo ámbito (económico, jurídico, político, empresarial, financiero, etc.) o incluso a un solo idioma, siendo en este sentido mayoritaria la influencia del inglés.
c) Las *siglas y los acrónimos* constituyen un alto porcentaje del vocabulario técnico, lo que requiere la consulta de fuentes fiables, textos paralelos, glosarios, dependiendo, claro, de los clientes y del

encargo de traducción, para decidir si se mantiene o no la abreviatura del texto de origen en el texto meta o se encuentran equivalentes funcionales en la lengua de llegada.

d) Además del elevado número de tecnicismos con sentido unívoco cuya dificultad de traducción sería más bien de orden conceptual, cabe señalar el uso de un vocabulario semi-técnico o incluso *metafórico* que plantean muchos problemas de polisemia y elección lingüística, retórica y estilística. Más aún, tales expresiones metafóricas, sobre todo en lo que respecta a los textos divulgativos, más que de lenguaje económico –en el ámbito de las ciencias, la medicina, la política, etc.–, siempre han constituido dilemas pendientes para los estudiantes/traductores y temas de investigación pertinentes para la lingüística aplicada, contrastiva y para la traducción.

De todos los puntos mencionados se puede concluir que la metodología que utilizaremos en rastrear las posibles dificultades que puedan surgir en la traducción económica dependerá de los rasgos temáticos, terminológicos, conceptuales, lingüísticos, estilísticos y metafóricos de cada texto analizado. La mayoría de los autores consultados, entre los cuales citamos a Alcaraz Varó y Hughes (2002), Borja Albi (2000), Recoder y Cid (2003), Cabré Castellví (2004), Gil y Losada (2008), Gémar (1995) y Hurtado Albir (2004), abordaron en sus investigaciones las dificultades de la traducción especializada, puesto que saber solucionarlas constituye uno de los pasos claves en la metodología docente y profesional. Por ello, aprehender los conceptos fundamentales de la economía, conocer los términos –en ambas lenguas– utilizados por los expertos en este campo y seguir unas metodologías coherentes de comprensión, solución de dificultades y adaptación-corrección y trasvasetraducción en la lengua meta, adecuadas al contexto de comunicación, establecen los pilares básicos de las competencias de la traducción económica.

Sin embargo, de las competencias generales hasta las más específicas y refinadas, creemos que el camino es bastante largo y requiere sobrepasar dificultades, cometer errores, volver a corregirlos, continuar con la práctica constante de la traducción de textos y contextos diferentes que conlleven a la búsqueda y al debate de múltiples formas o variantes de traducción del texto meta. Es más, una de las prácticas docentes que ha resultado sumamente eficaz es “dejar reposar el texto” y contemplar a distancia la solución de traducción elegida en el caso de de los textos económicos, independientemente de si su función es instrumental o documental. En realidad, la práctica ha confirmado que muchos problemas de traducción y su índice de variación los suele medir y expresar el mismo traductor y sus propias técnicas y recursos utilizados. De esa manera, su estilo personal, sus gustos, su concepción sobre las teorías de la traducción, su estado anímico, las circunstancias materiales, espaciales, temporales influyen efectivamente en la forma de traducir y en las soluciones adaptadas de todas las posibilidades contempladas.

Consecuentemente, llegamos a la cuestión y selección de las variaciones, totalmente validadas en algún momento, observadas, por ejemplo, en la traducción de nombres propios, en la alternancia entre voseo, tuteo y ustedeo en el español utilizado en Europa y América, y en otros cambios que intervinieron en los sistemas económicos y mercantiles o aduaneros de los países y regiones hispanohablantes. En todas las situaciones debatidas con nuestros estudiantes y compañeros, hemos encontrado formas distintas de textos y sus diferentes traducciones correspondientes, resultado que apunta, una vez más, a la misma conclusión de que la norma y práctica de la traducción se inscriben en el área de las circunstancias espacio-temporales, estilísticas y contextuales en donde se traduce. Dicho de otra manera, hemos percibido soluciones funcionales a problemas actuales, ya que la tendencia no es fosilizar la norma, sino hacerla avanzar en pos de una mayor eficacia comunicativa de la traducción, dirigida hacia las necesidades del mercado de trabajo y hacia sus receptores o consumidores.

En realidad, surgen tanto problemas de traducción, –entendidos como dificultades objetivas en el proceso de traducción–, como errores de traducción –que serían variantes inadecuadas de traducción, según los criterios textuales, funcionales y contextuales requeridos–. Nuestro objetivo en el presente estudio ha sido ocuparnos exclusivamente de la primera categoría, ya que las dificultades forman parte intrínseca de las estrategias a adoptar y no acaban siendo errores de traducción. Consecuentemente, desde la perspectiva de las dificultades de traducción, tendríamos las siguientes categorías de análisis:

Dificultades de tipo extra-textual y formativo, cuando faltan procesos de aprendizaje o documentación;

Dificultades de tipo textual y lingüístico: convenciones textuales, abreviaturas, dificultades semánticas (ej.: homonimia, falsos amigos, metáforas);

Dificultades de tipo terminológico y conceptual, cuando se observa una diversidad conceptual y denominativa de algunos recursos o existe solapamiento de conceptos puramente económicos con otros procedentes de otros campos.

Antes de sondear nuestra propuesta de clasificación (Petrescu, *Estudios de traducción* 30-31), basada en los estudios de Rabadán (1991), Hurtado Albir (2004) y Molina Martínez (2006), cabe subrayar que las estrategias y técnicas de traducción no representan unas categorías únicas, aplicables a cualquier texto económico que se deba traducir. A lo largo del proceso de desarrollo y consolidación de las competencias traductoras de los estudiantes, insistimos una vez más en que la práctica intensa es esencial, al lado del tratamiento de errores y dificultades. Asimismo, observamos que, antes de iniciar cualquier tarea, resulta necesaria una previa conceptualización, aunque sea mínima, cuya utilidad resalta especialmente cuando se debaten los ejemplos delicados o ambiguos y su tratamiento lingüístico apropiado. Así conseguiremos trabajar con los demás elementos complejos –registro, cohesión estilística y retórica, dimensiones pragmáticas–, lo que dificulta evidentemente cualquier intento normativo. Esto bien podría constituir uno de los retos teóricos del futuro.

Tabla n°1. Técnicas de traducción utilizadas en la clase de traducción especializada

Técnica	Breve descripción de las estrategias utilizadas
Adaptación	Reemplazar un elemento cultural del texto original por otro propio de la cultura del texto meta
Ampliación lingüística	Añadir elementos lingüísticos
Amplificación	Introducir precisiones no formuladas en el texto original (por ejemplo, notas a pie de página)
Calco	Traducir literalmente una palabra o sintagma extranjero
Contracción	Sintetizar elementos lingüísticos
Creación	Establecer una equivalencia efímera, totalmente

discursiva	imprevisible fuera del contexto
Descripción	Reemplazar un término o una expresión por la descripción de su forma y/o función
Equivalente acuñado	Utilizar un término o expresión, reconocido a nivel lingüístico, como equivalente al texto traducido
Generalización	Utilizar un término más general o neutro
Particularización	Utilizar un término más preciso o concreto
Préstamo	Integrar una palabra o expresión de otra lengua tal cual (puede ser un préstamo puro/calco, sin operar ningún cambio, o adaptado a la ortografía de la lengua meta)
Transposición/ Modulación	Cambiar la categoría gramatical, el punto de vista, la causa por el efecto, una parte por otra, etc.

Aunque la tabla propuesta no es una catalogación exhaustiva, sino más bien el resultado de una reflexión bilingüe de nuestro trabajo docente, deducimos que las técnicas y estrategias de traducción significan recurrir a unos procedimientos de análisis y debate del tratamiento empleado, que se utilizan en el caso de unidades textuales concretas. Al mismo tiempo, a pesar de su aplicación general en muchos campos de la traducción especializada, las estrategias son esencialmente contextuales, funcionales, subjetivas y referenciales, porque siempre dependen de un texto en su totalidad, del objetivo de la traducción y del estilo propio del traductor.

3. Conclusión: el lenguaje económico y su traducción

Tras examinar las características, tipologías y metodología que aplicamos en el curso de máster de traducción especializada, concluimos que la problemática del lenguaje económico y su traducción presenta características específicas y otras generales, elementos que se ven dificultados gradualmente en función del nivel de especialización, competencias adquiridas, contextos comunicativos y objetivos de los textos meta. Por tanto, consideramos que traducir un texto económico significa, sin duda, trabajar con conocimientos mucho más amplios, muy especializados y a menudo difíciles, que requieren una formación, documentación y capacitación epistemológica permanentes, las cuales no se reducen en sí a las estrategias y dificultades comprendidas.

Además, más allá de los obstáculos hallados, generales o particulares, consideramos que la metodología, la documentación y las estrategias de traducción varían en función del objetivo de la traducción, sea informativo, profesional o únicamente didáctico. Derivado de ello resalta la necesidad formativa, el dominio de técnicas y competencias adecuadas para hacer frente a todo tipo de retos, desde los más sencillos hasta los más complejos y novedosos, que se distribuyen en planos o niveles diferentes, conceptuales, culturales y terminológicos que merecen toda la atención, como es el caso de las referencias culturales, metáforas, nombres propios, segmentos del texto, factores extra textuales, etc. En este sentido, el proceso de traducción, incluso el de la especializada en lenguaje económico, demuestra ser un acto fascinante y enriquecedor, ya que enlaza simultáneamente dos o más lenguas, con sus culturas, terminologías y mentalidades distintas.

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LOCALIZATION: ONLINE TOOLS, VIRTUAL PLATFORMS, AND CLOUD-BASED APPLICATIONS

CRISTINA VARGA

1. Introduction

Localization is central to the adaptation of a product to the needs of customers in a particular market. In the modern context of technological development, localization has become a motivating field of activity for language experts. Nevertheless, localization is quite challenging for language experts since they may have to adapt to a very flexible workflow during the process. They may use their linguistic skills in conjunction with basic IT skills and an ability to understand data structures within different *programming language*s. In addition to programming skills, the *process* of localization requires in-depth technical knowledge of localization tools and QA software.

Depending on the project specifications, a localizer may use a wide range of tools to enable efficient, high quality localization. The localization tools a professional uses fall into two categories: tools specific to the language industry (CAT tools, MT engines, terminology management tools, and QA software) and developer tools (simple text editors, source code editors, HTML editors, image editors, sound editors, subtitle editors, and so on). In both scenarios, the localizer may use free/open access tools and commercial tools. Nevertheless, commercial tools, having been heavily promoted, enjoy significant popularity in the field. Due to their high cost, commercial localization tools are unaffordable for most translators. Freelance and young localizers in particular have difficulty acquiring expensive localization software.

The main objective of this article is to discuss existing online tools involved used in the localization process with a focus on free/open access software. Furthermore, we attempt to discuss recent developments and advancements in the area of localization tools, pointing out different categories, including *online tools*, *cloud-based applications*, and *virtual platforms*.

Our initial hypothesis is that many localization tools are available on the Internet as *online tools*, *virtual platforms*, and *cloud-based applications*. Since they are not part of formal translator training in localization, they are little known by the majority of localizers. Nevertheless, they offer a number of advantages, such as *flexibility*, *accessibility*, and *ubiquity*. In specific contexts, they may be more efficient than commercial tools. Even if some parts of common online localization tools are not free, their cost is often affordable for freelance translators. However, numerous online tools and cloud-based applications are free to access, and represent an excellent alternative to commercial localization tools.

In order to achieve the objectives of our research, this paper discusses the different categories of localisation tools we consider most appropriate for language experts involved in software localization activities. The list of localization tools presented in this paper may be of interest to professional translators, localizers, professors, and students.

2. Localization Tools. Theoretical Framework

The topic of localization tools appears to be of little importance in translation studies and only a few scholars have mentioned the state of this field in their research. Nevertheless, all authors seem to agree that these tools are quite diverse and many require in-depth IT knowledge.

Firstly, we may mention that CAT tools have traditionally been considered localization tools. Sandrini and Alcina consider software packages used in computer assisted translation to be localization tools, covering such categories as: *translation memories*, *terminology management tools (dictionaries and glossaries)*, and *machine translation*. Nishino and Nohara state that: “Computer-aided translation tools (CATs) are indispensable in modern localization”, while Alcina (96) asserts that:

> Translation memories, for example, have been very successful and widely accepted, yet these programs will only be useful to translators who work with specialised translation (legal, scientific-technical, localisation), and not to those who are involved in literary or audiovisual translation (Alcina 96).

As can be noted in the above quote, the author considers localization to be a type of “specialised translation” and acknowledges that CAT tools are appropriate for localization. Carla DiFranco is more precise in observing that the process of localization involves different categories of software, not just translation tools:

> [N]ot all the tools used in a localization project are actually “localization” tools. In fact, many, such as compiling, testing, and QA tools, play no direct role in localization of translation of content. […] the use of such tools often proves to be especially problematic, due to the fact that they are

> designed not for software localization but rather for software engineering (DiFranco 52).

Bert Esselink, in his book *A Practical Guide to Localization*, presents a complex panorama of translation technology in localization and considers localization tools to be a category of CAT tools:

> In addition to CAT tools, which include translation memory, terminology, and software localization tools, some companies also use machine translation and dedicated word counting tools on projects (Esselink 359).

A clear distinction between the different categories of the tools available for game localization is made in Chandler and Deming (186). The authors state that the tools involved in game localization projects are not equal and have different roles. He distinguishes the following categories of localization tools: *proprietary tools*, *translation tools*, *engine tools*, and *game localization management tools*. Chandler and Deming go on to observe that each tool has different limitations for the localization process. The same procedure is applied in this paper, but with reference to online localization tools, online platforms, and cloud-based applications.

In *Déjà vu? Translation memories and localisation tools*, Austermühl (147-151) remarks that localization tools are evolving into complex software platforms that integrate different technologies. The author examines the development of localization tools and describes the functioning of *Catalyst*, a complex desktop software that incorporates *translation functions* (translation memories, terminology extractor, and in-context editor), *software engineering functions*, and *project management* functions.

The existence of a wide range of localization tools is a key point in the PhD thesis *Localisation interne et en contexte des logiciels commerciaux et libres (Internal and In Context Localisation of Commercial and Free Software)* by Amel Fraisse. The author carries out a complex analysis of multiple localization tools, giving an overview of the state of the theory and practice in the field and taking into account the process of in-context and "blind localization" with commercial and free localization software. She explains the relevant procedures, notes the advantages, and highlights the limitations of localization tools. Nevertheless, it is important to observe that Fraisse's analysis only focuses on desktop localization software and does not address online localization tools.

As can be observed, in the bibliography, there are no references to online localization tools, online platforms, or cloud-based applications. As such, we consider that a general analysis of the most important online localization tools would be very useful. The current paper provides us with the opportunity to fill this research gap.

3. Online Localization Tools

Nowadays, localizers can use a wide range of electronic tools in order to adapt different products to local markets. The following sections of the article provide brief descriptions of different categories of online localization tools. Our objective is to make an inventory of the tools currently available online and describe the key features of each tool.

In what follows, we distinguish the following categories of online localization software: online text editors; online source code editors; cloud-based applications; online html editors; online localization services; and online localization platforms. It is also important to keep in mind that online localization tools can be used only if the localization project is not the subject of a non-disclosure agreement with a client.

3.1. Online Text Editors

Text editors, like *source code editors*, can be used to open, view, and edit text files. These actions may have different purposes, depending on the user and the work. Thus, the main function of a text editor is *text editing*, which makes the program suitable for general use. Virtually any computer user wishing to write text should use a *text editor*[1]. These programs use the simplest text format possible, which is *plain text (*.txt)*, a format compatible with all text-based computer programs.

A more specialized use of text editors is *computer programming*. Since programming languages are text-based, text editors can be also used as *programming tools*. Furthermore, they do not have advanced text formatting functions and do not add formatting codes that generate compilation errors; text editors are usually used by programmers.

Text editors can also be used as *localization tools*. The linguistic content of a computer program is also text-based, which allow localizers to use a text editor to localize the user interface of such programs. Therefore, if a localizer is assigned a localization task, depending on his/her skills, s/he can use a *text editor* in order to fulfil the assignment. In this context, advanced IT skills are required, since the localizer needs to correctly identify the linguistic content to be edited. S/he also may be aware that any modification of the source file can affect the good functioning of the software s/he localizes.

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[1] In this paper we distinguish between *text editor* and *word editor*, two different categories of editing tools, each having specific features.

Using a *text editor* as a localization tool is an easy solution for a localizer who has advanced IT skills and can distinguish programming codes accurately from the linguistic content of a computer program. This can offer a solution for a freelancer because most text editors are free and can manage a wide range of programming languages, making them a sort of universal solution in localization. Using text editors is also subject to certain limitations, such as: the difficulty of following programming codes on a computer screen; indentation is not always visible in a text editor; and the difficulty of ensuring the correct encoding of the target file. If the localizer has no IT skills, it is strongly recommended they use other localization tools or even ask a project manager to extract the translatable strings for him/her from the source file.

Some *online text editors* that can be used as localization tools include *My text area* and *Edit Pad*. These are open access applications that do not need user authentication to use them. These tools present the same features as desktop editors: they are simple text editors, they cannot add advanced formatting to the text, and the files can only be saved in *plain text (*.txt)* format. These text editors can be used by all categories of localizer (*in-house*, *freelance*, and *fans*) and are fast and easy to access and use. They can be used to edit in any localizable format. Their interfaces are very simple, but their lack of functionality and the difficulty of following programming codes on-screen may make them inconvenient, especially for beginners.

3.2. Online Source Code Editors

Source code editors are specific programming tools that allow the creation and modification of source code files. These editors are language specific and, depending on their complexity, they may be able to edit one or more programming languages. They are more complex than *text editors* since they have many advanced features that help programmers speed up their activities. Some of the specific features of *source code editors* include: *indentation* (allowing the programmer to better understand the program's structure); *autocomplete* (speeding up programming); and *syntax highlighting* (displaying different categories of codes using different colours, which allows the programmer to more easily identify elements such as *variables, constants*, and *procedures*). Other features such as *integrated compiler*, *debugger*, and/or *interpreter* are included in *source code editors*. Even if these features are extremely significant for programmers, they are not important to the localization process.

The specific features mentioned above, namely *indentation*, *syntax highlighting*, and *autocomplete*, can be of great use not only in code computing, but also in software localization. These features help make localization easier. The *indentation* and *highlighting* features enable the localizer to observe different classes of programming codes and, once the language content is identified, to follow the indentation or the colour of the character strings. Thus, the localizer has to pay attention to the indentation and to the highlighting of the text in order to distinguish between linguistic information, which may be translated, and program codes. These *source code editors* are complex programming tools, but they are more significant for localizers than *text editors* since their features speed up the work.

Nowadays, there are many *source code editors* available on the Internet. In what follows, we will present a general overview of the main *source code editors* that can be used as localization tools. The inventory is not meant to be exhaustive, but rather illustrative and it is subject to change since localization tools evolve so rapidly. Some of the source code editors relevant to localization and currently available online include: *AWSCloud9*; *Collabedit*; and *Codeanywhere*. These code editors are illustrative of the new ways programmers are working nowadays. For localization projects, these tools present various advantages, as well as a few limitations. Since they are almost unknown to localizers, this section briefly presents their features with a focus on localization.

The tools mentioned above are all cloud-based cross-platform applications used by professional programmers. Their use in localization can be valuable because they offer the following advantages: most of them are free or there is a free limited version; the localizer does not have to install the program on his/her computer as cloud-based application can be accessed from anywhere with an internet browser; collaborative working is allowed; and they support many programming languages. These features simplify significantly the technical aspects of the localizer's work.

AWSCloud9 is a professional online source editor (https://aws.amazon.com/cloud9/). It is a developer tool that can be accessed on the AWS Amazon portal. It supports 40 programming languages, which is a significant plus for the localizer. In order to access the source editor, localizers must authenticate themselves with a username and password. They can work on individual localization projects or they can collaborate in real time as a team for more complex projects. Even though the source editor is free, some *AWSCloud9* features/products are not.

Collabedit (http://collabedit.com/) is a simple and very efficient multilingual source code editor. It can be accessed online without authentication. Its features are essential for programmers and can be useful for localizers too. Its simple interface is suited to professional localizers who are not very familiar with code programming. Its compatibility with 18 programming languages makes it a powerful localization tool. Complex localization projects can be localized collaboratively and the files of the project can be stored in the cloud for up to 60 days. Nevertheless, *Collabedit* presents one limitation concerning the amount of programming codes that can be displayed in one work session, with a maximum of 25,000 characters. Complex localization projects need to be divided into different packages in order to be properly localized in *Collabedit*.

Codeanywhere (https://codeanywhere.com/) represents a complete professional solution for source code editing. It is a cloud based IDE (integrated developer environment) and offers the same program development functionalities as a desktop IDE. It can also be used for localization projects since its most important feature is compatibility with 120 programming languages and different environments including the Web, Android, and iOS. It also has the possibility of sharing files with a team. *Codeanywhere* is not a free IDE, but offers a 7-day free trial. Despite its complexity, this source code editor has an intuitive interface, which can be straightforwardly understood by users with limited computing skills.

3.3. Online HTML Editors

According to the *Internet live stats* 2019 website, the total number of websites on the Internet is currently 1,736,999,717 and counting. The same website informs us that only 200,000,000 of these websites are really active. Many of these websites are localized and present multilingual interfaces, confirming that Internet localization is a significant part of localization activity nowadays. This is probably the motivation for the presence of large numbers of *HTML online editors* you can find online. They represent a very easy to use solution for all categories of localizer, no matter their IT skill level. Since there is a huge number of online HTML editors, in this section we will discuss only a few examples of *free online HTML editors* that can be successfully used as website localization tools: *CodePen*, *CodVerter*, *HTML5 Editor*, *HTML Code Editor*, *PlayCode*, *Plunker*, and *W3Schools Online Code Editor*.

Depending on the level of complexity, we can divide online HTML editors into two types: *complex HTML editors* and *simple HTML editors*. Complex HTML editors include: *CodePen*, *CodVerter*, *PlayCode*, *W3Schools Online Code Editor*, and *Plunker*. These editors are compatible with multiple mark-up, mark-down, and web programming languages such as: HTML, MD, CSS, and JS. Used in web localization, they help the localizer speed up his/her work by using a unique editor for the localization of different web file formats. Simple HTML editors are very helpful for web localizers even if their support is limited only to HTML. This remains the main format for internet files and represents a major part of web localization activity. In this category we have the following editors: *HTML Code Editor* and *HTML5 Editor*.

Despite its limited functionality, *HTML Code Editor* can be used as a localization tool. It is more appropriate for localizers with stronger IT skills. The other online tool, *HTML5 Editor*, can be used by all categories of localizer. It enables the user to directly edit the target text without displaying HTML codes, which makes it a suitable editor for users with weak IT skills. The advantage of using this editor is that web localization is similar to text translation and the localizer does not see the HTML codes and can focus on the translation.

3.4. Online Localization Services

Internationalization has become common practice among software developers. Internationalization represents the first step toward the process of localization and consists of preparing the software product for localization. Therefore, in order to reduce localization costs, many software companies and creators choose to separate linguistic resource files from the programming codes. There are many different language file formats storing the linguistic information of the user guide interface in a separate file. This simplifies the localization process and reduces the risk of errors occurring in a project.

This practice requires a professional localizer who has the necessary competences to work with different user interface format files and can select the appropriate tools for this work. For example, if the format file is *.exe*, recommended localization tools are *SDL Passolo* and *Alchemy CATALYST*, two desktop localization tools that allow the localizer to extract the user interface strings from the executable file. These highly specialised tools enable the localizer to translate a wide range of files. Since these are highly specialised tools, special training and skills are needed to use them properly. These localization tools are also quite expensive, which make them unaffordable for many young translators and localizers. In general, *SDL Passolo* and *Alchemy CATALYST* are used by companies, in-house, and freelance localizers.

More affordable alternatives to *SDL Passolo* and *Alchemy CATALYST* can be found on the Internet. Specific file format editors enable a localizer to translate one or multiple user interface formats. These editors are very simple and have limited functionality. Their most important asset is that they are easy to use and access and deliver the target file in the format required by the client. The most current user interface file formats are: *.po*; *.pot*; *.mo*; *.json*; *.strings*; *.properties*; *.yaml*; and *.lng*. Each of these formats can be edited with a general source code editor (see 3.2.1) or with an online specific editor.

Current user interface formats include *.po*, *.pot*, and *.mo* files. Even if these formats can be opened, edited, and saved with an online text editor, only the *.po* file is important for the localization process. This format contains the localizable strings. In the case of the *.po* user interface format, it can be edited with online tools like *POEditor* (https://poeditor.com/) and *Loco PoEditor* (https://localise.biz/free/poeditor). The first *.po* editor is commercial and the second is free to use. Both editors are complex and support other user interface formats.

Because it is free, *Loco PoEditor* is a more attractive option for freelance localizers. It has a very intuitive interface that enables the localizer to rapidly open the files s/he wants to localize. The main advantage of its interface is that the localizer does not see the programming codes, which makes the editor suitable even for localizers with weak IT skills. The editor displays only the localizable character strings on the screen, which speeds up the process. Another asset of *Loco PoEditor* consists of the wide range of file formats supported by this program. The localizer can translate 14 user interface formats for different computer or mobile platforms, including *Windows*, *MacOS*, and *Android*.

JSON is another user interface format that is widely used for programming user interfaces. *Loco PoEditor* supports JSON, as well as many other specific online editors. Some of these editors are: *JSON Editor Online* (https://jsoneditoronline.org/); *JSON formatter* (https://jsonformatter.org); *JSONFormatter.io* (https://www.jsonformatter.io/); *JSON Viewer* (https://codebeautify.org/online-json-editor); and *Online JSON Editor* (https://www.tutorialspoint.com/online_json_editor.htm).

All the above-mentioned JSON editors have similar layouts: they present two parallel displays, one containing the JSON codes and the other the tree structure of the file content. Some editors also have the option to convert JSON to other different formats such as *xml*, *csv*, and *yaml*. This enables the localizer to share the localized files with other internet users.

The *STRINGS* file format is specific to MacOS, which means that the localizer should use a Macintosh computer and MacOS text editors to localize these files. Since *.strings* format files are basically text, the use of MacOS and its applications is not mandatory. Any *text editor*, *source editor*, or *PO editor* working in the Windows operating system enables the localizer to translate the linguistic content of these files. After localization, the files are sent to the client who can integrate them into his/her MacOS application.

The *properties* file format is specific to the Java programming environment. Many computer programs created with this programming language store their user interface content in *.properties* files. In order to localize this file format, the localizer may use a simple text editor, an online PO editor, or one of the many online Java editors. Some of the Java editors available nowadays are: *Java Online IDE* (https://www.compilejava.net/); *Compile and Execute Java Online* (https://www.tutorialspoint.com/compile_java_online.php); *JDoodle* (https://www.jdoodle.com/online-java-compiler/); *Codiva*.io (https://www.codiva.io/p/c171f1e8-48f8-422e-bd8e-59364b7d4e75). All these editors enable the localizer to open, edit, save, and share localized files. Some of the editors allow the user to work without authentication, while others require authentication in order to save and/or share localized files.

YAML files can be created with different programming languages, the most current one being Ruby. This format is used to store text data and/or user interface data, which makes it an important format for localizers. A *yaml* file can be localized using a text editor, a PO editor, or one of the multiple online *yaml editors* on the Internet. Some of these editors include: *YAML Validator* (http://beautifytools.com/yaml-validator.php); *YAML Editor* (https://onlineyamltools.com/edit-yaml); *YAML Parser* (https://yaml-online-parser.appspot.com/); *YAML Formatter* (https://jsonformatter.org/yaml-formatter); and *Online YAML Tool* (https://www.toolfk.com/tool-format-yaml). All the mentioned YAML tools present similar functionality and allow the localizer to open, modify, save, and export YAML files. They are all easy to access, no authentication is needed, and all of them are free. It is important to note that, for the localization of YAML files, the localizer needs some IT skills.

The *lng* format is another user interface file format that is quite familiar to professional localizers since it is used by very popular web software. Since we have not found a specific online *lng* editor, we assume that this format may be localized using a simple text editor or a source code editor, or be imported into a PO editor.

3.5. Online Localization Platforms

Recent developments in computer assisted translation (CAT) have seen numerous connectivity functionalities for locally installed CAT Tools, such as *SDL Studio*, *MemoQ*, *WordFast Pro*, and *OmegaT*. Online CAT platforms represent a further development of CAT tools. Internet platforms such as *WordFast Anywhere*, *SmartCat*, *MateCat*, *Memsource*, and so on, represent a new trend in computer assisted translation.

A similar development can be observed in the field of localization. Over the past decade, complex desktop programs such as *SDL Passolo* and *Alchemy CATALYST* have integrated many connectivity functionalities. In the meantime, many online localization platforms have been developed. Localizers, translators and developers can access these platforms. These online tools integrate complex localization functions including *source code editors*, *translation memories*, *dictionaries*, and *glossaries*. In addition, many project management functionalities are now integrated on these virtual platforms: real-time communication with a localization team; collaborative localization activities; project management functionalities; support for online invoice generation; support for online payments; and cloud-based storage of project files.

Even though these systems provide remarkable functions and enable a localizer to speed-up their work, it is important to keep in mind that there are also disadvantages to using localization platforms. Some of these disadvantages relate to: *cloud data storage*; *confidentiality*; *remote access*; *crowd sourcing*; *machine translation*; and *costs*. All linguistic resources a localizer creates during the localization process are stored on a third party server in the cloud. As such, these platforms do not guarantee data confidentiality. If a technical problem occurs on the platform, access to the localization project may be heavily interrupted. Some of the platforms allow crowd sourcing, machine translation, and fan localization on their platforms, which can affect the quality of the target text. Another significant disadvantage consists of the high fees for membership of some platforms, making them unaffordable for young translators and localizers. Despite these disadvantages, online localization platforms are a growing trend and many software developers and project managers prefer them.

Nowadays, there are many popular online localization platforms. These include: *Crowdin* (crowdin.com); *Localise Direct* (www.localizedirect.com); *Localize* (www.localizejs.com); *Loco—Translation management for developers* (localise.biz); *Lokalise* (lokalise.com); *OneSky* (www.oneskyapp.com); *Transifex* (www.transifex.com); and *Weblate* (weblate.org). These online platforms may have a variety of forms and levels of complexity; however, they share many common features including: *translation memories*, *glossaries, dictionaries*, *project management functionalities*, *export/import functions*, *multiple format file support*, and so on. In the following, we will analyse each platform according to the following aspects: a) *type of access (paid for/demo/free)*; *b) online communication and collaborative work*; *c) management features*; *d) translation consistency*; *e) online bills*; *f) crowdsourcing/fan localization*; and g) *other features*. Since this paper aims to establish an inventory of online localization platforms with no focus on a particular brand, we will present them alphabetically in order to preserve the independence and objectivity of our analysis.

The first platform we discuss is *Crowdin.* It is a complex online localization platform providing a wide range of services and features for localization project management. Users can access *Crowdin* as a trial version for two months and they offer a number of commercial solutions to fit different localization needs. Exceptionally, the platform offers free access to the platform for open source projects. The platform enables a project manager to create his/her own localization team by inviting translators to his/her project. Online communication and collaborative localization are realized in real time. The workflow is automatically set up by the system, which enables translators to use translation memories, glossaries, and machine translation. *Crowdin* does not have functions for invoice management and payments, but it keeps precise statistics on the activity of each translator within a project. Crowdsourcing and fan localization is allowed by the system as the project manager can invite translators s/he desires through a shareable link. It is also possible to hire professional agencies and translators, or to use the LaaS services provided by *Crowdin*.

Localise (localise.biz) has an interface that allows the user to use the drag&drop command to upload files to be localized, which is very convenient. It is one of the most affordable online localization platforms since it offers both free and commercial versions. The free version is more appropriate for training students and young localizers since it has some limitations. Nevertheless, it enables the user to create localization projects and to use the system features for real-time localization projects. The system allows the project manager to create his/her team by inviting an unlimited number of translators to his/her project. It provides online communication support in real time and allows collaborative localization.

Localise is surprisingly agile and provides support for project management, translation memories, glossaries, and machine translation. Collaborative localization is also supported since the project manager can invite translators and localizers into his/her projects. The members of the team can work on different phases of the localization project. The activity of each member of the project is monitored with the aid of statistical data features. The system does not provide support for project management, invoice management, or payments.

Localize Direct (www.localizedirect.com) is an online localization platform focused on localization as a service (LaaS). It works as a virtual localization agency and, additionally, provides a content management system for localization (CMS). The system specialises in the field of game localization and can be accessed as a free trial version (limited to 180 days), or as a full commercial version. It has a user friendly drag&drop interface and is very flexible. A wide range of localization projects can be managed within *LocDirect CMS.LocDirect* and the *CMS* supports the complete workflow of a localization project and uses all necessary tools to ensure consistency of translation (TM, glossaries, machine translation). Online communication features are also provided by the system.

Localize (localizejs.com) is a cloud-based translation management system that allows developers to reach new markets through localization. The platform offers a multilingual user interface. It has a commercial version that enables the user to choose different plans, depending on the extent of his/her localization activities, but it can also be accessed as trial version for 14 days. The system provides communication features that allow the members of a localization team to collaborate in real time. They have different roles assigned in a specific localization project and can access different content within the project. A reporting feature keeps the project manager informed about the full localization activity of each member of the team. Project managers are able to customize the workflow of the localization project to fulfil specific needs. The general workflow is supported by default with the system providing functionalities such as: automatic content detection, in-context translation editor, and an additional quality check. The *Localize* system exerts a strong level of control on the number of team members. Only very pricey plans enable the project manager to customize the composition of his/her team. The sharing functionality of the system allows the developer/project manager to determine the members of the localization team. This means that localization using fans, crowdsourcing, in-house localizers, and freelance localizers are allowed. Like other platforms, *Localize* does not support invoice and cost management activities.

Another localization platform is *Lokalise* (lokalise.com). It is accessible as trial version for 14 days and there is also a free version of the platform, which is accessible if the user has stored at least 500 translation units on the platform server. For professionals, there are different commercial plans available. The system integrates an online collaborative code editor, which enables a team of localizers to work simultaneously on one project, exchange messages, and update the translation units.

Lokalize enables localizers to use translation memories, spelling and grammar checkers, glossaries, and machine translation. The localization is integrated within the development and deployment process and is realized in context. Many different in-context editors enable localizers to improve the quality of a translation by using a mobile in-context editor, a web in-context editor, and an autocomplete function. *Lokalise* provides *LaaS* services for developers who need to localize their products. It allows crowdsourcing, fan localization, and professional localization.

OneSky (oneskyapp.com) is promoted as a complete solution for localization. It provides localization services in more than 50 languages and the company collaborates with more than a thousand translators. Online user registration is free; the LaaS services offered by the platform have a fee. Nevertheless, the user can localize his/her documents by creating his/her own team of translators. Collaboration and communication within a localization project is very easy since the system allows the project manager to establish the role of each member of the team. The members of the team can communicate in real time, which speeds up the workflow and increases productivity. With its communication functionality, translators can propose new translations or, if they consider that the existing translation is well done, they can vote on different translation units of the project.

This CMS is more appropriate for the following types of project: *games*, *mobile applications*, *websites*, and *documentation*. The project manager can invite different categories of localizer to private projects, including localization fans, in-house translators, and freelance localizers. Crowdsourcing can also offer a solution for localization. The system does not offer support for invoice and payment management.

Transifex (transifex.com) is a cloud-based localization platform that offers a demo version for beginners and different commercial plans for professionals. The system displays in real time the activities of the localization project. Transifex provides LaaS services, but it also enables users to localize their own projects. Depending on the localization project, a translator can have distinct roles established by the project manager, such as translator, reviewer, or coordinator. The system uses translation memories, glossaries, and translation checks during different phases of localization. The system integrates different functionalities such as: translation memories, translation memory auto-fill, machine translation, and glossaries. *Transifex* also has an established community with numerous localizers. They can suggest translations and vote for existing translations they consider well done. The system uses statistical data in order to select the translation having the most votes from the *Transifex* community. This is the only online localization platform that integrates an online management billing system allowing the project manager to generate bills for all the members of the localization team.

Weblate (weblate.org) is a cloud-based platform created by volunteers and can be accessed free of charge. *Weblate* focuses on the localization of open source software. It offers free cloud-based storage space for these localization projects. The platform also provides a commercial storage space. *Weblate* basically consists of a list of public projects and a list of languages available for localization. Access to the platform is free for open source projects; other localization projects come under various commercial plans.

The user interface of the online localization platform consists of a list of projects. For each project, there are six different descriptors indicating the level of localization of each project, such as: *translated*, *untranslated*, *number of untranslated words*, *revisions*, *suggestions*, and *comments*. These descriptors allow the user to see the progress of localization for each project and to select the project s/he wants. Each project has a translation editor, glossaries, spell checker, and translation memory. Since participation in *Weblate* projects is open to everyone, teams working on different projects may change continuously, which makes collaborative work not so important. This is why the system does not incorporate chat and communication functions. Machine translation and invoice and payment management features are not supported. Concerning crowdsourcing and fan localization, we consider *Weblate* to be the optimal platform for this kind of work.

The eight localization platforms presented in this section highlight the wide range of cloud-based systems used in localization. This list is not exhaustive and there are many other online localization tools. A professional localizer should know how to use at least some of these very useful online platforms in order to improve the quality and the productivity of his/her professional activity. This list is not meant to be exhaustive, but illustrative and it is subject to change since localization tools are constantly evolving.

4. Conclusions

In conclusion, this paper presents a classification of the existing online tools involved in localization. The distinction between *online tools*, *cloud-based applications*, and *virtual platforms* illustrates the recent development and advancement of localization tools, and highlights the different categories of application a localizer can use. We think that this paper can help localizers to understand that they have access to a wide range of desktop and online localization tools and that is not necessary to use expensive software in order to deliver good quality localization. Sometimes it depends on the IT skills of the localizer and the choice of an effective tool.

The rich inventory of online localization tools suggests that localization is following the general trend of software development: virtualization. This means that localizers need to take into account not just the fact that localization requires in-depth technical knowledge of conventional localization tools, but also of online tools.

Finally, examining the features of online localization platforms, we note how they are influencing and transforming the process of localization. Features like: real-time communication, real-time actualization of localized data, cloud-based data storage, online billing, and so on, are completely transforming the localization process.

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La Traduction Assistee par Ordinateur Dans la Formation des Traducteurs Entre Efficacite et Efficience

Manuela Mihaescu

Introduction

L'accès à l'information, secondé par l'augmentation exponentielle des contenus, des sources disponibles, est, certes, un des premiers effets de la mondialisation. Il faut y ajouter la diversification des services et des produits et, conséquemment, une demande accrue d'adaptation permanente de ceux-ci. Il s'en suit que pour assurer leur circulation, les modes d'emploi, les tutoriels, manuels, etc. doivent être traduits, ce qui signifie une pression constante en termes de quantité et de vitesse sur l'opération traduisante. Si l'on y ajoute la dynamique de la production et de l'actualisation/innovation des produits, on comprendra combien il est urgent d'augmenter le rendement de celle-ci.

Aussi, productivité élevée, contenu diversifié, communication rapide/instantanée et multidirectionnelle, nouvelles exigences de qualité et résultats obtenus dans les plus brefs délais requièrent-ils la création / introduction de la normalisation, des procédures et de l'automatisation, conséquence naturelle de l'adaptation à ce dynamisme croissant. C'est devenu pratique courante pour les grandes agences de traduction, ou pour la traduction de projets multilingues complexes, d'utiliser des logiciels spécialisés, avec des technologies automatisées qui peuvent exécuter les commandes en temps voulu, même si la qualité du produit livré n'est pas toujours le critère principal. Dans ces conditions, il est évident que les traducteurs eux-mêmes optent pour des logiciels qui augmentent leur productivité (nombre de mots traduits) / minimum de temps) et pour des solutions offertes par les technologies de traduction automatique (TA), notamment celles qui utilisent des algorithmes d'apprentissage basés sur les réseaux neuronaux.

Ces cinq dernières années, l'évolution de la société au rythme des nouvelles technologies semble imposer l'adaptation du profil du traducteur et de son interaction avec les instruments dont il se sert et qui deviennent, sans conteste, indispensables en présence d'un volume de travail en progression constante. Perçus comme positifs du point de vue de la productivité (Ehrensberger-Dow et al. 2016), ces instruments demandent toutefois un effort soutenu pour être vraiment maîtriser et devenir efficaces, ce qui fait qu'à défaut de composantes fiables (mémoires de traduction substantielles, glossaires spécialisés, etc.) nombre de traducteurs préfèrent ne point les utiliser, cependant que d'autres réclament une certaine résistance lorsqu'il s'agit de modifier et d'adapter les programmes de formation. À leur avis, le système d'enseignement est tenu de procéder à un changement rapide de perspective et de former des traducteurs capables de répondre aux impératifs des demandes actuelles.

1. Compétences du traducteur dans une société multilingue

Une analyse succincte des *curricula* de diverses universités (de Roumanie ou d'ailleurs) montre, (statistiquement parlant) une tendance très nette concernant au moins l'intégration de ces outils de travail dans la formation des traducteurs. Les universités se sont montrées, donc, sensibles à d'appel du monde professionnel et ont essayé d'y donner suite.

Lancé en 2009, un projet pilote concernant la définition/promotion des standards de qualité et de bonnes pratiques dans l'enseignement traductologique, projet initié et mis en œuvre par le Réseau des Masters européens de traductologie (*European Master's in Translation - EMT*), s'était déjà proposé d'élaborer une « charte » destinée à donner un aperçu précis sur les compétences du traducteur « experts in multilingual and multimedia communication ». En fin de parcours, le document proposait un cadre de référence pour les masters spécialisés dans la formation des traducteurs des universités européennes*,* les compétences décrites (*Wheel of competence*) comprenant six domaines interdépendants[1].

Or, le progrès rapide dus aux technologies (notamment Internet, réseaux sociaux, intelligence artificielle) a suscité des modifications considérables presque du jour au lendemain, dans les industries de la langue. La provocation majeure pour le sujet qui nous intéresse, ce sont les technologies de traduction automatique (TA) (écrite et parlée) et de traduction assistée par ordinateur (TAO), auxquelles le marché et le milieu professionnel de la traduction ont répondu par une adaptation prompte. Il en a résulté qu'à leur tour les formations en la matière devaient suivre cette tendance et dispenser un enseignement à même de préparer les futurs traducteurs dans l'esprit du changement et de la pratique des nouveaux outils. Aussi, l'*EMT* proposait-il dès 2017, un nouveau cadre de référence[2] valable pour les années 2018-2024. Les caractéristiques définies par le document sont de beaucoup plus pragmatiques, plus appliquées et mettent

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[1] Voir à ce propos https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/emt_competences_translators_en.pdf
[2] Voir à ce propos le document *EMT Competence Framewok*, 2017, https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/emt_competence_fwk_2017_en_web.pdf

l'accent sur les compétences qui orientent la traduction vers « prestation de service en traduction » :

> The framework is based on the premise that "translation" is a process designed to meet an individual, societal or institutional need. It also recognises that it is a multi-faceted profession that covers the many areas of competence and skills required to convey meaning (generally, but not exclusively, in a written medium) from one natural language to another, and the many different tasks performed by those who provide a translation service.
>
> The framework therefore considers that translator education and training at Master's degree level should equip students not only with a deep understanding of the processes involved, but also with the ability to perform and provide a translation service in line with the highest professional and ethical standards. (4)

On y évalue les résultats de l'apprentissage selon *les connaissances, les habilités spécifiques* et *les compétences générales* acquises, chaque terme étant expliqué par le menu. Comme il se doit, c'est le concept de *compétence* visant cinq domaines principaux qui suit de près le *Zeitgeist*. Ce qui est important à retenir, c'est qu'en définissant la compétence de traduction, on souligne que : « the ability to interact with machine translation in the translation process is now an integral part of professional translation competence » et on inventorie comme *habilités* : « pre-edit source material for the purpose of potentially improving machine translation output quality, using appropriate pre-editing techniques » et, aussi, « apply post-editing to machine translation output using the appropriate post-editing levels and techniques according to the quality and productivity objectives, and recognise the importance of data ownership and data security issues » (EMT, *Competence Framework 2017* 8).

À la différence du cadre de référence de 2009, l'utilisation de la traduction automatique y figure en tant que caractéristique essentielle des *habilités de traduction ;* les techniques utilisées et la capacité de personnaliser certaines fonctions de celle-ci sont intégrées dans les compétences technologiques. On remarquera donc l'acceptation du fait que l'activité traduisante devient de plus en plus « technique », et que le traducteur a besoin, de nos jours, de *connaissances avancées* en matière de *technologie de information* et de gestion traductologique pour savoir personnaliser et adapter à ses propres exigences les outils de son travail : « apply other tools in support of language and translation technology, such as workflow management software » (EMT, *Competence Framework 2017* 9).

Les études réalisées par Doherty et Moorkens (2013), Zhang et Cai (2015), Thelen (2016), Mellinger (2017), Rodríguez-Castro (2018), Rothwell et Svoboda (2019) mettent en évidence les modalités à travers lesquelles les universités peuvent et réussissent à s'adapter, respectivement à inclure la technologie dans la formation des compétences professionnelles essentielles pour le futur traducteur. Les conclusions générales de ces approches font état de méthodologies et de techniques variées, mais sont concordantes en ce qui concerne l'urgence et l'importance de ce type d'instruction : le profil actuel du traducteur ne saurait été conçu sans une formation solide en traduction assistée et traduction automatique, gestion terminologique, pré-édition et post-édition du matériel à traduire ou traduit.

En règle générale, les compagnies actives dans le domaine imposent lors de l'embauche l'utilisation d'au moins un outil de traduction assistée (voir l'étude de Gouadec réalisée déjà en 2007 et celle de Gaspari, Almaghout, Doherty de 2015), cependant que Mossop suggérait dès 2006 que cette modalité de traduire « is being *driven* by business pressures » (Mossop, *Has Computerization Changed Translation?* 790). Il faudrait y ajouter la pression des grandes compagnies IT qui développent des systèmes de traduction et qui, forcément, essaient de promouvoir leurs produits dans un contexte concurrentiel, autant dans le milieu professionnel que dans celui universitaire. *Captatio benevolentiae*, les protocoles de collaboration avec le milieu académique concernent la possibilité offerte (gratuitement) aux universités d'utiliser les systèmes de traduction, ce qui n'est pas sans avoir de retombées dans l'activité ultérieure des traducteurs.

Une étude en miroir des deux perspectives – universitaire et professionnelle – pourrait faire remarquer combien, ces dernières années, le profil du traducteur a-t-il subi de mutations : d'un individu qui gère plutôt seul ses connaissances et ses instruments, il est devenu celui qui, du moins dans les agences de traduction et les institutions centrales, *a fortiori* dans les institutions européennes, s'occupe plus de l'édition/post-édition du texte obtenu par traduction automatique, que d'une traduction de celui-ci à partir de zéro (Kalantzi 2017). De même, miser sur le travail en équipe, en milieu virtuel ou collaboratif, développer des aptitudes de gestion deviennent des éléments incontournables pour son travail, d'autant plus que les compétences de gestion visent, en plus, des (sous) composantes telles : maîtriser et gérer les systèmes de gestion terminologique, les mémoires de traduction, extraire les informations, identifier et utiliser des ressources adéquates, qui dépassent de loin les simples habilités « instrumentales ».

Il va de soi que le processus traduisant suppose, lors du transfert d'une langue à l'autre, de solides connaissances linguistiques, une pratique soutenue des deux (voire plusieurs) langues, des compétences de recherche ; d'autre part, connaître et utiliser correctement les ressources documentaires, les systèmes de traduction assistée par ordinateur (qu'ils intègrent) facilitent, certes, le processus traduisant et sont, au même titre, indispensables pour garantir la qualité d'un produit final susceptible de répondre aux exigences du marché contemporain.

2. Le système de traduction assistée

Nous rappelons, très brièvement, pour mémoire, ce en quoi consiste un système de traduction assistée et quelles en sont les composantes essentielles. Il s'agit d'un ensemble qui inclut certains outils spécialisés : mémoire de traduction (MT), base de données terminologiques (BT), outil d'alignement, dictionnaires, concordanciers, correcteurs grammaticaux, moteurs de traduction automatique, etc., auxquels le traducteur peut avoir recours aussi bien lors de la pré-traduction (pré-édition), lors de la traduction proprement dite ou encore lors de la post-édition, c'est-à-dire la révision finale ou l'évaluation de la qualité du texte traduit. Les systèmes actuels permettent aussi le travail en milieu collaboratif et certains sont en mesure de répondre aux demandes de personnalisation des situations de traduction par l'ajout de modules d'intelligence artificielle.

À partir de *Translator's Workbench*, du lancement de *Trados 5* et des versions suivantes jusqu'à *Studio 2019*, ou encore *MemoQ*, *Memsource*, *Wordfast*, *DéjàVu*, *Star Transit*, *OmegaT* ou *MatCate*, *Wordbee*, etc., on observe une évolution soutenue dans la conception et le design de ces outils et surtout une préoccupation évidente pour leur ergonomie cognitive[1]. Les créateurs commencent à tenir compte des particularités humaines mais, ils s'intéressent aussi aux spécificités du processus de traduction et à sa possible optimisation.

3. L'efficacité et l'efficience des systèmes d'aide à la traduction dans la formation

La qualité du texte traduit dépend des connaissances et des compétences du traducteur, mais, implicitement, des outils dont il dispose. Aussi, les caractéristiques des logiciels et des instruments qu'ils intègrent sont-ils un critère incontournable : la qualité, l'adaptation aux fonctions et opérations spécifiques de la traduction de la manière la plus intuitive, en font la différence. Ces caractéristiques respectent, en grandes lignes, un flux de travail similaire au processus classique, avec les adaptations inhérentes.

Le terme associé le plus fréquemment à l'évaluation des produits informatiques est *l'utilisabilité* (ou usabilité), définie par la norme ISO 9241-11 comme étant le degré d'efficacité, d'efficience et de satisfaction obtenu par l'utilisateur lors d'un travail sur objectifs spécifiques, dans un contexte donné.

La perspective que nous proposons ici est celles d'une réflexion, à des fins pédagogiques, portant sur le rapport compétences techniques / compétences traductologiques nécessaires lors des étapes du processus de traduction assistée et sur l'analyse/mise en évidence des facteurs

[1] Précisons d'emblée que notre démarche n'envisage pas une analyse comparative des différents logiciels de traduction assistée, afin d'établir lequel serait le plus efficace ; mais elle ne saurait ignorer non plus le rythme accéléré des adaptations/innovations/interaction de ces systèmes.

significatifs dans le rapport *efficacité* vs *efficience*[1]. Il faut rappeler que notre démarche part du suivi attentif et de longue date de la manière dont les étudiants interagissent avec / adoptent les outils d'aide à la traduction, la manière dont ils réussissent à s'approprier et à appliquer la méthodologie de la TAO.

Nous commencerons par la description du flux du processus de traduction et de son découpage en étapes, cependant que nous définirons le type de compétences requises pour chaque situation. Nous verrons, au fur et à mesure, quand et dans quelles conditions nous pourrons parler de l'*efficacité* et ou de l'*efficience* dans l'utilisation de ces outils au niveau de ces étapes.

3.1. Le flux de la traduction et son découpage en étapes

Dans ce qui suit, nous ferons référence au fonctionnement des certains outils de traduction assistée, en prenant en considération leurs fonctions principales communes, sans référence à un système précis. Il faut mentionner que pendant les TD ou les divers projets, les étudiants ont eu la possibilité d'utiliser de nombreux systèmes présents sur le marché.

Le projet de traduction. Le point initial de toute activité tient à la définition (la configuration) du projet, parce que tous les systèmes de

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[1] Dans le dictionnaire Larousse les termes *efficacité* et *efficience* sont considérés synonymes. Il y a cependant une nuance qui, dans l'usage, fait la différence. L'e*fficacité* se réfère au rendement (« Caractère d'une personne, d'un organisme efficace, qui produit le maximum de résultats avec le minimum d'efforts, de moyens ») ; l'*efficience* renvoie à la performance (« Capacité d'un individu ou d'un système de travail d'obtenir de bonnes performances dans un type de tâche donnée »). Cette différence est plus visible dans le cas des systèmes techniques, les paramètres de l'*efficacité* n'étant pas, souvent, les mêmes pour l'*efficience*. Le sens que nous donnons à l'*efficacité* dans le processus traduisant vise *la productivité de celui-ci en présence d'un système de traduction assistée*, tandis que l'*efficience* touche au *rapport entre l'effort et l'efficacité* de celui-ci.

traduction assistée fonctionnent à partir de l'idée de projet (soit-il traduisant, terminologique, alignement du texte, etc.). Définir le projet signifie l'introduction de ses données-clé dans la fenêtre de départ : nom du projet, langues de travail, informations concernant la thématique (telles le domaine, le sujet) mais aussi le client, données administratives (nom de celui qui a créé le projet, date de création, délais, etc.). Cette étape se retrouve dans la composante de gestion des outils de TAO et facilite la planification du processus de traduction, en son ensemble, depuis l'arrivée du texte à son attribution à un traducteur. Dans ce module de gestion on peut aussi suivre facilement le progrès du processus (traduction, révision, etc.). Certains systèmes ont également une configuration *a minima* d'un générateur de prix qui peut être configuré en fonction de certains paramètres et / ou des données client/prix.

Une première remarque est liée aux types de connaissances essentielles mises en œuvre lors de cette étape, car les caractéristiques du logiciel obligent le traducteur (l'étudiant) à acquérir une pratique (ne serait-ce que minimale) de gestion de projet (compétences managériales), de même que des compétences techniques (instrumentales) moyennes, concernant les *métadonnées*. L'importance de la structuration de celles-ci tient dans le mode dont elles peuvent être utilisées ultérieurement (pour la création des bases de données sur les projets de traduction et des clients), la création de modèles pouvant servir à d'autres projets, car l'efficience du travail augmente justement en fonction de l'amélioration progressive de ces connaissances techniques en vue de configurer des modèles (*templates*) destinés à un emploi récurrent, semi-automatique.

Une fois le projet créé, il est suivi par l'importation des documents à traduire, documents qui se présentent sous plusieurs formats. Il arrive souvent que le traducteur reçoit le texte source dans un format qui exige une pré-édition (préparation à la traduction). Savoir comment convertir certains formats, comment extraire certains types d'informations (images, diagrammes, tableaux, etc.), isolés du document et édités (si nécessaire), demande des connaissances informatiques moyennes, voire avancées, en fonction de la complexité du type de documents. Cette étape, qui ne prétend pas forcément des compétences traductologiques, ne peut être franchie avec succès que par les étudiants dont les compétences en matière de traitement de texte sont avancées.

Le pas suivant, c'est la création ou, le cas échéant, l'importation de mémoires de traduction et la création/l'importation de bases terminologiques. C'est là des ressources actives qui peuvent faire économiser du temps dans la recherche terminologique et offrir des suggestions ou de nouvelles solutions auxquelles le traducteur n'aurait, peut-être, point pensé. De leur côté, les bases terminologiques peuvent contenir non seulement les termes existants, mais aussi des informations supplémentaires (définition, contexte, informations grammaticales, etc.). À la différence des glossaires simples, l'utilisation des bases de données offre une aide précieuse pour la désambiguïsation des termes, le choix du meilleur équivalent et, partant, un temps de documentation moindre. Nous partons de la prémisse que ces ressources (MT et BT) sont correctes et consistantes (ce qui n'arrive pas toujours dans la pratique), car l'édition, la correction et la mise à jour des mémoires de traduction ou des bases terminologiques ont des incidences majeures sur l'efficacité du processus de la TAO et, *a fortiori*, sur la qualité de la traduction. Aussi, à condition d'être correctes et consistantes, les deux ressources, peuvent-elles entraîner une réelle augmentation de la *productivité* et *de la qualité*, au moins en ce qui regarde la cohérence terminologique ou phraséologique et la mise en contexte du terme. Il y a, certes, d'autres outils qui contribuent à accroître l'efficacité, tels que les dictionnaires, les concordanciers, les logiciels qui permettent la rechercher de syntagmes dans le texte source, dans la mémoire de traduction ou dans le corpus de ressources utilisé. Dans ce cas, connaître et configurer correctement les paramètres de recherche (formes dérivées, inflexions) peuvent faire ressortir l'opportunité de l'interrogation, l'efficience de l'opération étant à son tour plus élevée.

La possibilité de créer un corpus spécialisé et de l'utiliser comme source principale lors de la traduction fait partie également des caractéristiques de ces logiciels de TAO. La recherche qui y est intégrée présente un avantage significatif pour l'étape documentaire quant au temps imparti à celle-ci. De cette façon, le nombre de mots traduits/intervalle de temps peut augmenter proportionnellement à l'étendue et à la cohérence/consistance de la MT et de la BT. Les compétences requises dans ce cas sont, à côté de la recherche/extraction d'informations, des compétences terminologiques, traductologiques, mais aussi des compétences techniques moyennes. Certains auteurs (LeBlanc 2013) affirment toutefois qu'il y aurait là un écueil : en utilisant seulement les MT et BT, le traducteur pourrait être tenté, étant donné le temps limité dont il dispose, d'ignorer d'autres ressources, de devenir plus « paresseux » et de ne prendre en compte que les MT et BT. Il est, donc, fondamental que les données offertes par ces sources soient complètes et correctes ; des commentaires attirent aussi l'attention sur le phénomène de propagation des erreurs dans les MT et BT en l'absence d'une réactualisation ou des révisions de qualité périodiques « they may become inaccurate over time (e.g., if terminology changes) or they may be inappropriate in a given context (e.g., if they contain homonyms or are in an inappropriate register) » (Bowker 19).

Les étudiants sont particulièrement réceptifs vis-à-vis de ces ressources : ils apprennent rapidement et facilement à s'en servir, considèrent qu'elles sont fort utiles pour optimiser le temps de la traduction, même si, parfois, ils doivent procéder à une édition préalable ou introduire des corrections ; ils reconnaissent aussi que le foisonnement des variantes proposées risque parfois de les « embarrasser » plutôt que de les aider.

Le processus de traduction. Dans une description des étapes d'une traduction « classique », celle qui figure en premier, c'est l'analyse du texte source qui renvoie, en fait, à l'analyse micro ou macrotextuelle et suppose la lecture intégrale du texte pour en surprendre le sens global, l'agencement, la fonction (l'intention de communication), le style, la qualité de l'écriture et identifier les situations qui peuvent poser problème pour la traduction ou qui demandent des éclaircissements : les ambiguïtés linguistiques, les formes particulières de l'expression, les abréviations, les formulations bizarres ou impropres, etc. Une fois cette analyse linguistique achevée, une seconde étape est destinée à l'analyse terminologique et à la documentation sur le domaine, la recherche appliquée des termes, leur validation par le bénéficiaire ou un spécialiste. Même si elles ne sont pas décrites de manière consciente et avec méthode, les analyses textuelles et terminologiques sont réalisées à plusieurs niveaux qui regroupent des aspects discursifs, référentiels, cohésifs, stylistiques ou expressifs.

L'utilisation d'un logiciel de TAO a tendance à brûler cette étape, le temps accordé à ce type d'analyse se réduisant de manière symptomatique. Il n'est pas moins vrai que les outils de la TAO contiennent eux aussi une fonction d'« analyse » du document source, mais celle-ci joue sur d'autres paramètres. Elle comprend, en l'occurrence, une phase d'analyse statistique qui rend compte des similarités (totales ou partielles), des répétitions et quasi-répétitions, de l'homogénéité intrinsèque et divers autres éléments : nombre de mots, espaces, segments, etc. Suite à ces « analyses » on obtient un rapport qui est un instrument important dans la négociation avec le client concernant les prix et les délais.

Quant à la terminologie, on parlera d'une phase d'« extraction des termes » en vue d'obtenir une liste de terme « candidats ». C'est la série des mots-clés, les plus représentatifs par leur fréquence dans le texte et qui peuvent être répertoriés (après le tri du traducteur) dans la BT. Ces fonctions peuvent être affinées à travers de nouveaux paramètres tels les délimiteurs, le nombre de mots, la fréquence minimale / maximale d'apparition, le degré de signification, etc. Les résultats, les plus pertinents sont importés automatiquement dans la base terminologique ; une fois documentés, ils serviront à la traduction en cours ou à venir.

La phase d'« analyse » du texte, dans le processus de TAO n'envisage pas le contenu du texte, mais la configuration des paramètres du logiciel qui assurent l'efficience de la pré-traduction ; de savoir mettre en route ces « méliorateurs » est directement proportionnel à l'efficience de ce type d'analyse.

L'interface du module de traduction se présente sur deux colonnes : dans celle de gauche le texte source, cependant que la colonne de droite est réservée au texte que l'on traduit au fur et à mesure. Une fois le texte importé pour la traduction, il apparaîtra dans la fenêtre du logiciel découpé en segments. La segmentation est automatique, selon des règles spécifiques à langue source. Généralement, la segmentation suit la phrase, le point étant considéré, en général, le délimiteur principal (qui peut être également la virgule ou la fin du paragraphe). Ainsi, un segment peut correspondre à une proposition mais aussi à un mot, un titre, etc. Il n'est donc pas nécessairement une unité de texte qui a du sens. Éditer les règles de segmentation (ou les règles d'exception), pour obtenir une segmentation (unité de traduction) plus cohérente, nécessite souvent l'utilisation des expressions régulières et fait appel à des connaissances linguistiques et informatiques avancées ; l'effort y trouve pourtant sa raison d'être, car configurer le logiciel pour une segmentation adéquate accroît l'efficience du travail.

Identifier, créer ou utiliser des listes d'abréviations, des listes de mots qui ne doivent pas être traduits, « bloquer » certains segments (pour qu'on ne puisse pas les modifier), copier automatiquement certains segments du texte source (nom propres, chiffres, etc.), copier et convertir automatiquement certaines données, introduire des commentaires – toutes ces opérations se révèlent utiles et augmentent la productivité de l'acte traduisant. Aussi est-il impératif d'insister sur l'acquis de ce type de compétences techniques et de motiver les étudiants dans leur effort.

La traduction du texte se fait segment par segment. Le logiciel va chercher dans la mémoire de traduction des suggestions (correspondances) pour chaque segment, en comparant les segments du texte source avec ceux existant dans la mémoire de traduction. Le pourcentage de correspondances trouvées indique qu'il y a un degré de similarité entre le texte source à traduire et le texte provenant de la MT. Les chiffres parlent de : correspondance exacte (100%), correspondance de contexte, correspondance sous 100% ou pas de correspondance.

Pendant la traduction, la mémoire de traduction peut être utilisée en ligne ou hors ligne, par plusieurs traducteurs à la fois, ce qui représente un bonus pour les projets d'envergure ou collaboratifs. Souvent, elle peut venir du client (le cas de textes spécifiques) mais aussi d'un moteur de traduction automatique ; actuellement, presque tout système de TAO incorpore d'ailleurs un module de traduction automatique.

De nombreuses études se penchent sur ce moment-clé de la traduction, car configurer les règles de segmentation et utiliser la MT sont révélateurs pour l’acte traduisant. Macken (2009) soutient qu’avoir recours à de petits découpages (<propositions>) implique un nombre croissant de correspondances dans la mémoire de traduction, mais aussi un degré de baisse de l’attention pendant la traduction. La segmentation produit de même des fluctuations de la concentration, l’attention étant sollicitée par le segment et le contexte immédiat et moins par la cohésion du texte, son sens global, la fluence ou le naturel de l’expression. LeBlanc affirme à son tour que la segmentation exerce des contraintes involontaires sur la créativité et sur la liberté du traducteur de s'éloigner des modèles syntaxiques du texte source, ceux-ci agissant, à l’instar des MT, comme des « barrières à la créativité » (LeBlanc 7).

Il y a d’autres études qui attirent l'attention sur la « variété » des styles de traduction générés par les solutions proposées par les mémoires de traduction. Claude Bédard mentionne en ce sens, le manque de cohésion au niveau du texte et du style, une certaine discontinuité terminologique, et parle d’une « *salade de phrases* d’un goût douteux » (Bédard 42) que le traducteur doit affronter et remettre au point, sinon il va avoir un déroulement des phrases et pas une idée. Ces mêmes problèmes du style sont mis en cause par d’autres auteurs encore (Bowker 2005), tout comme les interférences linguistiques (Martín-Mor 2011) ou la qualité en termes de consistance et de correction des MT, responsables d’un impact significatif sur la fiabilité et la cohérence du texte cible (Dillon et Fraser 2006 ; LeBlanc 2013). Au cas où le traducteur travaille avec les MT du client, il peut y avoir des situations où certains fragments soient bloqués ou contiennent des indications concernant une traduction standard ; dans ce cas, l'empreinte et la responsabilité du traducteur sont de beaucoup diminuées, et le manque de cohérence ou d'unité stylistique est plus marqué, Mossop (2006) expliquant pourquoi ce type de traduction ressemble à une « revision of old TL material from a variety of sources to make it match the source text » (790).

Cependant, au cas où le traducteur a recours aux solutions proposées par un moteur de traduction automatique, à base d'algorithmes de calcul neuronal, y puiser des suggestions s'avère être une réussite, car les résultats sont de loin plus que satisfaisants. Way (2018) précise :

> [Neural MT] output can be deceptively fluent. Sometimes perfect target-language sentences are output, and less thorough translators and proofreaders may be seduced into accepting such translations, despite the fact that they might not be related to the source sentence at hand at all.

À la différence des MT, dans la traduction automatique les solutions sont obtenues suite à des calculs mathématiques. Techniquement parlant, ces moteurs utilisent des algorithmes qui, s'ils trouvent des correspondances dans des contextes identiques, offrent la « traduction correcte ». Ce que les étudiants doivent savoir, c'est que ces algorithmes sont conditionnés par la structure des paires de langues, le type du texte source, le degré de standardisation du langage utilisé et le statut des langues (majoritaire ou minoritaire) dont dépend le volume de textes dans la langue *x* disponibles sur Internet. Il y a donc lieu de leur faire confiance (ou de s'en méfier si les occurrences sont plutôt rares), les compétences traductologiques veillant ici à prévenir les dérapages.

La révision et l'évaluation de la qualité de la traduction. La révision et l'évaluation de la qualité linguistique du texte traduit bénéficient, donc, d'outils efficaces, à condition que les grilles créées à cette intention soient correctes et adéquates. La modalité de réalisation de celles-ci exige la connaissance de certaines caractéristiques décrites généralement de manière quantitative (voir, par exemple, LISA, etc.). Ainsi, les types d'erreurs qui peuvent être configurés seraient-ils : traductions erronées, modifications du sens, terminologie inadéquate ou floue, fausses équivalences ; conversions incorrectes (chiffres, standards, etc.), erreurs grammaticales, omissions / ajouts ; problèmes de style, de clarté, de ponctuation. Les erreurs peuvent être groupées en plusieurs catégories selon la : conformité (ajouts, omissions, segments non traduits, segments incorrectement traduits) ; la fluence (grammaire, orthographe, ponctuation, incohérence, inconsistance), le style (registre, expressions idiomatiques, etc.), la terminologie (cohérence, constance, adéquation, etc.), le respect des standards, la mise en forme originale, etc. En y ajoutant des valeurs ou attributs, en fonction de la gravité de l'erreur, (mineure, modérée ou sévère), on obtient une résultante qui évalue, dans une certaine mesure, la qualité du texte, étant donné que le rapport qualitatif d'évaluation dépend beaucoup de la nature des items et de la structure de la grille. Une fois encore, à côté des compétences linguistiques et traductologiques propres à l'évaluation, les compétences techniques et de gestion doivent être prises en compte, car elles garantissent l'adéquation de la grille et le choix des paramètres permettant de la raffiner et de la rendre moins permissive. Pourtant, la qualité des évaluations à l'aide des outils de TAO dépend de nombreux facteurs tels que : les différences de structure entre les langues, la typologie textuelle, les paramètres choisis, le système de valeurs, mais aussi des connaissances et de l'expertise de l'évaluateur qui utilise les grilles[1].

[1] Pour une description méthodologique voir Hernández Morin et al. (2017), de

Desktop publishing (DTP) ou le format final. C'est la forme finale du texte source qui prescrit le format du texte traduit. Si le premier est correctement édité, il ne sera pas « surchargé » de balises qui, le plus souvent, sont difficiles à gérer et demandent une attention accrue pour ne pas être supprimés ou modifiés par accident. Le traducteur dispose toutefois de quelques options qui lui permettent de copier, de vérifier et d'ajouter automatiquement les balises dans le texte cible, en gardant de la sorte le format initial.

Garder la forme du texte source est un avantage non-négligeable de la TAO, surtout pour les formats complexes. Toutefois, la forme transférée ne reste la même pendant et après la traduction, que si la structure du document source a été correctement interprétée par le logiciel. Si avant d'être importé dans le logiciel, le texte initial a été converti (reconverti) d'un format à un autre, sans un minimum de pré-édition, le traducteur aura affaire à un texte « surchargé » de balises, ce qui rend son travail plus ardu (sinon parfois impossible), car ces éléments sont des perturbateurs majeurs. La pré-édition est en fait une « révision technique » initiale du texte qui vise à éliminer des éléments parasites pour le logiciel de TAO. D'un point de vue linguistique, elle consiste plutôt à parcourir et vérifier le texte en vue de sa segmentation.

3.2. Quelques considérations pédagogiques

Les études concernant les systèmes TAO (Ehrensberger-Dow et al. 2016) ont montré que la plupart de ceux-ci ont un degré d'*efficacité* important. Pour ce qui est de leur *efficience*, les avis sont partagés : connaître à fond

même que Mellinger (2018) et Mossop (2019) qui examinent la manière dont l'évaluation de la qualité est rapportée aux procédés d'édition et de révision.

ces logiciels suppose du temps, car, soit ils ont trop de fonctions que les traducteurs, même chevronnés, n'utilisent pratiquement jamais, soit l'emplacement de certains boutons (options) sur l'interface n'est pas facilement déductible et mémorable, etc.

Le point de vue de nos étudiants. Relativement à l'évaluation de l'efficacité, à la manière dont on traduit en se servant de ces outils (il s'agit du rapport au temps pris comme principal déterminant), les étudiants considèrent que l'utilisation des logiciels accroît l'efficacité de leur travail, qu'ils mettent, en fait, moins de temps à finaliser la traduction. En tant qu'éléments définitoires de l'efficacité, ils relèvent : la possibilité d'user de mémoires de traduction et de bases terminologiques (les fonctions les plus utiles, même si on doit les éditer) ; la segmentation du texte (facilitant la traduction) ; l'affichage parallèle du texte source et du texte cible dans la même fenêtre ; la possibilité de garder la forme initiale du texte (éviter une édition ultérieure) : l'interface conviviale et notamment intuitive (de certains systèmes) qui ne réclame pas de connaissances avancées d'informatiques. Quant aux systèmes qui incluent des options de gestion de l'activité traduisante, les étudiants apprécient la possibilité de partager le texte entre plusieurs traducteurs, de même que partager une mémoire de traduction ou une base terminologique et en général les facilités offertes pour le travail en équipe lors de grands projets.

Par ailleurs, ils reprochent à certains logiciels la présence / visibilité d'un grand nombre de balises (dans certains systèmes) et le surcroît d'attention requise; ils relèvent aussi les problèmes d'interprétation pour ce qui est de la structure du texte source et la nécessité d'effectuer une pré-édition ; ils remarquent le fait que la configuration des règles de segmentation n'est pas toujours appropriée au texte source.

Afin d'évaluer l'*efficience* de ces systèmes, le repère pris en considération est la difficulté d'apprentissage, à savoir (1) le temps nécessaire pour apprendre à utiliser les programmes et (2) le nombre d'options utilisées rapporté à l'ensemble des options totales du système. Ces aspects ont été suivis pendant les travaux dirigés et des projets spécifiques, par observation directe (évolution individuelle, évolution du groupe pendant les deux semestres du master, depuis l'année 2015), tests, dissertations finales et traductions attachées. Nos remarques coïncident avec les conclusions des étudiants qui apprennent très rapidement l'utilisation des fonctions principales des systèmes qui leur permettent de traduire, de corriger et d'exporter le document traduit. Une partie des étudiants arrive également à maîtriser la fonction de révision du texte, cependant que le pourcentage de ceux qui utilisent l'évaluation qualitative est moindre. Pour ce qui est des grilles d'évaluation, leur élaboration fonctionnelle demande un effort soutenu et des disponibilités plus importantes que les étudiants ne sont pas toujours enclins à fournir.

On remarquera que ces systèmes sont d'autant plus efficients que certaines étapes du processus de traduction peuvent devenir automatiques. Certaines fonctions qu'on peut algorithmiser, sont efficientes si elles sont correctement configurées dans le programme. En utilisant la seule configuration implicite, on peut obtenir une certaine efficacité, mais l'efficience en est moindre. En fin de compte, une activité efficiente dépend du degré de sa personnalisation, de son adaptation à l'objectif précis. Or, une configuration raffinée par la qualité et la minutie des interrogations, qui soit à même d'offrir de bons résultats, ne s'obtient que si l'effort cognitif et important et constant. Encourager les étudiants en ce sens suppose créer une motivation forte, précise et à long terme, trouver les arguments, comme on le verra plus loin, dans l'évolution même du métier.

À l'heure actuelle, les études qui décrivent/analysent l'impact des outils de la TAO sur l'activité traduisante (Dragsted 2006 ; Paulsen Christensen 2011 ; Pym 2011 ; Maureen Ehrensberger-Dow 2014, 2016 ; Doherty 2016), retiennent, en conclusions générales, les modifications significatives qu'entraîne ce genre de pratique pour l'ensemble du processus de traduction mais, aussi, sur la dimension cognitive du traducteur.

Dans l'activité quotidienne de traduction, que nous appelions plus haut « classique », les traducteurs sont habitués à traiter des textes fort différents ; les plus expérimentés sont capables d'atteindre une certaine vitesse de l'opération traduisante même dans le cas de textes complexes, surtout s'ils maîtrisent le domaine. La traduction « classique » suppose aussi une certaine « intimité » avec le texte, les traducteurs font plus attention aux nuances, à la fonction et au rôle du texte source, à la cohésion et à la structure thématique du texte cible, au public visé et à l'adaptation du texte à celui-ci. Les *décisions*, les choix stratégiques et traductologiques tiennent compte de ces préalables.

Dans le cas de la traduction assistée, il s'avère, selon le monitoring de l'utilisation des logiciels par les étudiants et les études mentionnées plus haut, que les compétences stratégiques, de l'analyse du texte se manifestent plus discrètement ; celles qui priment, ce sont les compétences procédurales. C'en est une suite logique, si l'on pense à l'automatisation d'une grande parties de l'activité traduisante, considérée, il n'y a pas longtemps, comme étant « exclusivement » humaine. Il devient évident que le traducteur doit s'adapter et faire des instruments d'assistance (MT, BT et corpus intégrés) une sorte de *base de connaissances*, une

« extension » de sa propre mémoire. Comme ces instruments sont disponibles à l'instant et en grande quantité, certains auteurs (voir plus haut) vont même jusqu'à affirmer qu'ils font baisser la charge du mémoire de travail du traducteur, sa capacité de chercher / retrouver les informations étant également puissamment influencée.

Le découpage du texte en segments rend plus difficile la perspective de l'ensemble, du sens global et de la cohésion ; certains traducteurs soutiennent que la traduction devient ainsi une activité décontextualisée. Par ailleurs, il n'est pas moins vrai que la seule utilisation de la traduction assistée risque, dans le temps, de donner à l'opération traduisante l'aspect d'une *chasse des équivalents* les plus adéquats au détriment de l'adaptation du texte à la langue cible et de la reproduction de la situation de communication. Par contre, dans leur majorité, les étudiants apprécient cette fonction qui les aide à avancer plus rapidement. De même, l'affichage des textes en parallèle, qui permet de mieux suivre l'ordre des paragraphes, est considéré un avantage important.

Si, jusqu'à présent, la traduction était considérée un processus de « recréation » du message, qui porte « l'empreinte » du style et de la capacité du traducteur de rendre dans la langue cible les informations du texte source, dans les conditions d'un emploi exclusif de la TAO/TA, elle tend à devenir plutôt le choix d'*une* forme puisée dans la multitude de formes existantes dans les mémoires de traduction. Ce sont là des constructions qui ne portent plus la marque personnelle du traducteur et ont tendance à *s'anonymiser* dans une certaine mesure. Cette propension est caractéristique à l'époque numérique où l'information est partout et n'appartient à … personne, universellement disponible à toute heure, en tout lieu.

Il ne faut cependant pas oublier que l'utilisation de ces systèmes, dans lesquels les outils nécessaires à l'activité du traducteur fonctionnent de manière intégrée (de la gestion de projet à la documentation, la traduction, la révision ou l'évaluation), a le mérite indéniable d'aider les étudiants à développer des compétences multidisciplinaires qui vont jusqu'à l'interaction avec le client ou la réalisation d'une évaluation qualitative de la traduction. Mais tous ces éléments sont conditionnés par *les* procédures qu'offre le système de traduction. Aussi, le traducteur (l'étudiant) devra-t-il bien maîtriser le logiciel afin de pouvoir le contrôler et en user selon ses besoins.

Au fur et à mesure que les technologies d'automatisation se développeront, la traduction ne sera plus un domaine réservé aux seuls spécialistes, elle deviendra *un service d'utilité publique* où le système informatique ne remplira plus le rôle d'un simple outil, mais se changera en une « extension » du traducteur. Les compétences technologiques de haut niveau et la capacité d'interagir avec les logiciels sont d'ores et déjà un passage obligé pour le traducteur, et elles tendent à occuper une place privilégiée dans toute formation.

Conclusions

Dans le cadre de référence formulé par l'*EMT* (2017), les habilités d'utilisation de la TAO ou de la TA et de coordination / gestion concernent, de manière spécifique, la traduction. Il est certain que des connaissances avancées de ces technologies s'imposent dans le métier et viennent rejoindre les habilités de recherche, la gestion terminologique, les techniques d'extraction d'informations, à côté des compétences professionnelles propres à la traduction, la gestion des projets, la relation (voire la négociation) avec le client, le travail en équipe ou, encore, les aspects qui tiennent au travail sous pression, à la tolérance au stress, etc.

Nos propos ont eu comme ligne de mire l'*efficacité* et l'*efficience* de l'utilisation des systèmes d'aide à la traduction, en contexte pédagogique. Les études consultées de même que notre propre suivi des étudiants attestent la nécessité d'insister dans la formation universitaire sur l'acquis de ce type de compétences à un niveau avancé, d'autant plus qu'elles sont en train de devenir essentielles à toute formation. Nous avons essayé, en décrivant les étapes et les procédés, de démontrer comment on peut faire accroître l'efficience des systèmes. Dans leur majorité ceux-ci sont efficaces et leur objectif déclaré – augmenter la productivité – est atteint, sous réserve que les mémoires de traduction et les bases terminologiques soient de bonne qualité. Si les ressources sont consistantes et correctes, on peut parler aussi d'une certaine qualité du texte traduit. Or, en l'absence d'une connaissance détaillée des programmes, c'est-à-dire en l'absence d'une configuration adéquate des paramètres de ceux-ci, ces mêmes systèmes ne sont pas (toujours) efficients. L'efficience s'obtient par une pratique assidue et par un approfondissement constant des fonctions des logiciels spécifiques. Aussi, les compétences techniques gagnent-elles du terrain, leur manque, lors de l'utilisation de ces logiciels, exerçant une pression supplémentaire sur le traducteur.

La réflexion menée en parallèle avec l'observation pédagogique aboutit à des considérations qui tiennent à la manière dont la technologie influence l'activité du traducteur et dont l'enseignement peut intervenir et proposer des solutions pour donner au futur traducteur la possibilité de s'adapter aux demandes du marché.

Le changement de paradigme qui fait des nouvelles compétences requises, conséquemment à l'apparition des instruments de traduction assistée, l'enjeu du métier de traducteur, fait aussi que la traduction ne soit plus « une question » exclusive de (re)création d'un message dans une autre langue. Elle devient, en priorité, un problème de linguistique, de traitement des segments du texte ; il semblerait que son avenir aille aux options plus facilement algorithmisées et automatisées.

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Ethical Considerations Regarding the Use of Cat Tools in Literary Translation

Liana Muthu

Translators and Machines: Working Together

A translator is seen as a cross-cultural mediator whose task is to analyse a source text and recreate it as another one that exists independently in the target language. This process implies the decoding of a message from the source language and its rewording in the target language while maintaining the same impact on the target audience. Since every language has a different set of rules, a word-for-word translation is not possible in most situations. For this reason, the translator has "to mould what is said in one language to the conventions of another" (Cook 2008: 55). The primary focus is on the following: syntactic features (word order); semantic features (partial synonyms); and figures of speech (metaphors). Even if the target text cannot preserve the same morphosyntactic structure, the translator's aim is to ensure that the same message is conveyed as in the original text. Many translators consider their profession to be an art that deals with creation and imagination: "it is an attempt to reinvent the shape of meaning, to find and justify an alternate statement. […] In a very specific way, the translator 're-experiences' the evolution of language itself, the ambivalence of the relations between language and world, between 'languages' and 'worlds'. In every translation the creative, possibly fictive nature of these relations is tested" (Steiner 1975: 235).

Over recent decades, globalization and new technology have had a great influence on the work of translators. Major companies have attempted to find reliable ways to use computerized tools in the translation process. As a consequence, numerous online dictionaries and encyclopaedias have appeared, easing the burden of translation. The late 1980s marked the beginning of certain technological improvements when Japanese companies (Toshiba, NEC, etc.) got to work on creating software that offered the following facilities: "(1) multilingual word processing, (2) automatic dictionary, (3) terminology consultation, (4) interactive translation and (5) repetition extraction" (Mahdi et al. 2018: 344). In fact, we have witnessed how the profession "has become almost symbiotic with the 'machine'" (O'Brien 2012: 103).

In the context of high-volume translation, software companies are still focusing on the development of innovative technological tools. These are created to assist the translator, who remains a fundamental part of this semi-automated process. Some of these innovations include: (1) translation memories that store phrases and sentence segments of previously translated texts in a database. During another translation process, if the software "recognizes that a new segment is similar to a segment already translated, it suggests that the translator reuse it"[1]; (2) terminology databases that allow the translator "to store individual terms which can be retrieved while translating a document"[2]; (3) and interactive machine translations that resemble the software used on a cell phone when

[1] https://culturesconnection.com/5-cat-tools-that-every-translator-should-use. Accessed 25 Sep. 2019
[2] https://www.vsi.tv/news/cat-tools. Accessed 25 Sep. 2019

we write messages. This software "tries to predict how the human translator would translate a phrase or sentence fragment".[1] These computer-aided/assisted translation tools (or CAT tools) have been adopted by major companies working in the language services sector. These tools help a human translator save a great deal of time when translating specialised texts and even business letters that include a high degree of repeated terms and sentence segments. In addition, existing language tools also increase the translator's efficiency through features such as spell checkers[2] and grammar checkers that detect misspelled words and grammatical errors.

Computer technology is helping us to move and to work faster than just a few decades ago and the domain of translation is no exception to this. Nevertheless, we need to give some thought and attention to the fact that in any natural language words have several layers of meaning. These meanings are inferred from the contexts in which the words and phrases are used. Speaking of literary pieces of writing, a writer does his/her best to exploit the expressive potential of words. By extension, the newly created sentences generate a multitude of meanings, values, and cultural codes.

Doing literary translation[3] is a difficult task since literary texts are less predictable than specialised ones. In fact, "what makes literary texts

[1] https://culturesconnection.com/5-cat-tools-that-every-translator-should-use. Accessed 25 Sep. 2019

[2] See https://www.online-spellcheck.com. Accessed September 30, 2019. For instance, a spell check service may detect the incorrect use of the indefinite article: the use of *a* instead of *an* before a word beginning with a vowel sound; or it may detect the incorrect use of a homophone (e.g. *right* and *write*).

[3] 'Literary translation' refers to those translations "made of 'literary' originals, whereby the translators are expected to preserve or to recreate somehow the aesthetic intentions or effects that may be perceived in the source text" (Delabatista 2011: 69).

special is that they are often characterized by a remarkable, vocal multilayeredness and deliberate ambiguity" (Taivalkovski-Shilov 2019: 695). Such texts enact complex linguistic repertoires through a plurality of voices, a mixture of stylistic registers, or an intermingling of first-person with third-person narration and free indirect speech. Literary works are not just consumed for pleasure or for the broadening of one's knowledge; they also encourage a freedom of interpretation since they offer "a discourse that has many layers of reading and place before us the ambiguities of language and of real life" (Eco 2004: 4).

Are Computerized Tools Helpful in Literary Translation?

The usefulness of CAT tools is brought into question when the translator has to render a source text that does not have a primarily informative purpose. Such a text has an expressive value, having been written with the intention[1] of creating some effect on the reader. This is why it needs "the eyes of a mindful translator rather than the predicable strings of computer-generated close matches" (Katan 2015: 7). It is known that a word is a linguistic sign that has at least a denotative, literal, and limited meaning, as found in a dictionary entry. However, nearly all words with lexical meanings also receive connotations from the context and a search for equivalence with the help of online documentation is not always a good solution. Computer resources (such as databases) may solve problems concerning terminology rather than translation. Due to the multitude of

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[1] Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 113-137) brought into discussion the notions of *intentionality* and *acceptability*. *Intentionality* designates the way in which a text producer pursues and fulfils intentions (e.g. to distribute knowledge). *Acceptability* is related to the text receiver's attitude, i.e. in what way is the text produced relevant to the receiver (e.g. to acquire knowledge).

contextual situations in which words are utilised, they "can extend the list of alternatives only to impede efficiency in selection, undercutting intuition" (Pym 2011: 2). *Linguee*[1], for instance, is a translation aid that combines the functions of a dictionary and of a translation memory and is frequently used by Romanian translators. *Linguee* offers extensive research and contextual knowledge in English and Romanian; it provides access to large amounts of commonly used bilingual sentence pairs.

In a literary piece of writing, the style represents the way that an author uses word choices, figurative language, and sentence arrangements. All these elements make an author's style unique, with the creation of ingenious phrases and sentence structures that are not recorded in a translation memory or a database. The use of style in language is associated with a "distinctive manner of expression, through whatever medium this expression is given shape" (Verdonk 2003: 3). To put it another way, the style may influence the manner in which we interpret the facts that are presented. Additionally, the author's style belongs not only to the domain of language use, but also to the way in which s/he elaborates narrative structures, portrays characters, and exposes points of view, etc.

For this reason, a professional translator uses creativity in order to convey an author's feelings and thoughts in the target language. Here is an example taken from David Lodge's novel, *The British Museum is Falling Down*, where the narrator depicts the building of a college English department:

[1] See https://www.linguee.com/english-romanian. Accessed October 30, 2019. This translation aid may be more useful for rendering legal English and business English into Romanian.

> The English Department wasn't the most distinguished building in the College, but it had history. The brick façade, stained with soot and streaked with rain water, was thought to be a good example of its type, which was turn-of-the-century warehousing. When, some thirty years ago, the expanding College had brought the freehold rather than demolish the building they had skilfully converted the interior into classrooms and narrow cell-like offices by means of matchboard partitions. It wasn't what you could call a comfortable or elegant building, but it had character (Lodge 1965: 63).

This is an example of a source text for which only a human translator can give a suitable rendition in a target language, in this case Romanian. Natural language uses complex sentences where words can have various meanings and possible translations. A computerized tool, such as *Linguee*, cannot offer suitable Romanian versions for the phrases, sentence segments, or sentences encountered in the quoted source text. This shows that computer software cannot deal with unique phrases and the connotations words carry, such as implications, associations, or emotions, which they take on when used in specific contexts. Let us look at the translation given by Radu Pavel Gheo:

> Departamentul de Engleză nu era cea mai impunătoare clădire din cadrul colegiului, dar era încărcată de istorie. Fațada de cărămidă, înnegrită de funingine și vârstată de șiroaiele ploilor, era considerată un bun exemplu pentru clădirile de acest gen, adică pentru stilul depozitelor de la răscrucea secolelor. Acum vreo treizeci de ani, când colegiul, aflat pe atunci într-o perioadă de extindere, cumpărase proprietatea, nu demolase clădirea, ci transformase cu măiestrie interiorul ei, creând săli de curs și birouri înguste, asemănătoare celulelor, separate prin pereți de scânduri îmbucate

una într-alta. Nu era ceea ce ai putea numi o clădire confortabilă sau elegantă, dar avea personalitate (Lodge 2003: 90).

Due to the distinctive ways language is used to create effect, many words and phrases acquire particular stylistic values in natural language. In English, it is possible to say that a building "had history"; in Romanian this fact is not expressed by the verb *to have*. The phrase *era încărcată de istorie*, used by the Romanian translator, points out that important events have taken place inside the building in question.

Unlike denotation, connotation stands for an author's intention not openly expressed. If we search for the primary meaning of the verb *to stain*, nearly all online documentation would define it as "to leave a mark on something unintentionally". Considering the phrase *stained with soot*, the translator must find a figurative meaning of the same verb, namely "to make dirty because of exposure to air". The final Romanian version given by Radu Pavel Gheo is *înnegrit de funingine*. The word *înnegrit* suggests that the wall has become blackened due to soot. As regards the primary meaning of the verb *to streak*, this is "to make lines across something"; but in *streaked with rain water* it acquires more subtle nuances. These relate to how over the years the rain has made irregular stripes on the brick façade of the building; the Romanian version *vârstată de șiroaiele ploilor* is a good choice to translate this phrase. Radu Pavel Gheo has also avoided giving a word-for-word translation to the phrase *rain water* (Rom. *apa de ploaie*). The word *șiroaiele* emphasizes that the rainfall was abundant.

When we render the message into another language, intra-lingual translation is equally necessary. In a target language, words must often be reordered due to differences regarding the syntax of natural languages. In Romanian, there are no compound adjectives such as *turn-of-the-century*.

The phrase is rendered with the help of a metaphor, namely *răscrucea secolelor*. This shows a point of change related to the end of a century and the beginning of a new one. *Matchboard* is another word difficult to transpose since there is no equivalent in the target language. An adaptation is needed to depict that inside the building, boards have been assembled to separate narrow rooms (Rom. *pereți de scânduri îmbucate una într-alta*).

The interpretation and accurate translation of a work of literature implies the perception of the author's intention. For this reason, a literary translator must be highly proficient in both working languages. S/he must have a natural aptitude for recreating the narrative effects and stylistic devices encountered in the source text. This is not a simple task because of the structural and conceptual differences between languages. Further on we will analyse two more situations that show how a translator's work cannot be replaced by a computer program particularly in relation to the recreation of puns and stylistic hybridity in a target text.

(1) *The recreation of puns in a target text.* Translation is the art of making choices—it is the art of choosing the right words and phrases. This can be a challenge for a translator, especially when translating puns. These verbal forms of wit emerge when an author brings together two normally unconnected situational contexts; the result is the appearance of "an unexpected incongruity which provides humour" (Madeleine & Lafford 1991: 87). Based on a formal similarity between two distinct words, any pun is a touchstone for the translator's creativity as s/he attempts to convey the same stylistic effect in the target language. Since words in two languages can have very different etymologies, it can be impossible to transfer a pun into a target language with equivalences found in a

dictionary or online documentation. For instance, in *The British Museum is Falling Down* David Lodge uses homophones to create intentional ambiguity:

> "My subject is the long poem in the nineteenth century ..."
> "Once you start looking for Freudian symbols ..."
> "The book on Browning ..."
> "Poe was quite right. It is a contradiction in terms ..."
> "... the diphthong in East Anglian dialects ..."
> "... everything's either round and hollow or long and pointed, when you come to think about it ..."
> "... is it called *The Bow and the Lyre* or *The Beau and the Liar* ...?" (Lodge 1965: 126).

David Lodge creates a pun starting with the title of a book written in 1957 by Roma Alvah King Jr. about the Victorian English poet Robert Browning: *The Bow and the Lyre*. The British writer resorts to homophony. Through this process words with different spellings and meanings but the same pronunciation are brought together. Since the phonetic and semantic evolution of words differs from one natural language to another, the equivocalness of the source language cannot be rendered into the target language through the simple use of equivalent words. A literal translation should be avoided since it does not reflect the depth and meaning of the literary piece of writing. Therefore, when translating David Lodge's novel, Romanian translator Radu Pavel Gheo opted for a non-literal rendition of the source text and chose alternative words to maintain the sense of the pun in the Romanian version:

"Tema pe care am ales-o este poemul de mari dimensiuni din secolul al XIX-lea ..."
"Din momentul în care începi să cauți simboluri freudiene ..."
"Cartea aceasta despre Browning ..."
"Poe avea într-adevăr dreptate. Chiar este o contradicție în termeni să ..."
"... diftongarea în dialectele din estul Angliei ..."
"... și, dacă stai să te gândești, vezi că totul este fie rotund și gol pe dinăuntru, fie lung și ascuțit la vârf ..."
« ... se numește *Arcul și lira* sau *Acru și lila* ...? » (Lodge 2003: 165).

In order to render David Lodge's verbal wit, Radu Pavel Gheo uses paronymy. For the two nouns preceded by the definite article, *the bow* (Rom. *arcul*) and *the lyre* (Rom. *lira*), the Romanian translator found other nouns with similar spellings, but different meanings: *acru* (Engl. *sour*) and *lila* (Engl. *purple*). If we give the Romanian equivalents for *beau* (Rom. *crai*) and *liar* (Rom. *mincinos*), we cannot obtain similarity in the stylistic device.

(2) *The recreation of stylistic hybridity in the target text.* The concept of 'stylistic hybridity' was first analysed by the Russian semiotician and cultural theorist Mikhail Bakhtin. This stylistic device is found in literary works, usually novels, and is the result of both artistic intention and stylistic organisation. Reading an author's literary work we can witness the diminution of the border between the author's discourse and the characters' discourse. Language stratification becomes obvious as the hybrid becomes intentional and language registers combine within a stylistic unit. The resulting hybrid is defined as a statement that belongs to a single individual "but actually contains mixed within it two utterances, two speech

manners, two styles, two 'languages', two semantic and axiological belief systems" (Bakhtin 1934: 304). In this situation, an author may insert into the text pieces of writing, previously written or uttered, by famous authors. For instance, in *Metroland* Julian Barnes draws in the reader's attention through a particular narrative technique. He starts writing in English, but, suddenly, he continues with the same idea using a French phrase uttered by a well-known poet. When he chooses to keep a genuine phrase, the British writer makes fruitful an idea contoured in another geographic space and century by endowing it with an additional meaning to the primary one:

> We preferred not to talk to people, as this got in the way of our observation of them. If asked specifically what we were looking for, we'd probably have said, 'Rimbaud's *musique savante de la ville*'. […] Certain things were ideal and unattainable—like walking in spectral gas-light across damp cobblestones and hearing the distant cry of a barrel-organ—but we hunted jumpily for the original, the picturesque, the authentic (Barnes 1990: 29).

Julian Barnes left Arthur Rimbaud's[1] line untranslated. If we consider language to be inseparable from its cultural context, then the translation of a phrase may lose its power even if the new rendition appears close to the original in meaning. If we translate *musique savante de la ville* (Engl. *the notorious music of the city*), which has a representative meaning in French

[1] Arthur Rimbaud (1854-1891) had a simultaneous attraction and repulsion towards the modern city, being both fascinated and repelled by its size and novelty. This idea is utilised by Julian Barnes in *Metroland*: as a teenager, the narrator Christopher Lloyd, used to wander London's streets, feeling the throb of the city.

culture, we do not obtain the effect of the original. Therefore, Romanian translator Mihai Moroiu took into account the British author's choice and did not translate the French phrase, such an approach would not be taken by computer software:

> Preferam să nu discutăm cu oamenii, pentru că asta ne împiedica să-i observăm. Dacă am fi fost luați la fix și întrebați ce anume căutam, am fi spus probabil: *La musique savante de la ville* a lui Rimbaud. […] Anumite lucruri erau ideale și de neatins—cum ar fi plimbarea prin lumina spectrală a lămpilor cu gaz, peste piatra cubică umedă, auzind tânguitul flașnetei din depărtare—dar hoinăream cu nervozitate în urmărirea faptului original, pitoresc, autentic (Barnes 2014: 33).

This excerpt from Julian Barnes's *Metroland* shows how stylistic hybridity consists of juxtaposing deliberately varied discourses within the same space. This strengthens Bakhtin's idea that language is made of a plurality of voices that mutually interfere with one another.

The given examples show how an author has a unique style of writing. For this reason, the translator cannot rely on computer software to translate phrases and sentence segments as their particularity means that they will be probably never used by another author. However, in some situations the translator may search for suggestions; s/he may search for quick online documentation (e.g. terminology databases, dictionaries). These sources of information can assist a professional to make the best decision, i.e. to choose the right word in the right context. Nevertheless, s/he must not forget that the meaning of a word is context dependent and the target text must be adjusted to a new linguistic and cultural environment.

Computer software cannot replace a literary translator's work. Machines "lack biological functions, emotions and culture" (Everett 2018:

123)[1] and therefore they do not have a translator's intuition and creativity when particular stylistic devices have to be rendered from a source language into a target language. In fact, the professional's task is to find "the particular intention toward the target language which produces in that language the echo of the original" (Benjamin 1996: 258). Only a human translator knows how to convey an author's thoughts and feelings so that the target reader will perceive the same message or almost the same message as that encountered in the source text. In order to accomplish this task properly, the professional has to possess two essential qualities: 1) linguistic competence, which requires intuition, good judgement and the ability to find out the imaginative associations and emotional overtones of words in both working languages; 2) cultural competence, which demands a good level of cultural training thanks to which s/he may quickly acquire information relevant to the topic that must be translated. Unlike a human translator, computerized tools do not possess these qualities no matter how high their performance. These machines are not able "to examine systematically the processes of transfer of texts across cultural boundaries, and the resulting implications for both source and target cultural systems" (Bassnett 2000: 540).

Concluding Remarks

Literary translation involves certain deviations from standard rules. It is a complex process through which the translator has to rethink the universe

[1] Everett compares the human brain to the computer. On the one hand, both handle information. On the other hand, the brain is biological and evolves without human intervention. Additionally, the computer is programmed by the individual: e.g. it is "organised into separate modules (or working units) for different functions" (2018: 123).

created by an author and identify the linguistic environment and the epoch when a literary text was written. A complex literary text requires a certain degree of adaptation and recreation. This is why the author's intention has to be perceived. Currently, computer-assisted translation tools are not about to make the translator's profession redundant. There is no computer software that can perceive an author's way of thinking. Computer software cannot detect a word's polysemy, the intentional ambiguity created through the creation of puns, or the stylistic hybridity given by language stratification. Moreover, a stylistic review is always necessary to make the target text flow smoothly; these tasks, especially in relation to cohesion and coherence, cannot be performed by a machine. These reasons prove that the quality of a final literary translation is linked to the skills and competence of the human translator.

We may now contemplate what will happen in the future since these computerized tools are fast becoming an integral part of contemporary society. They are human artefacts built upon human creativeness. Additionally, new technological tools will certainly be created that will be more elaborate. In this context, translators will possibly find themselves collaborating with system developers, researchers, computer scientists, and cognitive scientists in order to develop usable technological tools. Nevertheless, automation in translation will not lead to the exclusion of humans, especially when texts of aesthetic value need to be translated.

If the translator chooses to make use of computer-assisted translation tools, s/he must exercise caution. The use of computerized tools must not diminish a translator's creativity and, implicitly, translation quality. Supposing that a translation memory stores a phrase encountered in a literary text, the translator must not forget that, as with words, phrases are context dependent. Once in use, they generate endless chains of meaning, i.e. they receive new connotations in varied situational contexts. There are also frequent situations when the translator cannot find usable documentation (e.g. an appropriate equivalent for a word or idiom). These are motivating opportunities that compel the professional to search for solutions and to give a competent rendition of the source text in the target language. All in all, a program run by a computer cannot replace the work of a translator; nor can it deal with non-repetitive and sophisticated texts, such as literary ones.

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DIGITAL OR NOTHING: APPS AND CLILIG IN TEACHING FUTURE INTERPRETERS

DANA CONKAN

Introduction: The Setting of CLIL

The training of future interpreters is a far reaching subject and the selection process of candidates for the European Master's of Conference Interpreting and Translation degree is very strict. The pedagogies and didactics of conference interpreting are linked to what I define as the "three G's": a gradual increase in tasks; personal growth; and educational guidance. Setton and Dawrant use similar terms and develop each section as "incremental realism", "trainee individuality", and "3D teaching (observation, diagnosis and treatment)" (Setton & Dawrant 10). The training of potential interpreters starts as early as the first semester of undergraduate study and revolves around developing confident usage of the first and second language, as well as on how specific content and specialized terminology can be apprehended. It also presupposes the development of collaborative and task-based use of technology. For the teacher, modern didactics, especially Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), opens up a pathway for exploring the relationship between specialized content and language.

This article investigates how methodological and didactic strategies found in CLIL can be applied in teaching the specific competences that future interpreters need to showcase. The second section of this paper focuses on digital apps for teaching and criteria that need to be applied when choosing such an app. The last part offers concrete didactic examples on teaching sequences for first and second year students studying in the Department of Applied Modern Languages, Babeș-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca, Romania. These students predominantly study English and German and have Romanian, German and Hungarian as first languages. Some examples will be given in German with English explanations.

Before offering a glimpse into how digital apps can be used in training or revealing a potential interpreter's skills, there are some key issues I wish to mention. I explore elements in this contribution that derive from the didactics of teaching and learning foreign languages. Furthermore, the apps I present require minimal technical infrastructure and have cost-free versions. Classroom realities around the world are very diverse and having excellent infrastructure does not necessarily equate to an app being a teacher's first choice. This article presents personal findings and thus does not include any analysis of student perception, understanding, or the enhanced learning effect of digital apps. This endeavour will need further exploration and joint efforts involving our partners and other institutions in higher education. Last but not least, I discuss my perspective as a teacher, focusing on successes and failures in my own planning of activities and their implementation.

CLILiG in Higher Education

"The term Content-and-Language-Integrated-Learning (CLIL) refers to educational settings where a language other than the student's mother tongue is used as the medium of instruction" (Dalton-Puffer 1).

Dalton-Puffer's definition unveils certain essential aspects of CLIL in terms of a foreign language being the primary tool for learning specific content. She explores discourse practices and shows how the classroom setting acts as a centre of communication (Schart & Legutke 110). Relevant research in the field of CLIL focuses on English, exploring grassroots movements around the globe and on measuring its impact in higher education. Chostelidou and Griva point to a significant improvement of reading skills in student groups participating in CLIL classes (2171).

The English speaking community of teachers has the *Teaching Knowledge Test Handbook for Teachers* as a useful resource for implementing and validating teaching skills on CLIL. This handbook provides an essential summarization of the aims of CLIL and also contains a detailed description of learning skills across the curriculum, for example "locating, organising and interpreting information; note taking, drafting; editing; guessing from context; processing and using knowledge; stating facts and opinions; transferring information; carrying out investigations; considering layout; recording results; reviewing; skimming and scanning skills; summarising" (Cambridge TKT 6).

In addition to cross-curricular skills, in the didactics of content and language integrated learning the concepts of macro and micro-scaffolding have brought about real change in the approach to content and language used. Macro-scaffolding arranges the systematic learning of language through content. It supplies the right framework for a teacher to: expand language and knowledge on a specific topic, the accurate elaboration of learning goals, and lesson planning (Beese et al. 32). Micro-scaffolding, on the other hand, provides a clear pathway for organising student interaction and facilitating two essential steps in the scaffolding process. It presupposes that the lesson plan integrates sequences for learning language and provides students with proper linguistic and communicative instruments for them to successfully finish tasks in class. Beese et al. offered one of the first extensive outlooks on Content and Language Integrated Learning in German. They provide practical and mostly personal didactic materials on CLILiG. For my purposes, I will use the concept of micro-scaffolding and the detailed description of learning skills across the curriculum found in the *Teaching Knowledge Test Handbook for Teachers* (TKT Handbook).

CLIL or CLILiG is a natural response to the needs of multilingual learners of today. CLIL practices encourage collaboration among teachers of different subjects. Furthermore, being aware of how all learning subjects can also provide an environment for the natural acquisition of language, a teacher can train cross-curricular skills like those mentioned in the TKT Handbook. How then can the use of certain digital tools in the teaching process support the development of cross-curricular skills? What skills do future or potential interpreters need? How are these skills connected to the digital world? Even if this study will not provide answers to all of these questions, I would like to focus on the last question and offer a possible onset.

Interpreters' Skills: Nurturing, Developing and Enjoying Knowledge. How and Where to Start?

On Digital Tools

The examples I provide do not take place in an interpreting skills classroom, as described by Setton and Dawrant (Setton & Dawrant 27), but in the early stages of studying, at the beginning of undergraduate study in applied modern languages

First and second year BA students find themselves in an environment where the learning of language and content has to be supported by their own learning strategies. The latter is a complex topic and is also directly linked to, for example, the competence framework released by the consortium for the European Master's in Translation (2017). The competence framework has two key aspects that also suggest future interpreters' skills in terms of technological, personal, and interpersonal competences. Firstly, the requirement to use IT applications is extensive (Competence Framework 2017 9). Secondly, the enumerated competences also point to an ability to use other tools in support of language. The personal and interpersonal aspect implicates concepts such as virtual settings, using social media responsibly for professional aims, and the constant development of personal skills. Therefore, both the translator's and the interpreter's expected skills, after the completion of a master's degree in translation or conference interpreting, are intertwined with digital working tools. In the area of personal and interpersonal skills, the guidelines state: "Students know how to continuously self-evaluate, update and develop competences and skills through personal strategies and collaborative learning" (Competence Framework 2017 10).

The title of this section focuses on how and where to start developing personal strategies for the self-improvement of various skills. The answer to how to start lies in the micro-scaffolding principle found in CLIL, enabling student interaction, in different sequences of classroom activities and lectures, and supporting enhanced collaboration among peers. The development of self-evaluation and updating knowledge and skills can also be facilitated through the use digital tools for learning and work purposes. What is the impact of new media in higher education? Do studies also explore the usage of digital tools? In *Jahrbuch Medienpädagogik* the authors show how new media (tablets) have helped students create personal learning environments (Galley et al. 181). Studies also reveal how online platforms and projects at German universities, such as ILIAS, have enabled students to share a collective virtual learning environment (Galley et al. 195). In this particular project, questionnaires completed by students showed that being able to solve online tasks in a personal manner was perceived as being a positive skill. Challenges include how to plan an online learning schedule and become a confident user of the platform's tools (which is time-consuming). The findings also showed how actual usage of learning platforms and their resources (like blogs, wikis, comment threads etc.) test student ability to virtually collaborate with others, and also how most of them managed to independently overcome technical difficulties. Learning platforms are not available at all universities around the world and in educational settings where online platforms are not available digital tools and free software play an important role.

The current generation of students has developed experience of new media since childhood and Tillmann and Hugger discuss how childhood is infused with *Medialisierung*. This presupposes that media and the digital world permeate communication at a receptive and interpersonal level. Tillmann and Hugger discuss how the use of new media encourages interactive communication; impacts a child's personality; regulates interaction between generations; and influences the configuration and experience of family (Tillmann & Hugger 31). I developed the authors' ideas in the context of applying criteria to the selection of digital tools for the development of reading skills among university students, underlining how "the interconnectedness of devices becomes more relevant in a learning context than their simple usage and consumption" (Conkan 40).

1. Criteria for Selecting Digital Tools in Higher Education

In selecting digital tools for teaching my undergraduate students, I applied three criteria: firstly, the ease of sharing information with peers; secondly, technical requirements and interconnectedness (tools for Windows, Android etc.); and thirdly, the potential didactic added value.

Digital tools that have integrated sharing features are important for designing tasks. Based on the principles of collaborative learning, tools that enable peer interaction offer the possibility of exchange and support the development of a virtual classroom. The tools I chose have a sharing feature or allow virtual sending/receiving of links and documents:

1. *Padlet* is a collaborative platform that enables students to post documents, links, recordings, and photographs. *Padlet* allows students to see all posts and edit their own posts. Students can access *Padlet* through a link or by reading a QR-code using their smartphones and a QR-code reader app.
2. *Slim Wiki* is an interactive platform that enables students to collaborate by allowing them to post/write texts, photographs, and web links, but also design their wiki in a personal manner. Furthermore, a *Slim Wiki* page can be constantly updated and developed.
3. *Vocaroo* is a voice recording app that allows students to share recorded speech through links or a code on different platforms. The app allows users to save the recording in MP3 format.

4. *Coggle* is an online creator that allows students to share mind-maps by inviting peers via e-mail. It also has a function for saving one's work as a pdf document.
5. *Edupad* is an online writing tool that permits students to collaboratively write, correct, rethink, and edit their texts.

The second criteria I applied focused on how these tools can be used with the help of devices my students might own. Internet access is necessary for all digital tools. The third criterion revolves around how using these tools can support learning outcomes and cooperative learning sequences. Furthermore, overcoming technical difficulties and using these tools in other learning contexts is also a reason for selecting certain apps.

Didactic added value refers to the micro-scaffolding principle found in CLIL: through student interaction, both language and content become the object of learning. All apps I mention train different language skills, reading, writing and speaking, but also allow students to practice, discuss, and make use of specific content. The last part of the article presents practical examples for all three language competences and elaborates on specific interpreter skills. When choosing digital apps for students, task-based assignments and language production play an essential role. In other words, linking specific content to making use of language in an authentic communication setup helps learners develop collaborative skills.

Digital tools like *Padlet*, *Coggle*, *Slim Wiki*, *Vocaroo*, and *Edupad* should be used in tasks that are designed to comply with the following guidelines:

1. Tasks with an appropriate degree of complexity: requiring decision-making, opinions or the actual creation of (digital) content. Furthermore, the task should implicate all prior knowledge

on the topic. The student's understanding of the topic has to be made use of in the process of solving the task.

2. Transparent learning goals and independent approaches to a task: students know exactly why they need the digital app and how they can collaborate through it in order to solve the task. At this stage students can actually decide to which part of the task they wish to contribute.
3. Solutions requiring independent work or collaboration: any task should allow students to work independently on a problem, compare, correct and expand their knowledge during cooperative learning sequences.
4. Comparing results and systematizing findings: students are required to decide on the relevance of their findings, filtering out essential information and thinking about how such information (and content) can be made clear to others.
5. Reflecting on the process of learning and transfer to other subjects: how can strategies, language elements, visualization methods, and task solving paths be useful in other settings?

The guidelines mentioned above are part of the method of cooperative learning and teaching. There are five pillars of cooperative learning and teaching: positive interdependence; individual accountability; promotive interaction; appropriate use of social skills; and group processing (Johnson & Johnson 32). Positive interdependence is linked to setting transparent learning goals and creating the right frame for individual accountability. In other words, members of a group can choose to assume different task components and take on different roles in solving a designated group project. I have previously explored the pillars of cooperative learning in the context of developing reading skills for students, especially for reading specialized texts (Conkan 40). The term promotive interaction means allowing group members to stimulate their own productivity, as well as assisting team members in fulfilling the task. The exchange of information, materials and ideas develops a proper ground for negotiation and decision-making to help the entire group achieve its goals. During group work trust, acceptance, and support should help students foresee, manage, and resolve any potential group conflicts. One of the most important aspects of cooperative learning strategies is the analysis of group processes and evaluating how efficiently members have worked together (Johnson & Johnson 23-25). Feedback on group work is complex and time-consuming, but it is also the only way to highlight how productivity is closely linked to interpersonal communication skills. The five digital tools I present can be used in collaborative learning sequences and in developing language skills and particular interpersonal skills.

2. *Edupad*: Collaborative Writing

Which digital tools are useful in teaching applied modern languages students? To what extent can digital tools improve the understanding of difficult texts? How can students find strategies to learn and develop their specialized vocabulary? How can social and cooperative skills be trained through the usage of digital tools? The scaffolding process enables teachers to redesign learning outcomes. Moreover, in higher education skills, such as reading, and efficient reading strategies are linked to prior knowledge on the topic of a text (Garbe 13-39). In the context of training future interpreters, this needs constant expansion of students' understanding of current world issues, in addition to improving their language level.

Improving reading skills presupposes the usage of reading strategies. Students usually read a number of texts while studying for a bachelor's or master's degree including "continuous" and "non-continuous" texts. The latter term is applied to specialized texts that have supporting graphical elements. Beese et al. develop the term "logical image" to describe texts that are infused with diagrams, figures, and images (Beese et al. 49). Non-continuous text refers to the manner in which graphical elements stand for themselves. This happens mainly because figures and images have little textual support and their understanding and interpretation depend on how much knowledge the reader has on the topic. At the stage of interpreting non-continues texts, students have to make use of language in order to interpret these logical images, which can be challenging.

Classroom activities:

Bearing these difficulties in mind, I designed a class on digitalization, with a focus on vocabulary practice and interpreting logical images linked to the consumption of media among young people. The interpretation of the data was in writing and the *Edupad* digital app was used. The *Edupad* platform is a digital online tool that allows users to create a writing template. This can be shared by generating a link and each contributor then adds text using different colours (the program assigns a different colour for each user). The *Edupad* platform has a simple design (similar to the Word editing program) and is free of charge. It can be used with most media, but due to its layout, it is easier to use on a PC or laptop.

Task-based assignment/Collaboration through a digital tool:

Students were asked to work from home and collaborate on some texts. The didactic purpose of the sequence was to practice written language structures needed in German when describing graphics. I initiated and shared the *Edupad* platform and assigned the task:

7Grafiken, Schaubilder, Bilder und Statistiken beschreiben. Hier können Sie Ihre Beschreibung der Statistik schreiben.

Zur Hilfe noch einige Strukturen:

> *Das Bild (die Infografik) ist aufgeteilt in ... Teile.*
>
> *In der Mitte kann man erkennen, dass*
>
> *Die Bilderserie zeigt...*
>
> *In dem Kasten wird gezeigt, was/ wie viel ...*
>
> *Wie der Beschriftung/ Legende zu entnehmen ist, ...*
>
> *In dem vergrößerten Ausschnit wird...*

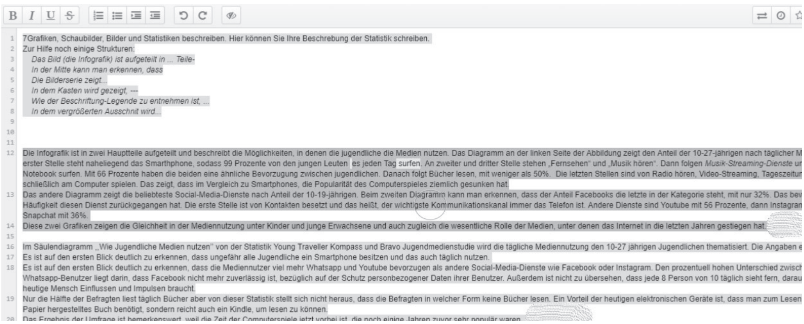

Figure 1

Post-task: revision activities

After students had constructed their texts, in our next meeting we discussed criteria for revising them, with a particular focus on how language structures describing images and statistics etc. are used in written forms. Each group had to comment and suggest revisions for at least two other texts. This three-step approach to the task revealed several advantages, as well as some disadvantages:

1. Students collaborated on the text and understood the importance of using appropriate language structures to sum up the logical images they dealt with.
2. The textual revision activity, written by others, made it difficult for the teams to collaborate. It also meant that some revisions and suggestions were made based on other criteria than those established in class (the use of specific language structures to describe logical images).
3. The number of contributors decreased during the last part of the task.
4. *Edupad* is a useful digital tool for writing, revising, and even visualizing different texts. It can be used as a collaborative platform, or as a virtual notebook.

3. *Padlet*: I Post, You Post, We Post

Padlet is a collaborative platform that permits students to write posts and add links, photographs, and voice recordings and upload documents. *Padlet* requires an account or registration via different email providers (for e.g. Gmail). It allows users to set up three cost free *padlets*. It can be accessed through all media and the virtual exchange room can be shared through a link or from scanning a QR code. This versatility allows both students and teachers to work on *Padlet* during class.

Classroom activities:

Vocabulary practice and the development of listening skills are essential for potential interpreters. During most sessions of the practical course, students worked on audio texts centred on specialized vocabulary in the field of ecology, the environment, politics, or psychology. I noticed during most sessions that questions on vocabulary increased: new vocabulary emerged in texts and audio texts, as well as on worksheets. In order to allow students to centralize the new words encountered for each class, I decided to assign different roles. Working in pairs, students had to upload new or difficult vocabulary discussed in class to *Padlet*. Another pair had to upload new words and structures found in the audio texts (supported by transcripts) and other pairs uploaded new vocabulary found on the worksheets.

Task-based assignment/Collaboration through a digital tool:

Working in pairs the students were able to filter out new vocabulary and translate the selected words into Romanian or English. Furthermore, the tasks the pairs received lasted the entire semester. Students were also given the chance to exchange roles in the middle of the semester.

Post-task activities:

Centralizing vocabulary on *Padlet* is insufficient for students to be able to actually use it in proper contexts. *Padlet* served as a bridge between online and classroom activities. The rest of the group of students had to select three to four words from the lists and prepare one minute speeches held in groups at the beginning of each class. Usually, students elaborated on new words by linking them in speech to known information or knowledge on the topic that they had previously acquired in class.

Students also used *Padlet* to upload their written assignments, while I used the platform to post worksheets, links, and texts that need to be prepared for the next session. The owner of the *padlet* can edit any of the posts and reorder them.

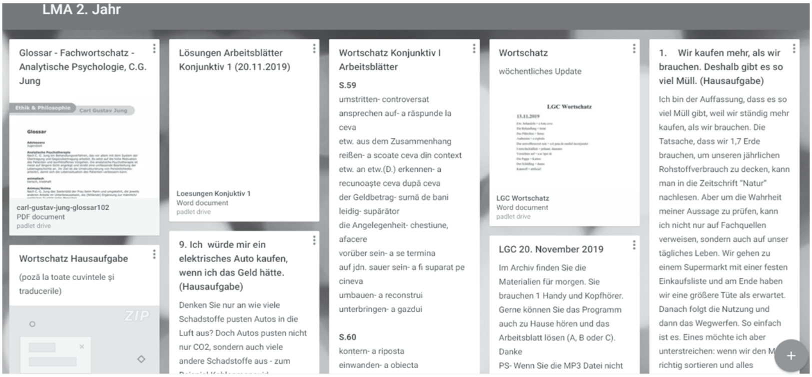

Figure 2

This approach revealed several advantages and disadvantages:

1. Students posting new vocabulary showed increased interest in preparing their speeches for the next session.
2. A large number of students started posting written texts for feedback.
3. A smaller number of students did not use *Padlet*, primarily due to not being in the habit of using virtual exchange platforms for learning purposes.

4. *Coggle*: Online Mind-map Creator

First and second year BA students studying applied modern languages need to find various different strategies to successfully read texts. Underlining and highlighting during class how different types of reading (global, selective, and detailed) can be used, especially in relation to complex texts in German, helps students understand that their degree of textual comprehension necessarily depends on why they have to read the text. Beese et al. explore how information from specialized texts can be depicted in a graphical manner by readers (Beese et al. 48-49). It is also important that students begin to read texts after their own knowledge on the topic is activated. Afterwards, formulating assumptions about images, graphics, and titles helped students identify the source and type of text they were about to read. Focusing on paragraphs (without reading the entire text), highlighting relevant information, and identifying essential and secondary information are all important steps in preparing a graphical representation of a text.

Do students need a digital tool to draw a mind-map of a text they have read? Does it showcase didactic added value if students represent the main ideas of a text through an online mind-map creator? In training reading strategies with students, I allowed them to work individually with *Coggle* during classes. This online mind-map creator enables users to create three private (but sharable) diagrams. Its friendly and colourful layout helps users add photographs or enlarge the text and diagrams. Participants can save their diagrams as a *pdf* or *image* file. It can be used with all media, but a large screen displays the mind-map better than, for example, the screen of a smartphone.

Classroom activities:

Students were assigned a short, but rather difficult text on communication strategies in the European Union. The main didactic purpose was to help students talk about parts of a text, using their own graphical representations. Students worked in groups and each student chose one to two paragraphs before selecting relevant information, hence each group divided the text into parts. At the end, students had to create a diagram of the text using *Coggle*. I prepared some empty online diagrams at home using my account, as this was the first time students had come into contact with the tool.

Task-based activity outside the classroom:

At the end of the working sequence, students were asked to continue developing their diagrams for the next session as a group. Moreover, the groups had to print their diagram and prepare a short two-minute presentation on the content of the text, supported by its graphical representation.

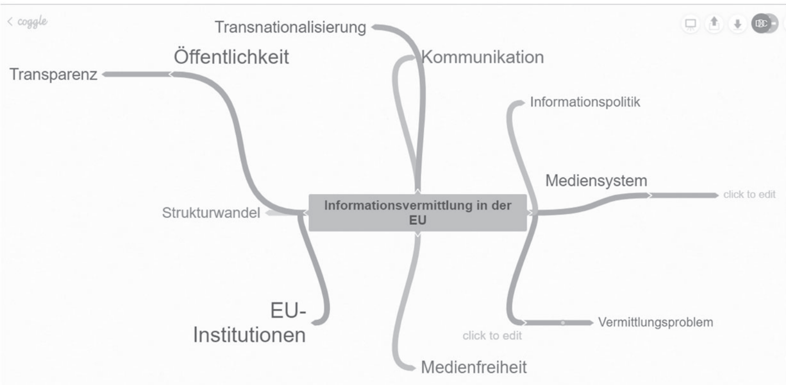

Figure 3

This approach revealed several advantages and disadvantages:

1. For this particular activity, I decided not to pursue any post-tasks. Using *Coggle* during class led students to organise the reading of the text, by assuming parts of it. The graphical representation of the text was the final stage of their work.
2. Some students had difficulties in using *Coggle* with their smartphones and were not able to finish the task in the allotted time.
3. The selected text was difficult and a large amount of time was spent on reading and selecting information.
4. Only two groups managed to prepare their two-minute presentations for our next meeting.

5. *Slim Wiki*: Designing and Personalizing Content and Information

Slim Wiki is a collaborative online tool through which users can upload photographs, links, and add texts and diagrams, in order to design a collaborative working space. The free version allows three collaborators per *Slim Wiki* page. Being a digital tool, *Slim Wiki* requires internet access and can be easily used on a PC or a laptop. Its didactic added value lies in the fact that documentation on a topic can be constantly revised and expanded. It can also be shared.

Task-based activity:

First year students study practical courses on the culture and civilization of the German speaking world. Usually, students take pleasure in discovering interesting and unknown aspects of countries some of them have not yet visited (Germany, Switzerland, Austria, and Liechtenstein).

In order to enable students to document, in a personal manner and using the resources offered, topics discussed in class, I decided to use the digital app *Slim Wiki*.

Students worked in pairs and chose a particular topic to explore. This meant that most topics discussed in class would be covered and, after students created their own *Slim Wiki* account, they were able to invite at least one more peer to join the page.

Post-Task activity:

Students added to the page findings discussed in class, videos they had seen, or texts they had read. Moreover, students saw a significant opportunity in preparing for the final exam: elaborating on questions; looking for explanations in the course bibliography; and attempting to give personal definitions of key concepts.

Figure 4

The *Slim Wiki* page shown above is a sample of a student group activity on the migration crisis in Germany in 2015. The collaborators chose a representative photograph and started to document the events that lead to the crisis in the summer of 2015.

This approach has revealed several advantages and disadvantages:

1. Not all the students wished to collaborate on the *Slim Wiki* page. As it was an optional task, some students refused to participate due to lack of time.
2. The pairs that decided to design their *Slim Wiki* pages asked me for guidance in the process of creating an account.
3. Most pairs that had decided to join *Slim Wiki* managed to personalize their pages and document a topic of their choice.

6. *Vocaroo*: I Speak for Me

The last tool I used during one of the seminars was *Vocaroo*. This digital tool records the user's voice, enabling him or her to share their recordings or save them in MP3 format. The tool does not require registration and is available free of charge. Noticing how students needed constant feedback (especially feeling the need to be corrected by the teacher) on speaking activities, I decided to allow students to use *Vocaroo* at home and record the summary of news they read about on the following news pages: dw.de, zdf.de, srf.ch and euractiv.com.

Task-based assignment:

The didactic purpose of the activity was to read some current news and give a short verbal summary of it. In order to make sure that most of the students managed the task, I asked for a one minute recording as a minimum requirement. The MP3 recording was sent to me and the feedback criteria for the recording were decided in class. The students wanted feedback on pronunciation and grammar. In order to give feedback on these elements, I decided to ask students to make use of connectors/conjunctions so that I could identify how they structured their speech.

Working through the recordings:

In order to have a manageable quantity of recordings, I decided to allow students to volunteer for the task. By the middle of the winter semester 2019, I had listened to about six recordings varying between 1 and 2 minutes in length. Some of the students, after the (recorded) feedback, decided to re-record themselves, attempting to include feedback from my observations.

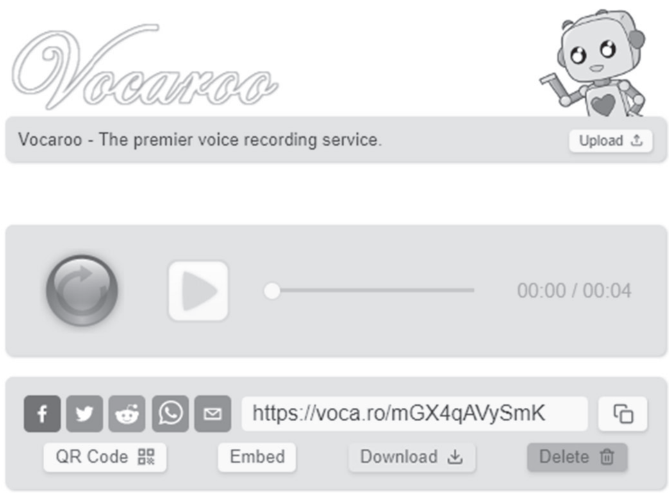

Figure 5

This approach revealed several advantages and disadvantages:

1. Being a voluntary task, the most active students signed up for the assignment.
2. Students who still need to practice their language skills have shown interest in this particular type of app, especially because of the direct and private feedback I offered.
3. The recordings offer a great opportunity for students to attempt their first speech interpretations from German into Romanian.

Conclusion: Digital Apps and Revealing an Interpreter's Skills

The current contribution attempts to map out how technology in teaching potential interpreters can help in the redesign of classroom tasks. Firstly, using IT applications to document, personalize and develop topics or vocabulary through digital apps requires adaptation to a specific didactic goal. In other words, apps like *Slim Wiki*, *Padlet* and *Edupad* allow the teacher to design tasks requiring the creation of content, as well as enabling students to develop learning pathways and the collaboration and editing (and adding) of new content. Secondly, choosing a tool in order to complete a didactic goal requires the use of certain criteria in selecting digital apps. Thirdly, such tools should be experimented with in class in order for students to familiarize themselves with their features, possibilities, and purpose. Once this interconnectedness between a task and an appropriate digital tool has been completed, students can attempt to make use of the tool in different (even future professional) contexts. *Vocaroo* and *Coggle* can both be used to train language competences like reading and speaking. The online recording app helps students self-evaluate their pronunciation and record their progress. The ultimate didactic purpose for using digital tools to update and develop personal competences is to expand digital literacy and prepare students to understand how media content is created and to what purpose.

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