RESEARCH – EVOLUTION – APPLICATION

LSP
&
PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION

Fagsprog og Fagkommunikation
Langues de spécialité et communication professionnelle
Fachsprachen und Fachkommunikation
Lenguajes Especializados y Comunicación Profesional

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(Formerly Unesco Alsed-LSP Newsletter)

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EDITORIAL:

Sans pour autant rejeter les approches linguistiques plus traditionnelles (telles que la terminologie, la grammaire, la linguistique textuelle, etc.), la recherche dans le domaine des LSP s'oriente de plus en plus, ces dernières années, vers les théories de la communication dans le cadre desquelles elle cherche à insérer les LSP. Comme nous l'avons déjà dit, en cet endroit, l'intérêt qu'éprouvent les théoriciens des LSP pour la communication n'est pas de date récente. Cependant de nouvelles formes de communication, notamment la communication interculturelle, posent de nouveaux problèmes. Pour une grande partie ceux-ci pourront certainement être analysés et décrits, avec avantage, à l'aide de théories nouvelles, mais d'autres ne pourront être résolus que par des choix purement politiques. Font partie de ces derniers les problèmes de langue que connaissent aujourd'hui les pays européens non anglophones, depuis que l'anglais est en voie de devenir une "langue globale", et il s'agit là d'une problématique qui intéresse au premier chef les langues de spécialité.

Au Danemark, les discussions portant sur la nécessité d'une politique des langues ont longtemps été centrées sur la langue "générale" et la culture. Par conséquent nos efforts tendent à mettre en évidence les problèmes de LSP dans le monde du commerce et de l'industrie, dans l'enseignement et dans le monde scientifique.

Après avoir publié en juin un livre blanc intitulé "Le monde des affaires, politique des langues et compétitivité"[1], nous avons profité de "la journée européenne des langues" (le 26 septembre), où toute l'Europe célèbre "la diversité des langues", pour organiser un "Salon des langues" qui a attiré plus de 3000 personnes. Des hommes politiques et des spécialistes des langues ainsi que différentes entreprises avaient été invités à faire des exposés sur les quatre sujets: "Diversité des langues, Langues et communication, Langues et culture, Politiques des langues", et le ministre de l'éducation a ouvert le Salon.

Les exposés furent très intéressants et pertinents et nous espérons qu'ils influeront sur les décisions politiques. Malheureusement la "diversité des langues" ne fut pas très apparente, vu que pour la plupart des conférenciers le problème des langues au Danemark se réduisait à un choix entre deux alternatives: utiliser l'anglais à côté du danois ou uniquement l'anglais.

Certes le ministre n'a pas omis au début de son allocution, de chanter les louanges de la multitude des langues en soulignant aussi la nécessité d'apprendre les langues étrangères pour comprendre les autres peuples et leurs civilisations. Mais ensuite seuls le danois et l'anglais ont été mentionnés dans son discours qui n'était en gros

[1] "Hvidbog om Erhvervsliv, Sprogpolitik og Konkurrenceevne", DSFF, 2003 (www.dsff-lsp.dk).

qu'une promesse de renforcer l'enseignement de la langue nationale et de commencer celui de l'anglais dès le primaire.

Un seul orateur (le professeur Iversen de l'Université pédagogique du Danemark) eut le courage de démontrer que si l'on ne change pas la politique des langues pratiquée actuellement au Danemark, toutes les langues étrangères, sauf l'anglais, seront exterminées dans 10 ans dans notre pays, et les Danois seront réduits à utiliser leur anglais boiteux pour communiquer avec les autres européens dont l'anglais n'est pas non plus la langue maternelle. Utilisé ainsi comme un vulgaire outil de communication et hors de son contexte culturel d'origine, l'anglais deviendra une langue aculturelle et "asexuée".

Il reste peut-être quand même une lueur d'espoir : l'un des deux prix remis ce jour là par le ministre au nom de la Commission européenne (« le label européen ») fut décerné à un projet scolaire d'apprentissage de la langue française. L'autre fut donné à un projet qui englobe l'anglais, l'allemand et le français.

Dans un proche avenir le gouvernement danois devra se prononcer sur un rapport ("Langue en jeu"[2]) publié récemment par une commission parlementaire nommée au mois de mars. Le rapport, qui semble tout à fait sensé, énumère une longue série de problèmes et formule autant de recommandations. Il sera intéressant de voir si le gouvernement en tiendra compte.

Nous supposons que ce qui se passe au Danemark, dans ce domaine, peut intéresser aussi d'autres pays qui connaissent les mêmes problèmes et nous tâcherons, dans la mesure du possible, de tenir nos lecteurs au courant de la suite des événements.

Le Comité Rédacteur

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DÉLAIS

Toute contribution destinée à être publiée dans notre revue "LSP and Professionel Communication" doit nous parvenir dans les délais suivants:

Vol.4, No.1, avril 2004: **le 1er décembre 2003**
Vol.4, No.2, octobre 2004: **le 1er juin 2004**
Vol.5., No.1, avril 2005: **le 1er décembre 2004**

Pour plus de détails, veuillez consulter le site de DSFF: http://www.dsff-lsp.dk

[2] "Sprog på Spil", Kulturministeriet, 2003 (www.kum.dk).

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EDITORIAL:

Although it does not imply a rejection of the more traditional linguistic approaches (such as terminology, grammar and textual linguistics), recent LSP research has, to an increasing extent, sought to fit LSP areas within the framework of communication theory. As we have said earlier, in this very space, the interest of LSP theoreticians in communication stretches far back in time. New forms of communication, particularly of the intercultural variety, do, however, give rise to new problems. Many of these will probably prove themselves amenable to analysis and description in an advantageous fashion by means of new theories whereas others will only be solved by purely political decisions. This latter category comprises language problems of non-English speaking European countries, in light of the fact that English is well on its way to becoming a ”global language”, which poses problems of crucial importance to all who work in the field of LSP.

In Denmark, discussion on the necessity of a language policy has, for a long time, been focussed on ”general” language and culture. The result is that our efforts tend to deal with the problems of LSP in trade and industry, in teaching and science.

After the publication in June of our white paper entitled ” Trade and Industry, Language Policy and Competitivity.”[1], we took the opportunity provided by this year´s ”European Language Day”, 26 September, when Europe is supposed to be celebrating the ”diversity of languages”, to organize a ”Language Fair” which ended up attracting over 3000 visitors. Politicians, language specialists as well as representatives of various enterprises had been invited to speak on the four following subjects: ”Language Diversity.”, ”Language and Communication.”, ”Language and Culture.” and ”Language Policies.”. The Education Minister came and opened the Fair.

The speeches and presentations proved to be of great interest and relevance and it is our fervent hope that they will influence political decisions. Unfortunately, the ”diversity of languages” was not overly apparent as most of the speakers seemed to think that the language problem in Denmark boiled down to a choice between the exclusive use of English or the use of both English and Danish.

Although the minister did not fail to sing the praises of linguistic diversity at the beginning of her speech where she pointed out the necessity to learn other languages in order to understand other peoples and their cultures; the remainder of the speech, however, only mentioned Danish and English and consisted of little more than an extended promise to strengthen teaching of the national language and start the teaching of English at an earlier stage of primary education than hitherto.

[1] ”Hvidbog om Erhvervsliv, Sprogpolitik og Konkurrenceevne.”, DSFF, 2003 (www.dsff-lsp.dk).

A single speaker, Professor Iversen of the Pedagogical University of Denmark , had the courage to point out that if no significant changes were made to the way language policy was applied in Denmark today, all foreign language teaching, barring that of English, would disappear altogether within ten years, leaving Danes to fend for themselves with their inadequate English vis-à-vis other European nationals for whom English also was not a first language. English, when used as a mere tool of communication between non-native speakers out of its cultural context, would thus become acultural and "sexless".

There may just be a glimmer of light in the overall gloom in that one of the prizes handed out by the minister on behalf of the European Commission, the ”European Label”, went to a school project that sought to provide a thorough grounding in the French language. The other prize went to a project that comprised English, German and French.

In the near future, the Danish government will have to respond to a recently published report, ”Language at Stake”[2] produced by a parliamentary commission appointed in March. The apparently reasonable and balanced report mentions many problems and produces as many recommendations. It will be interesting to see whether the government will see fit to act on them or not.

We suppose that the situation in Denmark in this field might be of interest to other countries encountering similar problems and we will endeavour when it is feasible to keep our readers in touch with unfolding events.

The Editorial Board

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DEADLINES

Any contribution to be published in the International Journal ”LSP and Professional Communication” should reach us within the following deadlines:

Vol.4, No.1, April 2004: **December 1st 2003**
Vol.4, No.2, October 2004: **June 1st 2004**
Vol.5., No.1, April 2005: **December 1st 2004**

For more details, please consult our web-site: http://www.dsff-lsp.dk

[2] ”Sprog på Spil”, Ministry of Culture, 2003 (www.kum.dk).

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ARTICLES:

Fachsprachen konstruieren: Kurskonzept für eine mehrsprachige Universität in Italien – Teil II

Stefania Cavagnoli (Libera Università di Bolzano, Italy)
Anny Schweigkofler (Università degli Studi di Trento, Italy)

1. RECHTSSPRACHE (RE)KONSTRUIEREN: EIN BEISPIEL AUS DEM ITALIENISCHEN FACHSPRACHENUNTERRICHT

Wie bereits im ersten Teil beschrieben, geht es im vorliegenden Beitrag um die Entwicklung eines Kurskonzeptes für einen Fachsprachenunterricht an einer dreisprachigen Universität in Italien. Der ersten theoretischeren Teil beschreibt das Ergebnis einer Bedarfsanalyse, skizziert zentrale Themenschwerpunkte aus der deutschen und italienischen Literatur zur Fachsprachenforschung und zieht daraus Schlüsse für ein Kurzkonzept. Zu den Elementen des Kurskonzeptes gehören:

a) zentrale Thesen, welche als theoretische Parameter für die Umsetzungsphase gelten,
b) die Definition der Arbeitsfelder *Didaktik, Methodik* und *Praktiken*,
c) das konkrete organisatorische Kurzkonzept.

In methodischer Hinsicht lehnt sich das Kurzkonzept an das Fremdsprachenwachstum (Vgl. Buttaroni 1997) an. Wie bereits im methodischen Ansatz des ersten Teils dieses Beitrages beschrieben, ist von einer Trennung von inhaltsorientiertem und analytischem Arbeiten auszugehen. Dies bedeutet, dass beispielsweise das globale Hören oder das globale Lesen dem analytischen Hören oder Lesen immer voraus gehen und zeitlich entsprechend abgesetzt sein muss. Globale Fertigkeiten geben den Studenten Zeit, den Inhalt des Textes durch gezielte Aktivitäten zu erarbeiten. Analytische Fertigkeiten zielen auf die Form wie beispielsweise textpragmatische oder grammatische Elemente und machen erst dann Sinn, wenn der Basis(hör)text einigermaßen verstanden wurde. Analytisches Arbeiten hat also die Aufgabe, die Sprachwahrnehmung auf bestimmte Elemente zu lenken.

Der Begriff der „Konstruktion“ spielt in diesem Zusammenhang eine zweifache Rolle:

a) einerseits liegt er unserem didaktischen Gesamtkonzept für eine Integration von Fach- und Fachsprachenunterricht zugrunde;
b) andererseits hat das konkrete Beispiel, das wir hier analysieren, mit einer (Re-) Konstruktion von Sprache im engeren Sinne zu tun: Die Studenten rekonstruieren wortwörtlich eine bereits bekannte Passage aus einer Vorlesung.

Wertenschlag (2000, 431-432) schreibt über die Didaktik der Fachsprache des Rechts:

> "Das Spezifische (an der Didaktik der Fachsprache Recht) ist ihr Fokus: Es sind die Lernenden und nicht die Sprache und ihre Anwendung, die es zu analysieren und eventuell zu optimieren gilt, oder ein rechtliches Normensystem, das angewendet, verändert und durchgesetzt werden sollte. Hinzu kommt, dass der Ausgangspunkt der (Fach)sprachendidaktik das Nicht-Verstehen-Können ist. Ihre Aufgabe besteht deshalb darin, den Lernenden, durch Schaffung von Raum und Zeit für die Lernenden und die Dekonstruktion der fachwissenschaftlichen Wirklichkeiten und ihrer sprachlichen Konkretisierungen sprachliche und konzeptuelle Zugänge zu schaffen, dass eben diese Konstrukte die Lernende annähernd wieder konstruieren, in dem sie ihre bestehenden kognitiven und sprachlichen Wissensbestände neu organisieren und erweitern.“

1.1 Der Übungstyp: Lingua Puzzle

Ziel des Lingua Puzzle ist es, gehörte Sprache im Detail zu (re)konstruieren.
Das Lingua-Puzzle ist

- die wortgetreue Rekonstruktion einer Textpassage
- mit anschließender schriftlicher Fixierung.
- Die beim globalen Hören entwickelten Sinnkonstrukte bestehen aus lexikalischen Elementen, global-thematischem und situativem Wissen und einigen im Detail verstandenen Passagen. Ein beträchtlicher Teil des gehörten Textes mag weiter unklar sein. Für ein umfassenderes Verständnis sind wichtige morphosytnaktische und lexikalische Aspekte des Textes der Wahrnehmung der Lernenden entgangen. Das wortgetreue Verstehen von Äußerungen stellt nun einen qualitativen Sprung im Spracherwerb dar.
- Das dem jeweiligen Text zugrunde liegende linguistische System der Fremdsprache wird also auf allen Ebenen sprachlicher Organisation rekonstruiert: Syntax und Lexikon, Morphologie, Phonologie, Semantik und Pragmatik. (Buttaroni, 1997: 215/216)

Wir gehen, was die Fachsprache anlangt, davon aus, dass mit der Rekonstruktion dieses Textes ein Fachtext nachgebaut wird. Das Nachbauen dieses Textes liefert uns viele Details über Schritte und Etappen eines Prozesses, der oft nicht explizit ausgewiesen wird. Die Zielsetzungen der Rekonstruktion dieses Textes sind didaktisch motiviert und sind auch nur für diesen Rahmen aussagekräftig. Bei dem zu rekonstruierenden Text handelt es sich um mündliche Fachkommunikation; genauer um eine Vorlesung eines Fachmanns (Professor) für angehende Fachleute (Studenten) mit der Zielsetzung Fachwissen zu vermitteln.

Das Videoexzerpt der Vorlesung soll also nicht von den Studenten paraphrasiert oder inhaltsorientiert diskutiert werden. Es geht hingegen um eine bewusste wortwörtliche Rekonstruktion des mündlichen Textes. In der Rekonstruktion soll die Oberflächenstruktur des Textes von der Lautebene auf die Bild(=Schrift)-Ebene übertragen werden.

Wie bereits erwähnt, ist methodisch-didaktisch wichtig, dass die Studenten mit dem Text inhaltlich vertraut sind. Das ist in unserem Beispiel dadurch gewährleistet, dass die Studenten in der Vorlesung anwesend waren und nachher im Fachsprachunterricht die Videoaufzeichnung noch einmal gesehen haben. Dies macht das Lingua Puzzle nicht zu einem reinen Sammeln von Wörtern, sondern zu einer Rekonstruktion, die der Kohäsion und Kohärenz des Textes Rechung trägt.

1.2 Probanden und Text

1.2.1 Text = Hör(bild)text

Die Videoaufzeichnung wurde nicht didaktisch aufbereitet. Der einzige „didaktische“ Eingriff des Fachsprachenlehrers bestand darin, aus der Gesamtaufzeichnung einen bestimmten Teil ausgewählt zu haben. Selbst Muttersprachler würden diesen Text nicht von vornherein wortwörtlich rekonstruieren können. Hier sind die Studenten aufgefordert alle Kenntnisse über Sprache, Umfeld und Fach zu aktivieren: Sie bedenken die grammatikalische Ebene, berücksichtigen die soziokulturellen Konventionen der gezeigten und bereits erlebten Situation, sie benutzen Mechanismen der Kohäsion, arbeiten an der Diskrepanz zwischen phonetischem Zeichen und graphischem Zeichen bzw. deren Verbindung. Sie werden den gehörten Teilausschnitt in einen Gesamtdiskurs des Faches einordnen.

Das Fach ist (italienisches) Privatrecht, ein Fach des ersten Studienjahres an der Wirtschaftsfakultät.

1.2.2 Probanden

Die StudentInnen haben zum Zeitpunkt dieses Lingua Puzzles schon mindestens ein Jahr Vorlesungen auf Italienisch in diesem Fach gehört, haben verschiedene italienischsprachige Professoren gehört, verschiedene Texte auf Italienisch gelesen und kennen die Konventionen des universitären Diskurses zum Thema. Das Lingua Puzzle wird mit zwei StudentInnengruppen parallel erprobt: Eine Gruppe (A) sind die deutschsprachigen StudentInnen der Freien Universität Bozen. Sie kommen aus Österreich und Deutschland und sind im ersten Studienjahr an dieser dreisprachigen italienischen Universität. Die Arbeit mit dem Lingua Puzzle wurde gegen Ende des Studienjahres durchgeführt, nachdem die StudentInnen auch den italienischen Fachsprachenkurs besucht haben und sich immerhin für dieselbe Zeit in einem zumindest zweisprachigen Gebiet an einer dreisprachigen Universität bewegt hatten. Sie sind der eigentliche Gegenstand des Untersuchungsinteresses. Eine weitere Gruppe (B) setzt sich aus italienischsprachigen StudentInnen derselben Universität zusammen. Sie sind die Kontrollgruppe. Sie sind im zweiten Studienjahr und TeilnehmerInnen des Fachsprachenkurses Deutsch. Die italienischsprachigen StudentInnen werden hier als MuttersprachlerInnen bezeichnet, weil für sie die Sprache des Hörtextbeispieles die Muttersprache ist.

Beide Gruppen kennen die Unterrichtsmethode des Fachsprachenkurses. Die Lingua Puzzle-Übung zielt auf die Gruppe der Deutschsprachigen, für die das Italienische eine Zweitsprache ist. Sie haben in einer vorhergehenden Unterrichtseinheit den Text inhaltlich erarbeitet, während die Muttersprachlerinnen den Hörtext in einer der vorhergehenden Stunden ein Mal gehört haben.

1.3 Ablauf:

Laut Buttaroni (1997:210/211) ist ein Lingua Puzzle durch folgenden Ablauf gekennzeichnet:

a) Intensives Hören

   Die aus dem authentischen Hörtext gewählte Passage wird mehrmals abgespielt (5-10 Mal). Die Anweisung an die Lernenden lautet: "Versucht ein Maxim dessen, was Ihr identifizieren oder verstehen könnt, zu notieren". Außerdem werden die Studenten angehalten, ihr Verständnis selbst einzuschätzen, d.h. prozentmäßig (1-100) anzugeben, wie viel sie glauben verstanden zu haben.

b) Informationsaustausch

   Die Lernenden vergleichen und vervollständigen - soweit es möglich ist – ihre ersten Ergebnisse (Notizen) in Paaren

c) Intensives Hören

   Die Passage wird wiederum mehrmals gehört, woraufhin die Lernenden ihre Notizen ergänzen.

d) Informationsaustausch

   In neuer personeller Zusammensetzung tauschen die Lernenden ihre inzwischen reichhaltiger gewordenen Notizen aus.

e) Intensives Hören

   Der Text wird mehrmals gehört. Durch das mehrmalige Hören werden einige syntaktische, semantische, morphologische Hypothesen von der akustischen Quelle her bestätigt, andere verworfen, wieder andere bleiben weiterhin ungelöst.

f) Informationsaustausch

   Er findet in größeren Gruppen (zu dritt oder zu viert) statt.

g) Klären von offenen Fragen im Plenum

Dafür sollten 10 bis 20 Minuten eingeplant werden.

Wie die Ablaufbeschreibung zeigt, sieht die Arbeit am und mit dem Lingua Puzzle vor, dass sich Einzel- und Gruppenarbeiten sowie das Hören, das Notieren und der Informationsaustausch abwechseln. Dies unterstreicht das gemeinsame Erarbeiten des Textes durch die StudentInnen und stellt die Lehrperson in die zweite Reihe.

Das von den StudentInnen stufenweise verstandene Rohmaterial besteht oft aus einem Gemisch von bekannten Wörtern und einigermaßen lautgetreu notierten Wortgebilden. Im gemeinsamen Vergleich beginnt die sich entwickelnde Kompetenz der Lernenden sichtbar zu werden: Die intuitive und die bewusste Grammatik muss dort jenen Beitrag leisten, den die akustische Wahrnehmung – weil für bestimmte Daten unempfänglich – nicht mehr leisten kann. Bei einigen Lücken können die akustischen Ressourcen nicht mehr weiterhelfen. Die abwechselnden Phasen des Hörens und Austausches sollen solange durchgeführt werden, bis die Lernenden das Gefühl haben, etwa 90 bis 100 Prozent der Passage rekonstruiert zu haben oder dass sie an die Grenzen ihrer Hörbereitschaft gelangt sind. Die Arbeit am Lingua Puzzle sollte nicht länger als 45 Minuten dauern, damit die Konzentrationsfähigkeit der Studenten nicht überlastet wird.

Im vorliegenden Analysebeispiel war das sog. Intensive Hören durch einmaliges und nicht durch mehrmaliges Hören gekennzeichnet.

1.4 Die (Re-)Konstruktionsetappen: eine Analyse

Bei der Beschreibung der Rekonstruktionsetappen berücksichtigen wir vor allem syntaktische und lexikalische Momente. Dabei geht es um eine Beobachtung und Systematisierung dessen, was die StudentInnen in gemeinsamer Arbeit schließlich zu Papier gebracht habe, d.h. die Übung selbst umfasst die Sprachwahrnehmung in Verbindung mit der kontrollierten Sprachproduktion. Unsere Analyse erhebt allerdings nicht den Anspruch, Aussagen über Verstehen oder Sprachverarbeitung zu machen.

Im Detail lässt sich Folgendes feststellen: (einzelne Etappen und Endtext siehe Anhang 2)

- Die italienischen MuttersprachlerInnen notieren in der ersten Schreibphase bereits Haupt-und Nebensätze.
- Zu den semantische Feldern bei den Muttersprachlerinnen: das Wort „società“ wurde durch „mondo“ ersetzt. Für MuttersprachlerInnen macht es als Kollokation keinen Unterschied, ob von „società in cui viviamo“ oder „mondo in cui viviamo“ die Rede ist.
- Konnektoren (Konjunktionen bzw. Präpositionen): Die Muttersprachlerinnen haben in der ersten Schreibphase die Verbindung durch die Präposition:

„accanto al (1) sorge (2)“ erfasst. Sie haben diese Relation vor der parataktischen Relation mit „o“/*oder* fixiert, welche lediglich einen Alternativbegriff aufzeigt.

- Auf semantischer Ebene zeigt „si chiama“ (*nennt sich*, *heißt*) an, dass die Definition eines Begriffes abgeschlossen wurde, der jetzt gleich genannt wird. Im Text war dies „rapporto obbligatorio“. Er wurde vom Professor auch prosodisch markiert, und sowohl von den MuttersprachlerInnen als auch den deutschsprachigen StudentInnen in der ersten Schreibphase notiert.
- Die Satzteile „il rapporto“/ „si instaura“ /„fra i due soggetti“ kommen in zwei Sätzen vor: das erste Mal als Hauptsatz: „Tra i due soggetti si instaura un rapporto...“, das zweite Mal mit Nebensatz: „Il rapporto che si instaura fra questi due soggetti...“: Die MuttersprachlerInnen verwenden die Hauptsatzformulierung (in der ersten Schreibphase) mit vorangestelltem Objekt, während die deutschsprachigen Studenten in der zweiten Schreibphase die zweite Formulierung mit dem Nebensatz verwenden und sofort als Gesamtsatz mit der Definitionsmarkierung „si chiama“ notieren. Diese rein chronologisch zweite Variante wurde intonatorisch klarer dargestellt (eindeutig betont und intoniert) und langsamer gesprochen. Für die StudentInnen, für die das Italienische eine L2 ist, stellt die Intonation und die Gestik eine Orientierung dar. Dass die Satzteile zwei Mal in ähnlicher Reihung vorkommen, wird nicht sofort rekonstruiert. Die MuttersprachlerInnen notieren dies in der dritten Schreibphase, die deutschen MuttersprachlerInnen in der vierten Schreibphase: wenn es das zweite Mal notiert wird, dann als gesamter Satz.
- Bereits in der ersten Schreibphase hatten die deutschsprachigen Studentinnen die Begriffe „diritto reale – diritto di credito“ notiert und die Konjunktion „o“/*oder* fixiert. Erst in der vierten Schreibphase wird erkannt, dass nicht zwei sondern drei Begriffe des „diritto“ behandelt werden und die erste Relation nicht durch eine Konjunktion, sondern eine Präposition markiert ist: „accanto al ... sorge il .....“ die grundlegende Opposition wird hier nicht durch das „o“/*oder* bestimmt, wie es die deutschen Studentinnen interpretiert hatten, sondern durch das accanto al ... sorge il, das o/oder gibt nur einen alternativen Ausdruck wieder. Zuerst wird die Konjunktion (oder) verstanden und dann erst die Konstruktion mit Präposition, obwohl die Verbindung mit der Präposition (Accanto al = neben) zentraler ist als die Verbindung durch die Konjunktion (oder), welche nur einen Alternativbegriff aufzeigt.
- Die deutschsprachigen Studenten korrigieren weniger als die MuttersprachlerInnen. Die deutschsprachigen StudentInnen korrigieren bestimmte/unbestimmte Artikel, Präpositionen, Begriffe (reale/relativo, wo das Problem in der falsch verstandenen Verbindung lag und nicht im Begriff an und für sich, denn beide Ausdrücke kommen im Text vor). Die MuttersprachlerInnen schreiben gleich drauf los, korrigieren dann aber auch mehr: Artikel, Konjunktion („o“/*oder*), Satzteile, Verben.
- Lesart der deutschsprachigen StudentInnen: in der ersten und zweiten Schreibphase versteht man, dass es „diritto reale o diritto di credito“ gibt. Dann ist vom „creditore“ und „debitore“ die Rede. Diese beiden werden als

Subjekte angesehen, die in einer Beziehung stehen, die sich „rapporto obbligatorio“ nennt. Daraus versteht man allerdings noch nicht, was „diritto reale/diritto di credito“ und „rapporto obbligatorio“ miteinander zu tun haben. Die Inbeziehungsetzung fehlt. Die beiden Subjekte, um die es und um deren Beziehung es geht, sind das „diritto di credito“ und „diritto reale“. Eines der Hauptprobleme des (Hör-)verstehens, das sich hier bei den deutschsprachigen StudentInnen zeigt, ist, dass sie zuerst zentrale Begriffe notieren, dann aber noch über mehrere Phasen diese Begriffe nicht in Relation zu den anderen im Text verteilten Begriffen setzen können. Wenn von den beiden „soggetti“ und deren Beziehung zueinander die Rede ist, dann denken die StudentInnen an creditore/debitore aber nicht so sehr an diritto reale und diritto di credito.

- Verhalten und Gruppendynamik beim Hören und Schreiben:
  In der vierten Hörphase diskutieren die italienische MuttersprachlerInnen schon beim Anhören mit und kontrollieren/vergleichen schon genau mit dem geschriebenen Text. Die deutschen MuttersprachlerInnen konzentrieren sich noch mehr auf das Hören bzw. Verstehen.
  In der fünften Hörphase, die mit der vierten Schreibphase gekoppelt ist, kontrollieren die italienischen MuttersprachlerInnen nur mehr Details. Die deutschen MuttersprachlerInnen arbeiten intensiv, eine von ihnen schreibt intensiv mit.
  In der sechsten Hörphase, die mit der fünften Schreibphase gekoppelt ist, schreiben die italienischen MuttersprachlerInnen überhaupt nichts mehr, es scheint, dass sie fertig sind, bzw. über ein Wort uneinig sind. Die deutschen MuttersprachlerInnen schreiben mehr als bisher und diskutieren eifrig.
  In der siebten Hörphase, die mit der sechsten Schreibphase gekoppelt ist, kontrollieren die deutschen MuttersprachlerInnen den Text, die italienischen MuttersprachlerInnen lesen mit, ändern aber nichts mehr.
- Während die Gruppe der MuttersprachlerInnen eher den Gesamttext und die Zielversion im Auge hat, im Hinblick auf welche sie Wort für Wort rekonstruiert, geht die Gruppe der deutschsprachigen StudentInnen von einzelnen verstandenen Textteilen aus, um dann langsam – Schritt für Schritt – zur annähernd richtigen Endfassung zu kommen. Im Gespräch untereinander werden inhaltliche (reale/relativo) und sprachliche (della/nella) Aspekte diskutiert. Dabei kann es bei diesem Übungstyp vorkommen, dass Lerner gezwungen werden inhaltlich richtig verstandene und grammatikalisch korrekte Versionen noch zu überarbeiten. Die MuttersprachlerInnen nehmen eine chronologische Rekonstruktion/ Wort für Wort vor. Für sie stellt sich der Sinn der Übung anders dar als für die Nicht-MuttersprachlerInnen, für welche diese Übungsform konzipiert wurde.
- Es gab sechs Schreibphasen: die Gruppe der MuttersprachlerInnen hätte auch weniger Zeit gebraucht, um den Text zu rekonstruieren, wenn auch bei ihnen noch bis zuletzt Korrekturen vorgenommen wurden. Für die Nicht-MuttersprachlerInnen hatten die sechs Schreibphasen andere Prioritäten. Die zentralen Passagen waren die zweite und dritte Schreibphase, weil hier am meisten Informationen hinzugefügt und am meisten korrigiert wurde.

- Der Text der MuttersprachlerInnen und deutschsprachigen StudentInnen ist formal zum Großteil korrekt. Es gibt nur zwei Orthographie-Fehler: „istaura“ (statt instaura) und „cosidetto“ (statt cosiddetto). Zudem ist der Schlusssatz ungenau. Er hat sowohl den MuttersprachlerInnen als auch den deutschsprachigen StudentInnen viel zu denken gegeben.
- Die MuttersprachlerInnen haben alternative semantische Konzepte bzw. Kollokationen im Kopf, wenn sie rekonstruieren. Die deutschsprachigen StudentInnen versuchen sich auf das zu konzentrieren, was ihnen das Vorbild (der Professor) vorgibt. Weil die MuttersprachlerInnen Alternativen kennen, korrigieren sie auch mehr.
- Die deutschsprachigen StudentInnen müssen puzzlemäßig arbeiten. Sie konstruieren ohne viel zu korrigieren was sie hören und diskutieren über die alternativen Lösungen in einer relativ späten Rekonstruktionsphase.
- Wozu haben wir eine Kontrollgruppe mit MuttersprachlerInnen herangezogen? Um die unterschiedlichen Gewichtungen bei der Rekonstruktion des Textes zu sehen? Wo sind also generelle Unterschiede? Die MuttersprachlerInnen haben verstanden und verfügen über eine Kapazität der Produktion, bei der sie keine Gewichtung mehr vornehmen (müssen). Es geht um das Memorisieren und um das chronologisch schnelle Fixieren. Die deutschsprachigen StudentInnen haben partiell verstanden (wir wissen nicht wie viel oder wenig im Verhältnis zu den MuttersprachlerInnen), sie gehen bei ihrer daran gekoppelten Kapazität zur Produktion offensichtlich anders vor. Sie fixieren zuerst Begriffe, die bei Berücksichtigung des Originaltextes, der richtigen Schreibweise und der graphischen Anordnung folgende Merkmale aufweisen: Es sind Substantive mit Subjektfunktion und sie sind in irgendeiner Weise bekannt. Sie notieren zuerst die Aktiva. Es gibt in der ersten Schreibphase bereits einfache Relationen, die auf Opposition bzw. Differenz hinweisen: „o“ sowie ↔. Das „o“/*oder* ist ein parataktische Verbindung von Informationen auf verbaler Ebene, die ↔ (Pfeile) eine symbolhafte Darstellung. Diese bedeutungskonstituierenden Differenzierungen tauchen in der ersten und zweiten Schreibphase auf.
- Ab der dritten Schreibphase beginnt das Verbinden, Ausfüllen, Korrigieren durch jene Elemente, die inhaltlich unterstützenden Charakter haben. Die MuttersprachlerInnen gehen hingegen nicht nach einer bedeutungskonstituierenden und differenzierenden Weise vor, sondern fixieren so viel wie sich merken können ohne inhaltliche Gewichtung. Der Abschlusssatz, der inhaltlich reinen Kommentarcharakter hat, wird von den deutschsprachigen StudentInnen erst im Laufe mehrerer Schreibphasen aufgebaut. Die MuttersprachlerInnen hingegen haben ihn schon nach der ersten Schreibphase inhaltlich korrekt wiedergegeben. Die deutschsprachigen StudentInnen müssen den Inhalt stufen, die MuttersprachlerInnen nicht. Sie stufen nur in der Memorisierungsleistung. Die Stufung und Gruppierung im Puzzle ist Sinn der Übung für das Lernen der Zweitsprache. MuttersprachlerInnen machen das intuitiv nicht, weil sie „zu viel verstehen“.
- Auf der Makroebene des Textes findet ein Transfer statt, und zwar von der Zeit- und Lautebene (unterstützt durch visuelle Kontextfaktoren: Mimik,

Gestik des Professors, visuelle Erinnerung an Ort der inhaltlichen Präsentation) auf die graphische Raum-Ebene.

2. SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN: DAS LINGUA PUZZLE UND DAS GESAMTKONZEPT

Die Rekonstruktion der einzelnen Phasen des Lingua Puzzles wurde deshalb derart detailliert beschrieben, weil sie im Kleinen etwas über das Arbeitsverständnis im Gesamtkonzept aussagt. Das Lingua Puzzle kannten sowohl deutschsprachige als auch italienischsprachige StudentInnen aus dem L2-Fachsprachenunterricht. Das untersuchte Beispiel ist demnach für die deutschsprachigen StudentInnen eine gewohnte Lingua-Puzzle-Situation, da ein italienischer Fachtext rekonstruiert wird. An der Herangehens- und Arbeitsweise der deutschsprachigen Studenten in diesem Lingua Puzzle zeigt sich, was sie vom didaktischen Gesamtkonzept verstanden und mitgenommen haben: Sie sind mittlerweile daran gewöhnt, mit komplexen authentischen Texten, die sie täglich gebrauchen, umzugehen. Sie können einen Auszug aus einem derartigen – im Groben verstandenen – Text sogar wortwörtlich rekonstruieren. Dafür brauchen sie vielleicht länger als Muttersprachler, aber das Beispiel zeigt, dass es vielleicht gar nicht sehr viel länger sein muss. Sie lernen mit der Ambiguität von Verstandenem und Nicht-Verstandenem umzugehen: Dabei notieren sie vielleicht auch nur halb Verstandenes, diskutieren es aber anschließend mit einem Partner und lernen so auch die L2-Kompetenz der Kollegen zu schätzen. Beim Hinschauen bzw. Hinhören (Video) machen sie sich die Intonation und Gestik des Sprechers als Informationsquelle zunutze. Die Gestik und die Intonation wirkten im analysierten Beispiel unterstützend und leitend, wenn es um das erste Fixieren von Begriffen ging. Die zuerst notierten Begriffe sind sog. Fachbegriffe, welche die StudentInnen als verstanden einstufen. Sie haben hier auf ihr Fachwissen zurückgegriffen. Dann folgt in mehreren Stufen das weitaus Schwierigere, nämlich die Verbindung der Begriffe und Teilaussagen. Im untersuchten Lingua Puzzle erkannten die Studenten die auf Opposition ausgerichteten Beziehungen als erste: In einer Formulierung wurden Begriffe durch „oder“ verbunden, in einer anderen wurden symbolhafte Pfeile eingesetzt.

Es hat sich gezeigt, dass die deutschsprachigen StudentInnen daran gewöhnt waren, sehr genau Hinzuhören. Beim Notieren fühlten sie sich schon relativ sicher und korrigierten auch relativ wenig an ihrem eigenen Text.

Ganz allgemein wird bei dieser Übung von den StudentInnen auch verlangt, dass sie sich dem fremden Text ohne Paraphrase und Umschweife „unterordnen“. Ihre Hypothesen und das gemeinsame Arbeiten daran sind wichtig, aber für die Studenten zählt der Text, der genau so wie er von einem Muttersprachler produziert wurde, wiederzugeben ist. Dieser Muttersprachler ist nicht der Fachsprachenlehrer. Letzterer organisiert nur den Umgang mit den authentischen Texten, er selbst gilt nicht als absolute Instanz. Im Lingua Puzzle steckt diesbezüglich ein zentrales Element des Gesamtkonzeptes: Das Hinhören, Hinschauen und genaue Lesen, denen ein Austausch mit anderen Lernern folgt. Dieses zentrale Element, das sich mehrmals wiederholt, sieht den Lehrer als Informationsquelle nicht vor. Er wird erst am Ende, wenn es darum geht noch immer Unverstandenes zu klären, herangezogen.

Die Methode des Fremdsprachenwachstums hat sich - nach einer Auseinandersetzung mit Ansätzen und Methoden wie sie für den Fachsprachenunterricht an deutsch- und italienischsprachigen Universitäten angewandt werden - als äußerst brauchbar erwiesen. Sie ist durchführbar:

d) obwohl Team-Teaching mit den Fachlehrern nicht möglich ist,
e) obwohl die Basislitertatur der Seminare und Vorlesungen ständig wechselt,
f) obwohl die Sprachkompetenz der StudentInnen in der L2 stark divergiert,
g) obwohl es auf dem Markt keine Lehrbücher für den Fachsprachenunterricht im jeweils speziellen Faches gibt.

Warum Fachsprachenunterricht trotz dieser zahlreichen „Einschränkungen" möglich ist, und vielleicht dadurch erst sinnvoll wird, hat zu einem großen Teil mit der Haltung der Fachsprachenlehrperson gegenüber den StudentInnen, dem Fach und dem Fachlehrer zu tun. Die hier vertretene Haltung legt das Schwergewicht auf die StudentInnen und ihre Perspektive auf das Fach. Diese Entscheidung hat weitreichende Konsequenzen, wie beispielsweise jene, dass vom Fachlehrer formulierte Lehrpläne oder Lernziele nur indirekt – wenn von den Studenten vorgebrachte – interessant sind. Eine weitere Konsequenz kann auch jene sein, dass Fachsprachenlehrbücher (wie es für L2 Deutsch zahlreiche gibt) uninteressant sind, da sie sich mit fachlichen Teilaspekten auseinandersetzen, die nicht brauchbar sind. In diesem Fall wäre es wichtiger, an jenen Texten (anhand einer ausgewählten Methode) zu arbeiten, welche im Fach relevant und wichtig sind.

Neben einem Kurzkonzept im engeren Sinne, das einen Ablauf bzw. einen Struktur vorschlug, schien es nach zwei Jahren intensiven Arbeitens unter dem ständigen Anspruch der Flexibilität zielführend, an zentralen Thesen für ein Kurzkonzept im weiteren Sinne zu arbeiten. Folgende Thesen fassen wichtige Überlegungen zusammen und können auch für Fachsprachenkurse in anderen Kontexten und unter anderen Bedingungen gelten.

- Fachlehrer, Fachsprachenlehrer und StudentInnen sind Subjekt und Objekt der Untersuchung. Sie sind Beobachter wie Beobachtete. Dies beinhaltet das umfassende Projekt nicht nur Lehrer (Fachsprachenlehrer und Fachlehrer) sondern auch Lerner zum Erforschen ihrer Arbeit zu motivieren. Die Reflexionsaufgabe lautet: Was mache ich, wenn ich x tu? Was bewirke ich, wenn ich x mache? Wozu mache ich x und nicht …n?
- Das von den StudentInnen angestrebte Fachdenken ist ein Konstrukt, das nicht in einer der Personengruppen absolut angesiedelt werden kann: Es ist nicht an einzelnen Örtlichkeiten, Texten oder Personen ausmachbar. Es ist

konstruierbar und gestaltbar. Das was an Fachwissen von einem Fachlehrer geprüft wird, stellt eine von vielen Referenzgrößen dar, der jeder auf unterschiedliche Art gerecht wird.

- Fachlehrer, Fachsprachenlehrer und StudentInnen verfügen im Rahmen eines universitären Umfeldes über unterschiedlich gewichtete Kompetenzen bei der Konstruktion dieser Realität des Fachdenkens und sind deshalb für die StudentInnen unterschiedliche Referenzgrößen.
- Fachsprachenunterricht ist dem gemäß keine Lehre, sondern eine selektierende Tätigkeit der In-Beziehung-Setzung von Informationen, welche der Fachsprachenlehrer von dem Fachlehrer wie von den Studenten erhält. Durch seine von der Fachlehrperson andersartige Kompetenz setzt er/sie die erhaltenen Informationen anders in Beziehung als dies der Fachlehrer tut. Seine andersartige Kompetenz besteht also in einer anderen Handlungsweise. Im Vergleich zum Fachlehrer bringt der Fachsprachenlehrer den „verfremdenden Blick" auf das Fach mit. Der Fachsprachenlehrer verfügt durch seine vom Fachlehrer unterschiedliche Gewichtung und Vernetzung von Information über das Verfahren der Verfremdung als Methode des Erkenntnisstimulus. Das *Verfahren der Verfremdung* kennt kein Ende (Spirale), während beim Verfahren der Erklärung durch die Metaebene immer wieder unterstellt werden muss, dass es einen Standpunkt gibt, der immer über allen Ebenen steht.
- Die von den Studenten angestrebte fach(handelnde)kommunikative Kompetenz, welche eine zahlreiche Teilkompetenzen umfassende Fähigkeit ist, sprachliche Einheiten zu produzieren und rezipieren, ist nur durch die Integration von Fach- und Sprachvermittlung möglich. Diese Integration leistet letztendlich der Lerner. Fach- und Fachsprachenlehrer schaffen Bedingungen.

In Teil I und Teil II dieses Beitrages haben die Autorinnen versucht aufzuzeigen, wie wichtig die Theoretisierung der Praxis einerseits und die Praxisorientierung der Theorie andererseits ist. Bei der Entwicklung eines Kurzkonzeptes – im vorliegenden Falle für Fachsprachen - gilt es auf die jeweilige Situation maßgeschneiderte Programme zu entwickeln, die mit anderen Projekten, Programmen und Konzepten nur anhand von Thesen vergleichbar werden. Derartige Thesen sind das immer wieder neu zu überdenkende Zwischenprodukt, das sich aus theoretischen Beiträgen, Bedürfnissen der Zielgruppe bzw. des Umfeldes der Zielgruppe, der Rollendefinition der Beteiligten und einem organisatorischen Modell ergibt. Dieser Beitrag hat insofern vor allem das Ziel, PraktikInnen zur kritischen Auseinandersetzung mit Rollenbildern, Anforderungen, organisatorischen Rahmenbedingungen und der Wissenschaft anzuregen.

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Anhang 1

Hörtext (Transkript)

... irrompe l'interesse e la tutela dell'interesse a conseguire un bene in senso lato che non si ha e che altri hanno
a questo punto, accanto al diritto reale, sorge il cosiddetto diritto relativo o diritto di credito
tra i due soggetti si instaura un rapporto in base al quale il primo soggetto vanta un diritto di credito, vanta una pretesa giuridicamente protetta a conseguire un determinato bene da parte di / del secondo soggetto
creditore / debitore
il rapporto che si instaura fra questi due soggetti si chiama rapporto obbligatorio, obbligazione
credito debito rapporto obbligazione
questa è una rivoluzione che naturalmente è alla base poi della società in cui viviamo...

Anhang 2

Rekonstruktionsetappen der deutschsprachigen StudentInnen (durchgestrichenen Wörter oder Buchstaben sind von den StudentInnen in der jeweiligen Etappe korrigierte)

1. Schritt:

IRROMPE l'interesse ...

....
.....
un diritto reale o un diritto di credito.

....
....
creditore ↔ debitore
.....
rapporto obbligatorio

VIVIAMO.

2. Schritt

IRROMPE l'interesse, la tutela dell'interesse a conseguire un ... bene

....
.....
un diritto reale o ~~un~~ diritto di credito.

....
....
creditore ↔ debitore. Il rapporto che si istaura fra questi due soggetti si chiama:

rapporto obbligatorio

obbligazione: credito – debito → rapporto obbligatorio
.....
.....
VIVIAMO.

3. Schritt

IRROMPE l'interesse, la tutela dell'interesse a conseguire un bene, in senso alto, che non si ha ma che hanno gli altri.
......
Accanto al diritto sorge il diritto di
....
.....
~~un~~ diritto ~~reale~~ relativo o ~~un~~ diritto di credito.

....
....
creditore ↔ debitore. Il rapporto che si instaura fra questi due soggetti si chiama

rapporto obbligatorio

obbligazione: credito – debito → rapporto obbligatorio
.....
rivoluzione
.....
VIVIAMO.

4. Schritt

IRROMPE l'interesse~~,~~ e la tutela dell'interesse a conseguire un bene, senso alto, che non si ha mai che ~~hanno~~ gli altri hanno.

......
A questo punto ~~A~~accanto al diritto reale sorge il diritto di
....
.....
un diritto ~~reale~~ relativo o ~~un~~ diritto di credito.

Tra due soggetti si istaura un rapporto in base al quale il primo soggetto vanta un diritto di credito
....
....
creditore ↔ debitore. Il rapporto che si istaura fra questi due soggetti si chiama

rapporto obbligatorio

obbligazione: credito – debito → rapporto obbligatorio

.....

È stata una rivoluzione
.....
VIVIAMO.

5. Schritt

IRROMPE l'interesse~~,~~ e la tutela dell'interesse a conseguire un bene, senso alto, che non si ha mai che ~~hanno~~ gli altri hanno.

......

A questo punto ~~A~~accanto al diritto reale sorge il cosidetto diritto ~~di~~

....

.....

~~un~~ diritto ~~reale~~ relativo o ~~un~~ diritto di credito.
Tra due soggetti si istaura un rapporto in base al quale im promo soggetto vanta un diritto di credito, vanta una pretesa giuridicamente protetta a conseguire un determinato bene
....
....
creditore ↔ debitore. Il rapporto che si istaura fra questi due soggetti si chiama

rapporto obbligatorio

obbligazione: credito – debito → rapporto obbligatorio

.....

È stata una rivoluzione
..... nella società in cui noi VIVIAMO.

6. Schritt

IRROMPE l'interesse~~,~~ e la tutela dell'interesse a conseguire un bene, senso alto, che non si ha mai che ~~hanno~~ gli altri hanno.

......

A questo punto ~~A~~accanto al diritto reale sorge il cosidetto diritto ~~di~~

....

.....

~~un~~ diritto ~~reale~~ relativo o ~~un~~ diritto di credito.
Tra due soggetti si istaura un rapporto in base al quale il primo soggetto vanta un diritto di credito, vanta una pretesa giuridicamente protetta a conseguire un determinato bene da parte dal primo soggetto.

....

....

creditore ↔ debitore. Il rapporto che si istaura fra questi due soggetti si chiama

rapporto obbligatorio

obbligazione: credito – debito → rapporto obbligatorio

.....

È stata una rivoluzione
A base d~~n~~ella società in cui noi VIVIAMO.

***

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ABSTRACT

Fachsprachen konstruieren: Kurskonzept für eine mehrsprachige Universität in Italien - Teil II

NB! The first part of this paper (Teil I) was published in LSP and Professional Communication, Volume 3, Number 1, April 2003

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In this paper the authors aim to show how theory and practice are interlinked in planning an LSP language course. It is the result of a project conducted at a tri-lingual university in Italy over 1,5 years. In the first part of the paper the theoretical impact will be discussed. The second part of the paper shows an example of a teaching exercise. Even though the authors describe the course concept by starting with the more theoretical impact and coming then to the practical one, both aspects are seen as one. The authors see themselves as teachers <u>and</u> researcher, and aim to show how important it is to define theoretical aspects of practice on the one hand and to study theory from a practice-oriented point of view on the other. It is part of the job of a teacher/researcher to continuously discuss how both are intertwined.

In this practical part of the paper, the authors analyze an example taken from an LSP-classroom situation. The subject is “Diritto privato”. The teaching exercise taken from the LSP-class is the so-called “Lingua Puzzle”, where students re-build a pre-fixed part of text. The group of students involved consists of German native speakers learning Italian as L2. The aim is to show how they build up their language and content knowledge. In order to underline decisive points of their construction process a control group of Italian mother tongue speakers and students of the same university were introduced. Their way of re-building the same text is completely different.

Part 1 and Part 2 of this paper aim to motivate practitioners to re-think their practice critically and to stress the importance of theory.

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The Struggle for a Place in the Sun: Rationalizing TESP in the Twentieth Century

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1. Introduction

Lantolf and Sunderman (2001), in surveying 84 years of justification for, and defence of, foreign language study in the educational curriculum of the United States, entitled their article as 'The Struggle for a Place in the Sun: Rationalizing Foreign Language Study in the Twentieth Century'. Borrowing the title here, I will, following the same 'tradition', offer justification for as well as defence of another but relevant language- and pedagogy-related issue: the teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). It is important to note at the outset that although this article focuses on ESP, the discussion certainly applies more widely and concerns Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) in general.

I begin, in the section that follows, by outlining a brief account of ESP. Attempts at justifying a situated approach (to be discussed later) to TESP then follow. This I will do by drawing on both theoretical and pedagogical considerations as observed in the literature of the general educational field (which includes foreign or second language education) in the past century. Finally, I discuss some challenges in teaching English for Specific Purposes (TESP) and suggest a number of possible solutions to these challenges.

2. Teaching English for Specific Purposes Defined

ESP may mean different things to different people. Nevertheless, leading scholars of the field such as Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Robinson (1991), Strevens (1988)[1] and West (1998) have generally provided some useful defining characteristics for ESP. While agreeing in varying degrees, these scholars have either explicitly or implicitly acknowledged that any ESP courses should, at the very first place, cater to the target learners' *specific needs* (either academic or professional). They should be *content-relevant* to the learners' particular disciplines, occupations and activities (i.e. to the target situation). Also, the *language* and *skills* should mirror authentic use by the target community (e.g. the community of doctors or of mechanical engineering students)[2]. Ultimately, these considerations of content, language and skills are (and should be) aimed at equipping learners with the necessary knowledge to perform effectively in the target community.

It seems appropriate then to define TESP as follows:

The preparation of learners to meet their specific needs, particularly in terms of content, language and skills, for effective participation in their target community.

3. A Situated Approach to TESP: Some Justifications

We have defined TESP as the preparation of learners for effective participation in their specific target community (either academic or professional). Essentially, this entails a *situated* approach to TESP by which learners (i.e. new members or the neophytes) are being initiated into their academic or professional community. Provided below is the rationale as to why such an approach to TESP is desired.

3.1 Contextualization of language use

One belief is that there are different ‘varieties’ of the same language. Technically speaking, they are called ‘registers’. These registers, to a considerable extent, differ from one another. Thus, English for Civil Engineering is ‘different’ from English for lawyers. Indeed, research pursuing this line of inquiry in text analysis has shown that there are important grammatical differences amongst various registers. For instance, our intuition would lead us to think that the imperative as the command form of a verb is mainly used to give orders or instructions. A pioneering study examining this grammatical feature in research articles, however, reveals that writers use it also for other strategic purposes such as “engaging the reader, achieving text economy, or manifesting personal style” (Swales et al., 1998). This is but one example from a large pool of studies showing how words vary semantically and functionally in different contexts of language use (e.g. Biber et al., 1999). If we accept these text-analysis findings, adopting a situated approach to TESP seems highly plausible and logical. We expose our learners to the special lexico-grammatical nature of each register sensitive to the specific context in which they are acquiring the target language, thereby catering to their specific linguistic needs.

3.2 Relevance and learner motivation

An approach to TESP that situates the learning experience within the learner’s academic or professional community also has the face validity of addressing the learner’s immediate language learning needs. It makes the language learning experience more relevant and meaningful. In other words, because the content, language and skills are designed directly related to the particular field of the learner, learning becomes more motivating. And strength of motivation, as shown in the second language acquisition (SLA) research, serves as a powerful predictor of second-language achievement[3] (Ellis, 1994). From the perspective of motivation, placing English language learning within the context of the learner's study or work environment rather than across a variety of environment that has little relation to the learner's target community, adds an affective dimension to the educational merit of a subject-specific approach.

3.3 Situated cognitive theory of learning

Recent research in the field of general education highlights the importance of exploring situated cognition, a theory that refers to the idea that cognitive processes such as thinking and learning are situated in physical and social contexts, as a means of understanding the development of competence in domains like literacy, mathematics and science (Schunk, 2000). While research on the effectiveness of situated learning has begun only recently, initial results are promising. According to situated cognitive theory of learning, knowledge is most effectively acquired if the learning experience is situated within the actual contexts in which the knowledge occurs. As Brown et al. (1989) persuasively argue, knowledge "is not only context-sensitive, it is completely context-dependent". Since cognitive theories see linguistic knowledge as being similar to other types of knowledge and view strategies responsible for knowledge development as general in nature (Waring, 1995), the ideas voiced here further shed light on the advantage of a situated approach to TESP.

3.4 The discourse domain hypothesis

A further argument in support of a situated approach to language learning comes from an SLA perspective in the form of the Discourse Domain Hypothesis (Selinker and Douglas, 1985). The Hypothesis postulates that learners acquire a second language by first creating 'discourse domains' (or topic areas). They then use these domains to develop their second language structures. In other words, learners' interlanguage structures do not develop globally across topics but rather differentially within discourse domains. Research carried out in this area confirms the hypothesis (e.g. Woken and Swales, 1989; Whyte, 1994). From a pedagogic point of view, we should thus adopt an approach that is domain-specific. By framing the learning experience within the domain of our learners' study or work environment, we are assisting them to advance their interlanguages in the target context, enabling them to use and develop language and skills competently in situations specific to their specialism.

3.4 Different disciplinary demands

Drawing on a large body of research, Hyland (2000) convincingly argues that the writing tasks students have to tackle at the university is specific to discipline and educational level. Citing Bridgeman and Carlson (1984), for example, he shows that academic practices differ enormously across disciplines. It was found that engineering faculty gave priority in postgraduate programmes to describing charts while business studies teachers wanted students to practise compare-contrast and take a position. Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002) also point out that, from a large pool of survey research, there is now clear evidence that there are not only considerable variation of discourses across curriculum but also differences in the structure of common genres across disciplines. Teaching ESP therefore entails taking into consideration the wider sociocultural issues and distinct disciplinary practices that strongly influence both the construction and interpretation of students' work. This view further emphasizes the importance of adopting a target community approach to TESP in addressing students' urgent needs to perform effectively in specific disciplines (Johns, 1988; see also Candlin and Hyland, 1999).

Based on the review of research thus far, one can see that there is, indeed, a need for a situated approach to teaching English in specific contexts. Having some understanding of why such an approach is much sought after, some challenges we face in adopting a subject-specific approach will be addressed.

4. A Situated Approach to TESP: Some Challenges

This article has been confined to discuss two issues related to the challenges the language teacher has to face in the ESP classroom. A number of possible solutions to these challenges in academic contexts will be presented although it is relevant more widely.

One of the major challenges for language teachers in the ESP classroom is obviously that we lack the expertise and knowledge to teach in the learner's chosen discipline. If we are to teach, for instance, a group of electronic engineering students, we will most likely face the awkward situation of not being able to answer the students' content-related questions. For those who highly regard themselves as members of a knowledgeable professional community, such a situation is often deemed face threatening and hence their preference for general English teaching, focussing on common topics of social sciences.

Another challenge we have to face is concerning the idea that ESP is too difficult for students at lower levels of English proficiency and that they need to acquire a 'common core' of language forms or features before they can pursue ESP. This view is based on what Bloor and Bloor (1986) call the Common Core Hypothesis. The hypothesis conjectures that there are common features of English which can be found across a wide range of varieties. Thus, English for lawyers, for example, is said to share nearly all the linguistic features with English for civil engineers. In this view, adopting broad-based English teaching that covers topics of general interest appears, again, to be a better alternative in catering for these lower proficiency students.

From these two viewpoints, it seems that our call for a situated approach to TESP is being adversely challenged, despite our earlier sound justifications for such an approach. Given the lack of a *specific* purpose, however, adopting a broad-based approach may lead us into the occasional blind alley along our professional journey. That is, as members of a learned, *professional* community by which we take pride to be acknowledged, we should not lose sight of our ultimate goal in the ESP classroom: to prepare our learners to meet their *specific needs* for effective participation in their target community. The challenges discussed earlier should not, therefore, be viewed as problems but should instead prompt us to see what solutions there may be to hand.

Since one of the strongest claims made for ESP courses is that they meet the specific communicative needs of the intended learners, insiders' information is thus deemed essential and will mark the first move towards exploring the challenges we face. By 'insiders', we mean the specialist informants which consist of the subject specialists and the students of a particular field. We need these insiders' information to form the basis of much ESP materials and pedagogy; in other words, we need the information in order to make inroads into the learner world so that we can draw invaluable insights from their academic or professional life to make informed decisions on our pedagogy (Bhatia, 1994).

One way by which we can materialize the idea of 'making inroads' is to involve close collaboration between language and subject specialists, especially in the learner's academic context. An excellent example is the UTM (Universiti Teknologi Malaysia) English for Civil Engineering programme, a joined collaborative effort between the Department of Modern Languages and the Faculty of Civil Engineering. In the collaboration, the language instructors and content lecturers have several meetings preceding each semester, during which the content lecturers provide information on the overall goals of the particular semester, the nature of the subjects, the course outline, key textbooks, important topics to be covered and tutorial questions. Based on the information given as well as having examined samples of previous student-assignments, reports and field-work entries, the language instructors then decide on the technical content through which language learning is to take place (see Khairi, 1998 for further discussion).

Such collaborative work benefits all parties. Perhaps most importantly, learners' acquisition of the target language in their own discipline can be facilitated and our professional obligations at meeting the ESP learners' specific needs can be fulfilled. It should be noted that it is always helpful for language instructors to highlight in advance their lack of expertise in the content subject and that it is not their intention to teach its content, both in this kind of collaborative work and in the ESP classroom (Khairi, 1998). Not only will this help to establish the respective roles of the language instructor and the subject specialist in their collaborative effort, that language instructors are to be consulted only on the target language can be made explicit as well in the classroom context. The issue of ESP practitioners encountering the potentially face threatening situation of being non-experts in the learner's content area can thus be approached with more ease.

Accordingly, we should reconsider our role in the ESP classroom. As Dlaska (1999, p. 407) rightly points out:

since language teachers are not usually experts in the subject matter … LSP [Language for Specific Purposes]-teaching must be learner centred. As Buhlmann and Fearns emphasise, "teachers in LSP organise the learning process, they enable students rather than instruct them" (Buhlmann and Fearns, 1991, p. 117). The difficulties teachers and learners face in an LSP-context are at opposing ends of a scale,[sic] Steinmetz observes: "if learners struggle with language, teachers may not comprehend content" (Steinmetz, 1993, p. 232). The resulting information gap can lead to genuine communications between specialists from different fields; the target language becomes a tool in the specialist context rather than an obstacle to expert communication.

Before proceeding to the conclusion section, let us turn to the issue and belief that weak students need to have control over a common core before they can move on to acquiring specific, and presumably more difficult, features of language. The argument is, to a large extent, more intuitive than scientific for research findings in SLA do not support such a view. As Nunan (1999) points out, the process of second language acquisition is more like growing a garden than building a wall. Learners do not learn one thing perfectly one at a time but learn numerous things simultaneously (and imperfectly). Further, if the Common Core Hypothesis is correct, “then students can learn this core at the same time as the specific variety rather than the other way round, a more cost-effective approach to learning” (Hyland, 2000, p. 5).

5. Conclusion

As we enter the new century, it is unfortunately still difficult to predict, like Lantolf and Sunderman’s (2001) observation on foreign language study, whether a situated approach to TESP will eventually find an uncontested place in the sun. As Hyland (2000) observes, there is an increasing trend away from this instructional approach towards a broader activity that is closer to general language teaching. This trend, however, should not encourage us to opt for soft-option, general English courses for ESP learners. As this article has attempted to show and as the research findings and scholarly discussion of the past century demonstrate[4], there are numerous advantages constituting a clear rationale in support of the value of a domain-specific approach, ranging from the linguistic, affective, cognitive to the sociocultural perspectives of language use and development.

By way of conclusion, it may be useful here to consider an elegant remark recently made by a scholar of the field at an international LSP seminar. The scholar contends that there are two ‘evils’ in the teaching profession: the first is ‘teaching without joy’ and the other ‘learning without hope’. While I am unsure if TESP offers much joy to the language teacher, adopting a situated approach to TESP, I believe, can assist us to make informed decisions at raising hopes for our learners. I hope that by reassessing our practices as ESP teachers whose ultimate goal is to facilitate learners’ effective participation in their target community, we will be more ready to consider the proposed approach as a principled means of guiding our learners along their language learning journey in specific contexts, arguably more confidently on the bright high road away from the blind alley.

Notes

Strevens (1988), a frequently cited article, offers very useful defining characteristics of ESP, or what he calls 'the four absolute and two variable characteristics of ESP'.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987), however, express the view that ESP should be concerned only with a set of universal skills or language features.

Ellis (1994) also points out that strength of motivation may itself be the result of previous learning experiences.

For convenience, the phrase 'past century' is used here. If we agree with Swales (1985), ESP is about 40 years old.

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ABSTRACT

The Struggle for a Place in the Sun: Rationalizing TESP in the Twentieth Century

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Borrowing the title from Lantolf and Sunderman's (2001) 'The Struggle for a Place in the Sun: Rationalizing Foreign Language Study in the Twentieth Century', this article attempts to offer justification for as well as defence of a situated approach to teaching English for specific purposes (TESP). Five arguments are put forward to justify the position adopted, drawing on the linguistic, affective, cognitive and sociocultural perspectives of language use and development. The article also discusses some challenges in TESP and suggests a number of possible solutions to these challenges. It concludes by arguing that in its struggle for an uncontested place in the sun, a domain specific approach to TESP requires the ESP practitioner's commitment to make principled decisions in the light of the clear advantages of such an approach, as this article has attempted to show and as the research findings and scholarly discussion of the past century demonstrate.

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Bausteine einer transdisziplinären Didaktik fachbezogener Textproduktion am Beispiel deutscher Geschäftsbriefe

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1. Einleitung und Problemstellung

Rasanter technologischer Fortschritt plus Verdoppelung des menschlichen Wissens in immer kürzeren Zeitintervallen (derzeit 1 Jahr, Tendenz fallend) plus Moore's Gesetz (Verdoppelung der Rechenkapazität von Mikroprozessoren alle 18 Monate, auch Tendenz fallend) sind essentielle Charakteristika moderner Informationsgesellschaften, die zunehmend mehr von der Globalisierung beeinflusst werden. Das Wissen der Menschheit differenziert sich immer mehr. Parallel bildet sich in dessen jeweiligen Disziplinen ein rasch partikularisierendes Expertentum heraus. Mit der Folge, dass immer tiefere Wissens- und Sprachklüfte zwischen diversen Niveaus fachsprachlicher Vertikalität und in verschiedenen kommunikativen Konstellationsvarianten entstehen. (Koskensalo 2001, 163f.) Diese Wissens- und Sprachklüfte bestehen zwischen Menschen, die ein differentes Bildungsniveau besitzen, Experten verschiedener Disziplinen sind, ungleiche Berufe ausüben, in nicht derselben Branche tätig sind, anderen Kulturen angehören und nicht den gleichen Grad an Informations(verarbeitungs)kompetenz haben. Die Handlungskompetenz als Informations(verarbeitungs)kompetenz wird immer virulenter, weil im Umgang mit Informationen, Daten und Fakten die Selektion verschärft werden muss, wenn nach einem sich immer mehr beschränkenden Kräfte-Mittel-Zeit-Kalkül zu verfahren ist. Eine Lösung der hier knapp anskizzierten Problematik, was die damit verbundenen Verständigungprobleme zwischen Kommunikatoren und die friktionsfreie Sicherung des Informationsflusses anbelangt, kann idealerweise nur durch eine Verbesserung der sozialen Kompetenz, Handlungs- und Fachkompetenz (inklusive Meta-Kompetenzen) bei allen Kommunikationsakteuren erreicht werden.

Dieser breite Ansatz verlangt zunächst nicht nur eine Verbesserung der Kompetenzen und Fähigkeiten von professionellen Experten und Kommunikationsmittlern, sondern auch von denen, die sich in einer berufsvorbereitenden Ausbildung befinden. Eine gediegene Schulausbildung, die nicht nur eine gute Allgemeinbildung, sondern auch zukunftsfähige Schlüsselqualifikationen (Klafki 1985; Luchtenberg 1999, 195f.) vermittelt, ist eine unabdingbare Basis für ein erfolgreiches Berufsleben. Dazu müsste auch eine Verbesserung des Textsortenwissens gehören. Nun fehlen aber bis jetzt dafür nötige didaktische Gesamtkonzepte, mithilfe derer - problemlösend - eine fachbezogene Textproduktionskompetenz von Nicht-Linguisten, wie von Ärzten, Ingenieuren, Juristen, (Fach-)Journalisten, Technischen Redakteuren und WirtschaftssekretärInnen umfassend und ganzheitlich verbessert werden kann.

Zwecks Problemlösung kristallisierte sich ein inter- bzw. transdisziplinärer, umfassender, ganzheitlicher Ansatz eines didaktischen Gesamtkonzeptes für eine fachbezogene Textproduktionskompetenz für Nicht-Linguisten heraus. Wie angedeutet, ist eine Verbesserung der Kommunikationsfähigkeit verknüpft mit der Fähigkeit, Verständigungsprobleme lösen und zielorientierten Informationsfluss möglichst friktionsfrei sichern zu können, gefragt. Diese Aufgabenstellung reicht somit weit über eine Verbesserung der fachbezogenen Textproduktionskompetenz hinaus. Vielmehr empfiehlt sich hier eine Integration dieser Kompetenz und dessen didaktischem Gesamtkonzept in die diversen, im Geschäftskommunikationsprozess vorkommenden Wissensrepräsentationssysteme (analog zu Baumann 2000, 154). Gleichfalls müssen die Regulationsgrundlagen der Informations- und Textverarbeitung systematisch miteinbezogen werden. Der Überbau des Wissens- und Handlungskosmos eines lebenslang lernenden Menschen verweist hier auf ein Kombinationsbündel von relevanten Teilkompetenzen: Schreib-Kompetenz als Teil sozial-kommunikativer Kompetenz verknüpft mit Informations(verarbeitung-) bzw. Fach-Kompetenz und Meta-Kompetenzen. (Koskensalo 2001, 100)

2. Zur Genese einer fachbezogenen Textproduktionskompetenz auf der Basis von Teilkompetenzen

Unter einer fachbezogenen kommunikativen Textproduktionskompetenz ist die aus funktional-kommunikativ und fachdidaktischer Sicht lehr- und lernzieladäquat bewusst aufgabengesteuert erworbene Fähigkeit eines angehenden Wirtschaftssekretärs zu verstehen (Blei 2002, 289 ff.) (mutter- und/oder fremdsprachliche) fachbezogene Texte wie z.B. der Gebrauchstextsorte Geschäftsbriefe als interkulturell, sozial, situativ und funktional bestimmte, sachlogisch gegliederte, semantisch strukturierte, linear-sequentiell und hierarchisch organisierte sprachliche Einheiten zu produzieren und zu rezipieren (vgl. Baumann 2000, 159; modifiziert u. adaptiert von der Verfasserin).

Der Erwerb dieser wie oben definierten Kompetenz ist das funktionale Resultat eines komplexen Zusammenspiels formaler und inhaltlicher Elemente und Relationen auf der Ebene des fachbezogenen Geschäftsbrieftextes (vgl. Baumann 2000, 159). Diese Kompetenz konstituiert sich aus zahlreichen vom Lerner zu erlernenden Teilkompetenzen, die u.a. einerseits dem Lerner die konkrete Bedeutung von Geschäftsbriefen, andererseits ihm die Komplexität der Textbedeutung von Geschäftsbriefen bewusst und vertraut machen sollen. Für den Lerner sind folglich diese Teilkompetenzen Konstituenten seiner fachkommunikativen Kompetenz. Er baut sie auf Basis seiner eigenkulturellen/-sprachlichen sowie allgemein(-fremd)sprachigen Kompetenzen auf. Das Wissen über Aufgaben, die Teilkompetenzen fördern, ist ihm zumeist vorerst wie auch der Weg zu deren Lösung nicht bewusst. Dem Lehrenden obliegt demnach sowohl die Organisation des Aneignungsprozesses von Wissen über die fremdkulturelle/-sprachliche Fachkommunikation als auch die Befähigung der Lerner zur Verarbeitung desselben. Das Wissen über die Teilkompetenzen fachkommunikativer Kompetenz kann dem Lehrenden dabei helfen, seinem pädagogisch-didaktischen Handeln Zielgerichtetheit und Fachadäquatheit zu sichern. Die Bewusstheit der Lerners konzentriert sich im Aufgabenlösungsprozess zunächst primär auf die Aneignung deklarativen und prozeduralen Wissens über die bzw. in der Geschäftskommunikation, doch sie beginnt eigentlich schon beim Aufgabenverständnis. Das Verstehen bzw. Formulieren einer fachkommunikaitv relevanten Aufgabe setzt bereits Bewusstheit über Funktionen sprachkommunikativer Mittel/Strukturen voraus wie es schon bekannte Strategien/ Techniken zur Wissensverarbeitung aktualisiert. Während der Interakton im fachdidaktischen Aufgabenlösungsprozess erwirbt dann der Lerner durch (quasi-)fachkommunikatives Handeln fremdsprachige/-kulturelle Erfahrungen, erhält explizite Erklärungen zum fachkommunikativen Wissen und reflektiert über die Angemessenheit/Normadäquatheit seiner Lernhandlungen in geschäftlichen Interaktionen. (Blei 2002, 293f.) Innerhalb eines solchen komplexen Determinationsmechanismus lässt sich ein didaktisches Gesamtkonzept als Summe eines ganzheitlichen Systems von sich teilweise überlappenden und ergänzenden Teilkompetenzen entwickeln.

Ein Vorschlag für ein integratives-prozessuales Gesamtkonzept und für eine fachbezogene Textproduktionskompetenz als Summe eines ganzheitlichen Systems von Teilkompetenzen für angehende WirtschaftssekretärInnen würde wie folgt aussehen: Die fachbezogene Textproduktionskompetenz, selber eine Teilkompetenz der sog. fachkommunikativen Kompetenz, lässt sich in 9 deszendente Teilkompetenzen aufgliedern:

2.1 Die soziale Teilkompetenz

Diese Teilkompetenz bezieht sich auf ein jeweilig situatives Bedingungsgefüge, das sich im Bewusstsein der Lerner als potentielle Rollenträger widerspiegelt und diesen über die Vermittlung spezieller Leistungsvoraussetzungen (individuelles Wissens-, Sprach- und Könnensniveau) zur Produktion und Rezeption von Geschäftsbriefen veranlasst (vgl. Baumann 2000, 161).

Ein situatives Bedingungsgefüge, das die fachsprachliche Vertikalität, die Stufen von Sprache und Wissen in diversen Konstellationsvarianten der Geschäftsbriefkorrespondenz (Koskensalo 2001, 163f.) in seiner Breite und Tiefe darstellt, hat die Verfasserin schon früher beschrieben Koskensalo 2002a, 142ff.).

Folgende Basiselemente sind dabei essentiell wichtig:

1. Die Elemente der fachbezogenen Tätigkeitssituation der an der Kommunikation Beteiligten;
2. die Elemente der sozialen Situation (Hayes 1996 und Göpferich 1998, 266f.) (vgl. auch soziale und physische Umgebung) und
3. die Elemente der Umgebungssituation der Geschäftsbriefpartner in der Geschäftskommunikation (vgl. Baumann 2000, 162).

Wie Baumann (2000, 162f.) für die fachliche Tätigkeitssituation konkrete Rollenspiele vorschlägt, wobei vier von ihm genannte Voraussetzungen erfüllt sein müssen, ist dies ebenso eine geeignete Möglichkeit, den Lernern ihre jeweilige soziale Teilkompetenz an der Adäquatheit ihres Verhaltens bewusst zu machen. Umso besser, je umfassender diese die jeweilige Kommunikationssituation analysieren und sich auf ihren Geschäftspartner einstellen können.

2.2 Die interkulturell-kommunikative Teilkompetenz

Wenn vorhin der situativ-soziale Aspekt der Geschäftskommunikation anskizziert worden ist, so spielt dabei der situativ-mediale Aspekt eine genausowichtige Rolle (Koskensalo 2002a, 258). Wenn wir es beim Medium Geschäftsbrief mit einer geschriebenen Sprache und ferner, indirekter Textproduzenten- bzw, Adressatenbeziehung zu tun haben, so kommt dabei auch der interkulturell-kommunikativen Teilkompetenz eine grosse Bedeutung zu. Diese Kompetenz ist ein unbedingtes 'Muss' im Bereich der international-interkulturellen Wirtschafts- und Geschäftskommunikation (Roth 2001, 10f.), die unzweifelhaft kulturspezifischen Einflüssen unterliegt und sich in Form kulturdeterminierter fachbezogener Geschäftsbriefkorrespondenz manifestiert. Wir haben es mit einer 'Indirektheit' der Geschäftskommunikation zu tun, die gegebenenfalls interkulturell beeinflusst wird. Dieses situativ-sozial-interaktionale Bedingungsgefüge hat nicht nur Auswirkungen auf die Geschäftsbrieftextgestaltung (in enger Anlehnung an Heinemann/Viehweger 1991, 212 bzw. Koskensalo 2001, 214f.), sondern auch für das Textverstehen des Adressaten. Um Kulturbarrieren und -unterschiede im pragmatischen Bereich bewusst zu machen, erkennen zu lassen und in der Folge überwinden zu lernen, verweist die Verfasserin auf ihre bewusst offen gelassene Programmatik des Fremden (vgl. Koskensalo 2002b). Obwohl in unserer Disziplin schon gute Ansätze (Göpferich 1998, Kap 10: Kulturbarrieren erkennen und überwinden) vorhanden sind, fehlt noch weit und breit eine sozialwissenschaftlich empirisch abgesicherte Kulturgrammatik, die für eine Didaktik der Fremdheit und damit auch für ein didaktisches Konzept für diese Teilkompetenz nutzbar gemacht werden könnte. Hier ist noch viel Forschungsarbeit zu leisten.

Nichtsdestotrotz würde ein gangbarer Weg wie folgt aussehen:

1. Die Lehrer vermitteln den Lernenden eine theoretische Basis interkulturellen und kommunikativen Wissens (Schröder 1991, Maletzke 1996, Göpferich 1998, 283-317, Wiseman 2002, 207-224).
2. Mithilfe der Checkliste zu Lokalisierungsstrategien (Göpferich 1998, 318-337) bzw. Analyse-Methode für Geschäftsbriefe (Koskensalo 2002a, 151-366) sollen die Lerner unter Anleitung der Lehrer - später in Gruppenarbeit - anhand von Original-Geschäftsbriefen diverser Länder, Sprachen und Kulturen für Kulturbarrieren und -unterschiede sensibilisiert werden. Die Vertiefung des erworbenen Wissens obliegt allerdings schwergewichtsmässig der Berufspraxis und den Fachseminaren unter dem Motto ‘lebenslanges Lernen’.

2.3 Die fachliche Teilkompetenz

Diese steuert als entscheidender Teil die fachkommunikative Kompetenz von Kommunikationspartnern in sachlich begrenzbaren Kommunikationsbereichen. Zur fachlichen Teilkompetenz gehört zunächst einmal der auf fachspezifische Inhalte bezogene Sachverhalt, das fachorientierte Wissens- und Kenntnisniveau und die sukzessiv damit erworbenen Fähigkeiten und Fertigkeiten der Lerner im Fach (Blei 2002, 292). Sie ist ein Hinweis, inwieweit ein Lerner sein Fachgebiet überschaut und beherrscht (Baumann 2000, 164f.). Dies ist kurzum das Basiswissen, das angehende WirtschaftssekretärInnen an Handels- und Wirtschaftsakademien vermittelt bekommen. Dazu gehört etwa das Wissen von der Gebrauchstextsorte ’Geschäftsbrief’ (Koskensalo 2001, Kap. 5.4) Textbau- bzw. die funktional-sukzessive Typologie der Textbaupläne (Duden 1989; “Briefe gut und richtig schreiben!”), terminologisches Fachwissen, ökonomisches, juristisches und Branchen-Wissen usw. Dieses sich vergrössernde Fachwissen befähigt den Lerner im Fach in zunehmendem Mass Aufgabenstellungen der jeweiligen Sparten- und Branchen-Geschäftskommunikation ziel- und fachadäquat zu lösen. Dieses sich vergrössernde Wissen und die damit wachsende Fähigkeit ist als Fakten- und Verständniswissen abprüfbar und durch Verständnis-/Kontrollfragen ebenso.

2.4 Die kognitive Teilkompetenz

Diese fachbezogene Kompetenz bezieht sich auf die kognitiven Aspekte, die das Funktionieren von Fachtermini, Denksystemen und gedanklichen Modellen in der kommunikativen Tätigkeit der Lerner beeinflussen (vgl. Hayes 1996, 4; Baumann 2000, 163). Der Erwerb von Fach- bzw. Kognitionswissen ist ein Prozess der begrifflichen/fachlogischen/kohärenten Nachbildung bzw. Rekonstruktion von Sachverhalten im Rahmen aktiver und autonomer Informationsaufnahme, -verarbeitung und -speicherung, der zu einer teilweisen Veränderung kognitiver Strukturen des Lerners führt (Blei 2002, 292; Köhnlein 1982, 63). Mit Hilfe kognitiver Prozesse bei der Textinterpretation (Lesen, Zuhören, Planen, Problemlösen, Entscheiden, Schlussfolgern) und der dabei erzeugten mentalen Repräsentationen wird dann vom Lerner der Textproduktionsprozess (Hayes 1996, 26) (schrift-)sprachlich durchexerziert (Börner 1989, 348ff.; Wolff 1992, 110ff.; Göpferich 1998, 267ff.; Krischer 2002, 383ff.).

Inwieweit der angehende Wirtschaftssekretär sich eine kognitive Teilkompetenz angeeignet hat, zeigt sich konkret im Laufe seines Lernprozesses in deren Beachtung und Anwendung beim Lösen von Übungsaufgaben, wie etwa beim Verfassen verschiedener Geschäftsbriefarten. Es zeigt sich des weiteren, inwieweit der Lerner fähig ist, sein Selbst- und Fremdbild adäquat zur Deckung zu bringen, d.h. seine Sender-Empfänger-Strategie sachlich und seriös mit den Vorannahmen über das Wissen, die Einstellungen und Motivation des Textrezipienten/-adressaten anzugleichen (Baumann 1992, 144ff.).

2.5 Die funktionale Teilkompetenz

Diese Teilkompetenz umfasst die Fähigkeit angehender WirtschaftssekretärInnen, alle jene sprachlichen und nicht-sprachlichen Mittel adäquat anzuwenden, die das Denken bzw. die Handlungs- und Erkenntnisfähigkeit in ihrem Fachgebiet auf dem jeweiligen Erkenntnisstand repräsentieren (analog zu Baumann 2000, 165). Sie entwickelt sich im Rahmen komplexer Wechselbeziehungen, die zwischen den Faktoren des fachbezogenen Geschäftskommunikationsprozesses existieren (kognitive Grundmuster (siehe Punkt 4), geistig-sprachliche Komplexverfahren (Argumentation, Deskription, Exposition, Instruktion und Narration) (Werlich 1975; Baumann 1992), Kommunikationsverfahren, Textintentionen und -funktionen (Koskensalo 2002, 93-110 bzw. genauer Kap. Teil I, 3, 5 und 7). Derartige Komplexverfahren können sich durch den gesamten Geschäftsbrieftext, d.h. durch alle Textmodule, ziehen.

Nach Vermittlung des vorne beschriebenen Basis-Wissens sollen die angehenden WirtschaftssekretärInnen das gesamte Spektrum der Geschäftsbriefarten anhand von Fallbeispielen bzw. in Form von Hausaufgaben abarbeiten. Auch wenn es bereits als Erleichterung (fast) fertige und kombinierbare Textmodule für die diversen Geschäftsbriefarten in der Berufspraxis gibt, so ist diese sicherlich mühsamere Anfänger-Arbeit unverzichtbar, weil die Lerner sich besser so diese sehr wichtige Teilkompetenz aneignen können. Am besten kann die funktionale Teilkompetenz in schul-/akademie-eigenen Übungssekretariaten bzw. -büros, ausserschulisch in Praktika und Voluntariaten gelernt, aber auch beobachtet und beurteilt werden. In solchen Übungseinrichtungen werden gleichzeitig natürlich auch die anderen Teilkompetenzen vertieft und gestärkt.

2.6 Die textuelle Teilkompetenz

Eine solche Teilkompetenz erwirbt sich der angehende Wirtschaftssekretär durch gediegenes Wissen über die Makrostruktur von Geschäftsbriefen (siehe Textbaupläne Duden 1989) und Textlinguistik (Thema bzw. Themenentfaltung) (siehe Koskensalo 2002a, 226ff., 3-Schritt-Textanalysemethode von Geschäftsbriefen, Schritt 3.1.; textuell-struktureller Aspekt).

Beim letzten Aspekt geht es um das Thema als Kern des Testinhalts der jeweiligen Geschäftsbriefart, wobei sich die einzelnen Arten im Zusammenhang mit der jeweilig dominanten Textfunktion, Illokutions- und Propositionshierarchie voneinander unterscheiden. Desgleichen gibt es für jede Geschäftsbriefart eine jeweils spezifisch-typische Mischung thematischer Entfaltungsgrundformen (deskriptive, explikative und argumentative Themenentfaltung). Die Realisationsform bzw. Beschreibung der Modalität der Themenentfaltung (deskriptiv-sachbetont, deskriptiv-meinungsbetont, rational-überzeugend und persuasiv-überredend usw.) ist ebenso in enger Korrelation als jeweilig-art-typisches Mischungsverhältnis existent. Auch hier gilt die Vorgangsweise wie oben bei 2.5. Viel Übung ist nötig, diese ebenfalls sehr wichtige Teilkompetenz erwerben zu können.

2.7 Die syntaktische Teilkompetenz

Diese Teilkompetenz umfasst alle syntaktischen Kenntnisse, die sich auf die im Geschäftsbrieftext realisierten sprachlichen Mittel und die zwischen ihnen bestehenden Relationen beziehen. Die Voraussetzung dafür ist und bleibt - im allgemeinen Sinne - ein gutes Schrift-Deutsch, d.h. gute Kenntnisse der Grammatik, über das die Lerner bereits verfügen sollten. Die angehenden WirtschaftssekretärInnen müssen das gesamte syntaktische Spektrum der Geschäftsbriefsprache erlernen (Hoffmann 1998, 473; Koskensalo 2002a, 252ff. bzw. Schritt 3.2). Eine breite Auswahl von Lehrbüchern der Geschäftskorrespondenz (z.B. Sachs 1994; Hering/Matussek 1996) stehen dazu zur Verfügung. Die korrekte Anwendung der Grammatik und des Textaufbaus von Geschäftsbriefen, die die Lerner vorerst im Unterricht geübt und in Form von Hausaufgaben vertieft haben, kann der Lehrer leicht überprüfen und mit den Lernern besprechen.

2.8 Die lexikalisch-semantische Teilkompetenz

Im Sinne eines modernen adressatenorientierten Geschäftsbriefstils ist die zieladäquate Verwendung von Fachtermini (Jahr 1993, 38ff.) und Fachphrasen bzw. deren fallweise nötige Erklärung für Laien in der fachbezogenen Geschäftskommunikation und -korrespondenz von speziell-methodischem Stellenwert. Den angehenden WirtschaftssekretärInnen muss daher der fachbezogen-relevante terminologische Wortschatz auf geeignete Weise, etwa EDV-unterstützt - vermittelt werden. Die Terminologiewissenschaft als inter- und transdisziplinäres Fach (Picht 1993, 14) mit ihren aktuellen Möglichkeiten, wie Zugriff via Internet auf Datenbanken in der ganzen Welt, helfen ihnen die lexikographisch-kulturspezifisch passenden Fachbegriffe bzw. ihre adressatengerechte Benennung und Fachphrasen zu finden und zu verwenden (Göpferich 1998, Kap. 7; Schmitt 2002, 49-57).

2.9 Die stilistische Teilkompetenz

Eine derartige Kompetenz, den obigen Teilkompetenzen hierarchisch übergeordnet, weil sich aus diesen summativ heranbildend, inkludiert die Fähigkeit von angehenden WirtschaftssekretärInnen, stilkonstituierende Zusammenhänge im Kommunikationsprozess der Geschäftskorrespondenz adäquat umzusetzen. Hierzu steht der Fundus des modernen, adressatenorientierten Geschäftsbriefstils zur Verfügung (z.B. Duden 1988; Manekeller 1998; Wolkerstorfer/Abfalter 2000;

Göpferich 1998, Kap. 3, 4 und 8, speziell 8.5 - 8.7)Wie stilistisch kompetent ein Lerner ist, zeigt sich, wie variabel, wirkungsvoll, verständlich und mit individuell-persönlicher Note er die fachbezogene Sprache und nonverbale Mittel (z.B. das Layout) anwendet und gebraucht. Eine kreative Stilkritik ist da stets nützlich (vgl. Hoffmann 1988, 473).

Wie die jeweilig existierenden Relationen zwischen den einzelnen Teilkompetenzen aussehen und welche Möglichkeiten einer allfälligen didaktischen Beeinflussung bestehen, kann beim gegenwärtigen Forschungsstand nur sehr schwer bzw. noch nicht beantwortet werden. Es hängt zudem davon ab, welches Aufgabenkonzept und/oder welche Abfolge/Kombination/Synthese (oder auch nicht) derer als Variante zur Herausbildung einer fachbezogenen Textproduktionskompetenz angewendet wird. Zumindest sind hier vier Varianten von Relevanz:

Man orientiert sich

1) ausschliesslich nach den Leitlinien eines instruktivistischen Aufgabenkonzepts (Blei 2002, 295ff.), das mindestens vier Stufen umfasst:
   Stufe 1: Fachtext- bzw. Fachhandlungsvorentlastung,
   Stufe 2: Fachtext-Bearbeitung/Fachhandlungs-Erarbeitung,
   Stufe 3: Fachtextmittel-/-struktur-Bearbeitung bzw. -Erarbeitung (Blei 2002, 297) und
   Stufe 4: Fachtext-/Fachhandlungs-Revision (Blei 2002, 297f.) oder
2) exklusive nach den Leitlinien eines konstruktivistischen Aufgabenkonzepts (Blei 2002, 298ff.), wobei drei Stufen zu berücksichtigen sind:
   1. die fachkommunikativ-subjektive Stufe (Blei 2002, 300f.),
   2. die fachkommunikativ-interaktionale Stufe und
   3. die fachkommunikativ-interkulturelle Stufe (Blei 2002, 300) oder
3) nach einer Abfolge der beiden Konzepte (zuerst das instruktivistische, dann das konstruktivistische Konzept), wie dies Blei (2002, 302f.) vorschlägt oder schliesslich
4) an einer Kombination bzw. Synthese der zwei Konzepte auf Vorschlag der Verfasserin, weil so die negativ-kritischen Aspekte des instruktivistischen (Blei 2002, 298) bzw. konstruktivistischen Konzepts (Müller 1997, 84) sich teilweise gegenseitig aufheben würden.

Wie nun konsequenterweise bei Variante 4 die einzelnen Relationen der Teilkompetenzen zu- bzw. untereinander in gradueller Stärke und je nach Stufenkonstellation bzw. die jeweilig didaktischen Möglichkeiten einer Beeinflussung derer aussehen, bedarf eines eigenen Artikels, wozu erst noch die nötige Forschungsarbeit zu leisten wäre.

Die Beantwortung der obigen Fragestellung wird des weiteren durch die weitgehend unbearbeiteten bzw. unerforschten Arbeitsfelder, Desiderata und offenen Fragen zur Aufgabenproblematik, die hier kurz anskizziert werden, erschwert:

1) Wichtig wäre die zukünftig stärkere Berücksichtigung der diversen Lernertypen und divergierenden Fachinhalte (-methoden/-begriffe) bei der unterrichtlichen Herausbildung der einzelnen Kompetenzen. Die Funktion von Aufgaben zur Steuerung sozialer Interaktionen zwischen Aktanten im Fachfremdsprachenunterricht und die fachkognitiven/-kommunikativen Interaktionen mit elektronischen und Printlernmaterialien müssten hierbei genauer untersucht werden.
2) Eine weitere zu erforschende Frage wäre: Inwieweit wirkt sich der Verlust an "sozialer Konstruktion von Wirklichkeit" (Wendt 1996, 76) negativ in einem internet- bzw. rechnerunterstützten Selbstlernprozess aus?
3) Um allfällige Rückschlüsse bezüglich einer Ausdifferenzierung von Aufgaben nach Lerner-bedürfnissen (individuelles, soziales Handeln) und Lernniveaus (fachkognitive/-kommunikative Anforderungen) ziehen zu können, müsste erforscht werden, inwieweit das Lösen fachkommunikativer Aufgaben individuelle kognitive und sprachkommunikative Prozesse auslöst (Blei 2002, 300).
4) Nachdem die Kulturgeprägtheit von Aufgaben im Fremdsprachenunterricht noch ein weitgehend unerforschtes Desiderat ist, müsste folglich untersucht werden, welche Aufgabenkonzepte und Aufgabenformulierungen ein adressatengerechtes Lehr- und Lernangebot zur Entwicklung einer fremdkulturellen fachbezogenen Textproduktionskompetenz wirksam unterstützen können.

3. Schluss und Ausblick

Die nur knapp anskizzierte Betrachtung der neun Teilkompetenzen einer fachbezogenen Textproduktionskompetenz für Geschäftsbriefe zeigt, wie inter- bzw. transdisziplinär ein didaktisches Gesamtkonzept sein muss, um angehenden WirtschaftssekretärInnen eine zukunftsfähige Berufsausbildung bieten zu können. Die Konkretisierung besagter Teilkompetenzen obliegt aber erst einem im nächsten Takt zu konzipierenden Curriculum, obwohl für das letztere bereits einige Vorschläge gemacht worden sind. Eine komplett ausgearbeitete Didaktik bzw. ein sofort praktikables Curriculum vorzulegen ist aus Platzgründen nicht möglich und entspricht zudem nicht der thematischen Aufgabenstellung. Des weiteren würde die theoretisch-didaktische Ebene, die hier vorrangig ist, zugunsten der praktisch-pädagogischen Ebene ins Hintertreffen geraten, wenn die einzelnen Teilkompetenzen zu sehr mit konkreten Aufgabenstellungen und -lösungen exemplifiziert würden, was ja in dieser Konzeptionsphase ohnehin noch verfrüht wäre.

Der sicherlich richtige Diskussionseinwand von Bungarten (2001) eine hinzuzufügende 2.10 (technisch-praktische Teilkompetenz (inkl. ästhetischer) und 2.11 (moralisch-gesetzliche Teilkompetenz) ist in den vorherigen Teilkompetenzen schon als subsumiert zu sehen; genauer: in 2.3, 2.5., 2.6, 2.7, 2.8 und 2.9 bzw. 2.11 präziser in 2.2, 2.3, 2.4 und 2.5 - weniger als Teilkompetenzen - als Oberbegriffe sind diese natürlich teilweise und grossteils gültig.

Die präzise Ausarbeitung dieser Didaktik bzw. Konzipierung von dementsprechenden Curricula ist nach wie vor aktuell, nützlich und wichtig:
Die Erwartung, mit dem Siegeszug elektronischer Medien nehme - analog zum Rieplschen Gesetz (Riepl 1913) - die Bedeutung des Briefes ab, wird durch die Realität widerlegt. Seit 1951 hat sich in Deutschland der Anteil der Geschäftspost beim gesamten Briefaufkommen von 7 auf heute 80 Prozent gesteigert. Bei 75 Prozent der europäischen Führungskräfte besitzt die (Geschäfts-)Briefpost eindeutige Priorität. In Zukunft werden sich sicherlich die traditionellen Methoden des Marketings stärker mit den elektronischen Medien verbinden. Aber erst die richtige Kombination von Internet und klassischem Mailing (inkl. Geschäftsbriefkorrespondenz) wird eine noch gezieltere Kundenansprache erlauben (Der Brief-Berater Magazin 7/2001, 18).

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ABSTRACT

Bausteine einer transdisziplinären Didaktik fachbezogener Textproduktion am Beispiel Deutscher Geschäftsbriefe

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The article explores the possibilities of building up curricula in the field of teaching LSP. It argues in favour of a transdisciplinary approach to didactic problems, basing its observations on the fact that the ever increasing amount of information in a globalised world puts increasing demands on the ability to master communication in proliferating discourse communities. The proliferation of discourse communities asks for better instruction in traditional fields of communication, including text-type awareness, not to mention the vocabularies of different professions, such as medical doctors, engineers, lawyers, journalists, technical editors, or secretaries.

The article then moves on to distinguish between nine types of subsidiary competence to be reckoned with in the planning of curricula. It points out that in addition to the basic linguistic competence in a field of specialised language usage, these subsidiary competences play an increasing role in curriculum planning. These subsidiary competences are:

1. The social competence: the need for the participant in communication to recognise social situations and to gauge the own contribution according to social requirements.
2. The intercultural-communicative competence: the need to be aware of cultural differences in the use of a foreign language in the environment where the language is spoken.
3. The competence of a specialisation. This includes the awareness of special vocabulary and its use, coupled with an ability to assess degree of specialisation when addressing non-expert audiences.
4. The cognitive competence: the ability to acquire new knowledge and skills related to one's own field of specialisation
5. The functional competence. This includes an awareness of intentionality joined with text-type awareness.
6. The textual competence, which may be described as the ability to view the coherence and cohesion of texts as a whole; the ability to plan and structure a text.
7. The syntactic competence; the knowledge of the requirements of a good grammar and the ability to apply that knowledge to text-type requirements.
8. The lexical-semantic competence. This includes not only an ability to apply the correct term in the right circumstance, but also an awareness of how terminology emerges, and how to apply search on the internet and search through data bases for adequate vocabulary.
9. The stylistic competence is a conglomerate of the above competences. On the stylistic competence of the learner will depend the richness, the effectiveness, the comprehensibility and the individuality of the letter.

The conclusion of the article is that due to the transdisciplinary nature of the professional letter, a complete curriculum would be highly complex and beyond the scope of the present article. But the article nevertheless draws attention to the problems and hints at their solution.

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Análisis Contrastivo (Inglès-Español) del Libro de Texto de Medicina e Implicaciones Didácticas para la Formación de Traductores

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1. Introducción

> Para poder enseñar los lenguajes especializados (técnico, jurídico, etc.), en una lengua extranjera o en la lengua materna, es necesario conocer previamente los textos que se generan en cada ámbito especializado y las convenciones que rigen su funcionamiento. Lo mismo sucede con la traducción, ya que para traducir, o para enseñar a traducir, los textos propios de cada ámbito social o profesional, es necesario conocer las normas que los rigen. (A. Hurtado Albir 2001: 492)

A pesar a) del ingente volumen de traducciones médicas en la combinación lingüística inglés-español en la producción editorial española, b) del hecho de que los libros de texto son utilizados como material didáctico en la formación de traductores y c) del interés que esta clase de texto ha despertado entre algunos estudiosos del texto de habla inglesa y alemana, resulta, cuando menos, sorprendente la falta de atención en torno a la misma por parte de los investigadores españoles, tanto desde el punto de vista intralingual como interlingual.

Con el presente trabajo, pretendo llenar, en la medida de lo posible, el vacío existente y contribuir a la caracterización, decripción de algunas de las características externas e internas del libro de texto[1] en el ámbito médico en la

[1] Cuando aludo a la clase de texto «libro de texto», hago referencia exclusivamente al artículo o capítulo en cuestión y no a los «textos auxiliares» —prólogo, introducción general, agradecimientos—, que suelen estar presentes en dicha clase de texto en su totalidad.

combinación lingüística inglés-español. Asimismo, es mi intención mostrar de qué manera los resultados obtenidos del análisis interlingual contribuyen a la formación de traductores médicos de acuerdo con unas pautas didácticas. Y, sobre todo, deseo allanar el camino al estudiante de traducción médica directa, que, ante la falta de investigaciones al respecto, todavía «tiene que procurarse no sólo los conocimientos propios de la especialidad que traduce, sino que al mismo tiempo debe familiarizarse con las características propias de cada clase de texto, tanto en la lengua original como en la receptora» (P. Elena García 1990: 85).

2. Materiales y Métodos

Con objeto de describir y establecer algunas de las características tanto externas como internas del libro de texto, utilizado como término genérico que abarca otras clases de texto —manuales, compendios, tratados, etc.—, he hecho uso de 13 libros de texto de medicina (8 en español, 5 en inglés) con distintos grados de abstracción. Basándome en las aportaciones de B. Spillner (1981), R. Arntz (1993) y L. Hoffmann (1991, 1998e) referentes a la metodología más eficaz para llevar acabo un análisis textual de tipo contrastivo, he partido, tras comprobar que los textos objeto de estudio constituyen textos paralelos, de los factores que enumero a continuación. Factores externos, que son los encargados de condicionar tanto la configuración lingüística de los textos como, por cierto, la diferenciación entre los mismos: a) función comunicativa global, b) actos de habla, c) participantes en la comunicación, d) circunstancias de la recepción y e) circunstancias de la producción. Factores internos: estrategias metacomunicativas, tales como marcadores (introductorios, de señalización de cambio de tópico, reformuladores recapitulativos) y elementos metacomunicativos —definición, información acerca de determinadas denominaciones, explicación, sinónimos.

La elección de dichos elementos se fundamenta en las siguientes observaciones:

a) su estudio contribuye a identificar el grado de abstracción y especialización de las clases de texto, dilucidar la intención del autor, conocer de qué recursos discursivos se vale el productor de un texto para el mantenimiento del tópico y garantizar el éxito de la comunicación,

b) «las diferencias entre las lenguas resultan más difíciles de percibir al nivel del discurso que a otros niveles inferiores, en parte, sin duda, por el carácter inherentemente borroso de las unidades a este nivel, lo que a su vez explica que la Lingüística no haya comenzado a abordar el estudio de dichas unidades hasta hace apenas dos décadas» (F. J. Fernández Polo 1999: 14) y

c) por su relevancia para la formación de traductores.

3. Factores externos

La función comunicativa del libro de texto de medicina consiste en transmitir conocimientos de dicha disciplina, proporcionando al destinatario un marco teórico y conceptual de la misma, así como un instrumento de referencia. O en palabras de I. Wiese (1998: 1282), dicha clase de texto constituye «ein unentbehrliches Mittel der medizinischen Aus- und Weiterbildung und dienen als Nachschlagewerke in der medizinischen Praxis». Función comunicativa que suele quedar reflejada en las secciones «Justificación y Agradecimientos» o «Prólogo», como se ilustra a través del siguiente ejemplo:

> En esta esperanzadora tarea, como coordinador de esta asignatura, me ha parecido positivo aportar este *Manual de Oncología Clínica*, planteado como instrumento de formación teórica, de modo que el alumno pueda disponer de un texto de referencia claro en castellano, que responda a los objetivos docentes de la asignatura. Pretendo que sea también una obra de ayuda para licenciados médicos, médicos de otras especialidades y médicos que inician su formación en las especialidades oncológicas.[2]

Los actos de habla más destacados en esta clase de texto son la descripción, narración e instrucción.

En efecto, en el libro de texto predomina la descripción, ya que con la clase de texto que aquí nos ocupa lo que se pretende es, como explica K. Hyland (1999: 3), proporcionar

> [...] a coherently ordered epistemological map of the disciplinary landscape and, through their textual practices, can help convey the norms, values and ideological assumptions of a particular academic culture.

La narración constituye una variable cuya presencia es débil en esta clase de texto. Se puede observar en aquellos textos en los que se dedica un apartado a la organización cronológica de ciertos acontecimientos. Más concretamente, el emisor se sirve de la narración cuando desea informar al destinatario sobre la historia y evolución de una determinada disciplina médica con objeto de proporcionarle una visión de conjunto de los avances logrados en dicho campo.

Por último, la instrucción, con la que se persigue dirigir el comportamiento del lector proporcionándole las informaciones necesarias para que lleve a cabo una tarea determinada, es una variable débil en esta clase de texto. No obstante, se detecta su presencia en aquellos textos con una orientación de tipo práctica: estudio de distintos tipos de exploraciones clínicas y pruebas de laboratorio utilizadas en el diagnóstico y tratamiento de los pacientes; explicación de sus aplicaciones, interpretación y limitaciones; estudio de la aplicación y utilización de equipos de uso complejo.

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[2] Sección «Justificación y Agradecimientos» del *Manual de Oncología Clínica* de López-Lara Martín, F. González San Segundo, C. Santos Miranda, J. A. y Sanz Rubiales, A. Secretariado de Publicaciones e Intercambio Científico, Universidad de Valladolid, 1999.

Según V. K. Bhatia (1998: 17), los participantes que constituyen este tipo de comunicación son especialistas y *«mere apprentices»*. Ahora bien, resulta necesario delimitar con más claridad, sobre todo, a qué tipo de receptores está dirigida la clase de texto objeto de estudio.

Los emisores, como afirma V. K. Bhatia, son especialistas en la materia, sin embargo, los destinatarios no constituyen un grupo homogéneo como podría desprenderse de los comentarios de dicho autor. El tipo de destinatarios al que va destinado el libro de texto no está integrado únicamente por alumnos principiantes, que precisan disponer de un instrumento de formación teórica con el fin de responder adecuadamente a los objetivos docentes de las asignaturas que les son impartidas; estos son, asimismo, médicos residentes dentro del período de la formación posgraduada, residentes de cualquier especialidad, médicos de otras especialidades, así como cualquier otro profesional relacionado con la asistencia sanitaria; diversidad de destinatarios que incluso llegan a converger en un mismo texto como queda claramente reflejado en la introducción de la obra *Fundamentos de la cirugía. Una introducción biológica a la práctica quirúrgica* de C. Pera (1996: XIII s.), el cual indica a qué tipo de «discípulos» ha sido orientada:

1. *Alumnos en la etapa de la enseñanza pregraduada*, para los que la finalidad didáctica, en este nivel educativo, no es enseñarlos, entrenarlos y formarlos para cumplir con eficacia la práctica de la Cirugía como profesión, sino el aprendizaje de los *Fundamentos de la Cirugía*, necesariamente multidisciplinarios e integrados, como tales, en la organización holística del currícumlum [...].
2. *Médicos residentes*, dentro ya del período de la *formación posgraduada*, durante sus etapas de rotación complementaria por el departamento de Cirugía, cualquiera que sea la especialidad quirúrgica e incluso no quirúrgica, que hayan elegido.
3. *Residentes de la especialidad de Cirugía General y del Aparato Digestivo*.

Diversidad y convergencia que, como podrá apreciarse más adelante, no sólo repercuten en la elección de determinados elementos internos, sino que además explican las circunstancias de la recepción:

- Disponer de una herramienta útil que contribuya a proporcionar un marco teórico y conceptual sobre cualquier disciplina del ámbito médico, de ahí que el emisor de esta clase de texto se sirva de manera notoria de determinados elementos metacomunicativos como veremos más abajo. R. Beier (1982: 21) explica la profusión de dichos elementos en los siguientes términos:

  > Hier geht es ja erst um die Herausbildung von Fachwissen. Dazu bedarf es der möglichst vollständigen Darlegung der Begriffe des Faches, mehr noch, der Begriffssystematik, und mithin der sprachlichen Beschreibung und Klassifizierung der Begriffe.

- Disponer de una información exhaustiva, precisa y actualizada.

- Necesidad por parte de los especialistas de disponer de información médica exacta sobre materias que no entran dentro de su propia especialidad.

Por último, cabe añadir que, a mi juicio, la clase de texto objeto de atención se enmarca dentro de una producción editorial que responde, en líneas generales, a los deseos de los autores por:

- Actualizar los contenidos teóricos de determinados campos e incrementar la formación práctica de los alumnos ante los avances y mejoras que se experimentan sobre la situación precedente.
- Mejorar la docencia ante la consideración de que los contenidos se imparten de modo inadecuado, fragmentados y dispersos en determinadas asignaturas.
- Y, debido al predominio, sobre todo, del inglés en la producción editorial,

> [...] proporcionar una herramienta útil, y en nuestro idioma, al número creciente de profesionales que precisan actualizar o completar sus conocimientos [...] sin las limitaciones o dificultades que en ocasiones representa la necesidad de documentarse en textos foráneos. (E. Pascual Gómez et al. 1998: VI)[3]

4. Factores internos

Tanto en los textos ingleses como en los españoles, lo habitual es **anunciar** el **tópico** y **subtópicos** mediante los títulos y subtítulos correspondientes, encargados de revelar al destinatario la intención del autor, los cuales, en ocasiones, figuran justo al comienzo del texto (fig.1),[4] contribuyendo a distribuir la materia y a proporcionar al lector una visión de conjunto de la misma.

- *Introducción*
- *Malformaciones congénitas*
- *Inflamaciones*
- *Tumores de células germinales*
- *Linfomas*
- *Tumores neurogénicos*
- *Metástasis*
- *Timo*
    - Anatomía e histología normal
    - Anormalidades del desarrollo
    - Tumores
        - Timoma
        - Carcinoma tímico
        - Carcinoide tímico
- *Bibliografía*

Fig.1. Ejemplo de anuncio de tópico y subtópico(s)en el libro de texto de medicina

[3] En Pascual Gómez, E. Rodríguez Valverde, V. Carbonell Abelló, J. Gómez-Reino Carnota, J. (1998). *Tratado de reumatología*, 2 vols. Madrid: Arán.

[4] Ejemplo tomado de Fraga, M. Forteza, J. Pardo Mindán, F. J. (2000: 661).

No obstante, los emisores de esta clase de texto también se sirven de **marcadores introductorios**, si bien estos son mucho más esclarecedores y tendentes a facilitar al destinatario la intención del autor en los textos ingleses (independientemente del tipo de destinatario), y más «sobrios» en los textos españoles. Aún más, en los libros de texto escritos en inglés se anuncia claramente el tópico a través de marcadores tales como:

> This chapter concentrates on mediastinal masses that are of neoplastic origin. Approximately 30% of primary mediastinal masses are malignant, and all, except thymomas and thymic carcinomas, occur elsewhere in the body and are dealt with in greater detail in other chapters. (T3)

> This chapter describes how genetic information is used to synthesize proteins, some of the factors that govern the selective expression of genetic information, the process by which DNA molecules are replicated and their genetic information passed on to daughter cells during cell division, and how altering the genetic message—mutation—can lead to the class of diseases known as inherited disorders as well as to cancers. (T4)

En los libros de texto escritos en español, por el contrario, lo habitual es conocer el tópico y subtópicos mediante los títulos y subtítulos correspondientes; si bien, como indiqué en líneas superiores, el productor textual hace uso de los marcadores antedichos como en:

> Desarrollaremos brevemente cada uno de estos posibles agentes, dejando para otro apartado el referente a las lesiones cancerificables. (T5)

Un tanto de lo mismo puede afirmarse en torno a los marcadores encargados de la **señalización de cambio de tópico**, más explícitos en inglés como puede apreciarse en los siguientes ejemplos:

> The role of mediastinoscopy in the evaluation of a mediastinal mass is discussed in the next section. (T3)

> This completes our overview of the gastrointestinal system. Since its major task is digestion and absorption, we begin our more detailed description with these processes. Subsequent sections of the chapter will then describe, organ by organ, regulation of the secretions and motility that produce the optimal conditions for digestion and absorption. (T5)

En español la señalización de cambio de tópico se realiza, en la mayoría de los casos, sólo mediante los títulos y subtítulos.

Los **reformuladores recapitulativos**, los cuales «presentan su miembro del discurso como una conclusión o recapitulación a partir de su miembro anterior o de una serie de ellos» (M.ª A. Martín Zorraquinoy y J. Portolés Lázaro 1999: 4133), cobran en este contexto una especial importancia por la función que desempeñan. De nuevo, son más frecuentes en los textos escritos en lengua inglesa, sobre todo en aquéllos cuyos destinatarios son alumnos en la etapa de la enseñanza pregraduada, y presentan más variedad que los escritos en español:

As mentioned earlier [...]. (T4)	Como hemos visto, la simple localización topográfica [...]. (T4)
To summarize [...]. (T4)	Como ya hemos mencionado, la genética [...]. (T2)
As we have seen [...]. (T5)	
As noted earlier [...]. (T5)	

Al inglés se le ha descrito como una lengua *writer-responsible*, tendente a demostrar «una actitud positiva hacia la utilización de estrategias de apoyo al lector, entre ellas la explicitación de señales de la organización y la estructura del texto a través del empleo de conectores textuales» (F. J. Fernández Polo 1999: 131). Dicho autor, consciente de la escasez de estudios en torno a las diferencias entre el inglés y el español respecto a dicho tema, pone de manifiesto que las investigaciones «parecen apuntar a que en efecto esta última lengua favorece una retórica menos explícita que el inglés [...]» (1999: 179). Esta suposición parece verse respaldada a la vista de los resultados de mis indagaciones acerca de los **marcadores** en la clase de texto objeto de análisis, mucho más frecuentes y esclarecedores en inglés que en español. No obstante lo apuntado, convendría ampliar la muestra con objeto de comprobar si los resultados que ha arrojado el presente estudio son producto de la casualidad o, más bien, de las convenciones propias de la clase de texto analizada.

El primer elemento metacomunicativo objeto de atención es la **definición**, recurso discursivo por excelencia del libro de texto. Al contrario de lo que sucede en otras clases de texto como, por ejemplo, la «guía», en la que se observa un uso exclusivo de un modelo básico de definición *(A is/are-es/son B [which-que C])*,[5] en los textos de los sistemas lingüísticos objeto de estudio se aprecia más variedad y diferencias entre ambos. Así, en inglés, el tipo de definición que con mayor frecuencia aparece en los libros de texto analizados corresponde al modelo *B [which C] is/are known as A*, seguido de *A is/are B [which C]*; sin embargo, los textos en lengua española, aunque en ellos se detecta una preferencia por el modelo *A es/son B [which C]*

[5] A aquellos interesados en el conocimiento de las peculiaridades externas e internas de esta clase de texto, tanto en inglés como en español, les remito a Mayor Serrano, M.ª B. (2002, 2003a, 2003c).

seguido de *B [which C] se denomina/n, recibe/n el nombre de A*, muestran mayor diversidad en el uso de la definición.

La terminología médica, como la de otras ramas de la ciencia, goza de su propia historia, sus mecanismos de crecimiento o expansión y otras características que aquellas personas que se dedican a su estudio deben conocer, y éste es el contexto idóneo para su difusión.

La **información sobre determinadas denominaciones** tiene, pues, varios propósitos:

- Indicar su origen etimológico.
  Es un término que deriva de la palabra *gen*, que en griego significa «llegar a ser». (T2)
- Explicar la preferencia por ciertas denominaciones ante la existencia de otras.
  En general se prefiere esta denominación [carcinoma tímico] a la de timoma maligno tipo II, porque, a diferencia del timoma "convencional", presenta atipia citológica. (T4)

  Carcinoma verrucoso de Ackerman. No todos los autores están de acuerdo en su catalogación y muchos como ABULAFIA J. 1982 lo juzgan sinónimo de la papilomatosis oral florida, antes conceptuada como lesión precancerosa o como carcinoma "in situ". (T5)
- Mostrar el porqué de una denominación en concreto.
  The term **cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN)** has been introduced to cover the whole spectrum of premalignant change in cervical epithelium. (T2)
- Informar sobre denominaciones anteriores ya en desuso.
  Tiempo de protrombina (TP). Conocido clásicamente como tiempo de Quick [...]. (T6)
- Corregir el uso inadecuado/impropio de las mismas por parte de los profesionales de la medicina.
  Even the term 'blunt duct adenosis' is questionable, since it is used by some to describe an organoid hypertrophy of the lobular acini and by others to indicate a minor hyperplasia of acinar cells. (T2)

  Carcinoma adenoide cístico. Llamado usualmente cilindroma si bien algunos rechazan este nombre que designa también un tumor benigno de la piel. (T5)

Ciertamente, todas las funciones que acabo de enumerar tienen lugar tanto en los textos escritos en inglés como en los redactados en español; no obstante, he observado en los primeros cierta predilección por la última función, mientras que en los segundos ocupa un lugar destacado el remontarse al origen etimológico de las palabras.

En cuanto a la **explicación**, la diferencia entre ambas lenguas no reside tanto en la frecuencia con la que los emisores de los textos recurren a ella como en la manera de formularla. Dicho elemento metacomunicativo, utilizado con más profusión cuanto más inexpertos son los destinatarios, puede formularse de dos modos, bien mediante signos ortográficos sintagmáticos, bien haciendo uso de reformuladores explicativos.

Las diversas formas en que los productores textuales introducen una explicación sirviéndose del primer procedimiento aparecen ilustradas, por orden de preferencia, en los ejemplos que figuran a continuación:

Duct ectasia (dilatation of ducts) and duct papilloma may each [...]. (T2)

Between meals, secreted bile is stored in the gallbladder, a small sac underneath the liver which branches from the common hepatic duct. (T5)

[...] provoca la vaporización de los líquidos orgánicos y la pirólisis (descomposición química por el calor) [...]. (T6)

[...] es la falta de disyunción, un error en la separación de los cromosomas homólogos y las cromátidas durante la meiosis [...] o en la separación de los cromosomas (durante la mitosis). (T2)

De entre los diversos reformuladores explicativos disponibles en ambas lenguas, en las clases de texto objeto de análisis predomina el empleo de *that is*, *for example*, *in other words* y *thus* en inglés, mientras que los emisores de lengua española se decantan, en su mayoría, por el uso de *es decir*, seguido de *así*.

Para finalizar el presente apartado, el siguiente elemento metacomunicativo objeto de atención es el uso de **sinónimos**.

Si bien la repetición léxica es lo usual y viene determinada por la función comunicativa de la clase de texto que aquí nos ocupa (K. Hyland 1999), el recurso a la sinonimia, cuyas funciones difieren notablemente de las que se registran en otras clases de texto como, por ejemplo, el artículo de divulgación,[6] también tiene su razón de ser en este contexto. El recurso a la sinonimia terminológica encuentra explicación en las observaciones de B. M. Gutiérrez Rodilla (1998: 97 s.), quien considera que las causas más importantes de dicho recurso en la actualidad son tres:[7]

> —En primer lugar, el que haya diversas «escuelas» que se empeñan en designar los mismos conceptos con diferentes nombres [...].
> —En segundo lugar, la estandarización de los tecnicismos que aboca a la coexistencia, durante un largo periodo, del viejo término y el nuevo estandarizado [...].

[6] Para el conocimiento de las peculiaridades externas e internas de esta clase de texto, tanto en inglés como en español, remito al interesado a Mayor Serrano, M.ª B. (2002, 2003a, 2003c, 2003d).

[7] Por razones obvias, solamente el último razonamiento de sinonimia terminológica lo aplico a las clases de texto de lengua española.

> —Más importante que los dos anteriores en la generación de términos sinónimos es el predominio que el inglés americano ejerce como lengua principal de trabajo científico; a lo que se asocia un gran desconocimiento de la lengua propia por parte de muchos de nuestros investigadores e, incluso, el desprecio hacia ella que comparten con algunos traductores [...].

Puede que el predominio del inglés, o la arrogancia de algunos escritores, sea el causante de que en los textos españoles aparezca junto a un término su sinónimo en lengua inglesa. Los productores de dicha clase de texto hallan aquí el lugar idóneo para ir «familiarizando» a sus discípulos con aquellos términos y expresiones tan usuales en los textos dirigidos a los profesionales de la medicina, en los cuales se produce un abuso de anglicismos, colaborando, quizás inconscientemente, al deterioro del lenguaje médico.

5. Implicaciones didácticas para la formación de traductores médicos

Los libros de texto se utilizan como material didáctico en la formación de traductores en diversas Facultades de Traducción españolas. Pero, ¿con qué finalidad?, ¿qué objetivos se persiguen? Cuestiones ineludibles, qué duda cabe, en el ámbito docente, ya que a los estudiantes hay que dotarles con una razón para implicarse en la traducción de los textos seleccionados como material didáctico (R. Arntz 1993: 162), pues «suelen rechazar los textos científicos al considerarlos de difícil comprensión» (N. Gallardo San Salvador 1996: 151) y «quieren organización y variedad, quieren que los problemas sean definidos y presentados de manera racional y sistemática» (A. Beeby Lonsdale 1996: 61).[8] Sólo el conocimiento pragmático-textual exhaustivo posibilita justificar, en gran parte, el empleo de libros de texto en el aula.

5.1. Justificación

Hacer uso de las clases de texto objeto de estudio no sólo tiene sentido por las cifras que la traducción de las mismas alcanza en la producción editorial española. A modo ilustrativo, sirvan los siguientes datos aportados por expertos en la materia. F. A. Navarro y F. Hernández (1997: 139) hacen una interesante aportación al respecto:

> De acuerdo con los datos de la Unesco, España encabeza la publicación mundial de traducciones de libros científicos, junto a la Unión Soviética, Japón y Alemania. En 1987, por ejemplo, se publicaron en nuestro país 1.500 libros médicos de los que la cuarta parte fueron traducciones, en su mayoría a partir del inglés y el francés.

Y J. A. Cordón García (1997: 752) concluye, tras investigar el volumen de traducciones en la producción editorial en España, con la afirmación de que, en el

[8] Resultados de una encuesta realizada a los estudiantes de la Universidad Autónoma de Barcelona.

ámbito de las ciencias aplicadas, es la medicina «la disciplina que más atención recibe desde el punto de vista de la traducción».[9]

Su empleo se fundamenta, además, en las siguientes razones. Al proporcionar un marco teórico y conceptual sobre una disciplina cualquiera del ámbito médico, estas clases de texto constituyen el material idóneo para que el alumno se conciencie de:

a) La importancia de la comprensión de las relaciones conceptuales, su descripción y clasificación.
b) La existencia y la dificultad que entraña la generación de términos sinónimos.
c) La importancia de entender que la comprensión en profundidad de una disciplina no es posible sin conocer esas bases sistemáticas.
d) El valor de dichas clases de texto como fuentes de documentación, ya que, por la extensa información de tipo lingüístico y temático que proporcionan, éstas no sólo sirven como obras de referencia, de consulta, sino también como instrumento de iniciación a la terminología de cualquier área temática.

5.2. Objetivos de aprendizaje (textuales) y problemas de traducción

Como ya indiqué en el apartado 2 del presente artículo, el estudio intra e interlingual de la clase de texto objeto de atención me ha permitido describir y establecer algunas de sus peculiaridades, las cuales podrían ser de utilidad para la organización de la enseñanza mediante el diseño de objetivos de aprendizaje (textuales),[10]el cual

> «[...] persigue establecer de un modo sistemático los contenidos y la progresión de la enseñanza, más allá de consideraciones impresionistas de tipo léxico, gramatical, temático o teórico» (A. Hurtado Albir 1999: 21).

Asimismo, las divergencias interlingüísticas halladas, como ya hiciera S. Göpferich (1995) en su momento, se pueden «traducir» en problemas de traducción; por tanto, se podría hacer uso de los mismos como ejercicio preparatorio para la traducción de la clase de texto que aquí nos ocupa. A modo ilustrativo, sirvan los siguientes ejemplos.

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[9] Sobre las dimensiones editoriales de traducciones de libros al español en lo que al campo de la medicina se refiere, vid. también Segura, J. (1998: 41).

[10] De los distintos tipos de objetivos que se distinguen (A. Hurtado Albir 1999: 45 s.), son especialmente interesantes los objetivos generales, específicos e intermedios, así como la distinción en cuatro bloques que A. Hurtado Albir hace de los objetivos generales en metodológicos, contrastivos, profesionales y textuales, siendo este último bloque —objetivos textuales— objeto de mi interés, pues son los que definen «los diversos problemas de traducción según los diferentes funcionamientos textuales» (A. Hurtado Albir 1999: 53).

a) Objetivo de aprendizaje: Detectar y resolver problemas planteados por la necesidad de facilitar al destinatario la comprensión, cohesión y retención de la información suministrada.
—Problemas de traducción:
a_1) Diferencias en torno a los marcadores (introductorios, de señalización de cambio de tópico, reformuladores recapitulativos).

b) Objetivo de aprendizaje: Detectar y resolver problemas planteados por la necesidad de proporcionar un marco teórico y conceptual sobre una disciplina (área temática) dada.
—Problemas de traducción:
b_1) Diferencias porcentuales, estructurales y funcionales en torno al uso de determinados elementos metacomunicativos: definición, información acerca de determinadas denominaciones y explicación.
b_2) Sinonimia terminológica.

6. Conclusión

Sobre la indiscutible utilidad de realizar análisis contrastivos de clases de texto, ya sean intralinguales, ya interlinguales, se han pronunciado innumerables lingüistas y teóricos de la traducción (L. Hoffmann 1983, 1991, K. Reiß 1984, C. Gnutzmann/H. Oldenburg 1991, K. Reiß/H. J. Vermeer 1991, R. Arntz 1993, P. Kussmaul 1995, A. Hurtado Albir 1999, E. Alcaraz Varó 2000, entre otros). Su importancia y necesidad resultan incuestionables para distintos campos del saber como por ejemplo: la traducción automática asistida por ordenador, la práctica de la traducción e interpretación, investigación en torno a los llamados «lenguajes especializados» y su enseñanza, elaboración de «glosarios textográficos» (S. Göpferich 1995: 454-464), formación de redactores técnicos y, especialmente, para la didáctica de la traducción.

Obviamente, los objetivos y problemas de traducción sugeridos son susceptibles de ser ampliados conforme aumenten las investigaciones y se abarque un mayor número de parámetros. No obstante, confío en que los hallazgos de los análisis llevados a cabo contribuyan, en la medida de lo posible, a mostrar la importancia de estructurar la docencia con un fundamento teórico y avanzar hacia una Textología comparada tan necesaria y útil para los Estudios de traducción como subraya A. Hurtado Albir (1999: 19):

> Son esperanzadoras las propuestas de análisis contrastivo surgidas en los últimos años, que se sitúan en una óptica textual y avanzan hacia una Textología comparada. Estos análisis, que introducen consideraciones de tipo contrastivo desde un punto de vista de funcionamiento de los textos [...], son de sumo interés, ya que se efectúa un desplazamiento de la contrastividad en el plano de la lengua a la contrastividad textual, mucho más cercana a la realidad en que se mueve el traductor.

Corpus de textos

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ABSTRACT

Análisis Contrastivo (Inglés-Español) del Libro de Texto de Medicina e Implicaciones Didácticas para la Formación de Traductores

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Medical textbooks are used as a pedagogical tool in the training of medical translators from English into Spanish. However, researchers have paid little attention from a contrastive perspective to this genre—of crucial importance for translation didactics.

Based on the contrastive analysis of 13 textbooks in the field of medicine (5 in English, 8 in Spanish), this paper has the following objectives: (1) to study a set of text-external features (the prominent communicative function of the text, speech acts, communicative partners, text reception and production; (2) to study text-internal features—metacommunicative strategies that provide useful information about how writers alleviate the addressee's reception of the information conveyed in the text, build a relationship with readers and show how the genre "textbook" presents specialist knowledge in a didactic way; (3) to show how the results obtained may contribute to planning and defining learning objectives for the training of medical translators according to didactic criteria.

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Talking about Motion in Danish, French, and Russian: Some Implications for LSP in Theory and Practice

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1. Introduction

This article addresses certain fundamental typological differences in the way that space and motion are lexicalized in the verb lexicons of Danish, French, and Russian, with a special focus on the impact of such differences on LSP communication and translation. Readers who are eager to get on with these specifics should feel free to skip the next few pages and proceed directly to section 1.2. However, the place of typological data of the present kind in LSP research in general seems to call for some comments in its own right, and these will be given in 1.1.

1.1 Theoretical background: getting beyond the hen-and-egg problem

In LSP research, most cross-linguistic studies of lexicalization principles and patterns – i.e. of what Wüster labels "Das Worten der Welt" (1959/60); see also Weisgerber (1959, 1960) – quite naturally concentrate on the specialized lexicon (terminology); and on nouns. An important insight gained in this field is that cross-linguistic lexical differences cannot be explained by focussing on language structure alone: they must be seen against the background of the varying extra-linguistic factors that influence the world pictures of the members of the respective language-communities and various subgroups within them, such as professional environments. These factors may both bridge and enhance "purely" linguistic barriers. For example, two specialists who speak different languages may still use quite compatible terminologies when dealing with similar aspects of reality – say, beet sugar production – in similar ways and for similar reasons. On the other hand, two specialists who speak the same language may still use quite incompatible terminologies when dealing with, say, human behaviour from the viewpoint of Freudian psychoanalysis and behaviourism, respectively. An effective tool for identifying such interdependencies is the concept oriented (onomasiological) methodology basic to terminology research since the pioneering work of Wüster (1966 [1931], 1959, 1959/60, 1974); see Wright & Budin, eds. (1997), Arntz & Picht (1989), and Feber/Budin (1989) for more recent overviews.

All this is opposite to the view traditionally held by many LGP linguists, especially those influenced by classic structuralism (Saussure 1974 [1916], Hjelmslev 1953 [1943], Whorf 1956; Baldinger 1980: 93ff). In this tradition, each language is understood as a unique and self-contained system of elements and interdependencies that together impose a certain form on the infinite variety of reality as immediately perceived by man, the substance, "cutting the pie" in its very own way. As a consequence, the focus has been on how our native language may influence our way of seeing the world, never vice versa.

These two views may seem incompatible and have been presented as such by representatives of both camps, sometimes being rather deceptively linked to a differentiation between "terms" and "ordinary words" (for some relevant discussions, see e.g. Felber 1984: 167-68; 1986: 112; Renz 1971; Reformatskij 1961; Baldinger 1980: 120ff; 1998; Harley 1994: 338ff; Gumprez & Levinson, eds. 1996). However, if we introduce a bit more light and shade into our analyses, things seem to fall into place after all. There are thus definitely some levels of language description where cross-linguistic differences appear to be better explained in terms of structural and typological features of the languages in question than the direct influence of some language-external factors. But this does not exclude the opposite from being true of other levels. To avoid a fruitless hen-and-egg discussion we must therefore further specify the "hens" and "eggs" at issue. This will be done shortly, but first another point must be made clear: no cross-linguistic differences can prevent us from saying whatever we like to say if it is sufficiently important to us.

In his enlightening discussion on this subject, Roman Jacobson states it this way: "Languages differ essentially in what they *must* convey and not in what they *may* convey" (1959: 236). That is, he postulates that any piece of potential semantic information can be encoded into any one of the word's languages in one way or the other due to the extreme versatility of human language in general. But he also notes that language structure quite routinely forces us to highlight some semantic parameters when speaking some languages and quite different parameters when speaking other languages, before we ever get to say whatever we want to say. For example, a Danish utterance like

(1) Laura *læste* "Krig og Fred" [≈ Laura *read* or *was reading* "War and Peace"]

does not in itself tell us whether Laura finished the book or not. However, if we were to translate that utterance into, say, English or Russian we would be obliged to get more specific on this point due to the verbal category of aspect, which is essential in both English and Russian, but completely absent in Danish. On the other hand, a Russian utterance like

(2) Олег купил машину ⟨Olég kupíl mašínu⟩ [≈ Oleg bought *a car* or *the car*]

does not in itself tell us whether Oleg bought just some car or a particular car that we may have seen or heard about before. But if we were to translate that utterance into, say, English or Danish we would, again, need to get more specific due to the nominal category of determination, which is essential in both English and Danish, but completely absent in Russian.

Of course, those who utter (1) or (2) may well know the right answers to the respective questions anyway, and they may also become clear to the receiver from the co(n)text in which the utterances occur. Indeed, our speakers could clarify things quite unambiguously by inserting, say, *på kun to dage* [≈ in just two days] in (1) or *о которой я вам рассказывал* ⟨o kotoroj ja vam rasskazyval⟩ [≈ that I've been telling you about] in (2). But two things should be kept in mind. First, the decision is not forced upon the original speakers by language structure, while this may become the case for translators. Second, no matter how important a particular semantic distinction may become to the members of a given language-community, or a subset of them, for language-external reasons, these speakers will hardly create a whole new grammatical category for conveying it from one day (or decade) to the other. Such influences take generations to have an effect, if they have one at all.

However, this is where the **lexicon** differs fundamentally from the **grammatico-syntactic** structures that have been considered up till now. In all languages at issue here, the lexicon seems to provide a convenient short-cut that comes into play whenever mere paraphrasing become too tiresome. In contrast to the rules of grammar and syntax, lexicons are constantly modified and updated, not only by the language-community as a collective body, but also by various subgroups of speakers within it (linguists, IT consultants, rock musicians, young parents, etc.) in accordance with their specific cognitive and communicative needs. This is noted by Jakobson as well: "All cognitive experience and its classification is conveyable in any existing language. Whenever there is deficiency, *terminology* may be qualified and amplified by loan-words or loan-translations, neologisms or semantic shifts, and finally, by circumlocutions. Thus in the new-born literary language of the Northeast Siberian Chukchees, "screw" is rendered as "rotating nail", "steel" as "hard iron", "tin" as "thin iron", "chalk" as "writing soap", "watch" as "hammering heart" [my italics, VS]" (1959: 234-35). Correspondingly, to keep pace with society the English language has lately been enhanced with such words as *Tatcherism*, *dinkie*, *spindoctor*, and thousands of others.

In these cases language-external (social, cultural, political, economic, legal, technical, etc) factors not only influence what we say, i.e. our language-behaviour, but also make us create new means (lexemes) for saying it, thereby altering the underlying language-system. It is therefore pointless to exclude such factors from the analysis of cross-linguistic differences and similarities on the lexical level –

whereas their impact is less obvious and less direct on the higher levels of grammar and syntax: here, language-internal structural and typological factors seem to be of greater importance.

But yet again, none of this means that structural and typological factors have no bearing on the lexicon; they just come into play in a somewhat different setting. To explain this, we need to distinguish between what might be labelled the **what-aspect** and the **how-aspect** of lexicalization (Smith 2000: 20ff). Even if what is lexicalized is to a large extent determined by language-external influences, the formal structure and typological preferences of the language in question may still have an influence on how it is lexicalized. Here a further distinction is needed between (a) **primary lexicalization(s)** [1], i.e. the "ideal" case where a unique piece of semantic information is conveyed by an equally unique combination of phonemes (i.e. a single morpheme) serving exclusively for that purpose (e.g. Eng: *water*, *cat*, etc.), and (b) **secondary lexicalization(s)**, i.e. the less "ideal" but far more widespread case where existing units of lexical expression (morphemes and/or words) are reused for lexicalizing novel pieces of semantic information by either **adding** new meanings to well-known expression-units (e.g. Eng: *mouse* (for a PC), *wing* (of an aeroplane), etc.), or **combining** well-known expression-units (morphemes, stems, whole words) in new ways through either affixation, compounding, or the formation of phrasal lexemes (e.g. Eng: *under|state|ment, water|fall, black currant*, etc.). One major difference between primary and secondary lexicalizations is that the latter are always accompanied by **non-arbitrariness (motivation)**, i.e. that the resultant lexical items have a "literal meaning" which gives us a hint (but nothing more) about the full lexical meaning conveyed by them; this aspect is further explored in Smith (1999/2000 and 2001).

If we take the how-aspect into consideration, we may reveal a number of additional cross-linguistic differences as regards (a) the distribution of primary and secondary lexicalizations across semantic domains (b) the particular models of secondary lexicalization available in each language and the frequency of their application in different subsets of the lexicon, and (c) the expression-units actually reused for coining new lexical expressions (i.e. for secondary lexicalizations) in particular instances. At least (a) and (b) depend strongly on inherent properties of the language in questions whereas (c) is open to language-external influences as well (along with pure chance). Even in those cases where a comparable piece of semantic information (in terms of extension as well as intension) seems to have been unambiguously lexicalized in several languages, and the what-aspect is therefore not at issue for them, the resultant lexical expressions may still differ profoundly with regard to the how-aspect, as the following examples might demonstrate:

[1] This distinction is closely related to that between primary and secondary nomination developed in the Russian tradition of nomination research, see e.g. Ufimceva et al. (1977).

(3) Eng: *butterfly*, Dan: *sommerfugl* [lit. summer|bird]; Rus: *бабочка* ⟨babočka⟩ [lit. (elderly) woman$_{dim}$]; Fre: *papillon* [lit. ?]; Ita: *farfalla* [lit. ?]; Ger: *Schmetterling* [lit. cream(=Schmetten)|ling$_{dim}$]

(4) Eng: *aeroplane*; Dan: *flyvemaskine* [lit. fly(ing)|machine]; Rus: *samolët* [lit. self|fly(er)]; Fre: *avion* [bird$_{latin}$ + ?]; Ita: *aereo (aeroplano)* [lit. air|(plane)]; Ger: *Flugzeug* [lit. fly(ing)|tool]

It thus appears that both language-external and languages-internal factors are essential to lexicalization, the former being a major stimulus when language-communities decide what to lexicalize, and the latter providing the formal means and prototypical patterns naturally drawn upon when implementing these decisions. Therefore, both the concept oriented approach to lexicalization so far mainly practised in LSP research (though also supported by theorizing in such fields as cognitive psychology or AI knowledge engineering, see e.g. Barsalou 1992a: 153ff; 1992b, Russell & Norvig 1995: 218ff; Pratt 1994: 150ff), and the orientation towards language-internal principles and patterns of lexicalization characterizing the work of many LGP linguists contribute essential inputs to a fuller understanding of the overall subject.

This article, then, presents and develops certain results originally gained on “the other side of the fence”, namely by LGP researchers mainly concerned with the structural and typological dimensions of lexicalization rather than the terminological, and, moreover, with verbs rather than nouns. What is at issue are cross-linguistic differences in the lexicalization of **space and motion** by means of what will be referred to as **relocation verbs** in the following (while others speak of “directed motion verbs” or the lexicalization of “motion events”). Most of the verbs in question cannot be classified as terms in any traditional sense in that their semantics and fields of application are not restricted to LSP communication – but they nevertheless play a pivot role in many types of LSP texts, such as descriptions of technological processes. Apart from the practical relevance, these data are however also interesting from a theoretical viewpoint. Thus, language-internal factors seem to play a more dominant role it this part of the lexicon than in the (nominal) lexicon traditionally considered by terminologists – and in all examples given above – in that they not only determine how things are lexicalized, but also exert a certain influence on what can potentially be lexicalized at all. A viable path of explanation seems to be that verbs – as opposed to nouns – do not lexicalize concepts of single objects, but abstract models of **situations** (see section 2. below) which need to be specified by a whole **sentence** in order for the verb to apply to a real-world situation in the course of communication. It is therefore up to the individual language, in co-operation with the speakers using it, to decide where in the sentence structure potentially relevant semantic information should be encoded, if considerede sufficiently important to encode at all.

1.2 Scope and aims

By **relocation verbs** we here understand verbs referring to “moving (or being moved) from one place to another” as further specified in section 2. below. Beginning with an influential study of Talmy (1985), several authors (e.g. Gennari et al. 2002; Gutiérrez

2001; Papafragou et al. 2001, 2002; Herslund 1998, 2000; Korzen 1998; Slobin 1996a, 1996b: 83ff) have supported a sharp typological distinction between what might be called (a) MANNER languages (e.g. Danish, Swedish, English, German, Chinese, and (perhaps) Russian) where the semantic parameter MANNER of motion is obligatorily lexicalized in the verb **root** (primary lexicalization) while the direction or PATH of motion is explicated when required through the addition of a **satellite** or **prefix**, i.e. the formation of a **phrasal lexeme** (secondary lexicalization), e.g. *run + down, away*, etc, and (b) PATH languages (e.g. French, Italian, Spanish, Japanese, Turkish, and (perhaps) Modern Greek) where the verb roots lexicalize *either* MANNER *or* PATH, e.g. *courir* vs. *entrer*, but only the PATH verbs convey the core meaning of relocation, i.e. not just moving, but moving from one place to another, leaving MANNER to be explicated elsewhere in the sentence structure, if at all. The two principles are illustrated in (5) and (6) in section 3. below.

This difference complicates the transfer of information between the two (proto)types of languages in various ways, most obviously in the course of translation. However, not all languages seem to fit equally well into the typology just outlined and many languages have not been sufficiently examined in this respect. Russian is one of the tricky cases. In his classic account, Talmy (1985) collectively places the Indo-European languages (including Russian) in the MANNER category, presenting the modern Romance languages as a marked exception that has swept over to the PATH category. Others argue that the same is true of Modern Greek (Papafragou et al. 2001, 2002). As for Russian, the archetypical lexicalization pattern of the MANNER languages is definitely present and highly productive, but it seems to have been "overlaid" by a different pattern closely resembling the PATH oriented one known in the Romance languages – so that Russian speakers may (and must) make certain choices that are not at issue, for instance, in Danish or French. In the following, these pre-theoretical observations will be tested against more systematic evidence taken from the field of LSP communication.

The objectives of this study thus are (a) to contribute to the positioning of Russian in the above-mentioned typology by contrasting it with the less equivocal cases of French and Danish while at the same time (b) further developing the underlying theoretical framework by introducing the notion of relocation verbs and (c) sketching a new method for providing relevant empirical evidence so far tested in a small-scale pilot study. The impact of the cross-linguistic differences identified on LSP communication and, in particular, translation are also briefly considered.

2. The semantics of relocation

First we must be more specific as to what is meant by "relocation verbs" – more often labelled "directed motion verbs" or verbs lexicalizing "motion events" in the English-language literature[2] – as opposed to "motion verbs" in a broader sense.

[2] By contrast, the term *глаголы перемещения* ⟨*glagóly peremeščénija*⟩ has been used for several years in the Russian-language literature for denoting more or less the same thing, though not defined in the exact terms used below, see e.g. Plungjan (2002:58ff). What the term says literally is no more

Such a distinction obviously underlies much of the existing work on the subject, though it is not always too clearly defined, or indeed: lexicalized (see Gutiérrez 2001 for a recent review of some approaches). The following is an attempt to further specify the distinction in question while at the same time suggesting an alternative term which, I think, follows rather naturally from the theoretical considerations presented below.

We will adopt the cross-linguistic principles of verb classification suggested by Durst-Andersen (1992, 2000; see also Durst-Andersen & Herslund 1996). The framework was originally developed as a basis for analyzing the category of **aspect** in Russian, English, and other languages, but it also contributes to verb semantics in general by integrating certain cognitive insights into humans' perception and conceptualization of **situations** – which are considered the standard referents of **verbs**, just as nouns refer to "things" in a broad, but still readily recognizable sense. The focus is on **visual** perception, but the cognitive principles described below seem to have been generalized so that they now underlie verb semantics in general. What follows is a highly selective summary of certain basic assumptions; for a fuller account, see Durst Andersen (e.g. 1992: 51ff).

Regardless of what language they speak, humans routinely distinguish between two kinds of real-world phenomena (situations) that can potentially be referred to by means of verbs, the mental counterparts of which can be described in terms of figure-ground relationships (ground situations) with corresponding propositional interpretations (ground propositions), namely:

(a) **activities** which are perceived as either an unstable figure on a stable ground or a stable figure on an unstable ground thus constituting an **unstable picture**. In their own right, such situations are referred to by means of **activity verbs**, e.g. Eng: *dance, shiver, carry* etc.

(b) **states** which are perceived as a stable figure on a stable ground thus constituting a **stable picture**. In their own right, such situations are referred to by means of **state verbs**, e.g. Eng: *lie, stand, resemble*, etc.

Only these two kinds of situation can be identified through direct observation. However, our world knowledge tells us that some activities, if sufficient, can bring about certain states, and that some states have been brought about by certain activities. This allows us to also identify

(c) **actions** which are mental constructs linking together a certain activity and a certain state. When perceived and referred to as elements of an action, activities are further classified as **processes** and states are further classified as **events**. The corresponding propositions are denoted *p* and *q*, respectively. Actions (as

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no less than "verbs of relocation" or in short "relocation verbs" – thus differentiating these verbs from *глаголы движения* ⟨*glagóly dviženija*⟩, i.e. "motion verbs", in a broader sense.

represented by processes and/or events) are referred to by means of action verbs, e.g. *put, arrive, kill, show*, etc. The principle is shown in fig.1.

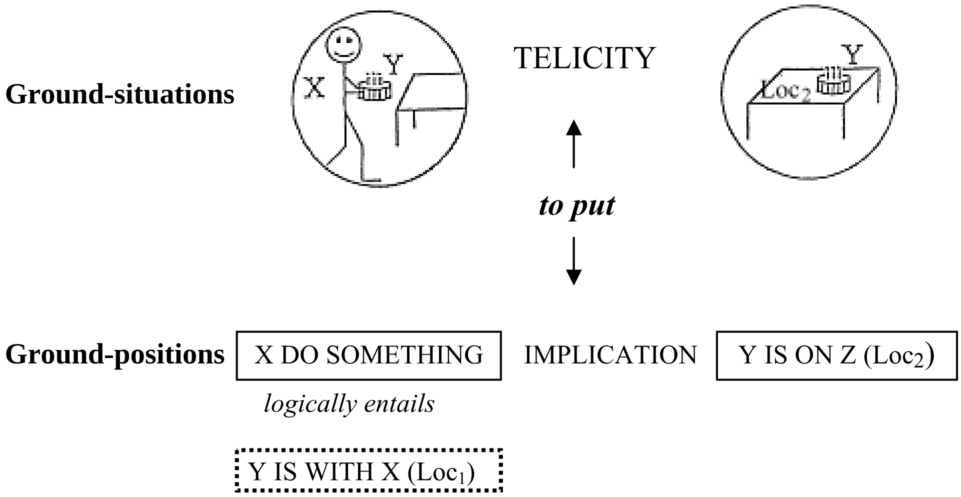

Fig. 1.

Thus, in an utterance like “she is just putting the cake on the table” *put* refers to a process where *p* is asserted and *q* is treated as a standard implicature; and in an utterance like “who put that cake on my table?” *put* refers to an event where *q* is asserted and *p* is presupposed. The directed relationship between the two situations themselves is referred to as telicity.

Verbs like *put, remove, arrive, return*, etc. can be further classified as **location-based action verbs** (alternative categories are possession-based, experience-based, and qualification-based action-verbs which will not be further considered here) because the change of state in question is definable in terms of spatial relationships alone: First the cake **was not** on the table but now it **is** on the table; or vice versa for a verb like *remove*. Either assertion strictly implies an alternative state description where the figure is located on a different ground (say, in he hands of x). That description is part of the **entailment structure** of the verb and may be further specified by the **co(n)text** in which the verb is uttered – where the verb is often “followed up” by other verbs together describing a **trajectory** (to use Slobin’s term, cf. 1996a: 210ff), e.g. “at long last, she put the cake on the table – but then rapidly removed it again and carried it back into the kitchen”.

What we are up against here is thus not just motion but **relocation**, i.e. moving from one location (Loc_1) to another (Loc_2). We will therefore also refer to such verbs as **relocation verbs**, presupposing all the theorizing underlying their full name: **location-based action verbs**.
Furthermore, the distinction between activities (including processes) and states (including events) allows us to specify the essence of the PATH/MANNER distinction.

Verbs that lexicalize the MANNER of motion are **p-oriented** in that they further characterize an **activity** (which may or may not be seen as part of an action, i.e. as a **process**) by specifying certain properties of either the figure, the ground and/or the interrelations between them. Take a verb like *bounce*: a ball can *bounce* on a floor, but water cannot really *bounce* on a piece of wadding; though it may well *soak* through it. For transitive verbs like *throw*, an agent's interaction with the figure and/or ground given these properties may also be part of the semantics: one may *throw* a ball, but not really a handful of air. Verbs that lexicalize PATH are **q-oriented** – which makes them action verbs by nature – in that they further characterize a (change of) **state**, i.e. an **event**, by specifying certain properties of either Loc_1, Loc_2 and/or the interrelations between them. For example, a verb like *arrive* presents Loc_1 as distant and Loc_2 as close.

3. Danish and French versus Russian

Let us now consider in more detail what differentiates a typical PATH language like French from a typical MANNER language like Danish (following Herslund's exemplification in 1998: 8-9) and then contrast both these languages with the less clear-cut case of Russian.

In French, as illustrated in (5), we find one group of verbs that specify the PATH of motion without saying anything about the MANNER; the objects in question may be walking, crawling, flying, etc. It follows from the discussion in section 2. that these verbs are all q-oriented and hence **action verbs** by nature; more specifically, they may be classified as **location based** action verbs, i.e. as **relocation verbs**. The MANNER of motion is specified by a different group of verbs in French which however say nothing about the PATH. The standard function of these verbs seems to be to characterize a motion in its own capacity without relating it directly to the change of state (in terms of location) that may or may not result from it. In other words, these verbs are p-oriented and normally function as pure **activity verbs** which do not present the activity as part of an action, i.e. as a process. These verbs certainly lexicalize motion, but not relocation.

(5) ***French:***	PATH	MANNER
	aller [≈ go]	*marcher* [≈ walk]
	entrer [≈ enter]	*courir* [≈ run]
	venir [≈ come]	*flâner* [≈ stroll]
	sortir [≈ exit]	*ramper* [≈ crawl]
	etc.	etc.

In Danish, we find a very large and diversified group of verbs that specify the MANNER of motion; a few of them are given in (6) and additional examples will follow in (8) below.

(6) ***Danish:*** MANNER (+ PATH$_{\text{satellite}}$)

gå [≈ walk]
løbe [≈ run]
spadsere [≈ stroll]
kravle [≈ crawl]
etc.

ind [≈ in] / *ud* [≈ out],
op [≈ up] / *ned* [≈ down], etc.

When considered in isolation, these verbs appear to be rather similar to the French MANNER verbs just mentioned (apart from being more diversified) in that they characterize a motion in its own capacity and may thus be classified as pure **activity verbs** which do not present the activity as part of an action, i.e. as a process. However, unlike their French counterparts, these verbs also play a pivot role in specifying the PATH of motion. The standard way of lexicalizing PATH in Danish is thus through secondary lexicalizations, namely by extending a MANNER verb with a PATH-specifying **satellite**, most commonly in the shape of an adverb/preposition, that merges with the initial verb into a **phrasal lexeme**. This transforms the initial activity verb (e.g. *løbe* [≈ run]) into an **action verb** (e.g. *løbe ud* [≈ run out]) where the main verb specifies certain properties of an activity, now understood a **process**, and the satellite specifies certain properties of a resultant (change of) state, now understood as an **event**. Even if Danish does have some verbs that lexicalize the PATH in its own right (like the French ones), the pattern just described is definitely the most widespread and productive one. This means that MANNER regularly **must** (and not just may) "go along" with PATH when Danes talk about relocation – whereas speakers of French may well omit the MANNER related information if they do not feel like specifying it. (And when they do, they are forced to insert an additional MANNER verb somewhere in the sentence structure, e.g. *en courant*, or rely on other lexical means such as *à pied*, *en avion*, etc.).

In Russian the picture is less unequivocal. As in Danish, we find a large number of verbs which specify the MANNER of motion (a small but frequent subgroup of which displays certain grammatical peculiarities, see e.g. Wade 1992: 339ff). These are all **activity verbs**, but they may be extended with a PATH-specifying **prefix** – functionally corresponding to the **satellite** in Danish – which turns them into **action verbs** conveying the additional meaning of **relocation**, e.g. *бежать* ⟨*bežat′*⟩ [run]→ *убежать* ⟨*ubežat′*⟩ [run away]. More examples will follow in (9) in the next section. However, Russian also contains a number of verbs that lexicalize the PATH in its own right. Such verbs exist in Danish as well, but the Russian ones seem to play a far more dominant role, at least in some spheres of communication, so that the picture begins to resemble that known from French.

For instance, in step-by-step descriptions of technological processes we find an "exclusive" set of highly frequent relocation verbs specifying PATH only – and in a highly abstract sense where spatial features like [up], [down], [in], [out], etc. are completely absent. The only PATH-related information left is the very fact of x going from (some) Loc_1 to (some) Loc_2, that is, relocation "par excellence". What further distinguishes these verbs seems to be the VIEWPOINT in that the directional movement, which is captured in its entirety by all these verbs, may be viewed from the point of departure or the point of arrival, respectively, or be unmarked in that respect. These verbs are given in (7):

(7) ***Russian****:* (in addition to other models:)

Non-specified PATH + VIEWPOINT

a. point of departure (Loc_1):
направлять ⟨*napravljátʹ*⟩ [≈ direct, guide]
подавать ⟨*podavátʹ*⟩ [≈ direct, launch]

b. point of arrival (Loc_2):
поступать ⟨*postupátʹ*⟩ [≈ arrive (at), reach]

c. neutral viewpoint (Loc_1 & Loc_2)
перемещать(ся) ⟨*peremeščát'(sja)*⟩ [≈ relocate (oneself), proceed] [3]
идти ⟨*idtí*⟩ [≈ go, lit. walk]

In technical discourse, these verbs are applied to a wide variety of objects (rocks, vegetables, gasses, fluids, electric current, people) which move in very different ways (roll, flow, are pumped, driven, etc.) and directions (down chutes, into basins, etc.). Often they seem to be the default choice despite the fact that parameters like those mentioned could easily be specified by means of other verbs.

It is worth noting that while many of the French PATH verbs are simplex verbs (primary lexicalizations), all verbs in (7) except *идти* ⟨*idtí*⟩ are originally coined according to the stem + prefix/satellite model so typical of the MANNER languages, and that all these verbs also have more specific readings than those focussed on here. For example, *подавать* ⟨*podavátʹ*⟩ may also refer to serving food in a restaurant while *идти* ⟨*idti*⟩ may also refer to the activity of walking by foot, in which sense it is a full-fledged MANNER verb. Historically these readings seem to be the original ones, but semantics has obviously developed in a different direction later on (without excluding the more "literal" readings, however) which has led to strong polysemy. The present examples are not isolated exceptions[4] and there might therefore be provided

[3] The intransitivized variant of the verb derived by means of the reflexive suffix *-ся* ⟨*-sja*⟩ is generally considered an independent lexical item in this particular case. Other transitive verbs in the present category can however also be intransitivized when applied in the passive voice, which is quite characteristic of LSP texts of the present category. The same goes for many of the Danish verbs given in (8). The category of transitivity is an important variable in the semantics of relocation verbs, but will not be further addressed in this article for matters of space.

[4] An additional example might be the Russian verbs *поднимать(ся)* ⟨*podnimat'(sja)*⟩ [≈ raise (oneself), put (or go) up] and *спускать(ся)* ⟨*spuskat'(sja)*⟩ [≈ lower (oneself), put (or go) down], where the translations given in brackets relate to the intransitive variant only; see also note 1 above. These verbs have originally been coined according to the prefix + stem model, but are presently (also) used in highly abstract senses which are comparable to those of the French MANNER verbs *monter*

some support for characterizing Russian as a MANNER language which is in the process of switching over to a PATH oriented approach – and which at the present stage is capable of "working both ways".

The fact that Russian differs from a more prototypical MANNER language like Danish – and sometimes behaves more like e.g. French – becomes obvious, for instance, in the course of translating technical process descriptions between the two former languages. While Russian source texts in this field make frequent use of verbs like those in (7), Danish source texts rely heavily on phrasal verb constructions of the MANNER + PATH$_{satellite}$ type. For translators this means the following: When translating from Russian into Danish, the translator will often have difficulty finding suitable equivalents to the highly abstract Russian PATH verbs and therefore need to make inferences about MANNER on his or her own risk in order to decide whether an object, rolls, floats, is being pumped, etc. In some cases this results in pure guesswork and can make the translation highly misleading. On the other hand, when translating from Danish into Russian, the translator may be "too" well informed about the MANNER component from the numerous MANNER + PATH$_{satellite}$ verb constructions used in the source text. A conscientious, but inexperienced, translator will naturally try to preserve as much of that information as possible in the Russian target text. And, as opposed to French, Russian does have the means for replicating Danish constructions of the above kind in a one-to-one fashion in quite many cases, while the rest may be achieved through paraphrasing. The resultant text may be formally correct, but strike the intended receivers as stylistically inadequate in containing too much self-evident (redundant) information compared to original Russian texts of this sort.

The general picture just outlined is supported by years of class-room experience in teaching technical translation between the two languages as well as exchanges of opinion with colleague translators. However, more systematic empirical evidence is definitely required, and a first step will be taken below.

4. Pilot Study: From Sugar Beet to Sugar Pot

When investigating cross-linguistic differences of the present kind empirically it seems relevant to ask the following two questions: (a) Which verbs should be part of the investigation? All the languages at issue here contain dozens of verb lexemes lexicalizing relocation in one way or the other, some of them representing quite diverse patterns of lexicalization. So how do we decide what is "most" typical of each language? (b) How do the differences that may be identified on the level of language-systems, i.e. the stocks of verb lexemes available, influence the actual language-behaviour of speakers in the respective language-communities? Or to continue Jakobson's line of reasoning (see 1.1), how do cross-linguistic differences as to what languages must and must not convey influences what speakers actually **make them** convey when communicating? The method described below addresses both these issues in combination.

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and *descendre* (the etymology of which might also be worth some further consideration).

The basic idea can be put as follows. Instead of starting with the verbs, one may start with a piece of discourse that involves a wide array of relocation events and processes and map how they are spontaneously verbalized by native speakers of the languages considered. In this case we will focus on concise step-by-step descriptions of the process of beet sugar production. The basic methods used in this technical field are rather similar throughout the industrialized world which minimizes noise on that account. Furthermore, the "things that move" in a sugar factory alter in shape throughout the process: First we have sugar **beets** which are then cut into **chips**, flushed with hot water and disposed of (to be converted into **animal feed**) while the resultant **crude juice** is evaporated until it forms a **syrup** (the surplus **steam** being re-circulated) in which sugar **crystals** form and are then separated from the **mother liquor** through centrifugation. This, in turn, means that the objects and substances in question must be conveyed in very different ways: by **tractors**, **conveyors**, through **gravity**, **pumping**, etc. In other words, the MANNER of motion changes all the time – and the same is true of the PATH in that the objects and substances in question move **down** chutes, **up** conveyors, **through** pipes, **in** and **out** of machinery, etc. following trajectories that involve many different instances of Loc_1 and Loc_2 interrelated in different ways. By "filtering out" the relocation verbs used in describing these standard procedures we get (a) a fixed set of verbs for each language that may serve as an obligatory basis for further classification, ruling out any theoretical bias on the part of the researcher (apart from his or her delimiting of the set as a whole), and (b) information about which verbs among the totality available in each language speakers actually select when talking about relocation in texts of the present sort.

The approach suggested here has several traits in common with that underlying the "Frog Story" project presented by Berman & Slobin (1994; see also Slobin 1996a/b; Jansen 2000) – which addresses the lexicalization of motion among several other issues – and the "Mr. Bean" project presented by Skytte (1999) and her colleagues. Both these projects are based on native speakers' spontaneous verbalizations of uniform extralinguistic scenarios. However, in the present case such verbalizations are not provoked by the researcher in the course of interviews, but have come about quite voluntarily by specialists and/or technical writer simply doing their job.

4.1 Materials and procedure

At present the method has been tested in a small-scale pilot study focussing on the difference between Danish (as a typical MANNER language) and Russian (as a less typical MANNER language) only. At a later stage, French is expected to be included as well. The initial material is a miniature text corpus consisting of 2 Danish and 2 Russians texts giving concise overviews of the basic stages of beet sugar production, i.e. telling more or less the same story. The Russian texts stem from an encyclopaedia and a textbook, respectively, whereas the Danish texts stem from two different booklets on sugar technology both issued by the Danish sugar monopoly

Danisco. In order to reduce the amount of irrelevant information (noise) the texts were adapted, so that all sentences containing no reference to relocation of the basic process media (beets, chips, syrup, etc.) in the shape of a simple or phrasal verb were omitted. These adapted versions are given in full in the Appendix together with further source data. The English translations (in italics) are intended for guidance only. In the next phase, the totality of verb lexemes (types) occurring in the Danish and Russian texts, respectively, were registered and subject to a tentative semantic classification to be further discussed below. By also registering the number of occurrences of each verb lexeme (i.e. tokens per type) type-token ratios could be calculated. On this basis, the general approach to the verbalization of relocation scenarios in the respective texts – and to the lexicalization of relocation in general by (some) verb lexemes in the respective language-systems – may be compared and discussed.

4.2 Results and discussion

The Danish texts contain a total of 39 verb forms (tokens) referring to relocation, representing 32 different verb lexemes (types), each main verb + satellite constructions counting as a separate lexeme.[5] The Russian texts contain a total of 24 verb forms (tokens) referring to relocation, representing 15 different verb lexemes (types). It is thus interesting to note that the Danish texts contain more verbs than the Russian ones, in terms of both tokens and types, which does not match a proportional difference in the lengths of the adapted texts. Further theorizing on that point must however wait until a more extensive collection of texts has been established.

The lexemes found in the Danish and Russian texts are listed and classified in (8) and (9), respectively:

(8) ***Danish relocation verbs found in SugarTextDan1/2:***

I MANNER + PATH$_{\text{satellite}}$

high typicality:
hælde + over, ud [≈ pour + over, out]; *koge + bort* [≈ boil + away]; *løbe + ud* [≈ run + out]; *løfte + ind* [≈ lift in]; *presse + fra* [≈ press + away]; *pumpe + til, over* [≈ pump + to, over]; *skubbe + hen* [≈ push + over]; *skylle + ud, af* [≈ rinse + out, off]; *slynge + fra, ud* [≈ fling + away, out]; *styrte + ned* [≈ topple + down]; *svømme + til* [≈ swim + to]; *tippe + ned* [≈ tip + down]; *trække + ud* and *udtrække* [≈ extract, lit. pull + out *and* out $_{\text{prefix}}$|pull]; *tømme + ud* [≈ empty + out]; *vaske +ud* [≈ wash + out]

[5] Danish phrasal verbs of the main verb + satellite type are often connected with additional PATH-specifying adverbs/prepositions when occurring in actual clauses, but such "secondary satellites" are not included in the list in (8) since there is less ground for classifying the entire resultant construction as one independent phrasal lexeme (whereas the first satellite definitely creates a new type of lexeme belonging to a different semantic category: see section 2.). However, the question is open to further investigation and debate.

lower typicality:
blande + *i* [≈ mix + into]; *føre* + *ind, ud, til, hen* [≈ lead + in(to/side), out, to, over]; *lede* + *igennem, til, bort* [≈ guide + through, to, away]; *tage* + *bort* [≈ take + away]

II PATH
forlade [≈ leave]; *transportere* + *igennem* [≈ transport + through]

III PURPOSE
fjerne [≈ remove]; *udvinde* [≈ win, extract, lit. out $_{\text{prefix}}$|win]

(9) ***Russian relocation verbs found in SugarTextRus1/2:***

I MANNER + PATH$_{\text{prefix}}$

high typicality:
вывозить ⟨*vyvozít'*⟩ [≈ drive out, lit. out$_{\text{prefix}}$|drive]; *выводить* ⟨*vyvodit'*⟩ [≈ lead out, lit. out$_{\text{prefix}}$|lead]; *выгружать* ⟨*vygružát'*⟩ [≈ load out, lit. out$_{\text{prefix}}$|load]; *отфильтровывать* ⟨*otfil'tróvyvat'*⟩ [≈ filter off, lit. off$_{\text{prefix}}$|filter]; *перекачивать* ⟨*perekáčivat'*⟩ [≈ pump over, lit. over$_{\text{prefix}}$|pump]

lower typicality:
переходить ⟨*perechodít'*⟩ [≈ go, lit. walk over, lit. over$_{\text{prefix}}$|go/-walk]

II. PATH
возвращать ⟨*vozvračšat'*⟩ [≈ return]

\+ *VIEWPOINT*

point of departure (Loc$_1$):
направлять ⟨*napravlját'*⟩ [≈ direct, guide]
подавать ⟨*podavát'*⟩ [≈ direct, launch]

point of arrival (Loc$_2$):
поступать ⟨*postupát'*⟩ [≈ arrive (at), reach]

neutral viewpoint (Loc$_1$ & Loc$_2$)
идти ⟨*idtí*⟩ [≈ go, lit. walk]

III PURPOSE
добавлять ⟨dobavlját'⟩ [≈ add]; *отделять* ⟨otdelját'⟩ (also: *отделение* ⟨*otdelenie*⟩ $_{\text{V}\rightarrow\text{N}}$) [≈ separate]; *разделять* ⟨razdelját'⟩ [≈ separate, divide]; *удалять* ⟨udalját'⟩ [≈ remove]

Even if some aspects of the classification are open to discussion (see below), the overall difference in assortment of verb lexemes is striking and consistent with the characterization of the respective languages given in section 3. In the Danish texts we find a wide selection of MANNER + PATH$_{\text{satellite}}$ constructions vividly describing how things swim, run, are toppled, pushed, pumped, pressed, etc. from one location to another. In the Russian texts, only 6 lexemes are classifiable under the comparable MANNER + PATH$_{\text{prefix}}$ category. Many more such verbs are available in the Russian language (including approximate equivalents to many of the Danish ones in question), but still the Russian authors have confined themselves to that limited set. On the other hand, all but one member of the “exclusive” set of Russian PATH verbs discussed in section 3. (lexicalizing non-specified PATH + VIEWPOINT) are represented in the Russian texts, whereas only 2 Danish lexemes might be classified as PATH verbs at all, at least one being rather untypical. Thus, *transportere + igennem* [≈ transport + through] is formed according to the main verb + PATH-specifying satellite model, but the main verb (of Latin origin) says nothing about the MANNER of motion, but rather suggests some non-specified PATH in itself which however needs to be further specified by satellites in order to be interpreted a relocation verb at all (though, historically, that verb too has obviously been coined according to a MANNER + $\text{PATH}_{\text{prefix}}$ pattern; the varying degree of transparency between expression and content will be further addressed below). It is interesting, also, that the existence of such an underdetermined motion verb stem in Danish does not lead speakers to use it more than seems to be the case to avoid specifying MANNER all the time. In the present texts it is used only once and nothing indicates that the picture is much different elsewhere (though this remains to be verified, of course).

The general tendencies just outlined become even more pronounced if we consider the frequency of actual verb forms (tokens) belonging to the respective categories in the respective texts, see Table 1.

TABLE 1. *Frequency of verb tokens belonging to categories I-III*

		SugarTextDan1/2	SugarTextRus1/2
I	MANNER + $\text{PATH}_{\text{satellite/prefix}}$	82%	33%
II	PATH (±VIEWPOINT)	5%	46%
III	PURPOSE	13%	21%

82% of the verb tokens found in the Danish texts are included under the MANNER + $\text{PATH}_{\text{satellite/prefix}}$ category which is only the case with 33% of the verb tokens found in the Russian texts. And while 46% of the verb tokens found in the Russian texts are included under the PATH (±VIEWPOINT) category, this is only the case with 5% of the verb tokens found in the Danish texts. The preferences of the respective authors are thus quite clear, both in terms of the lexemes selected and the frequency of their actual application. Another interesting indicator in this regard are the type-token ratios for each verb category which will be considered shortly.

First, however, a few words must be said about the classification itself. As already indicated, not all examples are equally unequivocal, which is however a natural (and, indeed, desirable) consequence of the method applied. By catching all "fish in the sea" meeting certain criteria (i.e. being judged as referring to relocation in some sense) instead of going straight to the "typical" ones we get a more objective basis for drawing typological conclusions and, not least, fresh inputs for further refining the underlying verb classification. Of course, one might still hope that the basic assumptions made initially would find some immediate support in the empirical findings, and this appears to be the case: the prototypical tendencies presented in section 3. are illustrated by several clear-cut examples, even in this small sample. But there are also some less obvious cases, and some less obvious traits in the obvious ones, that give rise to additional theoretical considerations. These considerations must briefly be mentioned.

First, not all lexemes of the MANNER + PATH$_{\text{satellite/prefix}}$ type are applied in equally "literal" senses as regards MANNER as indicated by "high/lower typicality" in (8) and (9). For example, the Danish verb *føre* (+ *ind, ud*, etc.) originally refers to one living creature guiding another along, but here it is applied to chips, fluids, etc. which are guided by conveyors, pumps, etc. There is thus a tendency to sometimes "loosen" the extreme demands on specificity posed by many MANNER verbs, even in a classic MANNER language like Danish. But still, this does not make such verbs as broadly applicable as those highly abstract PATH verbs frequently used in Russian and French. Second, there is far from always an isomorphic (one-to-one) relationship between expression and content as might be expected from the ideal(ized) standard case of a complex MANNER + PATH$_{\text{satellite/prefix}}$ construction versus a simplex PATH verb. As mentioned earlier, all but one of the Russian PATH (+VIEWPOINT) verbs considered have also been coined according to a stem + prefix model and, indeed, have more "literal" readings that might justify different classifications. The same goes for other Russian and Danish verbs in the sample, including those to be mentioned next. Therefore, any serviceable semantic classification must also involve other criteria than the structure of the expression-unit as such. Third, two Danish and four Russian verb lexemes do not seem to fit into either category I or II and have been placed under a separate one: III PURPOSE. These verbs definitely lexicalize relocation, i.e. a change of location from Loc_1 to Loc_2 (where the state directly referred to includes either Loc_1 or Loc_2), but they have an additional meaning that involves desirability of the resultant state and hence PURPOSE. In short, *fjerne* [≈ remove] means "(do so that) x is no longer on Loc_1 regardless of where it might go… and this is good!", while *добавлять* ⟨*dobavlját'*⟩ [≈ add] means "(do so that) x is now on Loc_2 regardless of where it came from… and this is good!". The positioning of these verbs in the framework outlined in section 2. is still in progress and may involve qualification in addition to location. At present the role of these verbs in the opposition between MANNER orientation and PATH orientation is not clear (though they appear to be closer to the latter approach in being rather neutral with regard to MANNER) and we will therefore disregard them in the generalizations made below.

The overall picture thus remains the same: the Danish authors tend to be highly specific about the MANNER of motion throughout their texts, using a lot of different MANNER + PATH$_{\text{satellite}}$ combinations, whereas the Russian authors rely on a smaller number of lexemes that are unspecified in that regard – turning to the MANNER + PATH$_{prefix}$ model only occasionally. What gives rise to such occasions is hard to judge on the present basis, but one possible hypothesis might be that Russian authors – having the choice – avoid specifying the MANNER of motion when it is clear from the co(n)text anyway (which it very often is), but are ready to do so if it serves a more specific purpose. For example, the verb *вывозить* ⟨*vyvozít'*⟩ [≈ drive out, lit. out$_{prefix}$|drive] may have been chosen in SugarTextRus2 to inform the reader that the desugarized chips are normally transported out of the factory building by means of tractors or other motor vehicles – since here alternative procedures (e.g. conveyers) are not entirely excluded. For Russian authors, both pragmatic considerations and perhaps also rhetorical norms may thus have a greater influence on the choice of relocation verbs than is the case for their Danish colleagues.

The inclination to rely on fewer abstract verbs in the Russian texts and to select a new verb for each MANNER of motion (of which there are numerous) in the Danish texts also transpires in the type-token ratios given in Table 2, despite the limited amount of data.

TABLE 2. *Type-token ratios expressed as average occurrence of verb tokens per type for categories I-III and for all relocation verbs found in the texts*

	SugarTextDan1/2	SugarTextRus1/2
I MANNER + PATH$_{satellite/prefix}$	1.14	1.33
II PATH (±VIEWPOINT)	1.00	2.20
III PURPOSE	2.50	1.25
All relocation verbs	1.22	1.60

There are different ways of expressing type-token ratios, but for the present purpose it seems most informative to express them as average occurrence of verb tokens per type. On average, a Danish verb lexeme is repeated 1.22 times whereas a Russian verb lexeme is repeated 1.60 times, i.e. a bit more. Perhaps more interestingly, the Danish MANNER + PATH$_{satellite}$ constructions, which account for 82% of all verb tokens in the Danish texts (as opposed to 33% for the corresponding Russian lexemes), are repeated only 1.14 times on average, whereas the Russian PATH (±VIEWPOINT) verbs, which account for 46% of all verb tokens in the Russian texts (as opposed to 5% for the corresponding Danish lexemes), are repeated 2.20 on average, i.e. nearly twice as much.

5. Concluding remarks

These preliminary findings contribute to the picture of Danish as a language that has decided for a strongly MANNER oriented approach, whereas Russian "works both ways", allowing more room for manoeuvring to its speakers who may then instead be guided by pragmatic and rhetorical considerations. That is, the Russian speakers may be more sensitive to what can or can not be inferred from the co(n)text and/or the receivers prior knowledge, and to communicative norms which may demand e.g. a high level of abstraction and language economy in LSP texts of the present sort.

The intended next steps are as follows: (a) The scale of the investigation must be enlarged significantly so that more definite typological conclusions can be drawn. This presupposes the establishment a larger sample of Danish and Russian SugarTexts (which is in progress) as well as an extension of the corpus with SugarTexts written in a typical MANNER language such as French and/or Spanish. (b) The communicative settings in which the texts have been produced must be considered in more detail in order to estimate the influence of sender/receiver relationships and other extralinguistic factors on authors' selection and use of verb lexemes when referring to relocation. (c) The principles of semantic classification must be further developed in order to account for less typical cases (some of which were discussed above) and further detail the analysis of the MANNER and PATH components in concrete examples. (d) On a subsequent stage, the impact of the cross-linguistic differences identified on the translation process may be made the subject a self-contained empirical investigation.

What has been achieved so far is some support for a separate positioning of Russian in the typology considered and, as one might hope, an illustration of the relevance and place of cross-linguistic typological observations of the present sort in LSP theory and practice. Thus, if nominal special terms constitute essential bricks in LSP texts, then verbs – many of which are not used in professional communication only – constitute the mortar that keeps the bricks together. Being aware of cross-linguistic differences in the quality of the mortar may therefore help LSP translators to develop more efficient strategies and techniques for avoiding pitfalls like those mentioned in section 3. This, in turn, not only presupposes a clear understanding of the general semantic mechanisms and typological preferences at issue, but also detailed knowledge of the specialized field to which the verbs are applied – such as knowing how a sugar factory actually works.

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Appendix

SugarTextDan1

Efter vejningen ***styrtes*** roelæssene ned i roedepotet. (…) I roedepotet spules sukkerroerne med en vandkanon, hvis kraftige vandstråle ***skubber*** roerne hen i en transportrende. I denne rende ***svømmer*** roerne til en stor pumpe, som ***løfter*** vand og roer ind i roevasken. (…) I Roevasken ***skylles*** den sidste jord af roerne. Svømmevand og vaskevand ***pumpes*** til bassiner, hvor den opslemmede jord aflejres. (…) Først skæres roerne i tynde snitter. Derpå ***transporteres*** de igennem diffusionsapparatet, hvor sukkeret ***trækkes*** ud af snitterne. (…) roesnitterne ***føres*** ind i den ene ende og ca. 65^o C varmt vand i den anden. (…) Efter at være befriet for sukkerindholdet ***føres*** snitterne ud af fabrikken som roeaffald. (…). Saften indeholder ca. 15 procent sukker, når den ***forlader*** diffusionsapparatet, men også forskellige urenheder, som skal ***fjernes*** før videre behandling. (…) Saften ***ledes*** så igennem nogle specielle filtre, indeholdende poser af klæde, trukket ud over metalrammer. (…) Den nu klare lysegule saft ***ledes*** til fordampeapparatet, hvor ca. 75 procent af saftens vægt ***tages*** bort som vanddamp. For at kunne udkrystallisere sukkeret er det nødvendigt af ***fjerne*** endnu mere vand fra tyksaften. Dette sker i store kogeapparater ved undertryk (…). Efter kogningens ophør ***slynges*** siruppen fra sukkeret i centrifuger, hvorfra det endnu våde, hvide sukker ***tømmes*** ud.

*After the weighing, the load of beets is **DV type I** (≈ toppled down) into the beet yard. (...). In the beet yard, the beets are flushed by a water canon, the powerful jet of which **DV type I** (≈ pushes over) the beets into a conveying channel. In this channel, the beets **DV type I** (≈ swim to) a large pump which **DV type I** (≈ lifts [the water and beets] into) the beet washer. In the beet washer, the remaining earth is **DV type I** (≈ rinsed off). The swimming and rinse waters are **DV type I** (≈ pumped to) a basin where the suspended earth is settled. (...). First, the beets are sliced into fine chips. Then they are **DV type II** (≈ transported through) the diffuser where the sugar is **DV type I** (≈ extracted, lit. pulled out) from the chips. (...) the beet chips are **DV type I** (≈ led inside) at one end, and warm water with a temperature of approximately 65^o C at the other. After having been freed from their content of sugar, the chips are **DV type I** (≈ led out) of the factory as beet refuse. (...) The juice contains approximately 15 percent of sugar when it **DV type II** (≈ leaves) the diffuser, but also various impurities that have to be **DV type III** (≈ removed) before further treatment. (...) The juice is then **DV type I** (≈ guided through) special filters containing bags of cloth stretched out on metal frames. (...) The juice which is now clear and has a light yellow colour is **DV type I** (≈ guided to) the evaporation apparatus where approximately 75 percent of the weight of the juice is **DV type I** (≈ taken away) in the form of water steam. In order to crystallize the sugar, it is necessary to **DV type III** (≈ remove) still more water from the thick juice. This takes place in large boiling pans under vacuum. After the boiling has ceased, the syrup is **DV type I** (≈ flung away) from the sugar in centrifuges from which the white sugar, still wet, is **DV type I** (≈ emptied out).*

Fra frø til sukker. De Danske Sukkerfabrikker (nu datterselskab til Danisco), ca. 1986. [*From Seed to Sugar.* Danish Sugar Factories (now a subsidiary of Danisco), c. 1986.]

SugarTextDan2

Efter indvejningen ***tippes*** roelæsset ned i roedepotet, hvor roerne spules med en vandkanon. På den måde bliver jord og sten ***skyllet*** af. Mudderet ***løber*** ud i nogle store slambassiner, hvor jord og sten bundfælder (…). Fra roedepotet ***føres*** sukkerroerne ind i roevasken, hvor de sidste rester af jord ***skylles*** af. For at ***udvinde*** sukkeret fra roerne, bliver de skåret i tynde snitter, og på et transportbånd ***føres*** snitterne hen til et såkaldt ”diffusionsapparat”. I apparatet overskylles roestykkerne med 70 grader varmt vand, der ***udtrækker*** sukkeret. I løbet af 70 til 90 minutter er alt sukkeret ***vasket*** ud af roesnitterne, som derefter ***presses*** fra til dyrefoder. (…) Urenhederne ***fjernes*** ved, at der ***blandes*** læsket kalk i sukkersaften. (…) Kalkpartiklerne og urenhederne ***fjernes*** fra saften i nogle store filtre (…). Den rene sukkersaft ***løber*** ud på den ene side af filtret, og på den anden side samles kager af kalkslam. Sukkersaften er nu en lysegul væske, som ***føres*** til de store fordampeapparater. Her varmes sukkersaften op, og ved inddampning ***koges*** ca. 75% af vandet bort. (…) Tyksaften bliver (…) ***hældt*** over i nogle store kogeapparater, hvor saften koger ved atmosfærisk undertryk. (…) Efterhånden som vanddampen ***ledes*** bort, dannes der krystaller i saften. Sukkersaften er nu en tyk, brun grød, der ***pumpes*** over i store centrifuger. I centrifugerne ***slynges*** det brune stof – siruppen – ud af sukkergrøden. (…) til sidst kan man ***hælde*** ren, hvid melis ud af centrifugerne.

*After being weighed on arrival, the load of beets is **DV type I** (≈ tipped down) into the beet yard where the beets are flushed by a water canon. As a result, earth and stones are **DV type I** (≈ rinsed of). The mud **DV type I** (≈ runs out) into large sludge basins where earth and stones settle. (...) From the beet yard, the beets are **DV type I** (≈ led into) the beet washer where the last remnants of earth are **DV type I** (≈ rinsed of). In order to **DV type III** (≈ win, extract) the sugar from the beets they are sliced into fine chips, and the chips are **DV type I** (≈ led over) to a so-called "diffusion apparatus" by a conveyor. In the apparatus the chips are flushed with water with a temperature of 70 degrees which **DV type I** (≈ extracts, lit. pulls out) the sugar. In the course of 70 to 90 minutes all the sugar is **DV type I** (≈ washed out) of the beet chips, which are then **DV type I** (≈ pressed away) for animal feed. (...) The impurities are **DV type III** (≈ removed) by **DV type I** (≈ mixing) [lime milk] into) the sugar juice. (...) The lime particles and impurities are **DV type II** (≈ removed) from the juice in large filters (...). The pure sugar juice **DV type I** (≈ runs out) on one side of the filter and cakes of lime sludge are collected on the other. The sugar juice is now a light yellow fluid which is **DV type I** (≈ led to) the large evaporation apparatuses. Here the sugar juice is heated and about 75% of the water is **DV type I** (≈ boiled away) during the evaporation. (...). The thick juice (...) is **DV type I** (≈ poured over) into large boiling pans where the juice is boiled at a pressure below atmosphere. (...). While the water steam is **DV type I** (≈ guided away), crystals form in the juice. The sugar juice is now a thick, brown mash which is **DV type I** (≈ pumped over) into large centrifuges. In the centrifuges, the brown substance – the syrup – is **DV type I** (≈ flung out) of the sugar mash. (...) finally, pure sugar may be **DV type I** (≈ poured out) of the centrifuges.*

Fra Sukkerroe til Sukkerskål. De Danske Sukkerfabrikker. Danisco, ca. 1995. [*From Sugar Beet to Sugar Bowl.* Danish Sugar Factories. Danisco, c. 1995.]

SugarTextRus1

Свёклу ***подают*** в здание завода гидравлическими транспортёрами, имеющими устройства для ***отделения*** примесей из свекло-водяной смеси. (…) Далее в свеклорезках корни свёклы измельчаются в тонкую стружку, которая ***подаётся*** в диффузионные аппараты. В них почти весь сахар ***переходит*** в горячую воду. (…)

Диффузионный сок (… (затем)) подвергается очистке (…). Сначала к соку, нагретому до 88° С, ***добавляется*** известковое молоко. После подогрева до 90° С сока (…) осадок ***отфильтровывают*** (…) После подогрева до 126° С сок ***поступает*** в выпарную установку. Полученный сироп с содержанием 65% сухих веществ, в том числе 60% сахара, для уменьшения цветности сульфитируют и после фильтрования ***направляют*** на станцию уваривания (…). При центрифугировании утфеля ***отделяются*** первый оттёк (маточный раствор) и второй оттёк, получаемый в результате промывки водой кристаллов сахара. ***Выгружаемый*** из центрифуг кристаллический сахар является готовой продукцией. (…) 3-й утфель (…) (даёт) жёлтый сахар, ***возвращаемый*** в сироп после дополнительной его очистки (аффинации).

*The beets are **RV type II** (≈ directed) into the factory building by means of hydraulic conveyors that have mechanisms for **RV type III** (≈ separating) impurities from the beet-water mixture. (...) Subsequently, in the beet slicer the beet roots are divided into fine slices which are **RV type II** (≈ directed) to the diffusers. Here nearly all the sugar **RV type I** (≈ passes, lit. walks over) into the hot water. (...). The crude juice (...) is (then) subjected to purification (...). First, lime milk is **RV type III** (≈ added) to the juice after it has been heated to 88° C. After the juice has been heated to 90° C (...), the sediment is **RV type I** (≈ filtered off). After the juice has been heated to 126° C, it **RV type II** (≈ arrives at, reaches) the evaporation plant. The resultant syrup which contains 65% dry matter including 60% sugar is sulphitated in order to reduce chromaticity and after filtration it is **RV type II** (≈ directed) to the crystallization plant (...). By centrifuging the massecuite, centrifugal molasses (mother liquor) and run-off water resulting from the subsequent washing of the sugar crystals with water are **RV type III** (≈ separated). The grainy sugar which is **RV type I** (≈ loaded out) of the centrifuges constitutes the end product. (...) the third (III) massecuite (...) produces yellow sugar which is **RV type II** (≈ returned) into the syrup after additional purification (affination).*

Иванов П. Я. 'Сахар'. In: *Большая Советская Энциклопедия (БСЭ)*, Москва: «Советская Энциклопедия», 1971-1981. [Ivanov, P. Ja. 'Sugar'. In: *Great Soviet Encyclopaedia.* Moscow: «Soviet Encyclopaedia», 1971-1981.]

SugarTextRus2

Сахарную свёклу ***подают*** в завод по наклонному жёлобу гидравлического транспортёра водным потоком. В конце гидротранспортёра свекловодяная смесь центробежным насосом ***перекачивается*** в свекломоечную машину (…). Отмытые корнеплоды свеклы (…) изрезывают в мелкую стружку, которая ***поступает*** в диффузионный аппарат, где ее (….) обессахаривают горячей водой в противотоке. Свекловичный сок в результате экстракции (диффузии) ***переходит*** в воду, образуя так называемый диффузионный сок. Обессахаренную стружку (…) отжимают в прессе и ***удаляют*** с завода, а жомопрессовную воду после осветления ***возвращают*** в диффузионный аппарат. (…) После очистки и фильтрования взвешенные примеси ***удаляются*** из сока полностью, а растворимые – на 1/3. (…) Полученный сироп сульфитируют, фильтруют и ***направляют*** на кристаллизацию сахара. (…) Утфель ***разделяют*** в центрифугах на сахар-песок и первый оттёк. (…) первый и второй оттёки, содержащие большое количество сахара, ***подают*** на уваривание утфеля II кристаллизации. Первый и второй оттёки утфеля II ***идут*** на уваривание утфеля III кристаллизации (…). Обессахаренный (…) межкристальный раствор (…) ***выводят*** из завода без разбавления. Фильтрационный осадок подсушивают и ***вывозят*** на поля для подщелачивания кислых почв.

*The sugar beets are **RV type II** (≈ directed) into the factory by a stream of water through the tilted chute of a hydraulic conveyor. At the end of the hydraulic conveyor the beet-water mixture is **RV type I** (≈ pumped over) to the beet washer by a centrifugal pump (...). The washed beet roots (...) are sliced into fine chips which **RV type II** (≈ arrive at, reach) the diffuser where they are (...) desugarized by means of hot water in countercurrent flow. As a result of the extraction (diffusion), the beet juice **RV type I** (≈ passes, lit. walks over) into the water forming the so-called crude juice. The desugarized chips (...) are squeezed in a press and **RV type III** (≈ removed) from the factory, while the pulp press water is **RV type II** (≈ returned) to the diffuser after clarification. (...) After purification and filtration, suspended impurities are **RV type III** (≈ removed) from the juice completely and dissolved impurities by 1/3. The resultant syrup is sulphitated, filtered, and **RV type II** (≈ directed) for crystallization. (...). In the centrifuges, the massecuite is **RV type III** (≈ divided) into sand sugar and centrifugal molasses. (...) the centrifugal molasses and run-off water which have a high sugar content are **RV type II** (≈ directed) for crystallization of the second (II) massecuite. The centrifugal molasses and run-off water of the second (II) massecuite **RV type II** (≈ go, lit. walk) for crystallization of the third (III) massecuite (...). The desugarized mother liquor is **RV type I** (≈ led out, lit. guided out) of the factory without dilution. The filter cake is dried and then **RV type I** (≈ driven out) into the fields for alkalization of acid soils.*

Сапронов А. Р.; Сапронова Л. А. *Технология сахара.* Москва: «Колос», 1993. [Sapronov, A. R.; Sapronova, L. A. (1993). *Sugar Technology.* Moscow: «Kolos», 1993.]

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ABSTRACT

Talking about Motion in Danish, French, and Russian: Some Implications for LSP in Theory and Practice

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The article addresses the lexicalization of motion and space in the verb lexicons of Danish, French, and Russian and the impact that cross-linguistic differences in this regard have for LSP communication and translation. Several authors have suggested a sharp typological distinction between so-called MANNER languages (e.g. Danish) and PATH languages (e.g. French). This article further develops the semantic classification underlying such a typology by introducing the notion of location-based action verbs, or in short, relocation verbs. Using this framework, it will be argued that Russian presents an interesting special case in being a MANNER language which is in the process of switching over to a PATH oriented approach, allowing more room for manoeuvring to its speakers than is the case for both Danish and French. This hypothesis is tested in a pilot study based on Danish and Russian step-by-step process descriptions relating to the sugar industry. In the introductory part of the article, the relevance and place of typological data of the present sort in a broader LSP context are discussed at some length.

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Origins and Use of English Legal Terms through History[1]

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1. Introduction

English justice has long been perceived by many who have experienced it, and many more who have not, as highly technical, inadequate, inaccessible, and seemingly unconnected to everyday life (Gridel 1994: 23). Without the help of specialists in law, lay persons are often unable to understand legal procedure and legal language.

Indeed, the latter has a peculiar tenacity; an ability to achieve stability within changing social and economic conditions (Gény 1922: 42). However, the impression it radiates is one of conservatism, rigidity (Wagner 1999b) and uniformity ; for the social structure penetrates into the architecture of the English language of the law (Carbonnier 1978). That is why every past and present society has had its own knowledge of words, and many have created or adapted words in order to reflect their particular standards and expectations (attributed to Hobbes 1971: 35). The French lawyer Gény considered that law has its own "living reality" (Gény 1922: 149) which is highly dependent upon context.

Consequently, English legal discourse reveals a complex network of interactions between individuals and their environment. Furthermore, a linguistic insecurity emerges as soon as someone is analysing an earlier cultural notion. So, legal language has to be construed within a specific period of time. The interpreter is then confronted with "a web closely woven around production" (Schauer 1992: 500-501, Aitchison 1991: 89-101) which Eco (1976: 86) describes as a multi-levelled maze, representing any different legal situations.

[1] This is a revised paper presented at the International Union of Anthropological and Ethnological Sciences (IUAS) Congress at Florence, Italy, July 5th – 12th, 2003 : http://www.icaes-florence2003.com

Legal language is, then, a complex and interesting melting pot of intrinsic and extrinsic influences, coming from cultural practices which evolve within the space-time of modernity.

So, wherever one turns, individuals have maintained written and hidden proof of this inheritance. The only way to decipher this language is through an analysis of its often “silent” historical and social dimensions. Hall’s concept of “silent language” is worth mentioning here:

> "Culture acts directly and profoundly upon behaviours; and the mechanisms which link them are often untold and located far beyond the voluntary control of an individual" (Hall 1984: 35)

While examples may be found in English law, lay people or even lawyers have not found a ready solution even though there have been many attempts.

2. Historical and social dimensions

Sir Francis Bacon explained the multi-cultural origins of these *Laws of England* through an analysis of the deep and complex English historical elaboration:

> "It is true, they are mixt as our language, compounded of British, Roman, Saxon, Danish, Norman Customs. And as our language is so much the richer, so the laws are the more complete" (Mellinkoff 1963: 158).

This quotation shows how close the link is between the development of English law and the various conquests which arose on English territory. Indeed within English legal language, there remain clear vestiges of this past. The study of historical circumstances therefore demonstrates how this language has evolved and enhanced itself over the centuries:

> "Scandinavian words were borrowed most freely between the ninth century and the twelfth, French words during the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, but Latin words have been making their way into English, throughout almost the whole period of its history". (Serjeantson 1968: 9).

Moreover when contemplating the legal circumstances of legal discourse development, Goodrich's reflection seems primordial:

> "To know the law is not to know the words of the law, but the force and property of the words. The textual culture of law, indeed, brings with it an explicit linguistics, a linguistics of fidelity to sources, to originals, to supposed first usages and all that those usages implied". (Goodrich 1990: 115)

Consequently, a faithful analysis needs to be carried out by the discerning reader in order to fully understand the “hidden” or “silent” dimension of words within a specified context. This fragility in comprehension is all the more critical when people are confronted with cultural, legal or historical dimensions which they do not really master. So we need to invest in terminology, "for it is worthwhile if it is validated and informed homogeneously" (Lebreton 1994: 87).

The language of the law is and always will be evolving in accordance with politics, social behaviours and historical circumstances. That is why we can say that each period of time contributed and continues to contribute to the construction of English legal architecture, leading to semantic variances. Owing to Peter Tiersma (1999),

> “Our law is a law of words. Although there are several major sources of law in the Anglo-American tradition, all consist of words. Morality or custom may be embedded in human behavior, but law –virtually by definition- comes into being through language. Thus, the legal profession focuses intensely on the words that constitute the law, whether in the form of statutes, regulations or judicial opinions” (Tiersma, 1999:1)

So, the more complex the culture, the more important the institutional body, and the more complex the language used to codify it. As already mentioned, the features of the language of the law derive not only from the legal institution itself but also from history, from social functions, actors, goals of the law and eventually linguistic usage. If law has to be simultaneously fixed and flexible (Wagner: 2002c), several communicational and institutional strategies are necessary in order to organise the linguistic means to enhance its understanding within the sociolinguistic community.

2.1 Emergence of the concepts ‘Law Latin’ and ‘Law French’

At the very beginning, there was no language of 'the law' and no one could have ever talked about a language for particular legal purposes. Let's first note that the word *law* is of Scandinavian origin[2]. *Law* came into the Old English word *lagu*, well known in England since the fifth century, which derived from an Old Norse noun *log*. All these terms mean "something laid or fixed" (Mellinkoff 1963: 5), as do the Greek *thémis*, the Latin *statutum*, the German *Gesetz* (Onions 1966).

As Holdsworth underlined, "a primitive system of law had no technical terms" (Holdsworth 1922: 43), for example the word *lawyer*:

> The closest approach Old English had to a name for lawyer was *forspeaker* (O.E. *forspeca* or *forspreca*), i.e., one who speaks for another, an advocate, a defender (Mellinkoff 1963: 52).

[2] It does not mean a legal language formerly existed.

Consequently, the creation of the legal semantic architecture relied on common language. It specified words and even forms, sometimes modified them (see Tournier 1985) or even radically changed their use. From there arose specially adapted expressions to achieve particular goals (Gény 1922b: 460).

Mellinkoff (1968) was the first jurist to pay attention to a systematic definition and contextualisation of what has been called so far '***Legalese***" or the way to use English law. He was the first one to go back to the Celtic Invasion in order to re-define the language of the law. More recently, Peter Tiersma (1999) and Anne Wagner (c: 2002) have added to this work several commentaries and examples.

Indeed, the very first element to English semantic legal architecture was to be found during the Anglo-Saxon period which permitted the creation of new terms through composition[3], with each term fitting perfectly in the social reality of that period (Mellinkoff 1963: 46-47).

The second element appeared after the Norman Conquest. In the system of the Common Law, much of the forms of legal language deriving from that period persist to this day. Indeed, owing to Maley (1994: 11)

> "It seems that there has never been a time since the Norman Conquest when the English of the Law has been in tune with common usage. It has always been considered a language apart and there are good historical reasons why this should be so"

So, the language of the Common Law really appears as such after the Norman Conquest. Before this historical event, there were rules and/or common practices and usages but nothing professional.

The written languages of the law were Latin and English, with Latin far more common. Most acts of the French institutions were drafted in Latin (Woodbine 1943: 405), because the scribes of documents were churchmen who learned Latin. Consequently, Latin made its way into the language of the law, because neither Old English nor Old French could have ever adapted to the Normans' needs (Holdsworth 1922: 44). Both were considered as "vulgar" (Shelly 1921: 90) tongues, unlike Latin, the "universal language of mediaeval learning" (Woodbine 1943: 411). However, two concepts have since made their way into the current language of the law: law French and law Latin.

On the one hand, French terms were not directly incorporated into the English legal language: e.g the "re" ending is not used, so such words when preserved in English were altered to end in "er". Chartre became charter. Moreover lawyers spoke law French in a very peculiar way, as if they were English terms (Bynon 1977: 46-57). Even when writing law French terms, many versions arose as was demonstrated by Maitland (Year Books of Edward II 1903, see note 8: xlii) when he found in law

[3] This technique is still used in Modern English.

reports eight possibilities of spelling the word "suit": *siwte*, *siwete*, *sywte*, *suwite*, *suwte*, *sute*, *swte*, *seute*.

On the other hand, law Latin was defined as " 'barbarous', 'corrupt', 'mutilated', 'dog Latin', and in an Irish version 'bog Latin'. A less passionate definition is Webster's: a kind of Low Latin, containing Latinised English and old French words, used in English law" (Mellinkoff 1963: 73). Blackstone nonetheless considered it as "a mere technical language, calculated for eternal duration, and easy to be apprehended both in present and future times; and on those accounts best suited to preserve those memorials which are intended for perpetual rules of action" (*Blackstone, Commentaries, 320-321* in Mellinkoff 1963).

2.2 Brief summary of the Historical and Social Influences over the Language of the Common Law

Christianity was the turning-point, when oral legal communication was replaced by the use of drafting. The clergy was responsible for writing down all official documents, be they court or administrative ones. Consequently, the first Anglo Saxon Acts were influenced by Canon Law and were written in Latin.

Even if the Scandinavian invasions from VIII Century gave birth to important words such as *law*, *lawyer* or *right*, the most important influence came from Northern France: the Normans. When in 1066 William the Conqueror invaded England, the new leading social class from England spoke French. However, this linguistic transition was not so brutal. The written language after the Conquest was first and foremost Latin, more particularly suited to legal language with many loan-words coming from English and French. Nevertheless, because of William the Conqueror’s Anglo-Saxon upbringing, many private litigations were dealt with using spoken English. From Law Latin remained words such as *incorporate*, *mandamus* and *subpoena*. Indeed, it was the official language of those branches of the Curia Regis, such as the Chancery and the courts of common law, which had begun to keep plea rolls at this period.

Over two centuries, Law Latin remained the language of the law, before it was substituted by French. Law French only arose during the XIII century when the Magna Carta was promulgated According to Mellinkoff, the rise of Law French in Statutes and precedents arose from the necessity to use a secret code in order to maintain the professional monopoly for lawyers, and also because “many ancient terms and words drawn from legal French are grown to be ***vocabula artis***, and so apt and significant to express the true sense of the laws, and are so woven in the laws themselves, as it is in a manner impossible to change them, neither ought legal terms to be changed” (quotation attributed to Coke). “Many of the French loan words reflect […] cultural and political dominance” (Barber, 1976: 161). They were concerned with administration, law, war, ecclesiastical affairs:

> *Crown, peace, religion, costume, court, battle, service, power, arms, authority, siege, parliament, enemy, clergy, government, armour, sacrifice, cloister.*

Indeed, Norman dominance was overwhelming with many legal terms arising such as:

> *justice, judge, jury, court, suit, sue, plaintiff, defendant, felony, crime, fee, assize, session, damage, real estate, fee simple, letter patent* and *attorney general*.

Nevertheless, it has to be noticed that the first Parliamentary Act in Law French was enacted in 1275, more than 200 years after the Conquest.

With Middle English, many abbreviations arose. Some of them are still in use today: *viz, ss, b.b.* (bona fide), etc. (see Wagner c). Law French was flourishing as well as competing with Law Latin. At the same time, English began to acquire more importance as a means of written communication. But the influence of Law French remained conspicuous and many technical terms were incorporated within Law English. For example, *robbery, plaintiff, action* or *indictment*.

With the enforcement of the *Statute of Pleading* (1362) - the Magna Carta of the Anglo-Saxon language – French was denounced as a legal means of communication and Law English was used instead. Meanwhile the court of Equity was established in order to solve the clear inflexibility of the courts of Common Law (Wagner a; Wagner c), with the former using English as a means of communication while the latter continued to employ Law Latin. Indeed, it was the time when the mixing of languages became even more pronounced (Law Latin, Abbreviations, Law French, Technical French etc.).

In the XV Century, English became the language of Parliamentary Acts and in the XVIII, Law French and Law Latin were no longer used in Statutory Law, even if today some of their linguistic features and words are still noticeable in Law English. From this period – with Law English used in written documents – dates the introduction of the concept *stare decisis* in dictionaries. Word loans from Italian, Greek, French and Swedish were most prominent in this era. Indeed, the statute of 1362 enacted that pleas should be pleaded in English and not in French. The statute provided that:

> “the laws, customs, and statutes of the realm are not commonly known in the same realm, for that they be pleaded, shewed, and judged in the French tongue, which is much unknown in the said realm, so that the people which do implead, or be impleaded in the king’s court, and in the courts of others, have no knowledge nor understanding of that which is said for them or against them by their serjeants and others pleaders”

This statute therefore enacted that all pleas pleaded in the king's courts or in any other courts "shall be pleaded, shewed, defended, answered, debated, and judged in the English tongue, and that they be entered and inrolled in Latin;" but it provides "that the laws and customs of the same realm, terms, and processes be holden and kept as they be and have been before this time.

Meanwhile, the punctuation of Law English was scrutinized insisting that from time to time it was too much or not at all punctuated. However, in the language of the law *statutes* had always been punctuated. The fact was that they were not intended for being read aloud, and so punctuation was not done to the state of the art. The introduction of the press in England showed that punctuation in legal English was totally inconsistent and not uniform, or sometimes even non-existent at all. During this period of great change, punctuation was not considered important at all, but with the lack of uniform rules and with the increase of rhetoric, logic and technicity within the law profession as well as the increase in workloads from the Common Law and Equity Courts, the situation worsened.

From the XVI Century, the legal formalism of proceedings with all the technicities it involved increased. Indeed Law Latin was known to use long sentences and nearly no punctuation at all. In early XIX Century, Bentham critised the incredible amount of documents necessary for pleading, as well as the practice of pleading and the legal jargon. This century also saw the beginning of a transition in English law with statutory law being adjusted, punctuation being shortened and legal jargon being in part eliminated.

3. Ethno-semantics or cognitive anthropology

What is meant by ethno-semantics or cognitive anthropology is simply the way of investigating the importance of formalized ethnographic descriptions, conceived as adequate and replicable accounts of concrete social events within specific cultures, knowing that from one culture to another accounts may well vary or radically change in meaning and/or use of words. As explained by Hymes (1967: 9-10) "language is not everywhere equivalent in communicative role and social value; speaking may carry different functional loads in the communicative economy of different societies", and, "no normal person, and no normal community is limited in repertoire to a single variety of code, to an unchanging monotony which would preclude the possibility of indicating respect, insolence, mock-seriousness, humor, role-distance etc. by switching from one code variety to another".

3.1 The legacy in terminology

Today, many terms which made their appearance in the course of history are still in use. But some of the terms do no longer have the same or exact original meanings. The short list below will illustrate how the language of the Common Law is a blend of different sources.

a. Anglo-Norman, Old English, Middle English words

Alien, chose in action, demurrer, estoppel, Esquire, fee simple & fee tail, laches; metes and bounds, Oyez, quash, rol, voir dire, Aforesaid and forthwith, here-words: herein, hereby, hereafter…, Let (without let or hindrance), said and such (adjectives), Thence and thenceforth, there-words: thereby, thereafter…, Where-words: whereas, whereby […]

b. Latin borrowings

Conspiracy, contempt, custody, homicide, immune, infancy, legal, lucrative, necessary, prosecute, rational, remit, scrutiny, secular, submit, subordinate, subscribe, summary, testify, testimony, Ab initio, corpus delicti, ad damnum, ejusdem generis, Amicus curiae, et al., Certiorari, ex contractu, Ex delicto, mandamus, ex parte, mens rea, In pari delicto, nolle prosequi, in pari materia, pari passu, In re, quid pro quo, inclusio unius, exclusio alterius, Sui juris, lex fori, vis major […]

c. French terms

bar, assize, eyre, plea, suit, plaintiff, defendant, judge, advocate, attorney, bill, petition, complaint, inquest, summons, hue and cry, indictment, jury, juror, panel, felon, evidence, proof, bail, ransom, mainpernor, judgment, verdict, sentence, decree, award, fine, forfeit, punishment, prison, gaol, pillory, sue, plead, implead, accuse, indict, arraign, depose, blame, arrest, seize, pledge, warrant, assail, assign, judge, condemn, convict, award, amerce, distrain, imprison, banish, acquit, pardon, felony, trespass, assault, arson, larceny, fraud, libel, slander, perjury, adultery, Damage, debt, deceit, fault, force, grief, malice, manner, marriage, mischief, people, person, rancor, reason, scandal, unity, Common, contrary, courageous, courteous, cruel, firm, honest, innocent, malicious, mean, principal, proper, quaint, palin, poor. Advise, aim, allow, apply, betray, commence, complain, conceal, consider, cover, deceive, declare, defeat, deter, forge, grant, inquire, marry, oblige, pass, pay, pracise, proceed, quash, rob, succeed, summon, suppose, tax. To do justice, subject to, without fail […]

3.2 Terminological case studies

So, when we turn to case studies of terms, strong links between historical (social and political) events and words arise. In studying these links, one needs to take into account both the national and local contexts.
As explained by Gény (1922a):

> Le droit est une science sociale dont les règles et les moyens d'expression dépendent étroitement des mœurs, des conceptions philosophiques et religieuses, des nécessités et des possibilités économiques, etc., tous facteurs en continuel état d'évolution […] La langue juridique doit donc posséder des qualités de plasticité et de souplesse, lui permettant de s'adapter aux situations nouvelles. Poursuivre une inexorable fixité du vocabulaire serait s'exposer à

> paralyser l’activité humaine que le droit doit au contraire stimuler en la canalisant.

The present analysis will show "the tracing-out of the history of individual words and elements. From words, the investigation rises higher: to classes, to parts of speech, to whole language" (Malkiel 1993: 20). It shows how the meaning of words evolve from concrete to abstract, but it cannot however “reconstruct the lost parameters” (Sweetser 2001: 25).

3.2.1 Situational shifts of the meaning of the word “woman”

In Old English, there were two ways, quite similar, of designating a woman. *Queen* derived from the Old English *cwēn*, which is very close from the Old Saxon *quan*, the Old Norse *kvaen*, and the Gothic *qens*. *Cwēn* arose during the Middle-English period (Mossé 1966: 174.).

There also existed *cwēne*, which, in Old English, took the meaning of a "woman" as a female human being. It developed into the English word *quean*, being archaic, having the meaning of "a female serf". Within the Middle-English period, this word had a pejorative meaning[4], akin to "a prostitute, a slattern".

What's more, the word *quean* had various connections to other languages such as *quena* in Old High German, *qino* in Gothic, *kona* in Old Norse. And in the Indo-European language, *queen* and *quean* are similar to the Greek *gune* (so, to *gynaecology*).

But how can we explain notions which are diametrically opposite and which deal with the word "woman"? One of the best explanations relies on the fact that words are in a permanent state of transition, adapting and developing according to the social climate in which they are used.

In the present case, the elements of the woman's semantic field are distributed as follows. The part which derives from nature, *woman,* is distinctive to the one recognized as the sacrament of marriage (*wife*)[5] and to the one which is prohibited (*quean*) (Bacquet 1969: 33).

Eventually on the social scale, the word *queen* takes on a noble and aristocratic importance. It is the highest level of the notion "woman":

> "A woman who is sovereign of a kingdom. The queen regent, regnant, or sovereign is she who holds the Crown in her own right, and such a queen of England has the same powers, prerogatives, rights, dignities, and duties as if she had been a king" (Burke 1977).

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[4] However, we will note that *quean* has never become pejorative in Scottish whose meaning is “(young) girl”.

[5] At the beginning *wife* meant “woman” in general, whether or not married; see *fishwife* “female fishmonger”.

In legal cases, the word *Regina*, "queen" is often given under its abbreviated form *Reg* or *R*. Today, it insists upon legal proceedings which can be instituted under the Queen's behalf, under the Crown's name against any private or moral individual. Thus, there is a close link to a specific court, the *Queen's Bench*. When it was founded, the Queen sat there; so the word *bench* which derived from the Old English *benc* meant:

> "properly applied to the justices of the Court of Common Pleas, because the justices of that court sit there as in a certaine place: .... and legall records tearme them *justiciarii de banco*"(Burke 1977).

Today, the term *bench* is applied so as to introduce either the judges as a whole, or a single judge:

> "a judge or judges, are spoken of as the "bench" when sitting in the discharge of judicial functions" (Burke 1977).

3.2.2 Situational shifts of the meaning of the word "Parliament"

The origin of the word *parliament* derives from the English mediaeval Latin *parliamentum*, formed from the Old French *parlement*. This word finds its origin in the fact that French, following the Norman conquest, and lasting for more than two centuries, was the official language of the realm where Norman people imported their own political administration. That is why this word is still an important one in the English vocabulary.

However before that period, the noun, which, in Old English, signified an assembly or a meeting, was *gemōt*. It could have proceeded from the plural genitive *witena*, "wise men"; and so arose the notion of the "assembly of wise men". These meetings of the *witenagemōt* were open.

The Saxon period distinguished four types of assemblies held by people: the *folc-gemōt* met every year, the *sċir-gemōt* twice a year, the *burg-gemōt* three times a year and the *hundred-gemōt* twelve times a year.

Today, the word *gemōt* has been replaced by *moot*, which has no longer anything to do with its original meaning. It is, however, often combined with words such as *court*, *case* or *hall*. *Moot court* means a court at which students argue imaginary cases so as to practice the art of pleading and to understand the internal functioning of a lawsuit or a trial. If we add *moot* to the noun *case*, it will specify a hypothetical, doubtful case; a study being carried out from scratch. *Moot-hall*, in a local area, sometimes means *town hall* such as the one in Keswick (Cumbria).

There is also another similar noun - *thing* -, which refers to the Noble Institution, i.e. the Parliament. It derives from the Old English *þing*, similar to the Old Norse *þing*, to the Old Saxon and Old Frison *thing* and to the Old High German *ding*. This semantic richness can be explained through a Latin legal loan translation (Bynon 1977: 216-239) where *causa*, "cause", "had the meaning of "thing" and had eliminated the popular Latin *res*" (Dauzat 1971). *þing* still refers to the Parliament in Iceland (*Alþing*), and *Ting* is also used in the rest of Scandinavia. In Norway, *Storting* means the "great assembly", i.e. the Parliament.

Icelandic people too remain loyal and are still using the word *þing*. Not only does it mean "parliament, assembly, meeting, court of Justice" but also "thing" or "object". The meaning of *thing* as an assembly can be traced back in toponymy. The Old Icelandic compounded noun *þingvōllr* signifies "field (*vōllr*) of the assembly (*þing*)".

The Modern English word *thing* designates other distinctive aspects. They either concern inanimate objects, cases or individuals. Its survival in the English language can also be found in toponymy; i.e. *Thingwall* in Lancashire, *Dingwall* in Scotland and *Tingwall* in the Shetlands. *Tynwald*[6] is also the name of the Parliament on the Isle of Man. Any of the above-cited examples testify to the meaning of *ðing* as the "parliament". In the compounded noun *ðing-gewrit*, meaning "charter", *ðing* still retains its original meaning: a written or constitutional document delivered by an assembly duly accredited to draft it.

The Channel islands however still refer - as a source of law - to the Norman customary law which was written in Old French and whose two assemblies, the Jersey and Guernsey ones, are still designated *States* (see "les Etats généraux"[7]).

3.3 The legacy of drafting in legal discourse

From the XIX Century, a slow but clear process of change towards the simplification of legal English (Bhatia 1987a) began, but the distinction between legal discourse and common discourse has remained an important one. Indeed, legal language in English has particular and highly distinctive, specialized features. The register is not at all uniform even though Law English comes from Common English.

Since Bentham criticized the complexity and difficulty of legal language, the goal has been a simpler and more concrete language.

But paradoxically, the result is not always the one expected. Indeed, legal language often remains obscure and complex. Several governmental commissions tried to reform the written legislation, but nothing much has changed yet. Syntax and rhetorical organisations remain very complex. The well-known consultation paper

[6] « An annual assembly of this at which the laws which have been enacted are proclaimed to the people » in Brown 1990.
[7] "In France before the Revolution, the States represented three estates, viz. the clergy, the nobility and the common people" in Brown 1990.

Renton (1975) stated the following characteristics of the language of the Common Law:

1. Legislative discourse is obscure and complex, its meaning is elusive and its effect uncertain
2. The desire for ‘certainty’ in the application of legislation leads to an excess in its elaboration
3. The internal structure and the sequence of the clauses are illogical and confusing for the receptor
4. There is a clear gap within the chronological disposition of distinct statutes of similar content, making it difficult to have the clear answer on a specific theme at a specific time.

Thereafter, various attempts of reform were carried out through drafting manuals. This type of manual is very common in Anglo-Saxon law. More recently, the manual of Plain Language for Lawyers (1996) by Michèle M. Asprey claims that legal language should be learned and written in the clearest way and be simplified even though there will always be some need to maintain particular legal or specialized features.

Indeed, the pressure in favour of a reform of the drafting of legal language has always been very important in England and Wales and has led to the *Plain English Campaign*. The idea was to have a language “*written in a clear and coherent manner using words with common everyday meaning*”. In the Renton Committeee Report (1975), Sir Charles Davis explained that statute law “*is drafted with almost mathematical precision, the object (not always attained) being, in effect, to provide a complete answer to virtually any question that may arise*”. All this has contributed and still contributes to the complexification of legislative acts which are more and more difficult to understand for any non-professional in the field. According to Bhatia (1983b : 9), “*legislative writing is designed to avoid litigation, rather than to communicate the law of the land to the general public*”.

As explained above, current legal language is a mixture of Latin, Old English and Norman French and has evolved within space-time. It has been subjected to normalisation processes over the centuries and has now to comply with specific rules being drafted thanks to the *Plain English Campaign*.

4. Conclusion

Legal language involves a complex aggregate of legacies and rules. In part, they derive from history, from past or current conventions. However, legal language always encounters an opposing tide of popular language that tends to disregard rules and create new words, forms, constructions and usages. Legal language is still trying to merge these two trends. It is an “organic whole whose vital essence is change” (Gény a).

In this flux, rules are useful in promoting clarity. Many professionals of the field have tried to make legal language more respectful of 'international' rules and usages that they consider both correct and desirable. However, this movement to promote the simplification of legal language evolves differently and with a different pace from one country to another. France seems to be lagging well behind other countries such as Australia, USA, UK. The French movement for the simplification of legal discourse, especially directed toward administrative forms, dates only from 2000, whereas a similar movement in the UK, "Clarity", began in early 1983. Its aim is to show lawyers and people working in law-related areas that legal language can be clarified and simplified without loss of precision or legal effect.

It should, thus, be useful to make all these organisations connect with one another in order to have international and codified rules valid for all countries. One organisation (http://www.clarity-international.net) is trying to gather all available information and to circulate it worldwide.

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ABSTRACT

Origins and Use of English Legal Terms through History

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A revised paper presented at the International Union of Anthropological and Ethnological Sciences (IUAS) Congress at Florence, Italy, July 5th – 12th, 2003 : http://www.icaes-florence2003.com

The language of the Common Law, like any other specialized topic, needs a particular language for its understanding. The legal discourse of the Common Law gathers a set of theoretical and customary mechanisms subject to internal or external intrusions into its directions for use. Two ideas are highlighted: the rigidity of the overall regulating structure of the law, and the use of 'fuzzy sets' to provide flexibility to legal discourse. This unsteady or fuzzy discourse production proves this language to be the result of a long and complex historical process of socialisation.

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REPORTS:

Translator Training in the Baltics
"Homines dum docent discunt"

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Aarhus School of Business
Denmark

Since 1999 the Aarhus School of Business (ASB) has been involved in translator training in the Baltics. Projects have been completed in Lithuania (Vilnius University), in Estonia (Tartu University) and most recently in Latvia (University of Latvia). All three projects are financed by the Royal Danish Foreign Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

BACKGROUND

When the Baltic states regained their freedom and turned towards the West, translators were few and far between. Not translators of Russian or Polish that is, but translators of western languages such as English, French and German. Soon business with the western world exploded and anybody who – more or less – mastered one of the above languages was called upon to translate. Following the Baltic applications to become members of the EU, a more official need for translation arose. In each country the *Acquis* has to be translated along with numerous official documents which must be translated as part of the pre-accession process.

So, in just ten years a massive demand for commercial as well as official translators has arisen, and when EU membership is a reality it will absolutely drain the Baltic market for qualified translators – and still there will not be enough – unless new candidates are trained. Not candidates graduating in accordance with old philological requirements, but candidates who are trained specifically to become translators. That is, candidates who are specialised in LSP translation, not in the translation of literature or poetry. The job of the Aarhus School of Business has been to export an adapted version of our translator training programme to the three Baltic states in order to facilitate the pre-accession process and help meeting the need for candidates anticipated to follow EU membership.

Translation Centres

Each Baltic country has its own national translation centre (often sponsored to a certain extent) which is generally much better staffed and better off than the universities. Employees at the translation centres have typically graduated from the national universities and thus have philological backgrounds. They have earned their skills the hard way and through in-house training. Still most of the translators do not have any formal translation qualifications and, most importantly, they are too few – the reasons why recent EU progress reports were very critical of the standard and especially speed of the translation of relevant pre-accession documents.

Baltic Reality

During the past few years, i.e. very recently, all three countries have introduced post-graduate Diploma or MA translation programmes, but for obvious reasons there is hardly any staff equipped to teach LSP translation. What we find in the Baltic countries is often enthusiastic, but at the same time over-worked and under-paid university staff. Staff as well as students generally have a good command of English (the target language of the projects) and students are often linguistically more well-versed than Danish translation students. How could we ensure a sustainable, quality translation programme taught by qualified staff and at the same time ensure an immediate production of well-qualified candidates?

THE ELEMENTS OF THE PROJECTS

Training of trainers

This is the core element of all the projects – and this is where sustainability is to be ensured.
The element consists of:

Direct training

This means that two Danish lecturers go to the relevant Baltic country and teach all translation lecturers for a week. These courses are methodological and the focus is on how LSP translation is taught at the ASB. We pass on many kinds of knowledge, i.e. from the underlying principles of teaching LSP as well as common pitfalls related to each individual LSP discipline right down to what kind of study material and which information sources we use, how we conduct our lessons and how we structure the term, what we offer our students and what we require of them in return, etc

Shadow teachers

When Danish lecturers teach the students legal, business and technical translation (see below) the relevant Baltic lecturers are supposed to function as shadow teachers to their Danish counterparts. This is to ensure that they experience Danish lecturers in theory as well as in practice. Being shadow teachers also allows the

Baltic lecturers to discuss the curriculum in detail and the focus is both on methodology and subject-matter.

Twinning

The concept of twinning is related to almost all of the project activities. It simply means that right from the onset of each project, we are concerned with having established who of the local lecturers will be in charge of each LSP discipline and to put these lecturers in contact with their specific counterparts at the ASB. Very often (but not always) it follows naturally from the teacher training and the teaching of students, and it is the aim of this effort that Danish and Baltic lecturers will form informal relationships which will outlast the projects as such, ensuring present and hopefully future mutual exchange of ideas, experience, etc.

Study trip

Each project includes a study trip to the ASB. The aim of such an activity is to introduce key LSP teachers from the Baltics to ASB applied teaching methods and systems. The Baltic teachers in question are twinned with their Danish counterpart and participate in the teaching activities (planning, actual teaching, evaluation) of a given week. At the same time they get hands-on experience with the study material and possibilities of support (technical, library etc.) applied at the business school. The activity includes a two-day IT-course which provides an introduction to language-related technological tools to be used in connection with translation and the preparation of study material. The study trip also has a social programme which generally ensures that the informal relationships are strengthened considerably.

Procurement

This activity concerns assistance in connection with the creation and collection of teaching material, including advice on procurement of relevant translation and LSP literature, dictionaries, reference books, etc. In many LSP subjects teaching material with focus on translation is scarce which is why the Baltic teachers are introduced to methods of making their own material and compendiums. Relevant published as well as non-published material from the ASB is made available to facilitate this process. The activity furthermore includes subscriptions to various relevant LSP periodicals.

Training of students

In order to strengthen specific knowledge and secure the graduation of qualified translators in the first years of the new LSP translation programmes we give the students three week-courses on legal, business and technical translation, respectively. Each course is taught by two Danish teachers and consists of a mixture of lectures and workshops.

External examiners

At the final exams Danish lecturers function as external examiners partly to assess the students in question, but also to obtain a basis from which to discuss the required standards of professional translators.

Curriculum development

Right from the beginning of the project we assist in developing the structure of the translation programmes. A prerequisite for the Danish projects is the division of the studies of conference interpreters and translators into two separate study profiles. The activity varies according to the needs of each individual country, but often includes discussions on admission tests, study programme, the nature of the final exams, requirements for MA theses and the evaluation of students.

In-service training for the translation centres

This activity includes three six-day intensive in-service courses in legal, business and technical translation, respectively in order to increase the standard of translation immediately. The courses have varied greatly according to the needs of each translation centre.

PROJECT MANAGEMENT

The numerous activities involved in the projects do of course require a large amount of coordination. We consider it of utmost importance for project management to pay frequent visits to the respective Baltic institutions. To get acquainted with their ways and means and general working conditions as well as the theoretical and practical backgrounds and status of the people involved. Only sufficient background knowledge, including the willingness to learn and understand the particular conditions of each institution, will provide the best possible chance of targeting each course successfully. It goes without saying that the practical coordination of all activities and the busy schedules of the people involved sometimes take their toll.

As far as the ASB is concerned the projects have meant new challenges and new ways of thinking. The teaching of colleagues as well as students from very different (yet sometimes strangely similar) professional traditions and cultures has broadened the horizons of ASB lecturers and has at the same time led us to reconsider our own teaching methods and resulted in new ideas for the benefit of our own students.

So, *"even while they teach, men learn"*

FURTHER INFORMATION

If you want to know more, please feel free to contact:
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International Terminology Associations and Standardization - Infoterm, TermNet, ISO/TC 37

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Austria

Introduction

Today mainly the following three institutions organise, co-ordinate and promote terminological activities all over the world: Infoterm, the International Information Centre for Terminology, TermNet, the International Network for Terminology, and ISO/TC 37, a Technical Committee (TC) of ISO, the International Organization for Standardization, which is called at present "Terminology and other language resources", and whose secretariat is held by Infoterm on behalf of the Austrian Standards Institute.

The new conceptions of terminology have been largely developed within the framework of this group. It is widely accepted today that terminology is all over the place wherever and whenever specialised (i.e. scientific, technical or professional) knowledge that is

- communicated – e.g. in professional communication, scientific conferences, training events, etc. (in written or spoken form)
- recorded and documented – e.g. in the form of databases, specialised texts, ...
- referred to or transmitted – e.g. in the form of bibliographic or factual data as primary, secondary or tertiary information
- transformed or transferred – e.g. in education, translation, etc.

Knowledge as such exists – at least so far – only in the human brain. By means of computers and other information and communication technology (ICT) systems we can record, process, store and re-use only the representations of knowledge (which is already quite something compared to early computing in the form of number crunching). These representations can take linguistic forms (basically terminology

and other language resources, see below) or non-linguistic forms (e.g. numerical data, graphic representations, formulae etc.).
Therefore, what is called "knowledge management" in general can refer to different kinds of

- communication management
- document management
- information management

none of which can do without "content management", which to a large degree depends on terminologies (i.e. systems of concepts represented by terms or other kinds of concept representations in digital form). Thus, over the years, a new field of research and development has emerged: terminology science, which is concerned with scientific-technical cognition (first of all with concept creation) from the systemic-epistemological point of view, with concept representation in linguistic and non-linguistic form, and with methods and tools to manage terminological data.

The latter also comprises the application of classification schemes and other documentation languages to terminological data (e.g. for the sake of structuring terminological records in a terminology database). On the other hand, terms serve as keywords to be assigned to texts, factual data, bibliographic records etc. in library and documentation systems. So, there is a close relationship between terminology and documentation (T&D) in content management. Terminological data proper are largely primary information on the knowledge items called concepts.

INFOTERM – International Information Centre for Terminology

http://linux.infoterm.org

Infoterm, the International Information Centre for Terminology, was founded in 1971 by UNESCO, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, with the objective to support and co-ordinate international co-operation in the field of terminology. During the first ten years of its existence, Infoterm mainly worked within the Austrian Standards Institute, concentrating its efforts on collecting data and organising the elaboration of international terminology standards. From the very beginning, Infoterm on behalf of the Austrian Standards Institute was put in charge of the secretariat of ISO/TC 37 "Terminology and other language resources" – a Technical Committee of ISO, the International Organization for Standardization.

In 1980, UNESCO urged Infoterm to create an international network for institutions and organisations that were active or interested in the field of terminology – thus, TermNet, the International Network for Terminology, was started as a 'logic network' with the great support of UNESCO and the Canadian government. In 1988, TermNet was re-organized into an independent international non-profit organisation.

In 1996, Infoterm became an independent international association made up of national, international and local terminology associations and organisations, as well as specialised institutions engaged in the field of terminology. The main objective remains unchanged: support for professional communication and knowledge transfer by promoting international co-operation in the field of terminology, with great importance being attached to high-quality, multi-functional terminologies which prove essential to our modern, global and multilingual information society.

In order to attain this goal, all Infoterm members closely collaborate, aiming at

- collecting and disseminating information on terminological activities and their results;
- publishing these data in printed or computerised form so as to make them generally available;
- supporting the establishment of a world-wide network of terminology information and documentation centres;
- connecting these centres to other institutions or organisations collecting, creating or distributing terminological data; and
- supporting the elaboration and use of harmonised methods and guidelines for terminology information and documentation centres on the one hand and for the generation of high-quality terminological data on the other.

All these efforts are actively supported by other international, local and national Infoterm partner organisations and their members.

In its capacity as international information referral and consultancy centre for terminology, Infoterm performs among others the following additional roles and functions:

- International Collaborating Centre for Terminology of the World Health Organization (WHO);
- International Thesaurus Information Centre;
- Secretariat of the Technical Committee (TC) ISO/TC 37, Terminology and other language resources, of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) on behalf of the Austrian Standards Institute (ON);
- Registration Authority of ISO 639-1 for alpha-2 language codes comprising the International Standard, Codes for the representation of names of languages-- Part 1: alpha-2 code ;
- and is associated with the Department for Public Information of the United Nations (UN/DPI).

In 2002, Infoterm concluded a co-operation agreement with the University of Applied Sciences Cologne (FHK), by which a branch office was to be established at the University. In the course of a major re-organization on the memorable 11 September 2002, Infoterm moved its premises to a new location in Vienna. On this occasion, its archival holdings were donated to the Eugen Wüster Archive founded at the University of Vienna, whereas the Infoterm Library and large parts of the documents collection were moved to Cologne, where they were entrusted in the form of a permanent loan to DEUTERM, the German Terminology Information and Documentation Centre at the FHK. In 2003, finally, the Infoterm Branch Office Germany was installed and is gradually staffed for future activities. The documentation and clearinghouse activities of Infoterm have thus being shifted to Cologne.

Outlook

Given the success of the promotion of terminology and multilinguality aspects at international (UNESCO) and European level – not to mention the field of standardization –, new horizons have opened up for strategic Infoterm activities. This refers among others to the development of innovative services in the public domain in many countries of the world.

TERMNET – International Network for Terminology

http://www.termnet.at (forthcoming: http://linux.termnet.org)

TermNet – There is no Knowledge without Terminology

TermNet, the International Network for Terminology, was founded in 1979/80 on the initiative of UNESCO, with the aim to establish a network for co-operation in the field of terminology. Nine years thereafter, TermNet was registered as a non-profit organisation being allowed commercial activities (such as the TermNet Publisher) for the benefit of its members.

Today, TermNet serves as a business forum for international co-operation between companies and organisations / institutions dealing with the practical and commercial aspects of terminology. Terminology is here understood in its broadest meaning as terminological data, methods and tools, which also constitute the terminology market comprising terminological products and services.

The main objective of TermNet is to stimulate the development of terminology and knowledge markets, supported by information and communication technologies in developing the multilingual information and knowledge society.

Products and services for the terminology market are developed in co-operation with its members. To construct and expand a world-wide market for terminological products and services, therefore, is the top-priority TermNet strategy. To this extent, the network not only acts as a initiator of and partner in joint projects, it also organises a host of other activities, ranging from the provision of valuable information and business opportunities via the development of a TermNet Expert Pool to the organisation of pertinent conferences and seminars on a commercial basis.

TermNet benefits from the activities of Infoterm and ISO/TC 37 “Terminology and other language resources” and implements the strategies and standards established by these organisations in practical activities and system developments in both private industry and public administration alike.

TermNet Members co-operate in:

- developing marketable terminological products, tools and services as well as carrying out respective marketing and promotion strategies
- planning and implementing large-scale market development, R&D and awareness raising projects and initiatives
- organising practice-oriented training opportunities, workshops, conferences and other joint activities
- developing high-end consultancy and training services regarding the application of terminological data, methods and tools

TermNet provides a network for promoting the activities, products and services of its Members.

The main tasks of the TermNet Secretariat are:

- to quickly and efficiently disseminate information on new terminological data, publications, activities, methods and tools to TermNet Members;
- to provide business opportunities for its Members;
- to bundle its Members' resources and competence in joint activities in order to generate benefits in terms of synergy and know-how; and
- to promote its Members' products and services on a global scale

TermNet Members benefit from a series of advantages, e.g.:

- business opportunities and valuable information via TermNet newsflashes and joint projects
- participation in specific terminology events and conferences with internationally renowned experts at substantially reduced fees
- substantial discounts for services like the design, creation and administration of databases or expert assistance and advice for specific problems;
- subscription to TermNet News – the Network's quarterly information bulletin, presenting news on the terminology and related markets

ISO/TC 37 Terminology and other language resources

http://linux.infoterm.org/iso-e/i-iso.htm

History:
In 1936, the Technical Committee ISA/TC 37 "Terminology" of the International Federation of the National Standardizing Associations (ISA) was founded. It worked until 1939. In 1951, ISO/TC 37 "Terminology (principles and coordination)" of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) was founded. It started to operate in 1952. In February 2001, TC 37 was renamed "Terminology and other language resources" and widened its scope towards language resource management.

Today ISO/TC 37 prepares International Standards concerning

- principles and methods
- vocabulary of terminology and other language resources
- terminology work
- preparation and management of language resources
- preparation and layout of terminology standards
- computerized terminography and lexicography
- documentation of terminology and other language resources
- coding and codes in the field of language resources
- applications of terminology and other language resources in language engineering

Scope and objective

Scope: Standardization of principles, methods and applications relating to terminology and other language resources.

The objective of ISO/TC 37 is to prepare standards specifying principles and methods for the preparation and management of language resources within the framework of standardization and related activities. Its technical work results in International Standards (and Technical Reports) covering terminological principles and methods as well as various aspects of conventional and computer-assisted preparation and processing of terminonoly and other language resources for various applications. Within its capacity limits, ISO/TC 37 tries to assist other TCs in applying ISO/TC 37 standards and solving problems of terminology standardization, but it is not responsible for the co-ordination of the terminology standardizing activities of other ISO/TCs.

Outlook

Given the fact that mobile communication, mobile computing and mobile commerce are driving the development of the multilingual information and knowledge society, the aspects of most efficient management of multilingual content is of growing importance. In this connection, a shift from ‘hardware’ standardization via ‘software’ standardization towards methodology standardization can be observed. Electronic content – comprising terminology and other language resources – is the blood circulating in the veins of the information and knowledge society: the information infrastructures. E-Content is the indispensable prerequisite for e-business, e-learning, e-government, e-health and all the other e-…s of the future multilingual information and knowledge society based on a combination of wireless and wired technologies. Terminology in the meaning of representation of knowledge at the level of concepts does not only comprise terms and other linguistic representations, but also an ever-increasing number of non-linguistic representations. To extend the scope of ISO/TC 37 also towards knowledge resources on the one hand and terminology strategies at micro- and macro-economic level within the framework of information and innovation policies on the other hand could, therefore, well become a logical consequence of this development.

Standards published:

ISO 639-1:2002 Code for the representation of names of languages - Part 1: Alpha-2 code
ISO 639-2:1998 Code for the representation of names of languages - Part 2: Alpha-3 code
ISO 704:2000 Terminology work - Principles and methods
ISO 860:1996 Terminology work - Harmonization of concepts and terms
ISO 1087-1:2000 Terminology work - Vocabulary - Part 1: Theory and application
ISO 1087-2:2000 Terminology work - Vocabulary - Part 2: Computer applications
ISO 1951:1997 Lexicographical symbols particularly for use in classified defining vocabularies
ISO 6156:1987 Magnetic tape exchange format for terminological/lexicographical records (MATER)
ISO 10241:1992 Preparation and layout of international terminology standards
ISO 12199:2000 Alphabetical ordering of multilingual terminological and lexicographical data represented in the Latin alphabet
ISO 12200:1999 Computer applications in terminology - Machine-readable terminology interchange format (MARTIF) - Negotiated interchange
ISO 12616:2002 Translation-oriented terminography
ISO/TR 12618:1994 Computer aids in terminology - Creation and use of terminological databases and text corpora
ISO 12620:1999 Computer applications in terminology - Data categories
ISO 15188:2001 Project management guidelines for terminology standardization

Standards in preparation:

ISO 860 Rev. Terminology work - Harmonization of concepts and terms
ISO 1951 Rev. Lexicographical symbols and typographical conventions for use in terminography
ISO/DIS 12615 Bibliographic references for terminology work

ISO/AWI 12618 Computer applications in terminology - Design, implementation and use of terminology management systems (Rev. of ISO/TR 12618)
ISO 12620 Rev. Computer Applications in Terminology - Data Categories
ISO/DIS 16642 Computer applications in terminology - Meta model for representing terminological data collections
PWI 22128 Quality assurance guidelines for terminology products
ISO/NP 22134 Terminology in sociolinguistic applications
Proposals for a new work items:
Terminology Work - Updated principles and methods
Harmonization of terminology in existing technical documents of TC 37.

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BOOK REVIEW:

Textproduktion im Zeitalter der Globalisierung.
Entwicklung einer Didaktik des Wissenstransfers.

Susanne Göpferich

Stauffenburg Verlag, Tübingen, Germany.
Studien zur Translation, Band 15, 2002, XII + 499pp.
ISBN 3-86057-254-7

Reviewed by:
Margaret Rogers
Department of Linguistics and International Studies
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This welcome new volume from Susanne Göpferich is an updated and much extended version of her 1998 book *Interkulturelles* Technical Writing (Tübingen: Narr). As befits a *Habilitationsschrift*, it is comprehensive, scholarly and closely argued. Whether it is also accessible to technical writers, journalists and specialist translators as part of its target readership, is, however, arguable. The subtitle of the volume - *Entwicklung einer Didaktik des Wissenstransfers* - also raises a general question about how analytical work can be applied to the task of teaching. Indeed, the exemplary annex containing a sample chapter from a possible textbook deals with points of punctuation, morphology and syntax, including common misunderstandings and errors, but this does not do justice to the richness of Göpferich's analytical work.

Having said all that, the book is a wonderful source of references – often those hard-to-trace almost apocryphal sources – and of examples for anyone teaching or researching technical writing, a subject which is often represented by how-to manuals based on experience, practice and belief. This one is based on a wide range of previous research from many related disciplines, closely-argued analysis and new empirical research. It therefore makes a significant contribution to the subject, particularly for academics wishing to get a handle on technical writing and for advanced students wishing to understand it rather than just do it.

The book differs structurally from the previous volume in that it contains no exercises or further reading, indicating a change of orientation away from a *Lehr- und Arbeitsbuch*, although the actual content is presented in a similar fashion. Of the eight chapters in the new volume, two early chapters are largely based on the 1998 book. Chapter 2: Präskriptive (prospektive) Textsortenlinguistik and chapter 3: Satzbau unter kommunikativem Aspekt borrow respectively from chapter 5: Textsorten der Technik, and chapter 6: Satzbau unter kommunikativem Aspekt in the 1998 volume. Chapter 4: Verstehen und Verständlichkeit shares its title but only part of its content with chapter 8 in the earlier volume. Other chapters occasionally draw on and extend smaller sections of the 1998 book, but the rest consists of new material.

Chapter 1 kicks off by setting the broad scene, touching on research issues, professional profiles and training for technical writers. It is made clear that the book deals with a range of specialist communication situations, not confined to expert-to-expert texts, in an age of borderless communication on the one hand and expectations of appropriateness to local situations and customs on the other hand. The title of chapter 2 reflects the critical approach adopted with respect to the analysis of selected text genres, going beyond the descriptive to the prescriptive and underlining the ultimate pedagogical orientation of the book. Chapter 3 deals with syntax in technical writing, with a view to motivating choices of verb form, word order and voice in the framework of speech act theory and functional sentence perspective (FSP). In chapter 4 we move on to cognitive territory, looking at texts from the perspective of receptors, not only from the point of view of characterising and facilitating readability, but also with a view to recognising that some texts may be written with the intention of obscuring their content for social or political reasons. This chapter is full of excellent and detailed examples of how specialist – mostly technical – texts are understood (or not) and how they could be improved. Chapter 5 balances the processing of texts by the reader with the production of texts by the author, drawing mainly on a model based on think-aloud protocols. A proposal then follows which reviews this model in the light of Göpferich’s own cyclical pedagogically-oriented model of text production. Chapter 5 ends with a reference to second language acquisition in the form of Krashen’s 1980s input hypothesis extended to writing, in which it is suggested that novice technical writers can improve their performance by extensive reading. Chapter 6 carries forward the resonance with second language research, this time from the 1970s in the form of error analysis. Numerous concrete examples of students’ developing competence – if we can make that jump from performance – provide fascinating evidence for teachers at every linguistic level in a detailed grid of error types and frequency. This catalogue of errors could also be informative for advanced foreign language learning, where many error types overlap with those of native speakers, e.g. collocations, FSP errors, inappropriate word choice, and so on. The chapter concludes with the outline of a textbook chapter dedicated to the avoidance of such errors, and anticipating a further pedagogically-oriented publication by Göpferich. In chapter 7 the implications of the global-local tension are explored, as realised in the authoring of technical documents for global markets through internationalisation or neutralisation of cultural factors, and their subsequent localisation, which is understood here to be synonymous with translation within a functionalist framework. The chapter contains a very useful summary of how culturally-biased information can be neutralised (based on a survey of practitioners by Göpferich conducted via several mail lists), as well as a discussion of controlled languages and their acceptance, and of various models of cultural comparison. The final brief chapter, chapter 8, concludes with a discussion of the interface between technical writing and specialist translation, including implications for the development of curricula in these closely-related disciplines.

The synergy between technical writing and specialist translation is evident not only from the explicit discussion in Göpferich's final chapter, but also from the series in which each of her books appears. The first volume, *Interkulturelles* Technical Writing (1998), appears in the Gunter Narr series Forum für Fachsprachen-Forschung, and the present volume appears in the Stauffenburg series Studien zur Translation. Hence Göpferich's work points the way forward, not only for a comprehensive view of specialist text production, including translation, but also for the development of well-motivated practice-relevant curricula.

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FACHSPRACHE
25. Jahrgang / Volume Heft 1-2/2003. Internationale Zeitschrift für Fachsprachenforschnung, -didaktik und Terminologie / International Journal of LSP,research, didactics, terminology. Herausgeber: Univ.-Prof. Dr. Rudolf Beier, RWTH Aachen, Eilfschornsteinstraße 15, D-52062 Aachen / Univ.-Prof. Dr. Peter Bierbaumer, Universität Graz, Institut für Anglistik, Heinrichstraße 36, A-8010 Graz / Univ.-Prof. Dr. Dieter Möhn, Universität Hamburg, Institut für Germanistik, von-Melle-Park 6, D-20146 Hamburg. ISSN 0256-2510.

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29-2002 & 30-2003. Journal of Linguistics – Revue de Linguistique – Tidsskrift for Sprogforskning – Zeitschrift für Linguistik. Redaktion: Henning Bergenholtz (ansv.) og Jan Engberg. Redaktionskomité: Inger Akehave, Kjær Jensen, Kirsten Wølch Rasmussen, Anna Trosborg. Udgivet af det Erhvervssproglige Fakultet, Handelshøjskolen i Århus, Fuglesangs Allé 4, DK-8210 Århus V. Web: http://hermes.asb.dk . ISSN 0904-1699.

MED ANDRE ORD…
Grundfos' sprogpolitik. "Med andre ord…" er et værktøj til alle på Grundfos, der hver dag skriver mails, breve, tilbud, rapporter, dokumentation mv. Med udgivelsen af "Med andre ord…" ønsker Grundfos at styrke det tværfaglige samarbejde mellem sprogkyndige og andre faggrupper. Det handler "med andre ord" om en øget bevidsthed og en holdning til sprog som et vigtigt konkurrenceparameter på linje med firmaets øvrige konkurrenceparametre. Produceret af Grundfos Management A/S, Poul Due Jensens Vej 7, DK-8850 Bjerringbro. Tel.: (+45) 87 50 14 00 Web: www.grundfos.com

ODENSE WORKING PAPERS IN LANGUAGE & COMMUNICATION

No.23, August 2002 (Vol. III): “The Way we Think”. Edited by Anders Hougaard & Steffen Nordahl Lund. Third and final volume of the TWWT conference proceedings.
Published by Institute of Language and Communication, University of Southern Denmark, Main Campus: Odense University, Campusvej 55, DK-5230 Odense M. E-mail: lfn@language.sdu.dk

RESEARCH AND PRACTICE IN PROFESSIONAL DISCOURSE

Edited by Prof. Christopher N Candlin. This book offers a broad overview of research and practice in professional discourse. Major developments and future directions based on current strengths are highlighted. Publication: December 2002. 736 pages. Published by City University of Hong Kong Press. E-mail: upress@cityu.edu.hk . ISBN: 962-937-071-9.

SPRACHREPORT

Heft 2/2003 & 3/2003 19. Jahrgang. Informationen und Meinungen zur deutschen Sprache. Herausg.: Institut für Deutsche Sprache, Postfach 10 16 21, D-68016 Mannheim. Web: http://www.ids-mannheim.de/pub/sprachreport/ (D 14288)

SPROGFORUM

Maj 2003, Nr.26 “Udtale”. Tidsskriftet udgives af Informations- og Dokumentations-centret for Fremmedsprogspædagogik ved Danmarks Pædagogiske Bibliotek i samarbejde med Foreningen for anvendt Sprogvidenskab i Danmark (ADLA). Sprogforum redigeres af: Leni Dam, Annegret Friedrichsen (ansv.), Karen Lund, Karen Risager, Michael Svendsen Pedersen. Redaktionens adresse: Sprogforum, Danmarks Pædagogiske Bibliotek, Emdrupvej 101, Postboks 840, DK-2400 København NV.
Tlf. +45 39 69 66 33 (lok. 2310/2311), fax: +45 39 55 10 00,
e-mail: sprogforum@dpb.dpu.dk
Web: http://www.dpb.dpu.dk/infodok/sprogforum/sprogforum_welcome.html
ISSN 0909-9328

SPROG PÅ ARBEJDE – KOMMUNIKATION I FAGLIGE TEKSTER

Sprog på arbejde giver det overblik og de redskaber, der skal til for at hjælpe med at højne kvaliteten i kommunikationen. Og det uanset om det drejer sig om den tekniske systemdokumentation, forhandlerkontrakten, årsrapporten eller personalebladet, uanset om det er mundtligt eller skriftligt, og uanset om kommunikationen foregår på dansk eller på fremmedsprog. Forfattere: Marianne Ditlevsen, Jan Engberg, Peter Kastberg, Martin Nielsen. Forlag: Samfundslitteratur, Rosenørns Allé 9, DK-1970 Frederiksberg C. www.samfundslitteratur.dk . ISBN: 87-593-0966-0.

STUDIEN ZU SPRACHE UND TECHNIK

Band 2, 2002. Reiner Arntz, Heribert Picht, Felix Mayer: "Einführung in die Terminologiearbeit". 331 Seiten. Herausgeber: Reiner Arntz und Norbert Wegner. Georg Olms Verlag, Hildesheim, Zürich, New York. (http://www.olms.de) . ISBN 3-487-11553-0

SYNAPS – FAGSPRÅK, KOMMUNIKASJON, KULTUKUNNSKAP

Nr 13 (2003). Content: Vidar Gynnild: *Nye evalueringsformer I et handlingsteoretisk perspektiv*; Sylvia Ball: *From text to Terminology…and Back to text*; Margaret Rogers: *Terms as dynamic entities: problems and solutions in translation*. Published by the Department of languages, Norwegian School of Economics and Business Administration (NHH), Helleveien 30, N-5045 Bergen. Editorial board: Trine Dahl, Willy Rasmussen, Jan Roald, Ingrid Simonnæs. (http://www.nhh.no/spr/Synaps.htm)

TERMNET NEWS (TNN)

No. 79, 2003 - on Terminology Newsletter Portal (TNP) only. Issue editors: Christian Galinski, Koaunghi Un, Marta Alonso. Publishers: International Network for Terminology (TermNet), Aichholzgasse 6/12, A - 1120 Vienna, Austria. Tel: + 43 1 817 44 99 Fax: +43 1 817 449944
E-mail: termnet@termnet.at Web: http://www.termnet.at or http://www.termnews.net (TNP). ISSN 0251-5253

TEXTPRODUKTION IM ZEITALTER DER GLOBALISIERUNG – Entwicklung einer Didaktik des Wissenstransfers

By Susanne Göpferich. In einer leicht zugänglichen Sprache geschrieben und durch zahlreiche Beispiele illustriert, richtet sich das Werk an alle, die sich wissenschaftlich mit Fragen der Textproduktion beschäftigen, professionell Texte erstellen oder Texproduktionsspezialisten wie Technische Redakteure, Journalisten oder Übersetzer in einschägigen Studiengängen ausbilden. 499 Seite. Publikation: 2002. Stauffenburg Verlag Brigitte Narr GmbH, Postfach 25 25, D-72015.ISSN 0948-1494. ISBN 3-86057-254-7. (**see book review p.119**)

TRANSLATIO

Volume XXII (2003), no.1. Supplément bibliographique et lexicographique/Bibliographical and Lexicographical Supplement. Revue trimestrielle publiée par la Fédération Internationale des Traducteurs (FIT)/International Federation of Translators. Rédacteur en chef etéditeur responsible: Dr. R. Haeseryn, Heiveldstraat 245, B-9040 Sint-Amandsberg, Belgique. ISSN 1027-8087.

WORKING PAPER
Nr.1, Oktober 2002: " Altid at oversætte – Producentsprog, konsumentsprog" af Leif Kristensen. Udgivet af Institut for afsætningsøkomi, Handelshøjskolen i København, Solbjergplads 3, 2000 Frederiksberg C, Tel.: +45 38 15 21 00 Fax: +45 38 15 21 01

ZEITSCHRIFT FÜR ANGEWANDTE LINGUISTIK (ZfaL)
Heft 38, April 2003. Herausg.: im Auftrag der Gesellschaft für Angewandte Linguistik (GAL) von K. Knapp, G. Antos, W.F. Sendlmeier. Redaktion: Dr. Hajo Diekmannshenke, Institut für Germanistik, Universität Koblenz-Landau, Campus Koblenz, Postfach 201 602, D-56016 Koblenz.
Tel.: 0261-287-2060 Fax: 0261-287-2051 E-mail: diekmann@uni-koblenz.de .
(http://www.uni-koblenz.de/~diekmann/linguistik/redaktion_zfal.html)

ISSN 1433-9889.

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Published in LSP & Professional Communication Volume 3, Number 2, October 2003 - ISSN 1601-1929

CONFERENCE CALENDAR:

- *2003* -

October 4 (2003) - Reykjavik (Iceland)

Conference on Language Policy and Standardization. Conference languages are Danish, English, Faroese, Icelandic, Norwegian, and Swedish.
Information: Íslensk málstöð [Icelandic Language Institute], Neshaga 16, IS-107 Reykjavik, Iceland. E-mail: aripk@ismal.hi.is
Web: http://www.ismal.hi.is/Radstefna2003ENS.html

October 15-17 (2003) - Tashkent (Uzbekistan)

6th International Conference on Language and Development. The broad themes of the conference will be: Language policy and its relationship to broad issue of national development, language planning, educational provision and multilingualism / The effective design, implementation and evaluation of language and literacy curricula in development contexts.
Information: Martin Seviour, Deputy Director, British Council, Tashkent.
E-mail: martin.seviour@britishcouncil.uz
Web: http://www.toad.net/~royfc/confers/conf3oct/SixthInternationalConference.html

October 22-25 (2003) - Driebergen (The Netherlands)

Multidisciplinary Approaches to Discourse (MAD'03) "Determination of Information and Tenor in Texts".
Information: E-mail: l.lagerwerf@scw.vu.nl
Web: http://home.scw.vu.nl/~lagerwerf/Mad03Web/index.htm

November 4-6 (2003) – Granada (Spain)

VI Congrès International de Linguistique Française "Le français: histoire, langue et culture face aux défis actuels". Sujets: Théorie Linguistique; Histoire et épistémologie de la linguistique; Histoire de la langue française; Phonétique et phonologie; Morphologie et syntaxe; Lexicologie, lexicographie et sémantique; Pragmatique et analyse du discours; Dialectologie et sociolinguistique; Traduction; Méthodologie de l'enseignement du FLE; Linguistique computationnelle et informatique. Nouvelles Technologies de l'Information et de la Communication (NTIC).
Information: Comité Organizador del VI Congreso Internacional de Lingüística Francesa, Javier Suso López ou Rodrigo López Carrillo, Departamento de Filología Francesa, Facultad de Filosofía y Letras, Universidad de Granada, Campus de Cartuja, s/n, E-18071 - GRANADA (Espagne). Fax: (00 34) 958 243 666.
E-mail: jsuso@ugr.es or rodericu@ugr.es
Web: http://www.ugr.es/~rodericu/congreso/congreso.html

November 5-8 (2003) – Phoenix, Arizona (USA)

44th Annual Conference of the American Translators Association (ATA). Themes: Agencies, Bureaus & Companies; Entertainment Industry; Financial Translation; Independent Contractors; Interpreting; Lega Translation & Interpreting; Literary; Medical Translation & Interpreting; Science & Technology; Terminology; Training & Pedagogy; Translation & Computers.
Information: ATA, 225 Reinekers Lane, Suite 590, Alexandria, VA 22314, USA.
Tel.: +01 (703) 683-6100 Fax: +01 (703) 683-6122 E-mail: ata@atanet.org
Web: http://www.atanet.org/conf2003/index.htm

November 12-14 (2003) – Vigo, Galicia (Spain)

Second International Conference on Discourse, Communication and Enterprise (*DICOEN 2003*). The conference aims to promote interaction and discussion among researchers interested in the relevance of discourse and communication to the world of business. Themes: Business discourse; Communication in organisations; Language and organisational change; New technologies in business communication; Multilingual enterprises; Customer-server communication; Advertising discourse; Organisational discourse and power; Discourse of strategic management; Discursive practices in public institutions; Bureaucratic discourse; Discourse and organisational inequalities; Strategic discourse in organizations; Management, control and discourse; Enterprise discourse; Discourse and economics.
Information: Second International Conference on Discourse, Communication and Enterprise (DICOEN 2003), Universidade de Vigo, Facultade de Filoloxía e Traducción, E-36200 Vigo (Galicia), Spain. E-mail: dicoen2003@uvigo.es
Web: http://webs.uvigo.es/ssl/DICOEN/

November 13-14 (2003) – Göteborg (Sweden)

Språkpolitisk referensgruppens möte 5.03. Nordmål-Forum 2003.
Information: Ulla-Jill Karlsson, Nordisk Ministerråd.
E-mail: ujk@nmr.dk Tel.: +45 3396 0381 Fax: +45 3393 3572
Web: http://www.norden.org

November 14-16 (2003) – Rotterdam (The Netherlands)

16th IATEFL/BESIG International Conference Rotterdam. Organised by: The Business English Special Interest Group of IATEFL ~ The International Forum for teachers of English for business and professional purposes.
Information: BESIG 2003 Rotterdam, Anneke Kistemaker, Conference Coordinator, Hogeschool Rotterdam, locatie HES, Kralingse Zoom 91, PO box 4030, NL-3006 AA Rotterdam, The Netherlands. Tel: +31 10 4526663 Fax: +31 10 4527051
E-mail: conf2003@besig.org Web: http://www.besig.org/conf2003/

November 20-21 (2003) – London (UK)

Translating and the Computer 25 - Conference and Exhibition. The conference focuses on the user aspects of translation software and as such has been particularly beneficial to a very wide audience including translators, business managers, researchers and language experts. Topics: Use of MT systems; Machine-aided translation and translation aids; Controlled languages and their use in MT; Speech translation; Terminology; Localisation; Multilingual document management/workflow; Case studies

of technology-based solutions; The Internet and translation aids/services; The value of "free" versus "charging" services/sites on the Internet.
Information: TC25, Nicole Adamides, Conference Organiser, Aslib, The Association for Information Management, Temple Chambers, 3-7 Temple Avenue, London, EC4Y 0HP Tel: +44(0) 20 7583 8900 Fax: +44 (0) 20 7583 8401 Email: tc25@aslib.com
Web: http://www.aslib.com/conferences/submission%20guidelines.html

November 20-22 (2003) - Paris (France)

50th Anniversary of the International Federation of Translators (IFT/FIT)/ The FIT ©opyright ©onference. Day 1: The translations of Harry Potter; Day 2:Copyright in translation - 50 years on; Day 3: Translators rights in 2003.
Information: Web: http://www.fit-ift.org

November 20-22 (2003) – Göteborg (Sweden)

10th NIC Symposium on Intercultural Communication. The theme of this year's Conference is "Intercultural Communication at Work". This theme is to be taken in the two senses, the first being the sense of studying the actual practice of intercultural communication and the second being the sense of studying ICC in different professions and arenas of work.
Information: NIC 2003 Organizing Committee c/o Nataliya Berbyuk, Göteborg University Department of Linguistics, Box 200, SE-405 30 Göteborg, Sweden.
Fax: +46 (0)31 773 4853 E-mail: nic2003@ling.gu.se
Web: http://www.ling.gu.se/projekt/nic/konf2003/

November 21-23 (2003) – Berlin (Germany)

EXPOLINGUA Berlin 2003 "Mehr Sprachen für Europa". 16th International Fair for Languages and Cultures.
Information: Martina Bischoff / Julia Wallner, ICWE GmbH, Leibnizstr. 32, D-10625 Berlin, Germany. Tel. +49-30-327 61 40 Fax. +49-30-324 98 33
e-mail: infos@expolingua.com Web: http://www.expolingua.com

December 3-7 (2003) – Athens (Greece)

International Conference on Choice and Difference in Translation. This international conference is intended to examine types of mediation processes that inscribe in target texts the tension between globalizing effects and localizing trends bearing consequences for linguistic identity preservation and development. Topics: News and media translation; The upcoming Olympic Games translation context; Scientific and/or environmental studies translation; Translation in the context of the E.U.; Advertisement translation; Literary translation; Theatre and film translation.
Information: International Conference, "CHOICE AND DIFFERENCE IN TRANSLATION"
c/o Maria Sidiropoulou, Faculty of English Studies, School of Philosophy, The University of Athens, Panepistimioupoli, Zografou, GR 157 84, Greece.
E-mail: msidirop@cc.uoa.gr Web: http://www.cc.uoa.gr/english/C&D/C&D1.htm

December 11-14 (2003) – Thessaloniki (Greece)

13th International Conference of the Greek Applied Linguistics Association on "New Directions in Applied Linguistics". Topics: Language Teaching and Learning, Sociolinguistics, Contrastive Linguistics, Semantics, Pragmatics, Translation, Language of

the Media and of Advertising, New Technologies in Education, First and Second Language Acquisiton, Discourse Analysis, Conversation Analysis, New Methodological Approaches, Assessment and Evaluation, Distance Learning, Intercultural Language Education, Bilingualism and Plurilingualism, Curricula, Language for Specific Purposes. Official languages: Greek, English, French.
Information: Greek Applied Linguistics Association, School of English, Aristotle University, P.O. Box 58, 541 24 Thessaloniki, Greece. Tel: +30 2310 997405, 997456 Fax: +30 2310 997432 E-mail: gala-auth@enl.auth.gr
Web: http://www.enl.auth.gr/gala/call2003.html

December 15-17 (2003) – Lucknow (India)

International Symposium on Language, Law and Life. Topics: Language of the Law**;** Legal language and simplification processes; Legal translation and interpretation; Legal interaction in the courts and with the police; Language Disadvantage before Law; Language crimes - perjury, conspiracy, copyright violation, vilification; Forensic Linguistics; Teaching the Language of the Law.
Information: Coordinators:
Venn Prakasam: prakasam_venn@hotmail.com or John Gibbons jgibbons@hkbu.edu.hk
Web: http://www.wagsoft.com/systemics/Conferences/isfc30_symposium.htm

December 19-21 (2003) – Amsterdam (The Netherlands)

14th Amsterdam Colloquium. The Amsterdam Colloquia aim at bringing together linguists, philosophers, logicians and computer scientists who share an interest in the formal study of the semantics of natural and formal languages. The spectrum of topics covered ranges from descriptive (semantic analyses of all kinds of expressions) to theoretical (logical and computational properties of semantic theories, philosophical foundations).
Information: Organizing Committee, Fourteenth Amsterdam Colloquium, ILLC / Department of Philosophy, University of Amsterdam, Nieuwe Doelenstraat 15, 1012 CP Amsterdam, The Netherlands. Tel.: +31 20 5254541 Fax: +31 20 5255206
E-mail: P.J.E.Dekker@uva.nl Web: http://www.illc.uva.nl/AC03/

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January 28-31 (2004) – Paris (France)

Expolangues 2004 – 22ème edition. Lieu de réflexion et de progrès, Expolangues est un événement majeur sur le thème des langues, des cultures et des échanges internationaux. Destiné aussi bien aux professionnels qu'au grand public, ce salon propose des solutions de formation adaptées à chaque profil. Étudiants, professionnels de l'enseignement ou formateurs en entreprise peuvent découvrir toutes les innovations dans différents secteurs. Expolangues propose des milliers de façons de partir à la rencontre des langues.
Information: EXPOLANGUES, 27, rue du Chemin-Vert, F-75543 Paris cedex 11, France. Tel.: +33 (0)1 48 07 41 41 Fax : +33 (0)1 48 07 02 92
E-mail : camille.rabehanta@letudiant.fr Web: http://www.expolangues.fr

February 6-7 (2004) – London (UK)

International conference on audiovisual translation “In So Many Words: Language Transfer on the Screen”. The conference aims to bring together professionals, scholars, practitioners and other interested parties to explore (multi)media translation in theory and practice, to ascertain the language needs of film distributors and broadcasters, to discuss the linguistic and cultural dimensions of audiovisual translation, to look into the possibilities of co-operation between the business and the educational worlds and to investigate the relevance and application of translation theory to audiovisual translation. Special attention will be given to the notion of accessibility to information, of concern not only to interlingual but also to intralingual translation. Of great concern are the interests of the blind, deaf and hard-of-hearing communities and issues related to the social and economic implications of the implementation of appropriate high quality standards.
Information: Conference Administrator "In So Many Words", Hispanic Research Centre, University of Surrey Roehampton, Roehampton Lane, London, SW15 5PH, UK. Tel.: +44 (0)20 8392 3595 Fax +44 (0)20 8392 3146
E-mail: j.diaz-cintas@reohampton.ac.uk
Web: http://www.surrey.ac.uk/LIS/CTS/insomanywords.htm

February 7-8 (2004) – Vaasa (Finland)

XXIV VAKKI-Symposium "LSP & Translation - a multilingual point of view". The VAKKI-symposium is an occassion for researchers in translation, LSP, multilingualism and related fields to meet in an international and multilingual environment.
Information: Nina Niemelä, P.O. Box 700, 65101 Vaasa, Finland. Tel. +358 (0)6-3248 155 Fax +358 (0)6-3248 820 E-mail: nimol@uwasa.fi
Web: http://www.uwasa.fi/hut/vakki/symposium2004/english.php3

February 15-21 (2004) – Seoul (Korea)

5th International Conference on Intelligent Text Processing and Computational Linguistics. Topics: Computational linguistics research: Computational linguistic theories and formalisms; Representation of linguistic knowledge; Morphology; Syntax; Semantics; Discourse models; Text generation; Statistical methods in computational linguistics; Corpus linguistics; Lexical resources. Intelligent text processing and applications: Document classification and search; Information retrieval; Information extraction; Text mining; Automatic summarization; Spell checking; Natural language interfaces.
Information: Members of the organizing committee: San Yong Han: hansy@cau.ac.kr or Alexander Gelbukh: gelbukh@cic.ipn.mx. Web: http://www.CICLing.org/2004/

February 27-28 (2004) – Tarragona (Spain)

II Mercator International Symposium. Given the significance of the year 2004 for the future of the European Union and, more specifically, the new linguistic policy deriving from the adoption of the new Constitutional Treaty, the II Mercator International Symposium will aim at a critical assessment of the role assigned to minority or regional languages within the new European order. The event will also focus on the way in which 'respect for linguistic diversity' (Art. 3.3 and Art. 22 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights) will be reflected in the European Union's new policies and actions. The Symposium will also seek to focus on how the voice of minority language communities will be heard within the future European Union, as well as on the possible role of the Committee of the Regions, despite the fact that the draft text submitted by the European Convention 2004

has yet to define the role of the regions, particularly those which have their own language and their own legislative powers.
Information: Mercator Linguistic Rights and Legislation, Rocafort, 242, bis, E-08029 Barcelona, Catalunya , Spain. Tel.: +34 444 38 00 Fax: +34 444 38 09
E-mail: mercator@ciemen.org
Web: www.ciemen.org/mercator/IIsymposium-gbfutur.htm

March 11-13 (2004) – Poitiers (France)

XXVe colloque du GERAS "Anglais de spécialité : les milieux professionnels".
Information: DLVP CRIFEL, Université Victor Segalen Bordeaux 2, 3ter, place de la Victoire, F-33076 Bordeaux Cedex, France.
Tel.: +33 (0) 5 57 57 18 03 Fax. +33 (0)5 56 31 86 17 E-mail: crifel@lv.u-bordeaux2.fr
Web: http://www.langues-vivantes.u-bordeaux2.fr/GERAS/geras.html

April 15-18 (2004) – Bloomington, IN (USA)

7th GASLA meeting. Generative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition.
Theme: second language acquisition in the generative paradigm.
Information: GASLA 7 – 2004, Department of French & Italian, 1020 East Kirkwood Avenue, 642 Ballantine Hall, Bloomington, IN 47401, USA.
Tel.: (812) 855-2221 Fax: (812) 855-8877 E-mail: gasla7@indiana.edu
Web: http://www.indiana.edu/~gasla7/GASLA7

April 29 – May 2 (2004) – Copenhagen (Denmark)

12th International Symposium on Lexicography.
Information: Jens Erik Mogensen, Department of German & Dutch University of Copenhagen, Njalsgade 120, DK-2300 København S, Denmark.
Tel: (+45) 35 32 81 62 Fax: (+45) 35 32 81 71 E-mail: jem@hum.ku.dk
Web: http://www.hum.ku.dk/gradeast/First_Circular_2004.doc

May 1-4 (2004) – Portland, Oregon (USA)

The American Association for Applied Linguistics Annual Conference - AAAL 2004.
Topics: Assessment and evaluation; Bilingual, immersion, heritage and language minority education; Language, cognition, and the brain; Analysis of discourse and interaction; Language acquisition and language attrition; Language, culture and socialization; Language and ideology; Language learner characteristics; Language planning and language policy; Second and foreign language pedagogy; Applied linguistics research methodology; Reading, writing and literacy; Sociolinguistics; Language learning and technology; Text analysis; Translation and interpretation.
Information: American Association for Applied Linguistics, 3416 Primm Lane, Birmingham, AL 35216, USA. Tel.: +01 205-824-7700 Fax: +01 205-823-2760
E-mail: aaaloffice@aaal.org Web: http://www.aaal.org/aaal2004

May 2-7 (2004) – Boston, MA (USA)

HLT/NAACL 2004: the Human Language Technologies and North American Association for Computational Linguistics annual meeting. This year's conference will include a special emphasis on bringing researchers with common interests in computational linguistics, information retrieval, and speech research together. Topics: cross-language retrieval; summarization; question-answering; language modeling for

speech or IR; all aspects of speech recognition and synthesis; entity extraction; parsing and grammatical formalisms; machine translation; shallow and formal semantics; language generation; dialogue systems; evaluation of language systems; and applications of machine learning to all three areas represented in the conference.
Information: General Chair, **Julia Hirschberg**, Columbia University.
E-mail: julia@cs.columbia.edu   Web: http://www.hlt-naacl04.org/

May 10-12 (2004) – Barcelon (Spain)

6th International Conference on Translation: Distance Teaching of Translation and Languages. Topics: Distance teaching of translation (curricular design, methodology, and practical experiences); Distance teaching of languages and culture (curricular design, methodology, and practical experiences); Distance teaching of translation tools (software) (curricular design, methodology, and practical experiences); Methodological considerations in distance education (pedagogic models, role of the professor, type of interaction, type of learning); Technical aspects of distance education (platforms, communication and learning tools, production tools); Advantages and constraints of distance teaching as compared to residential courses.
Information: Departament de Traducció i d'Interpretació, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona. E-mail: cg.traduccio2004@uab.es Web: http://www.fti.uab.es/congres2004

May 11-13 (2004) – Saarbrücken (Germany)

EU High Level Scientific Conference Series: "Translation Theory and Methodology" Topics: Translation & Interpretation Models and Methodologies; Intersemiotic Translation; Text and Discourse in Translation & Interpretation; LSP Translation and Intercultural Technical Writing.
Information: Heidrun Gerzymisch-Arbogast, Universität des Saarlandes (FR 4.6), Postfach 15 11 50, DE-66041 Saarbrücken, Germany. Tel.: 00 49 - 6 81/3 02 - 42 48 Fax: 00 49 - 6 81/3 02 - 63 07   E-mail: info@euroconferences.info
Web: http://www.euroconferences.info/saarbruecken.htm

May 12-14 (2004) – Barcelona (Spain)

GLAT-BARCELONA 2004: "The Production of Specialized Texts: Formal Structure and Academic Acquisition".
Information: José Manuel Abreu Garcia, Professeur au Département L.C.I., GET - ENST Bretagne, Pointe Diable, CS 83818 -29238 BREST - CEDEX 3, France.
E-mail: JM.Abreu@enst-bretagne.fr
Web: http://www.enst-bretagne.fr/GLAT-BARCELONA2004

May 20-23 (2004) – Stockholm (Sweden)

Critical Link 4 - 4th International Conference on Interpreting in the Community. The programme will be of interest to all those concerned with interpreting in the community - to interpreters, interpreter trainers, researchers in interpreting, interpreting agencies, but also to people working in various public service sectors, such as health care, courts of justice and immigration.
Information: Critical link 4, Institute for Interpretation and Translation studies, Stockholm University, SE-106 91 Stockholm, Sweden.
Tel: +46 8 16 29 68   Fax: +46 8 16 13 96 E-mail: CL2004@tolk.su.se
Web: http://www.tolk.su.se/CL2004

May 21-22 (2003) – Helsinki (Finland)

Colloquium on Contrasting Text Types in the Press. The comparison of journalistic genres or media text types can be done from several different perspectives: diachronic: description of the historical development of certain structural and/or linguistic patterns of individual text types; Intercultural or contrastive: comparison of textual norms in different linguistic communities or discourse cultures; Media-oriented: comparison of typical forms, layouts, structures etc. of texts in different media or in different press types.
Information: Prof. Dr. Andrew Chesterman, MonAKO, P.B. 24 (Unioninkatu 40), FIN-00014 University of Helsinki, FINLAND. Tel.: +358-9-1912 3122 Fax: +358-9-19 12 40 68
E-mail: Andrew.Chesterman@helsinki.fi Web: http://www.helsinki.fi/~sala_kol/start_en.html

May 24-30 (2004) – Lisbon (Portugal)

4th International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC). Main conference (May 26-28) and workshops (May 25-26 and May 29-30). Organized by the European Language Resources Association (ELRA). The aim of this conference is to provide an overview of the state-of-the-art, discuss problems and opportunities, exchange information regarding LRs, their applications, ongoing and planned activities, industrial uses and needs, requirements coming from the new e-society, both with respect to policy issues and to technological and organisational ones. LREC will also elaborate on evaluation methodologies and tools, explore the different trends and promote initiatives for international collaboration in the areas mentioned above.
Information: Web: http://www.lrec-conf.org/lrec2004

July 7-12 (2004) – Lyon (France)

Signs of the World of the Law: International Round Tables for the Semiotics of Law. Signs are conceived and circulate in a world whose recent evolution has brought about a change in the nature of geopolitical and intercultural relations. The evolution in the means of exchange, in the representations of the world and the strategies devised by political and institutional actors lead semioticians to appraise and update their concepts and analysis tools. While papers directed toward that very broad topic are welcome, in the spirit of Bobbie Kevelson we are of course open to all varieties of legal semiotics. Possible topics might include: Theoretical semiotics and epistemology; Differences and identities: discrimination and negotiation;Communication: a system of exchange and production; Semiotics and cultural practices; Semiotics and aesthetic practices; Semiotics of the globalisation of space and time; Critical discourse on the political economy of the sign.
Call for Paper: Proposals for 25-minute papers relating to any aspect of the subject are invited. Abstracts of proposals (400 words) to be sent by April 2004 to Anne Wagner (valwagnerfr@yahoo.com). The working languages are English and French.
Some papers from the conference will be published in The International Journal for the Semiotics of the Law (http://www.kluweronline.com/issn/0952-8059/current) and others in a collective book.
Information: Mme Anne Wagner, Université du Littoral Côte d'Opale, Département Droit, 21, rue Saint-Louis B.P. 774, F-62327 Boulogne/Mer Cedex, France.
E-mail : valwagnerfr@yahoo.com Web: http://www.univ-littoral.fr/appcoll.htm

Our conference calendar may also be consulted on our web-site:
http://www.dsff-lsp.dk/centres/dsff/LSP/calend.htm

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