RESEARCH – EVOLUTION – APPLICATION

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EDITORIAL:

Dans son allocution, le 30 janvier 2002, au Conseil économique et social[1] réuni en séance pleinière, le Premier ministre français, Lionel Jospin, a parlé longuement de la mondialisation « qui libère des énergies mais qui entraîne aussi des forces négatives qu'il faut maîtriser ». Il a profité de l'occasion pour saluer le modèle européen « de respect de la diversité des langues et des cultures » et a proposé « que le droit des Etats à mener librement des politiques culturelles soit affirmé par une convention universelle sur la diversité culturelle ».

Cette proposition mérite certainement d'être retenue, mais une telle convention n'aura de sens que si chaque Etat arrive à définir sa politique linguistique et culturelle.

On objectera peut-être que beaucoup de pays déploient déjà depuis longtemps des efforts importants pour protéger leur langue et leur culture, par exemple la France, mais aussi les pays dont les langues sont moins répandues. Cependant, ces efforts visaient plus souvent à conserver le passé qu'à préparer l'avenir. Or, aujourd'hui les effets, positifs ou négatifs, de la mondialisation, et dont parlais Lionel Jospin, semblent nécessiter que toutes les stratégies sur lesquelles étaient basées jusqu'ici les politiques linguistiques et culturelles, soient repensées. Cela présuppose une analyse approfondie de la situation linguistique dans chaque pays.

En France, le gouvernement français a créé récemment à cet effet (dans le cadre du nouveau Conseil supérieur de la langue française - CSLF) un « Observatoire des Pratiques Linguistique » qui a pour mission d'étudier les pratiques linguistiques en France ainsi que les modalités et les effets du contact entre les langues. Il est précisé que les résultats de cette observation apporteront des informations utiles pour l'élaboration des politiques sociales, éducatives et culturelles.

L'intérêt de cette initiative pour notre domaine de recherches : les LSP et la Communication professionnelle, ressort nettement de la déclaration de Lionel Jospin lors de l'installation du nouveau CSLF en 1999 [2]:

> Les langues vont acquérir au 21ème siècle une importance accrue : la maîtrise de multiples formes de communication orale et écrite est exigée sur le marché du travail et conditionne l'accès à l'information, à la culture, à la vie sociale et à la citoyenneté ; le développement du secteur des services fait des langues de véritables acteurs de l'économie ; la mondialisation et la construction de l'Union européenne multiplient les échanges et les contacts entre les langues ; enfin les langues sont au coeur de la révolution introduite par les nouvelles technologies. Toutes ces évolutions appellent des interventions pour assurer le respect de la diversité culturelle et linguistique mais aussi pour développer les passages entre les langues (apprentissage de plusieurs langues, traduction, interprétation, banques terminologiques…).

C'est encore dans cette optique que le CSLF a lancé en 2001 un appel d'offres pour « des travaux dont l'objectif serait de mieux apprécier les politiques et les pratiques linguistiques des entreprises à vocation internationale et de contribuer ainsi à orienter la politique du gouvernement en faveur de la diversité linguistique » [3].

Le « Cahier de charges » précise que la recherche doit être centrée sur l'utilisation des langues dans un contexte de mondialisation qui conduit parfois les entreprises à retenir d'autres langues que la langue nationale pour leur communication interne ou externe.

Deux champs d'observation seraient privilégiés :
1) la communication au sein de l'entreprise quand, notamment du fait d'alliances ou de rapprochements internationaux, des personnels de langues maternelles différentes travaillent ensemble ;
2) la communication externe à l'entreprise, appréhendée dans ses relations avec les marchés étrangers, ses clients, ses fournisseurs.

Le document enumère une longue liste de questions pouvant être abordées dans ce cadre défini : fréquence d'emploi des langues étrangères, fonctions et catégories de personnes concernées, conditions d'emploi, incidence des nouvelles technologie de l'information, le rôle des langues dans les stratégies commerciales et de conquêtes de marchés etc. etc.

Nos lecteurs qui désirent s'inspirer de cette enquête qui recouvre une grande partie de notre champs d'action (et qui devrait aussi intéresser les gouvernements des pays non-francophones) trouveront le texte intégral du document sur le site du Ministère français de la Culture.

Le Comité Rédacteur

Références:

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[2] Intervention du premier ministre à l'occasion de l'installation du Conseil supérieur de la langue française: «Quelle politique pour le français et le plurilinguisme?», 16 novembre 1999: http://www.culture.gouv.fr/culture/dglf/politique-langue/politique-langue.htm
[3] Appel d'offre sur les politiques et les pratiques linguistiques des entreprises lancé en 2001 par La délégation générale à la langue française: http://www.culture.gouv.fr/culture/dglf/politique-langue/prat_ling_ao2001.html

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DÉLAIS

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EDITORIAL:

In a speech given to the plenary session of the Economic and Social Council[1] on 30 January, The French Prime Minister, Lionel Jospin, spoke at length about globalization "which frees energies but also triggers negative forces which have to be kept in check". He took the opportunity to praise the European model based on the "respect for the diversity of languages and cultures" and suggested that "the right of states to freely enact cultural policies should be underpinned by a universal convention on cultural diversity"

This proposal is certainly noteworthy, however, such a convention would only make sense as long as each and every state managed to define their particular policy on language and culture.

One objection could be that many countries have already gone to great lengths over the years to protect their language and culture, France, for instance, as well as countries whose tongues are "minor" or "little spoken". These efforts, however, were, more often than not, meant to preserve the past rather than prepare for the future. Whereas nowadays, the effects of globalization, good or bad, referred to in Lionel Jospin's speech apparently require the rethinking of all the strategies upon which language and culture policies rest. An essential prerequisite for this is the in-depth analysis of the language situation in each country.

The French government, for this purpose, has recently established an "Observatory of Linguistic Practice" (Observatoire des Pratiques Linguistiques) within the framework of the new Upper Council for the French Language (Conseil Supérieur de la Langue Francaise - CSLF). The purpose of the Observatory will be to study the linguistic practices within France as well as the modalities and effect of the contact between languages. It has been made clear from the outset that the results of the observatory´s activity will provide useful information for drawing up social, education and culture policies.

The significance of this initiative for our field of research, Language for Special Purposes and Professional Communication is evident from Lionel Jospin's speech at the inaugauration of the CSLF in 1999[2]:

> In the course of the 21st Century, languages will become ever more important: mastery of the various forms of oral and written communication is a requirement of the labour market and is a prerequisite for access to information, culture, social life and citizenship; the development of the service sector truly turns languages into active agents within the economy; globalization along with the building of the European Union increases the rate of exchanges and contact between languages; languages are, at long last, at the heart of the revolution brought on by new technology. All these developments require intervention designed to ensure linguistic and cultural diversity as well as the development of bridges between the languages such as learning several languages, translation, interpretation, terminology data-banks…..

It was in this context that the CLSF, in 2001, proposed, or, "put out to tender" a series of projects the purpose of which was to "better evaluate linguistic policy and practice within companies operating at international level in order to, in this fashion, turn government policy towards linguistic diversity"[3].

The specifications of the "tender" state that the research has to be focussed on the use of language within the context of globalization, a context which, sometimes, leads to companies using languages other than that of the home country for purposes of internal or external communication.

Two areas of investigation are of particular interest:

1) communication within a given company when, as a result of business alliances or other types of co-operation at international level, staff members with different mother tongues work together,
2) external communication of a given company, in terms of its foreign market contacts, customers and suppliers.

This document comprises many questions that are pertinent to the terms set out in the framework mentioned above: frequency of the use of foreign languages, the rôle and position of the personnel in question, employment conditions, the effect of new information technology, the impact of languages on the definition of commercial strategy and the conquest of new markets, etc.

Those of our readers who would like to draw inspiration from this research which coincides with a large part of our sphere of endeavour, and that should also be of interest to governments of non-French speaking countries as well, can find the complete text of this document on the French Ministry of Culture's website.

The Editorial Board

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[1] Speech delivered to the Economic and Social Council, " The Stakes involved in Globalization: Regulation and Development, 30/01/2002: http://www.premier-ministre.gouv.fr/fr/p.cfm?ref=31754

[2] Prime Minister's speech at the inauguration of the Conseil supérieur de la langue francaise: "Which policy now vis-à-vis French and multilingualism?"16 November 1999: http://www.culture.gouv.fr/culture/dglf/politique-langue/politique-langue.htm

[3] "Tender" for the linguistic policy and practice of companies issued in 2001 by the General Delegation for the French Language (La délégation générale de la langue francaise): http://www.culture.gouv.fr/culture/dglf/politique-langue/prat_ling_ao2001.html

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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:

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ARTICLES:

Mitigating Conflict in Arbitration Clauses Through Language

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1. Introduction

Within the literature of legal discourse, contracts have been mainly examined in terms of their socio-legal, rhetorical and pragmatic functions (Danet 1980, Kurzon 1986, Klinge 1995, Hancher 1979, Trosborg 1995 and 1997 and Frade 2000). In legal terms, contracts are difficult to be satisfactorily defined due to the diversity of what may be called a 'contract' and also from the "various perspectives from which their formation and consequences may be viewed" (Calamari and Perillo 1988:1). Assuming that every contract involves one promise which has legal consequences, we will use the term defined as "a promise or set of promises constituting an agreement between the parties that gives each a legal duty to the other and also the right to seek a remedy for the breach of those duties" (Black 1990:322). As a genre, contracts are formed out of specific functions and conditions of discoursal communication which turn them into instances of "assertions with relatively stable theme, composition and style". However, far from reflecting the individuality of the writer, as in any sphere of human activities and communication, contracts do not have an individual style but rather require a "standard form" (Bakhtin 1986:63-64). As LSP texts, contracts are reflections of the legal discourse community and are regulated by specific conventions for production and reception, by the role the parties are allowed to play and by the situational context they are inserted in. (see Gunnarsson 1990 for a broad sociolinguistic approach to LSP texts).

In general, the discourse of contracts evinces a preference for the use of certain linguistic forms and constructions and, correspondingly, a non-preference for other lexical and syntactic possibilities, which remain latent and are regarded as non-use. Moreover, as a highly institutionalized and conventional kind of discourse, it relies on a series of specific communicative interactions and tacit metacommunicative strategies to somehow ensure that the roles and relations of the parties have been assigned, the rights, duties, obligations and commitments have been established and the information has been received adequately (Gläser 1995 and van Dijk 1977).

Contracts deal with conflict or dispute processing derived out of broken rules in arbitration agreements or in arbitration clauses. Danet (1980:491-492) puts forward three stages of dispute processing: claim, counterclaim and outcome. The claim takes the form of a "challenge" followed by the counterclaim, in which the parties pursue some "symbolic, expressive" mode of determining the outcome. The outcome, in turn, results in decision-taking, determining and, also, choosing a course of action. By focusing on arbitration clauses as a subtype of social interaction, our purpose is two-fold: to foreground language not only as the primary means of regulating the flow of events in case of conflict so as to reinforce the parties' commitment towards cooperation and consensus but also as the potential instrument of the settlement of conflicts.

For LSP practice, our concern is to make legal professionals aware of the conventional socio-interactional nature of contracts and the linguistic evidence for cooperative and face-saving strategies in arbitration clauses. We assume that the knowledge of these conventions will help such professionals to understand the invariably maintained "generic integrity" (Bhatia 1993:199) of contracts and also to negotiate conflicts successfully.

For the LSP researcher, this article can inspire further cross-linguistic investigations on evidence of other conventional (meta)communicative strategies in contracts or in specific contractual clauses across languages or under different legal systems.

Our point of departure is a short review of Goffman's (1967) interaction ritual and face-work behavior and Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. As this theoretical framework deals specifically with spoken interaction, we briefly address how it has been adapted to the written medium of contracts. In Section 3, we approach the social interaction nature of contracts through their prototypical interchange involving a sequence of moves and their corresponding metacommunicative strategies. In Section 4, we build up the 4-Move 'arbitration' interchange pattern involving the moves and their respective linguistic realization for cooperative and face-saving strategies. We conclude with a discussion of the findings of the study and its implications for LSP practice and research.

2. Theoretical framework

In a world of "social encounters", participants involved in face-to-face or mediated contact are supposed to "take a line", that is, to follow a pattern of acts to express their view of the situation (Goffman 1967:5). Once the line is chosen, it should be maintained and it tends to be of a "legitimate institutionalized kind" involving the immediate establishment of a *face* that should also be maintained throughout the interaction. Also, the participants are responsible for sustaining an "expressive order" to regulate the flow of events so that anything expressed by them will be consistent with their faces.

Thomas (1995:168) explains that the term 'face' meaning 'reputation or 'good name' seems to have first been used in English in 1876 "as a translation of the Chinese term 'diu liãn' in the phrase 'Arrangements by which Chinese has lost face' ". The term was defined by Goffman himself (1967:5) as "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact".

Following Goffman, Brown and Levinson (1987:61), in their politeness theory, extend the definition of *face* "as something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must constantly attended to interaction". For them, there are two aspects of face which are treated like "basic wants" and which interest each member to partially satisfy in interaction: negative face and positive face. The former, more obvious, deals with the want of every person that his or her actions be unimpeded and free from imposition by others; the latter, less obvious, concerns a person's personality in what that "personality requires of other interactants", which includes, among others, the desire to be ratified and understood. This desire is represented as "the want to have one's goals thought of as desirable" by others (1987:63)

To say that a person *has*, or *is in*, or *maintains face* means that: (1) his or her presented image is internally consistent with the line taken; (2) this image is supported by "judgments and evidence conveyed by other participants" and (3) it is confirmed by evidence conveyed through impersonal agencies in the situation" (Goffman 1967:6-7). In this case, the person typically reacts with feelings of confidence and assurance as he or she knows the line is being firmly taken. Cooperation is thus also involved in the process as long as "people cooperate (and assumes each other's cooperation) in maintaining face in interaction, such cooperation being based on mutual vulnerability of face" (Brown and Levinson 1987:61)

On the other hand, to say that a person *lost, or is in wrong,* or *is out of face* or *is shamefaced*, as to Goffman, means that either he or she cannot "be integrated into the line that is being sustained" for them or that he or she does not have a line ready of the kind "participants in such situations are expected to take". The process of sustaining an impression that a person or persons have not lost face and, consequently, allowing them to maintain face in an interaction is called *saving one's face.*

There are certain acts which intrinsically threaten both the negative and the positive face, that is, acts that "by their nature run contrary to the face wants" of the interactants. The authors call these acts "face-threatening acts" (FTAs) which include, for instance, disagreements and challenges or "blatant bon-cooperation in an activity" in case of positive face's threats. (Brown and Levinson 1987:65-66). In case FTAs cannot be avoided and the line is altered, for whatever reason, then *face-work* is needed to minimize the threat in order to maintain face to any degree and to restore the equilibrium of the interaction.

Goffman defines *face-work* as "the actions taken place by a person to make whatever he is doing consistent with face". *Face-work* serves to counteract "incidents- that is, events whose effective symbolic implications threaten face". The repertoire of face-saving actions vary from each person, culture, social or professional group and can be drawn from a "coherent framework of possible practices".

The two basic kinds of face-work are: the avoidance process and the corrective process. The avoidance process is used to prevent threats to one's face by avoiding contacts in which these threats are likely to occur and it includes protective maneuvers, neutralization of potentially offensive acts and tactful blindness. The corrective process takes place when participants fail to prevent the occurrence of an event which is incompatible with the line taken and which is "difficult to overlook" and then it is given accredited status as "an incident" (Goffman (1967:19). In this case, the participants' faces are threatened and they proceed, trying to correct for its effects by re-establishing a "satisfactory ritual state for them". The author uses the term *ritual* because one's face is "a sacred thing", and therefore the expressive order required to sustain it is also a ritual one.

From the moment face is threatened, a sequence of acts involving some moves and participants– an interchange - starts and ends with the "re-establishment of ritual equilibrium. The four classical moves in an interpersonal ritual behavior are: the challenge, by which participants take on the responsibility of calling attention to the misconduct; the offering, whereby the offender is given a chance to correct for the offense and re-establish the expressive order; the acceptance of the offering and, finally, the thanks. These phases of the corrective process, which does not necessarily follow that sequence, provide a model for an "interpersonal ritual behavior" and a natural empirical way to study interactions of all kinds.

Politeness phenomena, as stated above, have faced some criticism for not involving cross-cultural comparisons in different speech communities. Meier (1995:381), for instance, rejects the "anglocentricity" approach of the concept and claims that politeness can only be judged in relation to a specific context and to specific addressee's expectations and, consequently, its concomitant interpretation. He adds that, if there is a universal character of politeness, it is in the sense that every society has, in a way or another, "some sort of norms for appropriate behavior, although these norms will vary" (Meier 1995:388). The author prefers to define 'politeness', within a particular speech community, in terms of being appropriate (polite) or inappropriate (impolite) for a given situation or a point within it.

A different approach for politeness is proposed by Fraser (1990:232) - the "conversational-contract view" - in that he also rejects the universality encoded in the concept in Goffman's and Brown and Levinson's view. When engaged in a conversation, each party understands that "some initial set of rights and obligations" will determine the first stages and what they can expect from each other. During the course of the conversation, or in a change in context, the parties may renegotiate the contract, that is, they may "readjust just what rights and what obligations they hold towards each other" (Fraser 1990:232). These rights and obligations vary greatly: they may be imposed through convention or by the social institutions applicable to the interaction; they may be determined by previous encounters or the "particulars of the situation" or they may even not be negotiable at all.

Thus bearing in mind that politeness and face-work are universal phenomena *not* restricted to oral interaction and to the English language and further that vary according to contexts, cultures and professional communities, we want now to consider how they are used in written interactions and, more specifically, in contractual arbitration clauses.

2.1. Politeness and face-work in written interaction

The first consideration in establishing correspondence across spoken and written media has to do with a "change *in the manner* in which communication is carried out" in the interaction (Widdowson 1984:49). Spoken interactions are reciprocal exchanges in which meanings are overtly negotiated, whereas written interactions are non-reciprocal exchanges and require that negotiation be also carried out covertly. On the other hand, for the effectiveness of written communication, there must be a congruence between the writer intention and the reader interpretation in that the latter can reconstitute the former's original intention from the textual clues provided. This reconstitution will depend mainly on the writer and the reader sharing knowledge of using linguistic rules "in the interests of social acceptability" and of particular conventions of communication of certain specific types of discourse" (Widdowson 1984:48-52).

Social acceptability has to do with rules of politeness and face-work and, in writing, these rules can be manifested linguistically through two processes: integration and detachment. Integration refers to "the packing of more information into an idea unit" than allowable in spoken language; and detachment between writer and his audience is manifested in devices "which serve to distance language from specific concrete states and events" (Chafe 1982:39-45).

Written genres are associated with conventionalized integration and detachment linguistic devices. Contracts, for instance, are types of genre that follow a kind of contextually controlled linguistic formula with specialized terminology and an extremely "dense" information structure, which reflect "the structure of the professional community as a social and cultural entity" (Valle 1998:115). And, in contracts, arbitration clauses pose as best instances of how politeness and face-work are to be construed, used and understood through linguistic cues in order to settle conflict and to guide the parties towards cooperation.

3. Contracts as social interactions

Apart from its generic and legal definitions, a contract is also an instance of social communicative interaction. The circumstances of contractual interactions involve a "unique" type of communication which comprises the intention of the parties expressed in written form assisted by "an intermediate filter"- the lawyer; the submittal to legislative limitations – the "contractual basis", and with a view to a dispute-settling institution – the courts of justice or, alternatively, the arbitral tribunal (Trosborg 1997:59).

In commercial contracts, the parties hold a symmetric relation in terms of social distance and relative power (even when conflict arises, we believe) in that they are both senders and receivers. There is also a set of imposition of restrictions on the parties to conform with the external legal framework, including "subtle allusions to remedies and sanctions" (Trosborg 1997:60).

In the 'contract interchange', the flow of events is regulated by an expressive order which presents a sequence of actions or moves that are combined with other actions to "form compound and complex actions and sequences of actions". As a highly conventionalized type of discourse, contractual actions are no longer planned but "automatized in a fixed ROUTINE". Only in specific circumstances, such as when conflict arises or "when normal initial conditions are not satisfied", this routine is consciously executed (van Dijk 1977:233-234). In these cases, the parties are forced to turn to politeness strategies to reduce FTAs of the speech acts involved and also "the incorporated intentions of the law" regarding sanction and penalties, should they fail to comply with the contractual commitment (Trosborg 1997:60).

The contractual interchange is realized discursively through: (1) meta-communicative strategies of textual organization; (2) the constant reinforcement of tacit cooperation between the parties and (3) face-saving strategies to counteract incidents.

Headings, sub-headings or enumeration of items are the prototypical metacommunicative disposition signals used to alleviate "the reader's orientation in the progression of the text and the reception of the information conveyed" (Gläser 1995:87). Cooperation is prototypically realized by the repetition of cooperative commissive directive verbs, such as *agree*, (see as Searle 1976 and Hancher 1979 for details), and other selected 'cooperative' terms and expressions, such as *jointly* and *make their best efforts*.

After Swales's move approach (1990), we suggest a 6-move contractual interchange pattern in Table 1, comparing its moves and the general textual organization of contracts outlined in Trosborg (1997).

	MOVES	METACOMMUNICATIVE STRATEGIES
MOVE 1	*Taking the line*	The title and/or the introduction
MOVE 2 (*optional*)	*The background*	Recitals
MOVE 3	*The definitions*	Definition section (alphabethical order)
MOVE 4	*The substance*	Headings and sub-headings and/or enumeration of items by numbers or letters
MOVE 5	*The managing*	'Miscellaneous' clauses

Table 1: *The 6-Move contractual interchange pattern.*

In Move 1, the title and the introduction express the nature of the document and the identification of the parties involved in the transaction. They take the line of entering into a tacit agreement to "attain their shared but differently motivated objectives" (Goffman 1967:29). Also, in this move, the parties implicitly avail themselves of establishing and maintaining a face to all the remainder of the contract.

In Move 2, the background is optional because it is not part of the operational part of contracts and gives information that forms the 'foundation" for the document before its existence and which serve as the basis for the contract (Trosborg 1997). Recitals are usually introduced by *whereas* and have an immediate purpose: to serve as preamble to establish the conditions of the commitment between the parties.

Move 3 defines technical terms, legal or otherwise that may be unfamiliar to the user and stipulates definitions when words are used in a narrow way for the purposes of the document (Trosborg 1997 and Ray and Ramsfield 1993).

Move 4 represents the operational part of the contract and contains the “regulative acts to come in force by means of the document” (Trosborg 1997:65). It is divided into articles, paragraphs or clauses containing headings, subheadings and enumeration of items which divides and highlights the segments of the contract.

Move 5 attends to the “business of managing the document itself” (Trosborg 1997:66).

And, finally, Move 6 accounts for the validity and the enforcement of the contract through varied formalities, such as the parties’ and the witnesses’ signatures, the date and the notary public’s validation.

As pointed out earlier, arbitration clauses constitute sub-types of communicative interactions within contractual transactions. Thus, they also present a conventional interchange involving moves and the parties. In this case, the interchange is realized linguistically through cooperative and face-saving strategies in the phases of conflictual events.

3.1. The data

The main data of investigation have been drawn from *International Petroleum Agreement* compiled by Barnes (undated). The book contains the following eight models of international petroleum agreements or contracts: Peruvian License Agreement, Egyptian Concession Agreement, Angola Production Sharing Agreement, Trinidadian Production Sharing Contract, Venezuelan Operating Service Contract, Colombian Association Contract, Chinese Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR) Contract and Hungarian Concession Agreement.

Our examples were drawn from arbitrations clauses inserted in seven corpora: the Peruvian License Agreement (77 pages), the Egyptian Concession Agreement (97 pages), the Angola Production Sharing Agreement (134 pages), the Trinidadian Production Sharing Contract (120 pages), the Venezuelan Operating Service Contract (58 pages), the Chinese EOR Contract (115 pages) and the Hungarian Concession Agreement (15 pages). The Colombian Association Contract does not have an arbitration clause. We have also looked into the UNCITRAL Model Law (UML) on International Commercial Arbitration.

After selecting arbitration clauses in our corpora, we analyzed the linguistic evidence which revealed, both explicitly and implicitly, cooperative and face-saving strategies through prototypical devices of manifestation of integration and detachment. Then we were concerned with a classification of the various ‘moves’ regularly used to write arbitration clauses in the data under investigation, involving the strategies and the regularity of their linguistic realization. Finally, we built up a 4-Move ‘arbitration’ interchange pattern for the phenomenon in question.

The UML was included in our data because it is considered a model for the production of arbitration agreements and clauses. As an independent agreement, not inserted as a clause in contracts, it has a different typical sequence of moves but we found it worth being briefly analyzed.

Assuming that arbitration clauses belong to the substance of contracts regardless of which language they are written in, our 'one-language analysis' of English contracts should not be viewed as an *ad hoc* one. On the contrary, linguistic manifestations of mitigating conflict in arbitration clauses seem also to be found in contracts across languages.

4. Mitigating conflict in arbitration agreement clauses

According to the UNCITRAL Model Law (UML) on International Commercial Arbitration, Chapter II, Article 7 (1), an "arbitration agreement" is an agreement in which the parties submit to arbitration "all or certain disputes which have arisen or which may arise between them" in a contractual relationship or others. Arbitration agreements must be in writing and may be either inserted as a clause in contracts or may be presented as an independent contract. A prototypical opening arbitration clause reads as follows:

> Any dispute, controversy or claim arising out of or in relation to or in connection with this Agreement or the operation carried out under this Agreement, including without limitation any dispute as to the construction, validity, interpretation, enforceability or breach of this Agreement, shall be exclusively and finally settled by arbitration, and any Party may submit such a dispute, controversy or claim to arbitration.

Likewise contractual interaction, arbitration agreements are also units of social activity conveying a standardized interchange involving moves and the parties. We will call it 'the arbitration interchange'. When arbitration agreements are presented as independent contracts, as the UML, they convey a larger number of moves - the challenge, the acceptance, the offering, the settlement, the termination and the enforcement – in a rigid sequential order in which the progression of the moves are mainly signalized by headings and sub-headings. The moves are thus presented: "Definition and form of arbitration agreement" ('challenge' and 'acceptance' moves); "Composition of arbitral tribunal", "Jurisdiction of arbitral tribunal" and "Conduct of arbitral tribunal" ('offering' and 'acceptance' move) "Making of award" ('settlement' move) '"Termination of proceedings" ('termination'move) and "Recognition and enforcement of awards" ('enforcement'move).

On the other hand, when arbitration agreements are presented as clauses, paragraphs or articles inserted in contracts, as per our main data, the interchange involves fewer moves with a more flexible sequential order, which are signalized by the enumeration of the clauses. The UML also suggests a single model arbitration clause to be inserted in contracts:

> Any dispute, controversy or claim arising out of or relating to this contract, or the breach, termination or invalidity thereof, shall be settled by arbitration in accordance with the UNCITRAL Arbitration Rules as at present in force.

The move analysis which follows indicates the cooperative and face-saving strategic use of language to avail the parties of sustaining cooperation during the arbitral proceedings and to attenuate responsibilities in case they do not comply with their contractual commitment respectively.

4.1. Move 1: The challenge

The opening arbitration clause comprises the challenge move. In this initial stage, the process of "mitigating responsibilities for wrongdoing" (Danet 1980:524) is immediately foregrounded by two main linguistic devices of face-saving strategies: the selection of the terms that compound binomial and multinomial expressions and passivization. Both are instances of "off record" strategies, that is, formal types of indirectness in context (Brown and Levinson 1987:212).

Binomial and multinomial expressions are typically integrative devices in legal terminology for the sake of technical accuracy and to make the legal document precise and all-inclusive (Gustafsson 1975, Bhatia 1993). Generally speaking, binomials or word pairs are sequences of two words or phrases that belong to the same grammatical category, are related semantically and connected by a lexical link such as *and* or *or* (Gustafsson 1984 and Bhatia 1993). Examples of typical legal binomials drawn from our data are: *controversies or claims, rights and liabilities;* and *dispute or controversy*. On the other hand, a multinomial can be regarded as an extended binomial and is meant to express the linguistic device of "an enumerative sequence [which] may contain several members, according to the varying situation in the topic that we are talking about" (Gustafsson 1975:17). Examples of typical legal multinomials are: *dispute, controversy or claim; breach termination or invalidity; construction, compliance, termination, rescission, efficiency or validity*. Binomial and multinomial expressions realize indirectness either by carefully selecting the terms in the sequence or by replacing the actors in the initial position in passive constructions. In the prototypical morphological variation of arbitration binomials and multinomials, the terms hold a complementary semantic relation, sometimes expressed by "an additional semantic feature, sometimes by the exclusion or suppression of a feature" (Gustafsson 1975:86). The strategy used here is one of Goffman's (1967) types of face-work, the avoidance process: nouns denoting 'stronger' conflict, such as *litigation* and *conflict*, are avoided and replaced by 'less harsh' ones, such as *dispute, controversy, claim, dissatisfaction, discrepancy, contradiction, difference and disagreement* in order to neutralize "the potentially offensive act". In other words, they integrate two or more items within the idea unit of 'litigation'.

Finally, the over-generalization of the binomial and multinomial expressions, by the use of *any*, deliberately violates Grice's maxim of Manner because it leaves the “object of the FTA vaguely off record” and is specified nowhere in the document (Danet 1980 and Brown and Levinson 1987).

Passivization accounts for strategically placing conflicting terms in the initial position in arbitration clauses. When an element that is typically a predicator is placed in a marked position, it is emphasized or given “temporary prominence within the clause” (Trosborg 1997:100). The parties are suppressed - although they can be retrieved from the context - thus providing a “protective orientation” (Goffman 1967:14) toward saving the parties’ faces. However, when the parties are not suppressed, they are typically impersonalized and are either given a title or identified as the corporations they represent (*contractor/government*, for instance).

For Brown and Levinson (1987:274) the passive is an impersonalization mechanism that serves basic politeness ends in that it “demotes the subject to a superficial locus where it may be deleted”, thus reducing the importance of the agent and becoming a means of “shifting responsibility off a subject”.

Also for Chafe (1982:45-46), the passive voice accounts for the “detached quality of written language” to distance the language from specific events in that it suppresses the “direct involvement of an agent in an action". The same holds for nominalization, very frequent in contractual language, which suppresses involvement in actions in favor of “abstract reification”.

As an instance of non-conventional indirectness, passivization here also deviates from Grice’s Cooperative Principle (1975) in that it “flouts” the Maxim of Quantity by deliberately providing less information than required, omitting who the actors are and generating the implicature that the responsibility for initiating the conflict belongs to the parties.

Examples of the passive (italicized), and binomial and multinomial expressions (underlined) in our data are:

(1) Any <u>dispute, controversy or claim</u> arising out of or relating to this Agreement or the breach termination or invalidity thereof, between the Government and the parties *shall be referred* to the jurisdiction of the appropriate A.R.E. Courts and *shall be finally settled by* such Courts. (Egyptian Concession Agreement, Article XXIII: Dispute and Arbitration. (a) p.142).

(2) Any <u>disputes, differences, or claims</u> arising out of this Agreement or relating thereto, or relating to the breach, termination, or invalidation of the same, which it *has not been possible to resolve* amicably *shall be* finally and exclusively *settled by* arbitration, in accordance with the UNCITRAL Rules of Arbitration of 1976 as existing on the Effective Date. (Angola Production Sharing Agreement, Article 42: Arbitration. p. 174.84).

(3) Any controversies or claims arising out of this agreement *shall be settled* by the …. Arbitration Court. (Hungarian Concession Agreement. Article 16.1: Arbitration, p. 462).

(4) Any dispute or controversy related to this Agreement that the Parties cannot settle, *shall be submitted* to arbitration in the city of Caracas, Venezuela. (Venezuelan Operating Service Contract 12.1.: Arbitration, p. 338).

The main payoffs of the strategies illustrated above are that both parties can avoid responsibility for "the potentially face-damaging interpretation" and get credit for being "tactful and non-coercive" (Brown and Levinson 1987:71).

4.2. Move 2: The acceptance

The acceptance move also makes use of face-saving strategies both at the syntactic and lexical levels. In the former, where the references to the parties occur in the unmarked initial position, the active voice signals explicitly that the responsibility for a consensus and understanding is to be shared between them.

On the level of lexical choices, direct orientation towards the parties' cooperation after and during the course of arbitration is realized through the selection of 'cooperative' commissive verbs (*agree*, *settle*, *attempt*, *cooperate, bind*) and 'cooperative' nouns (*negotiation*, *agreement*) as well as adverbs (*jointly*, *amicably, equally*, *mutually*) and formulaic phrases (*by mutual agreement, by agreement between the Parties, make their best efforts, in accordance with*).

Following Austin's (1962), Searle (1976:11) redefines commisives as illocutionary acts "whose point is to commit the speaker /…/ to some future course of action" and where the sincerity condition is "Intention". And for Hancher (1979), following Searle, contracts can be regarded as "cooperative commissives", that is, types of "hybrid speech acts" combining directive with commissive illocutionary force which looks towards completion in some response to the parties. Typical examples of the active voice and 'cooperative' lexicon in our data are underlined below:

(4) The Parties shall make their best efforts to settle amicably through consultation any dispute arising in connection with the performance or interpretation of any provision thereof. (Chinese Enhanced Oil Recovery Contract, Article 25.1: Consultation and Arbitration, p. 425).

(5) If agreed upon the Parties, such dispute shall be referred to arbitration conducted by the China International Economic and Trade Arbitration Commission in accordance with the arbitration proceeding rules thereof. (Chinese Enhanced Oil Recovery Contract, Article 25.2.1: Consultation and Arbitration, p. 425).

(6) During the course of arbitration, the Parties shall continue with the performance of their contractual obligations, including those that are subject matter of

arbitration. /…/ (Peruvian License Agreement. Clause Twenty-One – Submission to Peruvian Laws, Arbitration and Jurisdiction, 21.2: Arbitration, p. 56).

According to Brown and Levinson's classification, both strategies used in this move are considered "on record" because they unambiguously express the intention of committing themselves to cooperation "with redressive action". They demonstrate clearly that such offensive act is not desired and also entail "positive politeness" since the parties are expected to comply with the same rights, duties and "expectations of reciprocity" (Brown and Levinson 1987:69-70).

4.3. Move 3: The offering

The offering move is mainly characterized by the use of conditionals on the level of syntactic strategies. Legal conditionals are prototypically all-inclusive and discontinued due to the excess of qualifications inserted in their syntactic structure. The initial if-clause expresses a condition that applies to what is stated in the main clause (Bhatia 1993 and Hiltunen 1990).

The formula *if X, then Y shall be/do Z* represents the basic conditional construction in contracts with the use of the present simple in the protases (see Crystal and Davy 1969 for further details). It confirms the cooperative and volitional nature of contracts in which the parties are committed or are obliged to perform (or not) some actions in the future mentioned earlier.

As Dancygier (1998) points out, the form of verbs phrases used in the construction of conditionals are considered "surface devices" encoding all type of conditions and the speaker's (or correspondingly the author's) beliefs. Under this interpretation, the successive 'arbitration' conditionals are contextually bound and provide the parties with as many alternatives and chances as possible to reach an understanding before finally making use of arbitration or other further instances of dispute settlements. The selection of verb form in the construction of conditionals also deviates from the prototypical one, presenting more varied and less rigid forms, such as *would* and present perfect in the protases and *may* in the apodoses.

In general, 'arbitration' conditionals present "desirable developments" towards the settlement of conflicts and can be interpreted as follows: although the situations described in *p* are predictable but not desirable, "they result in and allow the conditional prediction of other desirable situations" (Dancygier 1998:117). The following are examples of 'arbitration' conditionals:

(7) If any dispute referred to under this Article has not been settled through consultation within ninety (90) days after the dispute arises either Party may by notice to the other Party propose that the dispute be referred either for determination by a sole expert or to arbitration in accordance with the provisions of Article 33. (Trinidadian Production Sharing Contract, Article 33.2: Consultation, Expert Determination and Arbitration, p. 253).

(8) If for whatever reason arbitration in accordance with the above procedure would likely to fail, then the parties agree that all disputes, controversies or claims arising out of or relating to this Agreement or the breach, termination or invalidity thereof shall be settled by arbitration in accordance with the UNCITRAL Rules. (Egyptian Concession Agreement. Article XXIII: Disputes and Arbitration (h), p. 143)

(9) As an alternative, to the procedure described in Article 33.3 and if agreed upon by the Parties, such dispute shall be referred to arbitration by an agreed sole arbitration. (Trinidadian Production Sharing Contract, Article 33.4: Consultation, Expert Determination and Arbitration, p. 253).

The conditionals exemplified in the clauses above constitute instances of typical redressive act strategies in that the parties may choose to “stress their cooperation in another way” (Brown and Levinson 1987:125).

4.4. Move 4: The settlement and the enforcement

In this last move, cooperation is once again foregrounded and unambiguously expressed linguistically by the terms underlined below:

(10) The Parties <u>agree</u> that this arbitration clause is an explicit waiver of immunity against validity and enforcement of the award or any judgment thereon and that the award or judgment thereon, if unsatisfied, shall be enforceable against any Litigant in any court having jurisdiction in accordance with its laws. (Angola Production Sharing Agreement. Article 42: Arbitration. 5., pg. 174.84).

(11) The Parties <u>hereby waive</u> any right of appeal, annulment or any other challenge against the arbitration award, which shall be binding and final for the Parties /…/. (Peruvian License Agreement. Clause Twenty-one- Submission to Peruvian Laws, Arbitration and Jurisdiction, 21.2., p. 56).

(12) The Parties <u>bind themselves</u> to perform all the acts that may be necessary so that, once litigation, controversy, discrepancy or claim has been filed, all those acts which may be required for the development of the arbitration proceedings shall be performed until they have been concluded and enforced. (Peruvian License Agreement. Clause Twenty-one- Submission to Peruvian Laws, Arbitration and Jurisdiction, 21.2., p. 56).

To finalize our analysis, it is worth pointing out the role of the modal *shall* in arbitration clauses. In clauses where cooperation between the parties is emphasized, *shall* (and *may* as well) expresses the speech act of commitment or guarantee that the proposed action be undertaken by the parties (Kurzon 1986). However, in clauses where face-saving strategies are used to mitigate responsibility for conflict, *shall* assumes the illocutionary force of obligation or duty.

The proposed 4-Move arbitration interchange pattern is displayed in Table 2.

MOVES	COOPERATIVE WRITTEN STRATEGIES	FACE-SAVING WRITTEN STRATEGIES
MOVE 1 *The challenge*		- Passivization - Impersonality of the actors - Multinomials replacing the actors: ‘less harsh’ conflictual terms & over-generalization - *Shall (*obligation/duty)
MOVE 2 *The acceptance*	- Active voice - ‘Cooperative’ commisssive verbs - ‘Cooperative’ nouns and adverbs - *Shall* (commitment) - *May*	
MOVE 3 *The offering*	- Contextually bound conditionals	
MOVE 4 *The settlement and the enforcement of the contract*	- ‘Cooperative’ commisssive verbs - ‘Cooperative’ nouns and adverbs - *Shall* (obligation/duty)	

Table 2: *The 4-Move arbitration interchange pattern.*

5. Conclusion

In this paper we have analyzed how language is used to mitigate the illocutionary force of conflicting assertions in arbitration clauses and also to guide the parties towards cooperation after and during the arbitral process.

The theoretical framework was based upon Goffman’s theory of interaction ritual and face-work behavior (1967) and Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory (1987) adapted to the written medium of contracts. It was assumed that contracts constitute instances of social interaction in which the parties share common purposes and tacitly agree on: a) taking a line during all the course of the interaction and

b) maintaining an internally consistent face to the line take throughout the interaction. These two assumptions are structured in a series of established moves and realized by means of metacommunicative and strategies.

Arbitration agreements deal with conflicts arisen out of broken contractual rules previously agreed on. They must be in written form and can be presented as independent documents or inserted as clauses in contracts.

The main data employed in the analysis was drawn from a compilation of international petroleum agreements in English. We also employed the UNCITRAL Model Law. The findings have shown that arbitration clauses are sub-types of social interactions and present a 4-Move interchange pattern on the basis of explicit and implicit linguistic evidence for cooperative and face-saving strategies. By assuming that arbitration clauses belong to the substance of contracts and that they all deal with mitigation of conflict, we believe that the findings can be confidently generalized to contracts across languages.

For the LSP practice and research, some implications can be drawn. Legal professionals were made aware of the socio-interactional nature of commercial contracts and, more strictly, of arbitration clauses. We also intended to arise the awareness of the role that language plays in conveying not only explicit propositional messages but implicit strategic ones as well in arbitration clauses. The concern with the maintenance of cooperation throughout the phases of conflict (cooperation strategies) and the mitigation of responsibility for the party that initiates the conflict (face-saving strategies) are realized through conventionalized lexical and syntactic clues. As practical consequences of these two implications, knowledge of arbitration clause strategic conventions can help legal professionals to understand and write arbitration clauses and also to succeed in the negotiation of conflicts. In the first case, contract drafters are provided with the guidelines for maintaining the generic integrity of arbitration clauses. In the second case, negotiators are likely to ensure success in the negotiation of conflicts since they are made aware of the interactional moves they are expected to follow.

Finally, for the LSP researcher, this paper leaves room for investigating further cross-linguistic evidence of (meta)communicative strategies conventionally used in contracts under different legal systems.

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ABSTRACT

Mitigating Conflict in Arbitration Clauses through Language

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Keywords:
language - mitigation – conflict – arbitration clauses

The aim of this paper is to analyze how language is used to sustain cooperation and mitigate the illocutionary force of conflicting assertions in contractual arbitration clauses. On the one hand, ‘cooperative’ terms and expressions are manipulated in an attempt to reinforce explicitly the binding commitment between the parties to submit to arbitration in case of conflict. On the other hand, other linguistic strategies are used to somewhat attenuate the responsibility of the party that initiates the conflict. The main theoretical framework of the analysis is Goffman’s (1967) theory of oral interaction ritual and Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory (1987) which have been adapted to the written medium of contracts. The data of the investigation is drawn from a compilation of genuine international petroleum agreements in English. We claim that arbitration clauses constitute subtypes of social interaction inserted in contracts whereby the parties are engaged in a 4-Move interchange to regulate the flow of events until the successful completion of the arbitral process. For LSP practice, the aim of this paper is twofold: to make legal professionals aware of the socio-interactional nature of arbitration clauses and of the conventional use of linguistic strategies for their writing and for a successful negotiation of conflicts. Moreover, the LSP researcher may find inspiration to investigate further cross-linguistic evidence of (meta)communicative strategies in contracts under different legal systems.

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Ways of Representing Specialized Knowledege in Finnish and Swedish Science Jounalism

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1. Introduction

For many citizens science journalism is the main source of scientific information. Science journalism in print media as well as in electronic media is in principle directed for all media users. Therefore, there is a need for specific ways of representing scientific knowledge that make specialized knowledge accessible to as wide a public as possible. In the present paper, I will discuss such ways used in science sections of daily newspapers. An other forum where many established means of representing specialized knowledge are willfully used is popular science magazines. Examples of such means are e.g. using colorful language, telling a story, personalizing the issue, and making the issue concrete. (Cf. Koskela & Pilke 2001; Thurén 2000.) However, popular science magazines have different possibilities and requirements compared with science sections in daily papers. Obviously, the aims of the texts are different: at an extreme, popular science magazines represent commercial entertainment, whereas science journalism in daily papers belongs to newspaper discourse, and is thus a form of news reporting.

A phenomenon related to the means of representing specialized knowledge mentioned above has in media studies been called *semantic tricks* (Hvitfelt 1988: 116), a term implying that these means are used for making the issues seem larger, more dramatic or simply something else than they actually are, i.e. for distorting reality. As examples of semantic tricks Hvitfelt (1988: 117-122) mentions emotional or connotative language use, metaphors, relative expressions, and unclear or imprecise language. All these means can also be used for representing specialized knowledge to a large public, for making complex ideas interesting and easier to understand. According to Hvitfelt (1988: 123), semantic tricks can be used for commercial reasons, propaganda reasons, or aesthetic reasons. Evidently, same kind of motivations can be detected in representing specialized knowledge as well, but nevertheless, the need of making complex issues understandable requires more than mere semantic tricks. In science journalism, the needs of journalism meet the requirements of popularization, and therefore, it is interesting to see what kind of ways of representing specialized knowledge are typical of science journalism.

I will begin my paper with an exploration of the nature of science journalism and its requirements in general, and related to this, I will take up some points of conflict between scientific discourse and journalistic discourse. After that I will report on the results of a study of 24 Finnish and Swedish articles on science pages of two major newspapers. I have chosen major newspapers because they publish special science pages unlike many smaller papers, and in order to avoid using only one paper, I have included papers from two countries even though I will not compare the papers with each other at this stage of my investigation. The discussion is divided into two parts. In the first part, I will discuss **expression level means** of representing specialized knowledge, in other words, means that concern the choice of words. Of such means I will concentrate on connotative language use and the use of metaphors because they seem to be the most frequent in the material. In the second part, I will discuss **paragraph/text level means** from the point of view that they affect the choice of facts in the articles. These are telling a story, personalization, and the use of examples. Obviously, the means of representing specialized knowledge on the two levels coincide and are intertwined in many ways. However, my aim is not to create an exhaustive categorization that covers all means of representing specialized knowledge in the material but rather to discuss how different means of representing specialized knowledge are used and function in the rhetorical setting of science journalism.

1.1 Science journalism and its requirements

Science journalism is a varied concept including many different kinds of texts. For some researchers science journalism only concerns medicine or natural sciences. (Cf. Väliverronen 1994: 22-23.) On the other hand, sometimes all texts in the newspaper that have some connection to research work, from news to feature articles, are considered to be science journalism (cf. Näslund 1987: 125). Typical of this view is that it is difficult to draw a line between what is science journalism and what is not. For example, if a researcher gives his expert opinion on some current issue, it could be seen as science journalism, or in fact, weather broadcasts and opinion polls could be classified as science journalism because they are based on a field of science, meteorology and statistics respectively. In my paper I will concentrate on science pages in newspapers. In the context of *information on science* (including the humanities and social sciences), science journalism, as I see it, can be placed on a continuum of information on science as presented in Figure 1.

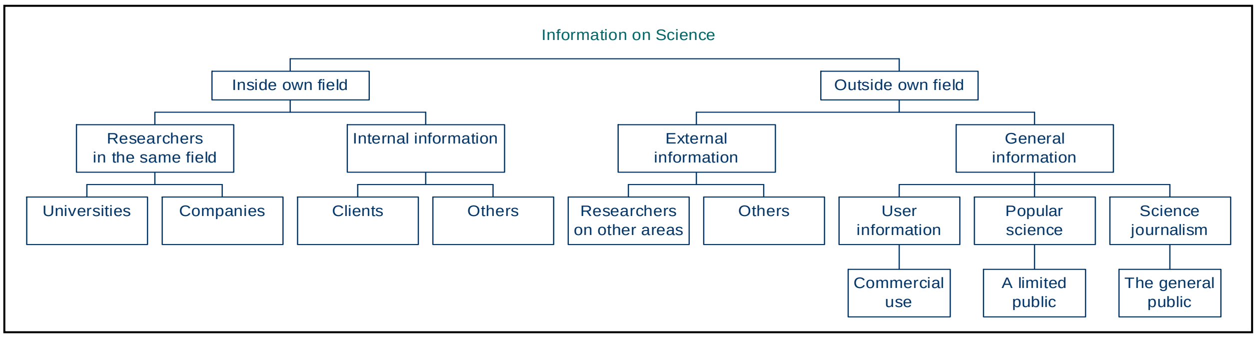

Figure 1. *A continuum of information on science (Puuronen, Koskela, Laurén & Nordman 1993: 231).*

As can be seen in the figure, science journalism represents the most general form of information on science, both when it comes to language and content, as well as its audience. It differs from popular science proper in that popular science, especially in popular science magazines, is intended for a restricted public: those who are interested in the topic and choose to read about it for pleasure or because they find it useful or educating, whereas science journalism is available for everyone who reads the newspaper. (Cf. Puuronen, Koskela, Laurén & Nordman 1993.) Special science pages in newspapers can be placed on the continuum nearest to popular science because these genres have a lot in common. For example, not all readers of newspapers actually read science pages, and this makes the idea of restricted public partly valid also for science journalism.

However, newspapers are printed to be read, and this guides the journalists' work even when writing on science. The stories on science pages may be less newsworthy than the hard-core news in the newspaper, but they still have to confirm to news values in some respects, which is not necessarily the case in popular science magazines. According to Galtung and Ruge (1973) high news value is given to issues that among other things come close to the reader, that are controversial, negative, sudden, intense, unusual, and involve elite nations or persons (see also e.g. Shoemaker & Reese 1996: 111). On science pages this can mean new findings, breakthroughs, unexpected or current worries or threats (especially of the medical or environmental kind), or the like (e.g. current science happenings like the Nobel price or national science competitions).

Interestingly, the requirements for popular science in guidelines for authors of popular science magazines (e.g. Fjæstad 1993) and in research on popular science (e.g. Eriksson & Svensson 1986) partly coincide with news values, or have similar consequences. Such requirements conclude that popular science should be **interesting**, **entertaining**, **understandable**, and additionally, it should give **correct** information. Compared with news values, it seems obvious that current issues that concern the reader closely tend to be interesting, and that intense, unusual and personalized issues are found to be entertaining. Additionally, in accordance with good journalistic practices all journalistic material in a newspaper should be correct and understandable. It is thus natural that journalists must write a language that the newspaper readers can understand. Nevertheless, the heterogeneous public always poses a challenge (cf. Shoemaker & Reese 1996: 110). Here, compromises, sometimes even semantic tricks, can be called for in all journalistic writing, but especially in reporting on science where complex ideas are to be reported so that most of the readers can understand them. An equally common demand for journalism is that the facts reported are correct, as well as critically and impartially viewed (cf. Fowler 1991: 1). For the science journalist this can be a difficult task: a layman, and most journalists are laymen when it comes to research, can seldom question scientific facts. An interesting indication of the difficulty of the task is that there is so much research on how the media distort science (e.g. Nelkin 1987). At least a part of that distortion can be caused by the extensive use of semantic tricks, which possibly also explains some of the bad name the term *popularization* is connected with.

1.2 Scientific discourse vs. journalistic discourse

As the news values and the requirements on popularization indicate, the demands on journalism in general and science journalism in particular are high. In science journalism the scientific discourse with its ideals of objectivity, neutrality, exhaustivity, and transparency meets the journalistic discourse with the need to sell, entertain and serve the public. The discourse of popularization is located in the field of tension between these two discourses, often with a preference for the features of journalistic discourse. In Figure 1 above, the discourse of popularization can strech from science journalism to different kinds of external information of science without strict limits. Some aspects creating the field of tension between scientific discourse and journalistic discourse are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. *Discourse of popularization seen in the field of tension created by the different requirements for scientific discourse and journalistic discourse.*

SCIENTIFIC DISCOURSE	**DISCOURSE OF POPULARIZATION**	**JOURNALISTIC DISCOURSE**
for scientific community	for interested public	for general public
abstract	explaining abstract by concrete →	concrete
what is? theoretical, methods	theory, methods, only when → necessary	what happens? practical, results
neutral, transparent, explicit, logical, rational, detached	intellectually stimulating →	inspiring, personal
everything into account, detailed, precise	general, sometimes interesting details focused	general, even at the cost of distortion of the whole
ready when the research question can be answered	ready on deadline	ready on deadline
careful conclusions	interesting conclusions only, future prospects	speculating, aggravating

As can be seen in Table 1, the discourse of popularization has to combine many of the requirements of scientific discourse with the often opposing needs of journalistic discourse. From this conflict should evolve a consensus in the form of lucid and engaging prose that the readers want to read and that transmits the facts as correctly as possible. Of course, the aspects taken up in the table are simplifications, but it is likely that articles in popular science magazines have better chances of taking into account the requirements of scientific discourse whereas science journalism in daily papers needs to conform more to the needs of journalistic discourse.

2. Means of representing specialized knowledge in *Helsingin Sanomat* and *Dagens Nyheter*

The material of my study has been collected from the science pages in *Helsingin Sanomat* (HS) from Finland and *Dagens Nyheter* (DN) from Sweden in the spring/summer 2001 by randomly choosing two articles per month during the research period. Both papers are large dailies with national coverage. In the present study I have included the main stories on the science pages in these papers. The material consists of 12 articles from HS and 12 articles from DN (two articles/month in february-july 2001) (see Appendix 1). The length of the articles varies but generally covers half of a newspaper page (including visuals).

The simultaneous confirmation to journalistic and popular scientific requirements can be detected already in the selection of topics in the science sections of the newspapers studied. Many of the topics fulfill at least the news value criteria of timeliness and proximity (e.g. *Suuri neutriinikoe Genius Suomeen* [The big neutrino test Genius to Finland]) on the one hand, and/or the criteria of controversy (e.g. *Sex i sängen – barn i provrör* [Sex in bed – children in the tube]) and unusuality (e.g. *Revontulentekijät kuumentavat hiukkasia* [Creators of Northern Lights heat up particles]) on the other hand. Based on the topics discussed on the science pages during the research period, it seems possible that topic selection would shed some light on differences between popular science magazines and science journalism in other respects as well, as could the choice of fields of science represented.

The fields of science represented in the material are varied. In the Finnish material, best represented are the often-popularized astronomy (3 articles) and biology (2 articles). Of the traditionally often-popularized fields, medicine lacks almost totally (represented only by one article on sports physiology), whereas somewhat more unusual fields like geophysics, music research and ecological history are each represented by one article, as are computer science and national economics. In the Swedish material fewer and more “traditional” fields for popularization are represented: medicine (4 articles), archeology (3 articles), and astronomy (2 articles) are completed by biology and linguistics. The material is small and the results cannot be generalized, but the choice of fields naturally reflects not only contemporary events and current discussions in society but also the editorial policy of the newspaper in question.

2.1 Expression level means

In the material studied both the so-called semantic tricks and other means of representing specialized knowledge are present in different combinations. However, it seems there are fewer explicit means used in science journalism than in popular science magazines (cf. Koskela & Pilke 2001). With respect to the (claimed) commercialization of the popular science magazines, this is hardly surprising (cf. e.g. Kauhanen 1998: 303). What makes the use of linguistic means of representing specialized knowledge in science journalism especially interesting, is that earlier research gives two contradicting views on journalistic language: on the one hand, it is claimed that the language of journalism is at its best when it is "invisible", even objective (cf. e.g. Okkonen 1986: 210), and on the other hand it has been stated that journalistic language is always dramatic and exaggerating, "*ett allmänt dramatiskt och överdrivet språk*" (Hvitfelt 1988: 114). In my material, the invisible, neutral language prevails, but dramatizing and sometimes even exaggerating instances complement it. The number and frequency of these instances varies from one topic to another, one field to the other, as well as from one writer to the other.

According to Hvitfelt (1988: 117 f.) the use of connotative language is common in journalism, and it is used to create a dramatic impression in order to make the text more interesting and in order to add the text the news value that is otherwise lacking. In science journalism, the main reason for the use of connotative, "colorful" language seems to be the need to make the text more interesting and concrete (cf. Table 1 above):

> **Example 1.** Suomalaistutkijoilla ja Eiscat-järjestöllä on laaja, viikon pituinen **mittausisku**…(F1)
> [The Finnish researchers and the organization Eiscat will have a large, one week long **measurement attack…**]
>
> **Example 2.** Universums **härskare** heter gravitationen. Det är **en oresonlig kraft** som föser ihop galaxer som är på drift genom rymden. (S6)
> [The **ruler** of the universe is called gravitation. It is **a relentless power** that pushes together galaxies that are drifting across the space.]

In example 1, the science journalist has chosen to call a series of measurements an *attack*, a military metaphor with many connotations. This is a way of making a possibly monotonous standard procedure in research work sound special and interesting. In example 2 the idea of gravitation is explained in a very dramatic way. In these examples, the use of emotional and connotative expressions indeed seems to be a semantic trick motivated by a combination of commercial and aesthetic reasons. In accordance with Hvitfelt (1988), I have categorized all means of making the text interesting and accessible as commercial reasons, and all means of making the text sound and look attractive as aesthetic reasons. Evidently, these reasons often coincide.

The same combination of motivations can be detected in the “play on words” used by some journalists, especially in the Finnish material. The “verbal acrobatics” seems to be combined with certain topics (e.g. birds and insects in my material) and certain writers (Kivipelto, Engström). An interesting regularity can also be found in the fact that the nearer the topic of the text is to everyday life (for the concepts of everyday knowledge vs. scientific knowledge see e.g. Laaksovirta 1986: 57), the less explicit semantic tricks/means of representing specialized knowledge seem to be called for. When phenomena known to everyone, like food allergies or snow, are discussed few colorful expressions are used, but when astronomy or physics is discussed more explicit means of representing specialized knowledge are needed. Examples 3 and 4 illustrate the play on words in the material.

> **Example 3**. Tähtitieteilijät kuitenkin tietävät, että painovoima ohjaa kaikkea liikettä ***niin maan päällä kuin taivaissa***. (F10)
> [However, astronomers know that gravitation guides all movement **on earth as it does on heaven**.]
>
> **Example 4.** För många fåglar blir **en väloljad röst det främsta vapnet**. **Sångduellerna** avlöser varandra. På sina håll **exploderar** nästan varje buske i ett intensivt kvitter. (S7)
> [For many birds **a well-oiled voice** becomes **the most important weapon**. One **song duel** gives way to another. In some places almost every bush **explodes** into an intensive cooing.]

In example 3 the writer makes an allusion to Lord’s prayer. The wording is old fashioned and poetic, and stands in an interesting contrast with the otherwise fact-based presentation, and perhaps the religious allusion emphasizes the importance of the topic. This again can be seen as an attempt to add news value to the text. In example 4, the singing of birds has inspired the writer into using a highly figurative language. In these examples, the aesthetic motives can be considered to weigh heavier than the commercial ones, even though both are present.

The use of metaphors is also characterized as a semantic trick, often used for propaganda purposes (Hvitfelt 1988: 117). However, in popular science, metaphoric language seems to be more motivated by the need to explain something new with something that is commonly known (Thurén 2000: 42). In the latter case the term *metaphor* even includes comparisons and analogies which both are often categorized as examples (cf. Koskela & Pilke 2001). The power of metaphors in organizing and explaining specialized knowledge has long been recognized, and metaphors are also a way of mediating specialized knowledge into everyday knowledge (cf. e.g. Stålhammar 1997: 10).

More interesting than the so-called dead metaphors that are often used automatically without deliberate reflection (examples 5 and 6), are the fresh metaphors created for the purposes of the text in question (examples 7 and 8) for rhetorical reasons.

Example 5. …Hoylen pilkka **osui omaan nilkkaan** (F10)
[Hoyle was **hoisted with his own petard**.]

Example 6. Då **grävde** Celeras och Hugos representanter **ned stridsyxan**. (S2)
[That is when the representatives of Celera and Hugo **buried the hatchet**.]

In examples 5 and 6, the figures of speech are surely deliberate choices by the writer, and the motivation for using them is probably the need to write a lively text. More creativity is needed, however, when fresh metaphors are created, or quoted.

Example 7. Jos niitä käyttävien astronomien ajatukset **hoipertelevat** tuolla tavoin, voiko tuloksiin ollenkaan luottaa? (S3)
[If the thoughts of the astronomers using them **stagger** that much can the results be reliable?]

Example 8. Nya rön om glutenintolerans kan förklara varför **inbördeskriget** startar. (S12)
[New research results on the intolerance of gluteine can explain why the **civil war** starts.]

In example 7 the journalist describes how extreme heights affect human functions. Because telescopes are often located in high places, she infers that astronomers probably suffer from the lack of oxygen. This again can affect their thinking negatively; *make their thoughts stagger*, which makes the journalist doubt the reliability of the results of high ground observations. This line of thought has been illustrated by a relatively fresh metaphor of *staggering thoughts*. In example 8 the journalist describes how the human immune defense mechanism can attack the body by mistake and uses the expression *civil war* in a creative way. These metaphors illustrate the descriptive use of language by which the scientific knowledge is brought closer to everyday knowledge (cf. Laaksovirta 1986: 57). At the same time, they are commercially motivated in making the test more interesting for the reader.

2.2 Paragraph/ text level means

The expression level means of representing specialized knowledge described above usually concern the question **how** something is said, i.e. choice of words. This, of course, is an important question in science journalism where the conventions of journalism meet those of science. The other means of representing specialized knowledge found in my material concern, on the contrary, **what** is said, namely the selection of facts, which also poses an important question in the field of tensions between the two discourses involved. In this chapter I will briefly discuss three phenomena that can be characterized as means of representing specialized knowledge from the point of view of the selection of facts (i.e. phenomena on paragraph level or on textual level): telling a story, personalization, and very briefly examples (for a more comprehensive account on the use of examples see Koskela & Pilke 2001).

One of the most powerful means of representing specialized knowledge to a large public is to give it the form of a story. A story is cognitively easy to read, understand and remember. (Cf. e.g. Niederhauser 1999: 198.) A story also entails that only those facts that fit into the line of thought presented in the story can be taken into account, whereas other things that may be otherwise important for the research must be left out. The relevance of these facts in the research does not make them relevant for the story. This is certainly one point where the often discussed distortion of science by the media in scientists' view takes place.

In my material of 24 articles, only one article is as a whole based on a story. All the other articles in my material are structured as journalistic presentations where description and interview comments are intertwined. Therefore, it seems that building a whole article on a story is a strong tool within the journalistic context and that it fits better in the context of popular science magazines. The only story in my material is about an owl called *Amanda* who lives in a place called *Orimattila* and tries to reproduce with little success, and this gives a starting point for a more general discussion of natural selection.

Another powerful way of representing specialized knowledge is personalization. Whereas science is mainly interested in facts, in what has been done and found out, popular science takes an interest in the people behind the facts (cf. Fjæstad 1993). In my material there is only one article where researchers are not mentioned by name or interviewed. That article is a news story about an international experiment that is going to be carried out in Finland, and it is structured as any other news item in the newspaper. The following example again illustrates how scientific ideas can be personalized:

> **Example 9.** Myten om humlan kan spåras tillbaka till en bok från 1934 av **insektsforskaren Antoine Magnan**. **Hans assistent, en ingejör vid namn André Sainte-Lague**, hade beräknat den maximala kraften från ett par flygplansvingar lika små som humlans. Ekvationerna visade att humlans vingar är på tok för små. Men som alla vet flyger humlor alldeles utmärkt. Ganska snart insåg man att André Sainte-Lagues tabbe var att han jämställde humlans vingar med vingarna hos ett flygplan men då var det för sent. (S10)
> [The myth of the bee can be traced back to a book from 1934 by **the insect researcher Antoine Magnan**. **His assistant, an engineer by the name André Sainte-Lague,** had calculated that the maximum force on a couple of airplane wings was as small as on a bee. The equations showed that bee's wings are far too small. However, as we all know, bees are perfectly capable of flying. Very soon it was realized that the mistake André Sainte-Lague had made was that he compared bee's wings with the wings of an airplane, but at that point it was too late.]

The example discusses the myth that it is technically impossible for bees to fly. The myth is personalized into a research assistant making a mistake, which is a good example of personification. Additionally, it brings the human aspect, the possibility of a mistake, into the often so inhuman world of science concentrating on facts.

The idea that persons representing the elite have a high news value does not seem to apply fully to science journalism: the assistant in example 9 is an unknown person as are most of the persons mentioned in the material. They are not celebrities, but in most cases doctoral students or professional researchers who are given the possibility to express themselves.

A final means of representing specialized knowledge discussed here will be the use of examples. Most of the articles in my material (20 of 24) include some examples that can be longer lists of phenomena, short explanations or comparisons making the abstract concrete. The latter type of example is at the same time a form of concretization, as examples often are. In my material the favorite way of describing how big an area is seems to be comparing it with a football field (examples 10 and 11). The solution of what to compare with of course reflects the values of the culture we live in.

> **Example 10.** Ionosfäärin kuumennin koostuu **kolmesta jalkapallokentän kokoisesta** antennipellosta. (F1)
> [The heater of the ionosphere consists of **three fields of antennas of the size of three football fields**.]

> **Example 11.** Caral, som täckte en markyta motsvarande **minst tre fotbollsplaner**…
> [Caral that covered an area corresponding to **at least three football fields**…] (S8)

The examples above help the reader to put the phenomena discussed into the right perspective, even though it does not reveal the relative size compared with other similar phenomena, for example, if *Caral*, an ancient city in Peru, is bigger than other ancient cities. The following example also shows how a comparison can be used to bring the everyday world closer to the world of research.

> **Example 12.** Sellaisten (=platinaromppu) ilmestyminen kauppoihin on tosin yhtä epätodennäköistä kuin **arkielämää kestävien sukkahousujen**. (F7)
> [That such (=platinum cd:s) should come into the stores is as unlikely as the appearance of **a panty hose that can endure everyday life**.]

In example 12 the, of course female, writer compares the possibility to buy platinum cd-roms in a department store with a panty hose that can endure the hazards of everyday life. In this almost banal way she succeeds in bringing the technical world of computers closer to the reader. At the same time, the unexpected curiosity taken up adds to the news value of the story.

The three means of representing specialized knowledge discussed in this chapter, telling a story, personalization, and the use of examples, illustrate the important fact that popularization is not only a linguistic question, but rather, a question of the choice of facts in order to meet the needs and interests of the audience. As ways of representing specialized knowledge these means are rather powerful and therefore, they are deliberate choices by the writers and not automatic results of journalistic conduct.

3. Conclusion

When scientific discourse meets journalistic discourse a new kind of discourse is created. However, this popular scientific discourse is not uniform. There is variation depending on the purpose of the presentation and on what aspects are emphasized. Differences can be detected on the linguistic level as well as on the content level.

In science journalism, the linguistic means of representing specialized knowledge often take the form of "local" strategies. This means that the specialized knowledge is mainly presented in a neutral journalistic language, good when invisible (as far as there is such a phenomenon as neutral language). Examples of such local, often semantic, means are the use of emotive and connotative language and the use of metaphors. These are used for aesthetic and commercial reasons in order to make science interesting, entertaining, and understandable.
On content level, more "global" means, i.e. selecting interesting facts and presenting them in an attractive way, are used. Telling a story and putting the person in the center of the story are examples of this. However, it seems that these means can sometimes be too strong for journalistic discourse where the journalistic conduct more or less dictates the relation between content and form. This puts the position of popular scientific discourse between scientific discourse and journalistic discourse into a new light and gives it a somewhat more independent role.

Popular science is often said to distort scientific information. This is probably the case even in science journalism, especially on the content level where the selection of facts is at issue (cf. Koskela & Puuronen 1995). Even though the facts delivered are correct, however colorfully expressed, they may not be the facts that scientists themselves consider to be the most important. An interesting subject for further study is therefore the selection of topics and fields of science in science journalism compared with popular science magazines. In this way a more comprehensive picture of how science is represented for the general public can be formed.

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APPENDIX 1.

The material of the study (F stands of Finnish, S for Swedish):

F1. Mainio, Tapio: Revontulien tekijät kuumentavat hiukkasia. HS 17.2.2001.
F2. Repo, Päivi: Suomen hangissa on kuutta lajia lunta. HS 24.2.2001.
F3. Kivipelto, Arja: Vuorilla keuhkot haukkovat happea. HS 3.3.2001.
F4. Kauhanen, Erkki A.: Suuri neutriinikoe Genius Suomeen. HS 17.3.2001.
F5. Kauhanen, Erkki A.: Tässä tulevat marsilaiset. HS 7.4.2001.
F6. Kauhanen, Erkki A.: Viirupöllö on hyvä sijoittaja. HS 28.2.2001.
F7. Kivipelto, Arja: Digitieto ei säily lukukelpoisena kuten kirjat. HS 12.5.2001.
F8. Järventaus, Kaarina: Talouden kitaan virtaa yhä enemmän ainetta. HS 26.5.2001.
F9. Järventaus, Kaarina: Pilaantumisen ja pelastumisen tarinat tarpeen. HS 2.6.2001.
F10. Paukku, Timo: Ihana kajo – MAP kartoittaa kaiken alkua. HS 30.6.2001.
F11. Mannila, Johanna: Euroopan kylien ääni: kirkonkelloja ja autoja. HS 7.7.2001.
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S1. Bergström, Hans: Sex i sängen – barn i provrör. DN 10.2.2001
S2. Bojs, Karin: Gener färre men mer mångsidiga. DN 12.2.2001
S3. Fredholm, Lotta: Den utmätta tiden. DN 3.3.2001
S4. Engström, Ulrika: Materia på gränsen till nervsammanbrott. DN 17.3.2001
S5. Ganuza, Natalia: Håll ett öra på språket. DN 28.4.2001

S6. Ulrika: Heta möten när galaxer krockar. DN 14.4.2001
S7. Nilsson, Johan: Fågelungar drillas i sång. DN 12.5.2001
S8. Lindgren, Eva: Högkultur i Peru för 4600 år sedan. DN 1.5.2001
S9. Bojs, Karin: En dos kokain ändrar hjärnan. DN 2.6.2001
S10. Nilsson, Johan: Humlans hemliga flykt. DN 16.6.2001
S11. Bojs, Karin: "Lucys" förfader funnen. DN 11.7.2001
S12. Fredholm, Lotta: Glutenrön förklarar diabetes 25.7.2001

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ABSTRACT

Ways of Representing Specialized Knowledge in Finnish and Swedish Science Journalism

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Keywords:
science journalism/ specialized knowledge/ scientific discourse/ journalistic discourse/ examples

In science journalism the features of scientific discourse and journalistic discourse meet. From this meeting evolves yet another type of discourse, a popular scientific one. Popular scientific discourse on its part comprises different kinds of information on science that is directed to a non-professional readership. In the present paper ways of representing specialized knowledge in science journalism are discussed, and articles from two newspapers are analyzed with respect to expression level means of popularization (e.g. choice of words, the use of metaphors) and text level means of popularization (e.g. telling stories, the use of examples). The results of the analysis show that specialized knowledge is mainly presented in a neutral journalistic language, but emotive and connotative language as well as metaphors are used in order to make science interesting, entertaining, and understandable. Additionally, telling a story, personalization, and examples are used as ways of representing specialized knowledge, which shows that popularization is not only a linguistic question, but also, a question of the choice of facts in order to meet the needs and interests of the audience.

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A Genre Analysis of Corporate Home Pages

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1. Introduction[1]

A genre is a conventionalised way of using language in a particular recurrent social situation. New genres appear to answer new rhetorical needs in a discourse community, their form and function being determined by these needs. The introduction of the Internet as a new communications medium has given rise to the appearance of a plethora of digital genres, or cybergenres, which have features deriving from the capabilities afforded by this new medium (Shepherd and Watters, 1998).

Shepherd and Watters (1998) distinguish between extant cybergenres, based on genres existing in other media, and novel cybergenres, with no real counterpart in other media. The home page is one of the genres that have emerged spontaneously (Crowston and Williams, 1997; Shepherd and Watters, 1998). Dillon and Gushorowski (2000) suggest that the personal home page has evolved into a standard form that might be considered the first truly digital genre. The personal home page and the corporate home page (henceforth CHP) are sometimes considered as categories belonging to the home page genre (Shepherd and Watters, 1999). However, personal home pages (PHPs) and corporate home pages have features different enough to be considered separate genres. Roberts (1998: 80) establishes the following distinction between the PHP and the CHP: "PHPs are narratives, whereas Commercial Home Pages (CHPs) are not. CHPs are mostly advertisements regarding a company's products or services." This description, however, only focuses on one aspect of corporate home pages, without reflecting the complexity of this genre. In their study of the functions of corporate home pages, Mannion and Sullivan (1999) state that CHPs act as image creating tools and as gatekeepers to control information about the company that the potential customer may receive. The CHP is a multi-purpose genre used to construct the company's identity and image, by giving selected information related to the company, and to persuade potential consumers to use the company products or services. CHPs could be considered to belong to what Fairclough (1992) refers to as "hybrid information-and-publicity (or telling and selling discourse)", a new discourse type which is constituted through a mixture of existing types.

The CHP is not only a genre of increasing importance for corporations, but also a dominant genre on the Internet (Mannion and Sullivan, 1999). The knowledge of the generic features of CHPs guide the writers in the production of any instance of the genre and help the readers to better comprehend, process, and interact with the text. The purpose of this research was to analyse the elements that are characteristic of CHPs, and their function. For that purpose I examined 72 CHPs belonging to a specific area: computing company home pages. The pages examined were those listed on the page "Computer company home pages" (http://www.bris.ac.uk/is/services/computers/general/compcos.htm). Following Dillon and Gushorowski’s (2000) analysis of personal home pages I identified the elements (i.e. components of the pages, such as graphics, internal or external links, etc) that occurred on the CHPs and counted the number of pages that contained each element. These elements were classified according to their function on the CHP. This analysis was then used to characterise the CHP in terms of purpose, functionality, content and form.

2. Defining genre

It is usually easy to identify the genre to which a particular text belongs, but it is quite difficult to define a specific genre. The difficulty lies in the fact that a genre cannot be defined in terms of a list of linguistic features that it should include or in terms of formal criteria that it must meet. Paltridge (1995: 395) states that in order to assign a specific text to a genre we do not draw on internal linguistic properties, but on pragmatic and perceptual aspects of the communicative event. Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995: 17) consider that individual texts “contain heterogeneous mixtures of elements, some of which are recognisably more generic than others”. A text is a more or less prototypical instance of a genre. Thus, language patterns are not features by which a genre might be defined, but elements which can be seen as characteristic of a particular genre (Paltridge, 1995).

There are several aspects that can help us to characterise a specific genre. Swales (1991) and Bhatia (1993) consider that the rationale for a genre is the set of communicative purposes which it serves. This set of purposes determines the particular features of the genre in terms of schematic structure, style and content. Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995: 4), drawing on Bakhtin, see genres are "dynamic rhetorical forms that are developed from actor's responses to recurrent situations". They take the stance that in order to characterise a genre it is necessary to consider the recurrent social situation to which the genre responds and the discourse community that owns the genre. In their view, genre knowledge includes both form and content (the topics that are "appropriate to a particular purpose in a particular situation"). Yates and Orlikowski (1992) also regard genres as “typified social actions" and define them as "typified communicative actions characterised by similar substance and form and taken in response to recurrent situations" (Yates and Orlikowski, 1992: 299). Fairclough (1992: 126) observes that rather than being only a specific type of text, a genre involves a specific mode of text production, distribution and consumption. Researchers on digital genres place special emphasis on the mode of transmission. Roberts (1997) defines genre as: "texts that have a similar set of purposes, mode of transmission and discourse properties". Shepherd and Watters (1999) claim that in order to characterise a cybergenre it is necessary to consider its function or functionality (i.e. the capabilities afforded by the Internet).

Since genres are dynamic communicative events which "change over time in response to their users' sociocognitive needs" (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995: 4), the linguistics and structural features shared by instances of the genre should not be seen as necessary, but as more or less typical elements of the genre.

3. Elements of CHPs

The different elements that may occur in CHPs can be classified into four groups according to their function: a) creating a positive image of the company; b) introducing and offering products; c) strengthening the relation with the customer; d) asking and giving information about the page itself.

A) Creating a positive image of the company.

The following elements have this purpose:

1. Company slogans or product catchphrases placed at the centre of the page. Some examples of these slogans are the following:

(1) Everywhere you look (*Adobe*)
The center of your digital lifestyle (*Apple*)
Cisco Connection online: the worldwide leaders in networking for the Internet (*Cisco Connections*)
Discover all that's possible on the Internet (*Cisco Connections*)
Helping people connect (*Dell*)
Minolta QMS- the essentials of imaging (*Minolta QMS*)
As essential as water, air, sun and wheat- MINOLTA-QMS for the future imaging
The logic to change everything (*LSI*)
The leader in storage and computing innovations worldwide (*American Megatrends*)

These slogans may use a "you" approach: they address the individual and imply that the company offers the best services and products to help the potential customer manage in the computing and digital world. A "we" approach can also be used by focusing on the company and depicting it as the leading company in the field. Home pages can also display catchphrases based on wordplays to associate the company with positive ideas. For instance, “Dell” company shows the slogan “Easy as Dell” on its page, playing on the phrase “Easy as hell”.

2. Brief introduction to the company. Like the slogan, this brief introduction always includes words that evaluate the company positively, highlighting its leadership, importance, long experience, etc. This brief introduction usually comes after a welcome notice.

(2) a. MathSoft is the leading provider of math, science and engineering software solutions for business, academia, research and government (*MathSoft*)

b. Over the last 25 years, Viglen has grown to become the largest and most successful UK computer manufacturer- a position that has been achieved through an unwavering commitment to excellence (*Viglen*)

c. LSI is everywhere, driving the access, interconnect and storage of voice, video and data over the Internet with leading-edge semiconductors *(LSI*)

d. Rockwell Automation is uniquely focused on becoming the most valued global provider of power, control and information solutions for automation. Backed by leading brands like Allen-Bradley, Reliance Electric, Dodge and Rockwell Software, our mission is to help companies in virtually every industry cut costs, streamline productivity and speed time to market (*Rockwell Automation*)

3. Positive announcements and news headings related to the company, with links to the full story. As these news headings are self-selected by the company they only deal with positive aspects, and do not reveal unpleasant information or information harmful to the company image. These pieces of news, which provide an incomplete and biased image of the company, are used by companies to act as gatekeepers, controlling information (Mannion and Sullivan, 1999). Companies can distribute information offering their view on an event and they can collect information on the company itself that can influence the readers’ opinion.

(3) a. hp launches new line of digital cameras and printers.
hp wins global IT services agreement with Nokia.
hp and Compaq agree to merge (*Hewlett Packard*)

b. Fujitsu selects ATI’s MOBILITY™ RADEON™ chip.
See what analysis are saying about ATI’s MOBILITY™ RADEON™ 7500 (*ATI Technologies*)

Some CHPs do not include news headings, but have a link to the company pressroom or newsroom. The pressroom offers services that the company considers interesting for customers, e.g. corporate and product news, product data sheets.

4. Internal links to more information about the company. The purpose of these links is not to provide information, but to present the company as economically sound, dynamic, continually developing and improving, etc. There are links to information about the company, training, events, seminars, and company awards. A high number of home pages (86% in the sample analysed) also include links to

corporate news and economic information related to the company (e.g. the stock quote of the company or the company earnings release during a specific period). Disclosure of information is, according to Mannion and Sullivan (1999), an important function of company home pages. Companies want this information on their pages because financial information has a great impact on investment choices. Another highly frequent link on CHPs is the "jobs/ careers" link. This way, the home page becomes a channel to advertise jobs.

5. Any kind of important information, or graphics with a symbolic value, that help convey a positive image of the company (or links to that kind of information). For instance, the centre of the home page of "Dell" was occupied by a picture of the statue of liberty with the U.S.A. flag on the background. The text accompanying the image was: "With heavy hearts and in the face of great challenge, the men and women of Dell are proud to rise and serve with a world united", and in smaller letters "Dell is doing what we can to help by expediting emergency requests related to these events. These requests have top priority at Dell. Click for more information." The only external links in the pages analysed were related to the attacks on September 11th. A high number of pages included links to information on how to help or links to the Red Cross.

B) Introducing and offering products

Homepages are used as advertising texts, to inform potential customers about the company products and services, and as channels to make commercial transactions easier. The following elements have this purpose:

1. Showcase, which gives the potential customer the possibility to have a look at all the products and services offered by the company. This showcase usually takes the form of a bar of buttons, with pull-down menus, each one with a label, such as "store", "products", "support", "solutions", "technical resources". With the help of these pull-down menus, the writer can offer detailed information of the product or service, without overloading the page with unsolicited advertising. The labels on the bar of buttons may also refer to the type of reader/ customer at whom the information behind each button may interest. For instance, the bar of buttons at the top of "ATI Technologies" home page has the following labels: gamer, videophile, home user, business user, channel partner, developer. This category listing allows the reader to have a general overview of all the possibilities and to enter the page that interests him/her.

2. Adverts of new products, sometimes with a flashing or highlighted "now available", to let the users know what is new. Adverts on CHPs can take many forms. Sometimes the advert just consists in a graphic of the product with a brief evaluative description. The user has to click on the graphic to get more detailed information. The evaluative description is often longer, as illustrated by the following examples:

(4) a. **Diamond Mako**TM **-** The Connected Organizer
Upgrade productivity with the Diamond Mako connected organizer. Maximizing productivity on the go, Mako offers e-mail, Internet, calendar and contact management, word-processing and spreadsheet solutions. For more information on the Diamond Mako connected organizer, please visit www.diamondmako.com. *(Diamond)*

b. **Supra®** - Reliable Faster Modems
A complete line of award-winning high-speed fax/modems that include the highly successful SupraExpress and SupraMax series of products. (*Diamond*)

Nearly in all cases where a product is advertised on the home page the advert provides a link to another page of the Web site where the product is described in more detail.

The home page may also include product specifications. Unlike adverts, product specifications give an impression of objectivity. They consist in a detailing of the technical features of the product. The potential customer can click on an icon to access a more detailed specification sheet:

(5) Intel Tehama 82850 & 82801BA Chipset
Socket 423
Support Pentium 4 Processor
Four 184-pin RIMMs, up to 2GB
Support PC600, PC800
Support UltraDMA 66/100
AC97 Audio Codec on board
5 PCI slots, 1 CNR slot
1 4X AGP slot (AGP Pro optional)
ATX Size (305 mm x 244 mm) (*ECS Elitegroup*)

3. Offers and incentives. CHPs sometimes offer incentives that make the services or products more attractive.

a. Attend a free launch event and receive rebates and special offers. U.S. only.
Attend PDC 2001 and be first to get the code and tools for XML Web services. Register now and save.
Win a Dream PC for Life. Enter to win the grand prize, plus more than 1,000 others. (*Microsoft*)

b. Want to win $1000 in WebCash, click here.
For each new subscriber between now and October 15th, 2001, Mikrotec is donating $10.00 to a county school system in Kentucky or West Virginia (*Mikrotec*)

"Offering incentives" is also an element typically found in sales promotion letters

(Bhatia, 1993).

4. Link to the virtual store. Many pages offer the customer the possibility to buy online, thereby reducing marketing costs and making it easier for the potential customer to buy the products. Another way of facilitating the acquisition of the products is to include a link to information about the company retail locations.

C) Strengthening the relation with the potential consumer

The function of many elements of a home page is to make readers feel at "home" and convince them that the company will do its best to meet their needs. The elements with this function are the following:

1. Thank you notes/ welcome message

 (7) Welcome to MathSoft Engineering & Education, Inc.

2. Personalising and offering information/ services for different types of customers. Many pages offer the possibility for customers to register online and customise the content of the page, so as to receive only the information that interests them. When accessing a Website consumers are in control and do not need to spend time looking at information in which they are not interested. Readers can also register online to get special services and features (e.g. software updates, expert technical support, special offers, and early notifications of product upgrades). This way the company establishes a closer relationship with the reader/ customer, and, additionally, a database of consumers can be created.

 (8) Which is your area of interest? Create your own custom profile (*ATI Technologies*)

3. Possibility to see the page in other languages with the option "choose a country" or "worldwide". There were two sites (“Epson” and “BTC” homepages) where the cover page just asked the readers to choose an area from which they could access the company affiliates around the world (and thus to choose a language).

4. Contact. Possibility to contact by e-mail or a phone number to call.

5. Links to free of charge products and services, such as downloads and free demos. Another free benefit for potential customers is the access to newsletters. Users can even get the newsletter sent to them by e-mail. Mannion and Sullivan (1999) offer two reasons why companies may give services/ products without charge: first, companies use this strategy to attract attention and interest to the product; second, this is a way to communicate leadership or excellence. The links to technical support offered by a high number of home pages have the same objective.

6. Feedback to customers. There are links to order status, to feedback to customers or to FAQs, whose purpose is to establish an ongoing relationship with the customer.

7. Links to the company's community of users, by means of newsgroups access.

8. Graphics, to make the page more visually attractive, and icons, to make a more user-friendly interface. 91.2% of the CHPs analysed had pictures, images and drawings, although only 19.4% (14) of the pages had more than 5 pictures or drawings. Most pages that included graphics had one big picture in the centre of the page. There were also icons indicating what is behind the link and logos of the company products. Some pages offered some kind of animation, although this was very limited, usually consisting of changing graphics or images.

D) Asking and giving information about the page itself

The following elements have this function:

1. Date and update.

2. Counter: number of users who have visited the page.

3. Link to the webmaster e-mail. Possibility to contact the webmaster with questions and problems.

4. Asking for the readers' feedback (e.g. rate this page) or asking the customer to fill in a survey.

5. Proposing things to do with the page: add to favourites/ e-mail this page.

6. Information about (or links to) site awards.

7. Copyright information.

8. Links to legal information. Legal notices, terms of use, online privacy statement.

Table 1 shows the frequency of each of the elements described above:

Function/ element	**Total of 72**	**Total by %**
A) Creating a positive image of the company		
* Company slogan	26	36.1
* Positive announcements and news related to the company	65	90.2
* Brief introduction to the company	17	23.6
* Internal links to information about the company		
- “About the company” link	50	69.4
- Corporate news and information	46	63.9
- Economic information	16	22
- Additional information: training, events, seminars, etc.	35	49
- Jobs and careers	29	40.2
- External links to information of general interest	35	49
- Links to other companies	1	1.3
B) Introducing and offering products		
* Showcase	57	79.2
* Adverts of new products	53	73.6
* Offers and incentives	16	22
* Links to the virtual store	39	54.2
C) Strengthening the relation with the potential customer		
* Thank you notes/ welcome message	12	16.7
* Personalising and registering online	23	31.9
* "Choose a country" feature	47	65.3
* Contact	39	54.2
* Links to free of charge products and services	30	41.7
* Technical support.	44	61.1
* Access to newsletters	4	5.5
* Feedback to customers	9	12.5
* Newsgroups access	4	5.5
* Graphics		
- Pictures, images and drawings	66	91.2
- Icons	15	20.8
- Logos	22	30.5
- Animation	6	8.3
D) Asking and giving information about the page itself		
* Date/ update	9	12.5
* Number of users	3	4.1
* Link to the Webmaster e-mail	4	5.5
* Asking for the readers’ feedback.	7	9.7
* Proposing things to do with the page	1	1.3
* Information about (or links to) side awards	7	9.5
* Copyright information	68	94.5
* Legal notices/ terms of use/ online privacy statement	65	90.2

Table 1. *Frequency of elements in corporate home pages*

4. Characterising the genre of CHPs

1) Purpose

CHPs are used by companies to communicate with potential customers and investors and with other companies. The analysis of the most frequent elements in CHPs and of their function shows that the CHP is a multi-purpose genre, with both an informative and a persuasive goal. Many of the elements of CHPs offer information, but this information has been carefully chosen and presented with the objective of creating a positive image of the company. Thus, the primary purpose of these pages seems to be image building. Image building is achieved in several ways, e.g. through promotion and evaluation, by offering services and customer support. Although the CHP is not based on a specific previously existing genre, it shares many features with promotional genres, especially with sales promotion letters. It also incorporates elements from other genres, such as adverts or news.

Promotional strategies and elements are a pervasive component throughout CHPs. Evaluative vocabulary is used in CHPs to present the company under a positive light: both the company and the products and services offered are evaluated positively in order to persuade the potential customers to get the product or in order to convince them of the quality of the products and services. This is a strategy also exploited by writers of sales promotion letters for product detailing (Bhatia, 1993).

The following examples were taken from the home page of "Dell" company:

(9) **Servers & Storage**
Engineered for high performance, maximum uptime, serviceability, and ease of management.

Notebooks & Desktops
Harnessing the power of emerging technology for top performance, serious multitasking & high productivity.

Another strategy typical of promotional writing frequently used in CHPs is to convince readers that they have a problem (Bhatia, 1993) and offer solutions that will solve their problem or meet their needs.

(10) How fast can you transform host information into Web-based solutions?

Today. Get an immediate Web presence by converting host applications to Web pages on-the-fly.

This Week. Add graphics and customize Web pages using templates and editing tools.

30 Days. Create new Web applications that integrate multiple data sources and business processes for impressive results in record time.

Right Now. Begin with **OnWeb QuickStart.** (*NetManage*)

(11) Enhance server data performance, security and efficiency to grow your business.
Get connected to today hottest peripheral and take control of your multimedia and digital content (*CI Adaptec*)

2) Functionality

The functionality of a digital genre must be discussed taking into account the purpose of the genre, since the functional features of the page are designed with the end-user and the purpose of the genre in mind (Shepherd and Watters, 1999).

CHPs are highly dynamic texts, which lack the fixity of printed texts and are changed and revised almost on a daily basis. Mannion and Sullivan (1999) suggest that one of the functions of the CHP is to supply updated information rapidly at a cheap price. CHPs can incorporate relevant information every day. A clear example is the occurrence in 54% of the pages analysed of some reference to the tragic events of September 11th in New York.

Another feature of CHPs is their high connectivity. Like most Web genres, CHPs are non-linear texts, which can be linked to other texts by means of hypertext. Most of the links are internal, to other pages within the company. The home page is a cover page which lists the contents of the Website. The internal links turn the CHP into a genre quite effective for advertising purposes: instead of getting detailed descriptions of products on the cover page, users can browse and find just what they are looking for.

CHPs are highly interactive. They include features such as e-mail to the company, online ordering, downloadable files. Some websites even offer the possibility to discuss and interact with others through newsgroups.

3) Form

Form has a great importance in the CHP, since it is a way to construct an image (Chandler, 1998) and also a way to attract the customers' attention to specific aspects. On the home page of "AMD" the following question is asked (25/09/2001):

(12) "What do you think of our new look? The AMD website redesign: it is more than just look! We are making it easier for you to find the information you need."

One of the goals that determines form is to facilitate navigation, so that users can visit the pages of the site that interest them. This is achieved in CHPs by means of bars of buttons and menus with five to seven links. Each menu leads to a mini-home page with specific information.

However, facilitating users' navigation does not seem to be the driving force in home page design. The information in the foreground is the one that the company wants the user to see first. The central part of the page is typically occupied by adverts of new products and the headings of positive news related to the company.

Shepherd and Watters (1999:3) state that “the form of home pages tends to be a general introduction and short chunks of information with subtopics that can be reached by following links.” Although this may apply to personal homepages it does not seem a correct description for CHPs. Most of the CHPs analysed do not have a general introduction. They place the information the company wants to focus on in the centre of the page and include links to any other information at the top and the sides of the page. The form of the CHP seems to follow the guideline proposed in the “Web style guide” (http://info.med.yale.edu/caim/manual/contents.html): “An informational site, such as an academic, corporate, or general interest site, should have a cover that establishes an overall visual design theme or metaphor for the site. It should also identify and give a brief explanation of the purpose of the site, and provide a site overview by presenting links to its major sections.” A clear example is the home page of “ID software”, a company that has created and distributed computer games such as DOOM and QUAKE. The home page of the company resembles the cover of these games.

4) Content

Shepherd and Watters (1999: 3) describe the contents of the CHPs as consisting "mostly of information and advertisements about the company's home products and services". Although this is true, CHPs include many other elements, as we have seen. The most frequent elements, in decreasing order, are the following: copyright information, legal notices/ terms of use/ online privacy statement, positive announcements and news headings related to the company, links to corporate news and information and economic information about the company, showcase, adverts of new products, "choose a country" feature, e-mail contact, additional information about the company (training, events, seminars, jobs), offer of free of charge products and services.

CHPs can include any element that can be of interest for their readers at a specific moment. For instance, many of the CHPs analysed include a note showing sympathy to those impacted by the events of September 11th, 2001. The home page of “Samsung” includes a “sports” link and the home page of “Silicon Graphics” has a link with the label “serious fun”, where the reader can find games and downloads.

5. Conclusions

The CHP is one of the genres that has appeared to take advantage of the capabilities afforded by the Internet. CHPs are used by companies to deliver the information they want rapidly, and to interact with potential customers, with investors, and with other companies.

This research has shown that the CHP is a very complex genre which incorporates a variety of different elements. Some of these elements have been taken from genres existing in other media (e.g. the graphics, evaluative text and slogans taken from adverts, the news headings, the introduction to the company, typically found in sales promotion letters). Other elements, such as the update information, the counter, or the link to a virtual store, are specific of genres in this new medium. And many other elements have been borrowed from genres in traditional media and have been adapted or modified to take full advantage of the features of the Internet. For instance, establishing a contact is a typical element in promotional genres such as sales promotional letters or adverts, but here the reader can establish a contact just by clicking on the link “contact” and sending an e-mail. Therefore, the CHP does not only inform of how to contact with the company, but provides the medium to do it.

The different elements that may occur in CHPs have been classified into four groups according to their function: a) creating a positive image of the company; b) introducing and offering products; c) strengthening the relation with the customer; d) asking and giving information about the page itself. Our research supports the conclusion by Mannion and Sullivan (1999) that the main purpose of corporate home pages is to create a positive image of the company. Even the elements that introduce and offer products and services or those which are intended to strengthen the relation with the customer contribute to the purpose of image creation. However, as this is a complex genre with a multiple audience (potential customers, investors, companies), it has many subsidiary purposes, such as disclosing economic information or facilitating e-business.

The CHP is a clear example of what Levi-Strauss (1974) and Chandler (1988) call “bricolage”: the inclusion and adaptation in a text of elements from other texts. The results of the research show that, although the CHP is a genre in its infancy, it is quite a conventionalised form, with are a high number of elements that occur frequently and regularly in CHPs and can thus be considered typical of the genre. This can be explained by taking into account that the nature of the Web as a medium facilitates the borrowing of elements from other pages. A clear example of this borrowing is the icon used to point to the virtual store: all the pages which include this element have the same “shopping cart” icon.

A CHP is an easily revisable text which lacks the fixity of a printed text. Thus, it does not consist of a fixed text and accompanying graphics. It could rather be considered a textual space, a notice board used by the company to fix any type of information that it intends the audience to receive. The highly dynamic character of the CHP means that we cannot regard the less frequent elements as untypical of the genre. For instance, the element “date/ update” only occurred in 9 CHPs, but it is an element frequent in other Web genres, which could be easily adopted in CHPs if designers of CHPs began to consider it useful or necessary. The CHP is a genre co-constructed by the company and the audience. The features of the Internet and the possibility to interact with the reader allow the company to collect information from the audience, which will necessarily shape the genre.

The CHP is the cover of the company Website, that is, it is the first page of and gate to a hyper-document. This means that the CHP has enormous potential for advertising purposes and that it should be carefully designed to help the readers reach easily the information that they want and to get the readers to enter specific pages in the Website. Thus, further research could investigate the pages to which the CHP links, the connections between the different pages in the Website, and the rhetorical strategies used on the CHP to arouse the readers' interest in specific pages.

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ABSTRACT

A Genre Analysis of Corporate Home Pages

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The introduction of the Internet as a new communications medium has given rise to the appearance of a high number of digital genres. Some of them simply reproduce genres existing in other media, but others borrow features from existing genres while taking advantage of the capabilities afforded by the Internet. Corporate home pages are a dominant genre on the Internet, used by companies to construct a positive image and to advertise their products.

Genre awareness generates certain expectation as to what prototypical instances of the genre contain, thus guiding writers in the production of any instance of the genre and helping readers to better comprehend and interact with the text. The purpose of this paper is to analyse the elements that are characteristic of corporate home pages and their function. The analysis of these elements is useful to characterise the genre of corporate home pages in terms of purpose, functionality, content and form.

The different elements that may occur in corporate home pages were classified into four groups according to their function: a) creating a positive image of the company; b) introducing and offering products; c) strengthening the relation with the customer; d) asking and giving information about the page itself. The results show that the corporate home page is a multi-purpose genre which shares some features with promotional genres existing in other media, but incorporates many new elements which exploit the connectivity and interactive features of the Internet.

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Information and Documentation Management in the Training of Technical Translators - As Opposed to Teaching Technical Science

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1. Background

This, obviously, is a non-negotiable point of departure:

> The translation of technical texts requires considerable specific knowledge, i.e., not only knowledge about linguistic rules and structures, but also knowledge about the topic of the text to be translated. Knowledge of just one of these two aspects does not suffice to produce a correct translation.
> (Galinski/Budin 1993:209)

That it is necessary for the technical translator to have a thorough knowledge of the subject matter of the text, which s/he is to translate, is beyond question. But here we must add one very important fact: Namely that this holds true for the translation of any text, be it technical or literary. As a conditio sine qua non stands the notion that you cannot translate what you do not understand. But apparently this seems insufficient when speaking of the knowledge and skills needed by the technical translator. In fact the ideal LSP translator is often defined as someone who possesses two complementary types of knowledge and skills:

> “Unbestritten sind die Notwendigkeit von Fachwissen und die als Ideal anerkannte Einheit von Sprach- und Fachwissen [...]“.
> (Fluck 1992:221)

For such a unity of (high quality!) translation and subject matter knowledge and skills to come into existence in one person, it seems the LSP translator in question would have to be a compilation of the trained professional (e.g. the engineer) and the trained LSP translator. In terms of feasibility, this would require a minimum of 2 times 5 years of university training (in Denmark at any rate), making it an option for only the very dedicated of translators. But even if this would seem to combine the best of two worlds, the question springs to mind whether we – with the same kind of straightforwardness – would expect from the translator who translates novels that s/he be a writer (?), or from the translator translating newspaper articles that s/he be a journalist? I do not think so; neither do I think it is necessary. What I am basically opposed to is the compilatory nature of the whole idea. To be a bit polemic one might ask: what kind of Chimera would it take to translate a novel or a newspaper article dealing with some 'technical' matter? For instance the specificity of maritime knowledge found in Kipling's novel "Captains Courageous" or the in-depth knowledge of bullfighting conveyed in the articles, which Hemingway wrote for *Life* in 1960.

What I would like to propose in this article is a shift in educational focus induced by a new way of integrating the two spheres of knowledge and skills (i.e. linguistics/translation and subject matter) into a technical translator curriculum. My point of departure for doing so will be the presentation of a number of commonly accepted areas of competences followed by a critical discussion of two prototypical ways of integrating subject matter knowledge into LSP translator curricula. Even if these approaches have been summarized primarily on the basis of German and Danish university traditions, I hypothesize that they are not limited by geography.

2. General Areas of Competences for the Technical Translator

What I have referred to as the two spheres of knowledge and skills, Roelcke (1999:146) sub-divides into three areas of competence for the LSP translator:

1. General language competence L1 + L2
2. LSP competence L1 + L2
3. A sufficient knowledge of the relevant domain

In his listing of areas of competence Roelcke, however, leaves out one very important aspect namely the fact that even if a person has a thorough command of two languages and of LSP in the two languages this does not eo ipso mean that s/he is capable of translating between the two languages. Consequently, one more area of competence must be added to his list of requirements[1]:

4. LSP translation competence L1/L2

The LSP trainee translator may obtain these four general competences in different ways. Roelcke (:146) suggests four – as he puts it – 'conceivable' ways:

1. An education within the subject matter with an added language education
2. An education within language with an added education within subject matter
3. A parallel education within language and subject matter
4. An education within language and translation, supplemented concurrently with studies of the subject matter

1 See also Fluck (1985:217).

If we take into account my above addition to his areas of competences, and thereby accept that by „language education“ we should understand „language and translation education“, Roelcke’s list of possible ways seems quite exhaustive, albeit from a rather mathematical point of view. Taken from the top, the three first ways would imply that the LSP translator receive some kind of double education; I will not comment further on this issue (see chapter 1). My investigations show that the fourth way is the one most widely used and therefore the one that I will discuss in the following. I will not take into consideration how language and translation knowledge and skills are taught but focus solely on how subject matter is conveyed.

2.1 Two approaches to teaching subject matter competences

Based on relevant literature as well as a survey of translation schools in Germany and Denmark featuring information about their LSP translation curricula on the Internet, two approaches to teaching subject matter competences may be summarized: A deductive and an inductive oriented approach.

2.1.1 The deductive approach

The deductive approach means that the translation student will be taught or at least exposed to the basics of technical science. Below are a few examples:

- „Einführung in die Technik“ (An Introduction to Technical Science) at the Fachhochschule Köln, Germany

- „Grundlagen der Technik“ (The Basics of Technical Science) at the Fachhochschule Magdeburg, Germany

- „Fachtheorie im Fachgebiet Technik“ (Domain Specific Technical Theory) at the Fachhochschule München, Germany

From this knowledge base the trainee translators are obviously supposed to derive the knowledge needed to understand and subsequently translate any given technical text. Bachmann points to two general problems when implementing a deductive approach:

> „Jede Übersetzerin und jeder Übersetzer wird sicherlich leichten Herzens der Erkenntnis zustimmen, daß es nicht möglich ist, auf vielen technischen Gebieten, mit denen man in Form eines zu übersetzenden Textes konfrontiert werden kann, so sachkundig wie der jeweilige Autor zu sein. Um so mehr möchte ich aber hervorheben, daß es m.E. auch nicht möglich ist, mit dem zitierten und nie so ganz faßbaren „technischen Grundwissen“ [i.e. basic technical knowledge], das in der Übersetzerausbildung oft ohne Integration studienbegleitend vermittelt wird, den Anforderungen an professionell angefertigte Fachübersetzungen gerecht zu werden“.
> (Bachmann 1992:145)

The fundamental problem is centred on the following question: What constitutes the ‘basics of technical science’? Should it be an introduction to the laws of physics or the periodic system? Even if one were to keep the content at a very rudimentary or abstract level, the list of possible basics would be infinite. A brief look into for instance “How things work” or any other technical encyclopaedia provides amble proof of that. If we look at the usefulness of technical science for the trainee translator, then we may easily derive yet another problem. How can one expect that a student of *translation* should manage to bridge the gap from such abstract or rudimentary basics to implementing them or – what would typically be the case – to implementing content derived from these basics in an actual translation? A prerequisite being, of course, that the topic of the translation is in fact covered by the basics taught in class.

2.1.2 The inductive approach

One way of trying to eliminate these problems is to apply a more inductive approach to integrating subject matter knowledge. Here the translation student is taught or exposed to a (usually) small number of technical disciplines. Based on this knowledge of individual disciplines, the student is then obviously supposed to understand and subsequently translate any given text. In favour of the inductive approach is Horn-Helf when she states:

> „[...] daß es in der Praxis kaum übersetzungsirrelevante Fachgebiete gibt. Diese Vielfalt kann in Übersetzungsübungen auch nicht annährend behandelt werden [...], „dafür ist das Spektrum der an übersetzungspraktisch einschlägigen Texten und Berufssituationen einfach zu groß“ [...]. Die Beschränkung auf einige ist daher unausweichlich. Es wäre allerdings wünschenswert, auch hier vorrangig die zu berücksichtigen, die als Prototypen gelten können (insbesondere Maschinenbau, Elektrotechnik, Informatik)“.
> (Horn-Helf 1999:300)

Although it seems that this approach has an answer to what the deductive approach lacks in depth, it is at the expense of the holistic perspective of the former. For by choosing to expose the students to a catalogue of technical disciplines, one is immediately confronted with two issues that need further consideration: The selection of disciplines and the future practical value of such disciplinary knowledge. In the catalogue proposed, Horn-Helf advocates the selection of prototypical disciplines; it does, however, become clear that what she understands by a prototypical discipline is one from which translation services are requested hic et nunc, giving the selection a short term perspective at best. But apart from that, I am concerned with the practical value of the inductive approach. The students’ acquired technical knowledge could very well prove to be of a fragmentary – or even kaleidoscopic – nature. Nord gives an example of this kind of integration:

> „Sach- und Fachwissen wird im Rahmen der Sach- oder Ergänzungsfächer ermittelt; hier erhebt sich allerdings weithin die Frage der Koordinierung bzw. Verzahnung: Im Idealfall sollte das Fachwissen, das für die

> Ausfertigung einer Fachübersetzung erforderlich ist, auch tatsächlich im Rahmen der Sachfachausbildung kurz vor der Anwendung erworben worden sein.“
> (Nord 1996:316)

From the above quotation it is quite obvious that the students in question will be given assignments, which correspond nicely to the kind of technical knowledge they have recently acquired. The main problem being how capable students are for dealing with real-life translations later on; e.g. cross-disciplinary issues or technical topics from disciplines that were not part of the selection. I find it very hard to concur with what I take is the underlying idea; namely that some structural common ground should ‘rub off’ somehow or that trainee translators should – as an instance of ‘incidental learning’ – (through exposure to a pre-defined catalogue of technical disciplines) gain knowledge enabling them to translate texts from disciplines not dealt with in class. Although laconic, Teague’s comments to this issue from the practitioner’s point of view are quite illustrative:

> “Sci/tech translators may dream of serving one market sector, doing translations on a narrowing range of subjects (and hence progressively easier ones), becoming more and more valuable to fewer and fewer clients (and choosing, among those, the least vexing), and cocooning themselves in a blanket of job security. Those lemonade springs and peppermint trees remain just a dream for most.”
> (Teague 1993:161)

As an adapted version of the inductive approach, our department used to integrate technical knowledge by way of a prototypical ‘technical’ life cycle or ontogenesis. The phases of the ontogenesis ranged from materials over production methods to computerization. Corresponding translation assignments then followed each phase. Despite the fact that this seemed to be a reasonable compromise, the result was de facto a radical shift in focus from language, LSP and translation to technical matter. The students were briefly introduced to what in fact amounted to a massive body of technical knowledge and were subsequently expected to be able to translate texts from virtually all areas of technical science and disciplines. Consequently, the students tended to pursue the strategy of learning technical topics by heart, and – in the process – neglecting the other knowledge sphere, that of language, LSP and translation matters. Without going into details as to the learning aspects of such didactics (see Boud 1987 as well as Kastberg 2000 and 2001), I would like to point to the commonly accepted notion that:

> “[p]roblem-oriented training promotes spontaneous analogical transfer: Memory oriented training promotes memory for training.”
> (Needham/Beg 1991)

Generally encouraging a memory trained for training, as it were, and not for spontaneous analogical transfer of problem solving strategies, both approaches are fundamentally problematic. Neither approach prepares the student optimally for the world of exponentially growing technical knowledge, of ever expanding and overlapping domains as well as constantly developing topics, which s/he will encounter as a technical translator upon graduation. It goes for many university degrees that there is not necessarily a link between curriculum and what the student will be doing after graduating. This link, however, is and should indeed be present when it comes to training future LSP translators.

3. Personal Information and Documentation Management

Not wanting to avoid the Scylla of the deductive approach at the expense of running into the Charybdis of the inductive one, I propose a common denominator other than that of disciplines; namely the basic building blocks of disciplines and their representation in texts: information. What I advocate is not merely a shift in perspective but in the attitude towards teaching technical translation with a point of departure along the lines of Barrows when he states:

> "The acquisition of the skills of effective problem-solving, self-directed learning and team skill is probably more important than the content learned."
> (Barrows 1998:631)

Even if it were my ambition to teach in class all the technical matter, which the trainee translator will need to know in order to be able to work as a technical translator, I would fail. The students, therefore, are neither taught nor exposed to 'the basics of technical science' nor to a pre-selected number of (more or less relevant) disciplines. In stead I focus on teaching methods enabling the trainee translator to cope with the content of – in principle – any technical text. In order to make such a change, it will not suffice to make adjustments with regard to the curriculum; the adjustments will first have to be made with regard to one's perception of a curriculum. Driver/Oldham states the fundamental issue when it comes to changing the perception of what a curriculum is:

> "[…] the curriculum is seen not as *a body of knowledge or skills* but the *programme of activities* from which such knowledge or skills can possibly be acquired or constructed, though we acknowledge that the selection of possible learning experiences is guided by the knowledge of experts."
> (Driver/Oldham 1986:112)

Compared to the approaches discussed in the previous chapter, with their focus on the "body of knowledge", the focus of attention in this approach has shifted to "the programme of activities from which such knowledge or skills can possibly be acquired". The programme of activities from which to obtain the subject matter knowledge needed is basically a process model for information and documentation management (Choo 1998:23pp). The model applied is centred on two partially overlapping dimensions. The first dimension sees information management as a dynamic tool for informational problem solving. Here, the students are not taught or exposed to, say, the discipline of 'machinery'; instead they are trained intensively and systematically in how to recognize what specific information needs they have with regard to a given translation assignment and how to fulfil that need. In my approach, this dimension consists of the following rudimentary phases:

- Recognize information need

  On the basis of the translation assignment the student is trained to sort out his or her personal knowledge gaps.

- Locate information

  On the basis of the specific information gaps, the student seeks out relevant knowledge carriers, activates relevant personal and professional networks etc., enabling him or her to fill knowledge gaps.

- Evaluate information

  On the basis of such information compilation, information processing may begin; the student performs an analysis with regard to authenticity and authority of the knowledge carriers etc. chosen.

- Use information

  E.g. in relation to skopos, target culture and genre, addressee, etc.

Whenever needed, these phases may be recursive, adding to the mere compilatory nature of the chronology a cyclic and, in turn, dynamic quality (Winkel 1988:91pp). This – and this is intentionally so – corresponds to a four-stage learning process. The second dimension handles the results of the first dimension; in effect the relationship with the above dimension will often be a dialectical one. The second dimension contains the following three phases:

- Document information

  Every student at the Faculty of Modern Languages at our university has a personal home page (as well as an e-mail account) free of charge within the university web. The second dimension of the personal information and documentation management applied therefore takes on the shape of a personal web portal with links to relevant external knowledge carriers, to the student’s personal full text corpora, his or her own lexicographic databases, etc.

- Edit / revise / optimise information

  Whenever additional information is required and/or new translation assignments demand it, the electronically stored information is easily revised, expanded or altered.

- Retrieve information

  In order to do so, the student designs an interface or system of interfaces tailor-made to suit his or her need for easy access to any piece of information.

This, in turn, corresponds to a three-stage documentation process. Combined, the two dimensions give the student a systematic method with which to deal not only with the technical content of a translation pre-selected for educational purposes, but due to its very nature, it is a method suitable for coping with any subject matter.

4. Summing up and putting into perspective

Needless to say, methods with which to cope with subject matter are but one element of technical translator training at university level. As mentioned before, they constitute one sphere of the knowledge and skills required, the other sphere being that of language, linguistics and translation (see also Kastberg 2001). In order to sum up, I would like to point to three of the issues raised in the course of this article. First of all the deliberate shift in focus from 'teaching' (content) to 'learning' (methods); in the sense that – as we have seen – it is not primarily important what and how much technical subject matter is taught: of primary importance is the student's ability to cope with any subject matter. Secondly, another important issue has been raised, namely that personal information and documentation management form a link between translator training and working as a technical translator; in the sense that the professional technical translator will be forced to manage new and changing subject matter each and every day of his / her professional life. Thirdly, I would like to point to the appealing long-term effect of this approach; in the sense that it mirrors – albeit in a practicable and down-to-Earth manor – the very essence of 'life-long learning'.

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ABSTRACT

Information and Documentation Management in the Training of Technical Translators - As Opposed to Teaching Technical Science

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This article deals with the integration of the two spheres of knowledge and skills commonly accepted to be essential to the technical translator, i.e. linguistics/translation and subject matter. The main focus is on one of the spheres, namely that of subject matter, and how subject matter is integrated into translator curricula. Whereas I do not question the need for subject matter knowledge, I do question the way in which such knowledge is typically conveyed in translator training. In this article, I define and discuss two prototypical approaches to integrating technical subject matter into translator training. The first approach I have labelled the deductive approach; here the student is taught or at least exposed to 'the basics of technical science'. The second approach I have labelled the inductive approach. Here the student is taught or at least exposed to a pre-selected number of technical disciplines. On the basis of a critical discussion of these approaches, I argue that neither way is optimal when it comes to preparing students for coping with real-life translations. I conclude by advocating a shift in educational focus away from the teaching of technical content towards the application of methods within the field of personal information and documentation management.

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Le *document de visite*: les mérites d'une sorte de texte pour la didactique de la traduction en langue de spécialité

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1. La traduction en langue de spécialité et le profil d'exigences du traducteur moderne

Le développement des connaissances scientifiques est si prodigieux à notre époque que ses effets se manifestent dans tous les domaines de notre vie quotidienne, notamment dans celui de la médecine. Le domaine médical est un domaine caractérisé par une énorme interdépendance entre les différentes branches du monde scientifique au sein d'un même domaine technique ainsi qu'entre celui-ci et le grand public. La diffusion du flux d'information entre ces mondes, celui qui se trouve à l'intérieur de la discipline scientifique, c'est-à-dire entre les différents domaines médicaux, mais aussi celui qui est orienté vers l'extérieur de la discipline, vers le non spécialiste, revêtent dès lors une importance considérable, tant pour la société que pour l'individu.

Dans le contexte de la mondialisation, d'une communication accélérée et d'une facilité d'accès à l'information, la nécessité de réaliser un transfert de savoir scientifique et de diffuser ces connaissances dans maints domaines de la vie économique et sociale ont entraîné un changement du cadre de travail et des exigences requises par la profession de traducteur, surtout dans le domaine de la traduction de textes de spécialité. En tant qu'expert de communication, le traducteur a pour tâche de travailler sur un ‚produit complet', et de fournir à l'issue de son travail un produit répondant aux exigences du *desk-top publishing* (cf. Albin 1998:119). Le point essentiel de son travail consiste à réaliser un transfert de langue et de culture qu'il doit maîtriser à part entière et qui va au-delà du transfert de connaissances scientifiques vers un public plus ou moins initié. Le transfert d'information réalisé par le traducteur devient ainsi pluridimensionnel: le traducteur joue le rôle de ‚relais' entre le monde de la science et le groupe cible de son texte, qui ne doit pas toujours, comme nous allons voir, être constitué uniquement de scientifiques du même niveau de spécialisation. Il doit prendre en considération, selon les exigences du skopos qui est le point essentiel de son travail (cf. pour la théorie du skopos Vermeer 1978 et Reiß / Vermeer [2]1991) les normes, les intentions, les attentes et les exigences de son public cible, les paramètres de la situation dans laquelle son texte cible va être consommé et les constituants du type et de la sorte de texte en question. Göpferich (2002: sous presse) parle à cet égard d'une tendance qui se manifeste dans le profil requis pour le traducteur dont l'activité dépasse largement l'activité reproductrice pour s'orienter vers une activité créatrice et génératrice – et cela doit être intégré dans la didactique en langue de spécialité aussi bien que dans le cursus de la formation moderne en traduction.

2. Les exigences de la didactique de la traduction en langue de spécialité

Le champ d'action du traducteur d'aujourd'hui est très hétérogène et exige que celui-ci soit capable de s'adapter le plus rapidement et le plus efficacement possible à une nouvelle situation de travail – cela vaut aussi pour la traduction technique. Il en découle pour la didactique de la traduction qu'il est nécessaire de familiariser les étudiants avec des connaissances et des stratégies de base facilement adaptables aux exigences d'un champ d'action concret. Le traducteur doit être à même d'acquérir, dans les délais les plus brefs, les informations et les connaissances de spécialité requises pour réaliser sa tâche de traduction. Pour cela, il doit faire preuve d'une certaine sensibilité pour saisir les facteurs pertinents dans une situation de travail donnée. De plus, il doit avoir les compétences nécessaires pour effectuer un transfert de communication technique et pour travailler des textes techniques, ici médicaux, en tenant compte de la situationnalité du cadre interactionnel dans lequel interagissent les personnes intégrées dans la communication à réaliser.

Un élément caractéristique de la didactique en langue de spécialité est qu'il est nécessaire d'acquérir systématiquement des connaissances techniques (cf. Haider 2002: sous presse); il y a lieu de tenir compte de ce facteur lors de la conception didactique d'un cours de traduction technique. Au début du travail en classe, la compétence technique disponible est, en général, limitée aux champs d'évolution quotidienne des étudiants (cf. Nord 2002: sous presse). Le déficit observé en matière de connaissances techniques – qui n'a rien à voir avec un déficit en compétence linguistique – doit être considéré comme une situation normale (cf. Haider 2002: sous presse). Ce constat est fondamental pour créer une situation de travail ouverte; ce constat nécessite cependant également une conception didactique permettant, pas à pas, l'acquisition de connaissances techniques ainsi que la structuration et l'interconnexion de ce savoir fondé sur les connaissances générales des étudiants. La compétence technique doit être augmentée de manière à permettre une analyse pertinente pour la traduction (cf. Nord 2002: sous presse). Selon Nord (ibid.) il est important que l'enseignant mette les connaissances à acquérir en relation avec le savoir du monde dans lequel évoluent ses étudiants, puisque le savoir du monde est toujours en rapport avec la situation personnelle – un élément dont il faut tenir compte pour pouvoir motiver ses étudiants. En outre, il y a lieu de donner aux étudiants la possibilité de se procurer eux-mêmes les informations et les connaissances techniques nécessaires pour remplir une tâche de travail et pour aboutir en dernier lieu à la sélection et la synthétisation nécessaires de l'information rassemblée (cf. Göpferich 1996:13), ce qui représente déjà per se un effort cognitif complexe. L'objectif intrinsèque est d'encourager l'auto-acquisition de connaissances techniques pour pouvoir se concentrer en cours essentiellement sur les problèmes de traduction.

Il en résulte des exigences spécifiques en ce qui concerne la progression des tâches et des projets sélectionnés pour le cours ainsi que la progression textuelle planifiée, l'objectif étant de permettre une progression efficace en degré de difficulté technique, de difficulté textuelle et de complexité du projet de travail à réaliser par les futurs traducteurs. L'objectif ultime de ces efforts est la réalisation du *desk-top publishing* dans le contexte d'un projet de travail véritablement complexe, intégré dans un cadre (simulé) interactionnel et polyfactoriel répondant aux exigences de travail du traducteur moderne. Cela implique par exemple de choisir des cadres situationnels et pragmatiques authentiques qui permettent aux étudiants de situer leur processus de travail et leurs choix de traduction ou de travail textuel dans l'ensemble global d'une situation professionnelle réelle avec tous les facteurs intervenants, mais surtout tous les interactants qui jouent un rôle dans la réalisation de leur travail.

3. Quelques aspects professionnels du travail du traducteur médical

La décision de devenir traducteur réside dans la plupart des cas dans un fort intérêt pour le travail sur des textes de toutes sortes (cf. Holz-Mänttäri 1982:1). En fait, les diplômés des instituts de traduction et d'interprétation se retrouvent souvent dans des domaines nécessitant des compétences qui dépassent les ‚simples' compétences du travail textuel. Surtout dans le domaine de la médecine les traducteurs travaillent souvent comme des experts dans la rédaction de textes et jouent le rôle de ‚relais de communication' entre le personnel médical, le personnel paramédical et le personnel non-initié.

La communication médicale représente per se un conglomérat d'interactions complexes caractérisé par une grande variété de formes de discours et par une grande variété de degrés de technicité (cf. Wiese 1984:12) selon la fonction et la situation de communication. Dans le domaine de la communication médicale, les interactants constituent un groupe extrêmement hétérogène, englobant le scientifique et le chercheur qui disposent d'un degré de spécialité très élevé, mais aussi le personnel paramédical et même le non spécialiste qui, lui aussi, a acquis grâce à la vulgarisation scientifique un savoir „semi-professionnel" ou „pseudo-professionnel" non négligeable, comme l'explique Löning (1994:105). Dans son rôle de médiateur de langue et de culture et en tant que didacticien ou commentateur, le traducteur est un semi-professionnel ou un profane spécialisé qui doit être considéré comme un ‚insider spécialisé' (cf. Mentrup 1988:455). Cela montre que les limites entre la spécialisation et la non-spécialisation sont floues; il existe des spécialisations partielles chez les profanes aussi bien que des déficits de spécialité entre les scientifiques d'un même domaine. C'est pourquoi Stahlebner

(1992:166) plaide pour une différenciation selon le degré de spécialisation en fonction des variantes de communication déterminées par les facteurs pragmatiques et situatifs, la fonction et le but de la communication ainsi que les intentions des interactants vus dans leur contexte socio-culturel. Par conséquent, l'identité des interactants de communication joue pour le traducteur un rôle primordial dans la réception du texte et dans le processus traductif préalable à la genèse du produit final.

Ce sont les diplômés autrichiens, ceux de l'ouest du pays avant tout, qui, parce qu'ils ont été formés dans le bassin d'implantation des usines pharmaceutiques, pourront avoir la chance d'être employés dans le domaine pharmacologique où ils auront à traiter des textes médicaux requérant des compétences différentes de leurs compétences de traduction. Il se peut qu'ils traduisent, transposent, créent ou rédigent des textes destinés à être utilisés à l'intérieur du domaine scientifique, comme par exemple des présentations d'études de la recherche médicale pour des congrès internationaux, des informations pour le personnel médical, des notices de médicaments etc. Parfois, il leur sera demandé de rédiger des textes pédagogiques pour la formation interne des employés qui proviennent souvent d'un champ international, ce qui signifie qu'une documentation multilingue sera nécessaire. Ils pourront également rédiger et traduire des textes qui seront diffusés à l'extérieur du domaine, comme par exemple des communiqués de presse, des brochures d'information ou des dépliants publicitaires visant à promouvoir la commercialisation des produits.

Cette énumération arbitraire de quelques exemples de sortes de texte montre qu'il existe une certaine gradation dans le degré de technicité et dans les situations de travail. Les matériaux didactiques des entreprises sont conçus pour une utilisation interne et sont en général rédigés pour le personnel non-initié au domaine médical; cela signifie qu'ils sont d'un degré de technicité peu élevé, mais qu'ils exigent un travail didactique. Les textes d'information du grand public nécessitent un processus de vulgarisation et figurent parmi la communication orientée vers l'extérieur du domaine; de ce fait, leur degré de technicité est plutôt faible, mais le degré de vulgarisation est assez élevé. Les notices d'utilisation d'un médicament, par contre, présentent différents degrés de technicité. Cela varie en fonction de la situation spécifique et du cadre pragmatique. Les communications effectuées lors de congrès, et les publications scientifiques s'adressent quant à elles à des spécialistes et constituent ainsi des textes destinés à l'intérieur du domaine et qui présentent un haut degré de technicité. Toutes ces sortes de textes, qui font part du travail quotidien d'un traducteur employé par une entreprise pharmaceutique sont soumises à des normes strictes et à des conventions textuelles qu'il faut connaître dans leur universalité, mais surtout dans leur différences entre les langues, les pays et les cultures. Elles doivent être appliquées dans des langues et des cultures différentes, en tenant compte des normes et conventions – langagières, pragmatiques et culturelles – propres à chaque sorte de texte dans son contexte situatif et interactif et dans le respect du mandat de traduction. Une sorte de texte qui est à cheval entre le texte scientifique, didactique et publicitaire est le *document* *de visite* qui, parce qu'il réunit des éléments propres à plusieurs sortes de textes et parce qu'il remplit les fonctions de différents types de textes, se prête à l'utilisation didactique dans les cours de traduction médicale.

4. Le *document de visite*: caractéristiques et valeur didactique

Le *document de visite* est une sorte de texte particulière qui présente de nombreux avantages pour le travail didactique en langue de spécialité médicale. Généralement, il s'agit d'un dépliant composé d'éléments publicitaires et de savoir médicoscientifique fondé et sur la base duquel le référent pharmaceutique construit son entretien de vente avec le médecin. Le *document de visite* est utilisé dans les entreprises pharmaceutiques pour donner des informations sur le produit, dans le but d'aider le référent de l'entreprise pharmaceutique à vendre le produit, en l'occurrence le médicament, au médecin. Le *document de visite* revêt un intérêt considérable et mérite une analyse dans le contexte de la traduction. Le traducteur du *document de visite* est très demandé, en tant qu'expert de culture qui doit adapter son produit aux exigences du but, du skopos, et de la caractéristique spécifique du contexte culturel dans lequel son translat doit fonctionner.

La sorte de texte *document de visite* est pertinente pour la traduction médicale et la didactique en langue de spécialité, parce qu'elle est assez complexe au niveau linguistique et extralinguistique et parce qu'elle soulève, dans un contexte concret de travail, beaucoup de problèmes et de questions pragmatiques qui touchent au transfert culturel, lesquels sont déterminants pour le travail du traducteur. Cette sorte de texte représente en outre un élément intermédiaire entre plusieurs sortes de textes, pertinent pour l'interaction médicale, et qui permet des connexions anaphoriques avec des sortes de textes connues de la langue générale ainsi que des connexions cataphoriques avec des sortes de textes techniques à traiter dans le cadre du cours de traduction en langue technique. En fait, cette sorte de texte est doublement intéressante pour le travail en langue de spécialité: d'une part au niveau textuel et d'autre part au niveau interactionnel, grâce à la spécificité de l'interaction et des interactants. Dans ce contexte, le traducteur se doit de relever des défis, soit comme traducteur, comme stratège en termes de publicité, comme localisateur lorsqu'il s'agit de surmonter des différences culturelles et aussi comme vulgarisateur et, par conséquent, comme didacticien. Le *document de visite* fournit en outre des bases terminologiques du domaine médical et pharmaceutique dans une situation concrète, ce qui est important pour traiter des questions terminologiques en contexte.

4.1 Les séquences de texte et leur valeur didactique

Au niveau textuel, le *document de visite* remplit différentes fonctions textuelles correspondant à différents types de texte. Il y a des éléments de texte informatifs aussi bien qu'appellatifs, qui se réunissent pour donner naissance à un texte polyfonctionnel, créé pour une situation spécifique. Grâce à cette dimension polyfonctionnelle, le *document de visite* facilite, en didactique de langue de spécialité, la mise en rapport de cette nouvelle sorte de texte avec des sortes de texte que les étudiants connaissent pour avoir suivi d’autres cours précédents, en traduction générale. A travers des sortes de textes connues et grâce au travail sur des conventions textuelles ou des facteurs pragmatiques et culturels connus des étudiants, nous sommes à même de faciliter l’accès à une matière inconnue et d’entamer des recherches préliminaires sur des contenus techniques. Ces démarches aboutissent assez souvent à des recherches et des études contrastives: celles-ci consistent à comparer les facteurs de langue et de culture dans la matière technique, dans le but de définir leur rôle dans le travail global de traduction. Les étudiants détectent facilement les éléments de textes connus (par exemple les éléments et les caractéristiques ou les stratégies de textes publicitaires en identifiant leur relation avec le texte écrit, la mise en page et les éléments visuels). Cela vaut aussi pour les éléments des textes informatifs, par exemple les éléments de modes d’emploi qui se retrouvent dans les passages de texte donnant les conseils d’utilisation du médicament. Ainsi, les étudiants réalisent eux-mêmes une première approche en effectuant une comparaison avec les éléments connus. Mais cette approche reposant sur des parallèles textuelles facilite également la détection des différences et des spécificités de la sorte de texte *document de visite*. Les actes de langage et les actes interactifs qui se cachent derrière le *document de visite* se situent au niveau informatif (par exemple *grâce à l’excellente absorption du médicament X, la flore physiologique n’est pas affectée*), mais aussi au niveau persuasif (par exemple *choisissez le médicament X…*).

En général, les différentes séquences textuelles se présentent de la manière suivante: la première page présente habituellement peu de texte, mais contient par contre beaucoup d’éléments visuels; elle est la partie la plus importante pour la transmission du message publicitaire et pour la réalisation de la stratégie commerciale sélectionnée. C’est ici qu’apparaît le concept général de vente. Lorsqu’on déplie le *document de visite*, on se trouve dans la partie présentant l’argumentation concernant le contenu scientifique, les résultats des recherches qui permettent de proposer le produit comme un médicament nouveau et supérieur aux médicaments concurrents déjà disponibles sur le marché. Cette partie prend souvent la forme d’une énumération et présente une structure visuelle significative en couleurs et signes typographiques. Cette structure ‚abrégée‘ a pour la didactique l’avantage que les étudiants ne sont pas encore confrontés avec un texte technique dans toute sa complexité, mais qu’ils doivent quand même, pour pouvoir saisir la structure cohérente de l’argumentation, se doter de l’information et des connaissances médicales nécessaires à la compréhension des faits et de la logique argumentative présentée dans la suite des arguments. Cela demande des recherches et des réflexions ainsi qu’un processus dynamique visant à aboutir à des conclusions qui permettent aux étudiants d’élargir leurs connaissances sur la matière avant de se lancer dans des textes plus complexes. La dernière partie du *document de visite* comporte des conseils généraux d’utilisation, exclusivement destinés au médecin et non au patient, ce qui fait la spécificité de cette séquence textuelle. Elle mentionne des indications sur les éléments suivants: posologie, propriétés, indications et contre-indications, effets indésirables, mise en garde et précautions d’emploi, présentation.

4.2 Le cadre interactionnel et sa valeur didactique

Au niveau interactionnel, il s'agit dans la pragmatique de l'utilisation du *document de visite* d'un cadre actionnel assez extraordinaire pour la communication médicale technique; en effet, les interactants se composent d'un non-inité à la matière (le référent pharmaceutique qui, dans la plupart des cas, est une personne ne disposant pas d'une formation universitaire médicale) et d'un spécialiste (le médecin que le référent pharmaceutique doit convaincre du produit qu'il présente). Nous nous trouvons donc ici face à une sorte de ‚curiosité interactionnelle': l'information en matière de spécialité est transférée dans un cadre hautement technique par une personne externe à la matière spécifique en question – tout au moins au vu de sa formation professionnelle. Rien que ce détail montre déjà la complexité de ce réseau de communication technique dans le domaine médical. Nous nous trouvons donc dans une situation où le référent pharmaceutique doit, comme non-spécialiste médical, entrer en interaction avec un spécialiste qui lui est fortement supérieur en tant qu'initié et où ce même référent pharmaceutique doit réaliser une communication médicale de haut degré de technicité au sein du domaine spécifique.

Etant dans la plupart des cas des non-initiés à la matière médicale, les référents pharmaceutiques doivent être formés au sein de l'entreprise-mère pour leurs entretiens de vente et recevoir la documentation adéquate pour leur présentations de produit auprès des cabinets médicaux. Les *documents de visite* sont donc des textes destinés à première vue aux médecins, mais ils sont en fait rédigés pour les référents pharmaceutiques pour les aider à argumenter et pour faciliter le ‚commentaire dirigé' lors de l'entretien de vente à mener. On pourrait même dire qu'ils sont en quelque sorte des ‚tuyaux' qui fonctionnent comme aide mémoire structurant l'argumentation du référent pharmaceutique dans l'interaction concrète.

Aussi, ces textes ont-ils un groupe cible pluridimensionnel: ils s'adressent explicitement au médecin, mais implicitement aussi au référent pharmaceutique et sont soumis à l'intention de vente de l'entreprise pharmaceutique et au dessein didactique, instructif, vulgarisateur et appellatif. Les fonctions de ces documents sont donc multiples: ils ont une dimension publicitaire et présentent des éléments textuels de la publicité (une interrelation étroite entre illustration et texte), une dimension didactique (présence d'énumérations ou de tableaux graphiques), une dimension informative (éléments d'études scientifiques) et donnent également des références bibliographiques, ce qui vient prouver le caractère sérieux de l'information donnée. Si l'on élargit la dimension interactionnelle, l'entreprise pharmaceutique entre en jeu, en tant que mandataire avec sa propre intention et ses besoins de vente. A ce niveau se manifeste une certaine dimension universelle, puisque les produits sont en principe vendus à l'échelle mondiale. Nous avons donc une dimension universelle au niveau de l'entreprise, en concurrence avec une dimension locale lorsqu'il s'agit de vendre concrètement un certain produit dans un certain pays. Tous ces facteurs détermineront le travail du traducteur – et exigent souvent qu'il devienne localisateur de son texte. En ce qui concerne l'universalité des appartenants à un certain domaine technique, on parle en traductologie d'une

„diaculture internationale“ (Witte 2000:59). En un mot, ces *documents de visite* sont l’expression d’une synthèse entre le texte publicitaire, le concept de commercialisation et la publication synoptique des résultats de recherches scientifiques; ces documents sont conçus pour un dessein concret et une situation d’interaction déterminée, avec des interactants déterminés ayant des intentions, des attentes et des besoins hétérogènes.

4.3 Le transfert culturel – un guide à la localisation de produits

Tout processus de traduction et de travail textuel est conditionné par la ou les dimension(s) culturelle(s). La condition sine qua non pour la compétence d’action en matière de traduction est la compétence culturelle du traducteur (cf. Witte 2000:15). En tant qu’expert de communication interculturelle, le traducteur n’a pas seulement à réaliser des textes et des communications en matière technique, mais il doit aussi tenir compte de la dimension culturelle inhérente à ces textes, à savoir le transfert culturel qu’il faut aussi réaliser dans le domaine technique. Aussi se produit-il une interrelation étroite entre le cadre situatif, le cadre interactionnel, le cadre culturel et les composantes de la localisation à réaliser dans le produit final (voir 5.1).

L’acquisition d’une certaine sensibilité pour les nécessités culturelles et pragmatiques d’un produit de traduction ou de travail de texte à réaliser – ce qui comporte aussi bien la dimension linguistique que la dimension extralinguistique – doit faire partie d’une didactique efficace dans le domaine de la traduction technique. L’étudiant doit réaliser qu’en tant que professionnel de communication, il est influencé par sa perception individuelle qui conditionne sa propre action dans le contexte de sa profession. Il en résulte, et cela doit devenir clair pour l’étudiant au cours de ses études, que le traducteur professionnel doit avoir une ‚compétence entre les cultures‘ (Witte 2000:346); il s’agit du savoir du traducteur sur l’autoperception, de la perception de l’autrui et de la perception de lui-même (ibid.: 347). Aussi, le traducteur doit-il pouvoir faire abstraction de sa propre situation en culture. Il doit être à même de développer une attitude consciemment distanciée à l’égard de sa propre culture ainsi qu’à l’égard de la culture de travail dont il s’agit dans le cas concret. Les bases respectives doivent lui être données au cours de sa formation pour qu’il soit à même de s’adapter de manière efficace aux exigences d’une situation de travail concrète dans les plus brefs délais et de la manière la plus efficace possible.

Pour atteindre une sensibilité pour les dimensions des différences culturelles et leur manifestations ainsi que leur transformation en matière scientifique, dans notre cas en matière médicale, le *document de visite* donne au didacticien maintes possibilités pour le travail avec ses étudiants. Cela est le cas parce que cette sorte de texte présente comme caractéristique intégrale la nécessité de s’adapter aux besoins culturels et pragmatiques de la langue et des représentants de la culture cible pour que le produit du transfert textuel puisse fonctionner et atteindre le but visé par l’entreprise pharmaceutique qui veut vendre son produit à l’étranger. Ainsi les étudiants apprennent-ils à saisir les problématiques relatives à la traduction et l'élaboration d'un texte, ou mieux d'un produit fonctionnant dans la langue et la culture cible à tous les égards (langagiers, visuels, pragmatiques, culturels…). Avec le travail textuel, ils acquièrent – ou renouvellent – les connaissances de base, généralement importantes pour le travail du traducteur (les compétences en analyse textuelle, en analyse de sortes de textes, les compétences relatives aux conventions typiques et aux stratégies contrastives de comparaison interlangagière et interculturelle). Il vient s'ajouter à cela que les étudiants se sentent ainsi motivés, prennent plus de responsabilité pour leur produit de travail et acquièrent une confiance de base dans leur compétences de traducteurs. En plus, ces compétences générales ne sont pas spécifiques à la traduction technique médicale; ce sont des compétences et des techniques et stratégies de base (comme la sensibilisation aux caractéristiques spéciales du transfert technique avec sa dimension culturelle et pragmatique, la sensibilisation aux caractéristiques textuelles ou au langage technique) qui sont, en principe, facilement applicables à d'autres domaines de travail en traduction et à d'autres langues de travail.

Des problèmes relatifs à la traduction générale s'ajoutent ainsi à des problèmes relatifs à la traduction en langue de spécialité et placent l'étudiant devant un défi de nature générale, théorique et pratique en termes de stratégies de traduction. Cette confrontation l'aidera d'autant plus dans sa future vie professionnelle, étant donné que le domaine d'activité des traducteurs est très hétérogène et que la capacité de s'adapter rapidement à une nouvelle situation de travail est d'une importance décisive pour la survie sur le marché de travail.

5. Un exemple concret

Passons à un exemple concret en traduction spécialisée médicale par le biais d'un *document de visite* comme ‚protagoniste' didactique. Des étudiants ont été mis dans un scénario de base intitulé ‚vous êtes collaborateur dans une entreprise pharmaceutique produisant des antibiotiques'. Les étudiants avaient déjà travaillé – ce qui veut dire analysé et (re)produit dans la langue et culture de source ainsi que dans la langue et culture cible – à différents projets: - un travail contrastif entre des publicités médicales pour le grand public des non-initiés et des publicités médicales destinées au professionnels tels que les médecins, les pharmaciens et les paramédicaux; - une élaboration de matériaux didactiques pour des formations internes de l'entreprise, destinées aux collaborateurs externes des dépendances étrangères et - un travail préparatoire sur des textes de vulgarisation scientifique médicale avec tout ce qui caractérise les stratégies et les méthodes de vulgarisation pour la divulgation d'informations techniques vers l'extérieur du domaine technique, c'est-à-dire vers le grand public des non-initiés. Maintenant ils étaient confrontés à l'analyse de plusieurs *documents de visite* jouant le rôle de liens entre les textes publicitaires et didactiques et les textes plus techniques encore prévus pour ce cours, à savoir par exemple les notices d'utilisation de médicaments et d'autres *documents de visite* concernant le même sujet médical, à savoir les antibiotiques.

Dans le cas présent, il s'agissait de l'analyse primordiale d'un *document de visite* révélant la grande importance de l'interrelation entre le texte et la réalisation visuelle, soit graphique, de l'ensemble. Il fallait travailler ce même aspect dans l'analyse des différentes parties du texte ainsi que dans un premier essai de traduction. Puis, il fallait analyser un *document de visite* pour un antifongique qui devait être vendu en Europe, mais aussi en Afrique Noire, en Arabie Saoudite et au Liban. Vu que nous voudrions esquisser brièvement la valeur didactique de cette sorte de texte et non tellement la traduction de textes concrets, nous nous concentrerons dans le cadre de cette intervention sur les aspects analytiques et leurs valeurs didactiques.

Tout d'abord, les étudiants ont pris connaissance d'une introduction stipulant le profil d'exigences du travail en tant que collaborateur dans une entreprise pharmaceutique, les tâches à remplir à ce poste ainsi que le cadre interactionnel dans lequel il faut agir dans ce contexte. Dans notre cas, ce travail incombe au *product management* qui est responsable de la conception ainsi que de l'élaboration multilingue de *documents de visite* pour les référents pharmaceutiques dans les différents pays à l'échelle internationale.

Ensuite, une analyse de *documents de visite* en langue maternelle, dans notre cas en allemand, était effectuée – ce qui avait comme ‚effet secondaire' souhaité un élargissement des connaissances sur des éléments terminologiques, les relations terminologiques conceptuelles y étant inhérentes et sur des composantes textuelles et des conventions textuelles – pour passer enfin à l'analyse détaillée d'un *document de visite* en langue cible, dans notre cas en français. Ce dernier était un antibiotique, nommons-le *X*, où la stratégie publicitaire mettait l'accent sur une relation métaphorique étroite entre le texte et l'illustration. La première page du *document de visite* était dominée par un grand échiquier en couleurs où une pièce – celle qui était en train de faire le premier coup –, mise en relief par la coloration et le layout, symbolisait par le slogan métaphorique *Le premier coup décide* la stratégie de vente du produit. Bien sûr, le tout était couronné du nom de l'antibiotique. Il s'agissait donc de présenter un antibiotique, fort et efficace à partir de la première administration, comme plus apte dans le traitement de certaines symptomatiques que d'autres antibiotiques concurrents.

Quand on ouvrait le dépliant, on se retrouvait sur une page double, rédigée en plusieurs couleurs qui démontraient une structure cohérente. En effet, on avait choisi une couleur pour le nom du produit et les mots clefs de la stratégie publicitaire, c'est-à-dire que le nom du produit en tête de la page correspondait aux mots clefs dans l'argumentation de vente présentée, ce qui donnait déjà la structure de base pour l'entretien de vente: *X – puissance – respect de la flore physiologique – une bonne observance – haute qualité à un prix raisonnable.* Cette structure argumentative de base n'est compréhensible que si on se dote de l'information médicale nécessaire pour suivre la cohérence persuasive des arguments (un des problèmes majeurs en thérapie antibiotique sont les effets secondaires sur la flore physiologique, donc un médicament laissant intact cette flore, est un atout pour toute entreprise pharmaceutique. Le médecin, lui aussi, va considérer cet avantage comme un point fort dans l'administration pour certains groupes de patients). Cela veut dire que les étudiants sont, déjà à ce stade de l'analyse, mis devant des défis à plusieurs niveaux: Il faut élaborer la stratégie de vente, il faut se rendre compte de la structure implicite de l'argumentation avec la signification des éléments graphiques, il faut faire des recherches sur le sujet technique pour comprendre le contenu médical dans sa cohérence et il faut travailler la terminologie.

L'ensemble de la partie intérieure du dépliant était dominé par le nom du produit et le slogan de base, contenant l'argument essentiel de la stratégie de vente, mais aussi des résultats des recherches scientifiques sur le principe actif du médicament: *Grâce à l'excellente absorption de X® au niveau de l'intestin grêle, la flore physiologique n'est pas affectée.* Suivait une illustration, montrant un extrait microscopique de la situation avant et après le traitement, flanquée par l'explication verbale, c'est-à-dire argumentative, de ce que le médecin comme initié devrait percevoir dans l'illustration. Ce texte était doté de références bibliographiques qui renvoyaient aux études scientifiques, aux présentations lors de congrès scientifiques ou aux communications écrites déjà présentées à ce sujet:

- *pas de multiplication de germes multi-résistants et potentiellement pathogènes dans la flore intestinale*[1,2,3]
- *les mécanismes de défense de l'organisme restent intacts*
- *la sensibilité aux autres antibiotiques lors d'infections ultérieures reste inchangée*

Là aussi, les étudiants voyaient la structuration argumentative en combinaison avec la stratégie de vente et en combinaison avec des éléments de textes scientifiques qui donnent les références prouvant les faits décrits.

Après avoir donné l'argumentation de base qui plaide pour l'administration de ce médicament, le référent pharmaceutique peut commencer à s'adresser plus agressivement et plus directement à son partenaire d'interaction. Des éléments publicitaires dominent dès lors le début de la partie textuelle (on s'adresse directement à l'interlocuteur avec des impératifs) pour se transformer en une seconde énumération d'arguments plaidant pour le choix de ce médicament. L'argumentation de base est mise en relation verticale par une emphase typographique (ce qui est en couleurs dans l'original, est ici indiqué en vedette):

> *Choisissez **X** comme céphalosporine orale de votre premier choix et optez pour*
>
> - *la **puissance** d'une thérapie par céphalosporines*
> - *le **respect de la flore physiologique** gastro-intestinale et ainsi des mécanismes de défense de l'organisme*
> - ***une bonne observance** grâce á*
>   - *la posologie facile d'une ou deux prises par jour*[1,2]
>   - *l'excellente tolérance*[3]
>   - *la résorption fiable non influencée par la prise concomitante d'aliments*[4]
> - *un produit de **haute qualité à un prix raisonnable***

Cette partie du texte réclamait aussi de la part des étudiants une recherche thématique pour suivre l'argumentation en matière médicale, des recherches terminologiques (par exemple pour *observance*), et une analyse exacte de la cohérence thématique des arguments qui va aboutir à une analyse verticale du texte entier (concernant les analyses verticales textuelles cf. Nord 1998). L'avantage dans ce genre de texte réside dans le fait que les étudiants sont confrontés à un texte avec des éléments connus qu'ils peuvent facilement situer en fonctions et en stratégies de textualisation, mais qui représente un texte technique d'un degré de technicité avancé qui nécessite donc de la réflexion et une recherche thématique, mais qui n'est pas encore un texte ‚complet'. Il reste donc encore un degré à gravir en technicité et en complexité de travail.

La dernière partie du texte était en fait dominée par les indications les plus importantes pour le médecin qui veut administrer le médicament en question. Elle représentait donc une variante courte d'une notice d'utilisation destinée à l'initié donnant les informations de base quant à la posologie, les propriétés, les indications et les contre-indications, les effets indésirables, la mise en garde et les précautions d'emploi. Cette partie textuelle était une bonne préparation pour le travail et la traduction de notices d'utilisation en général (en ce qui concerne les spécificités de cette sorte de texte cf. Schuldt 1992). De même les étudiants recevaient une idée des facteurs pragmatiques qui jouent un rôle dans la genèse de textes. Dans notre cas, la législation influence fortement la conception et les parties textuelles exigées dans un texte de notice d'utilisation d'un médicament. C'est-à-dire que des conventions textuelles normées peuvent être fondées dans des facteurs extralinguistiques rigides tels que la législation pour l'autorisation de commercialisation d'un médicament, dont les prémisses peuvent diverger d'un pays à l'autre et dont les éléments peuvent diverger fortement dans l'étude contrastive des facteurs culturels pertinents. Tous ces facteurs dans l'ensemble donnent enfin la sorte de texte *document de visite*.

Une spécificité textuelle qui est aussi intéressante à voir avec les étudiants réside dans le fait que ces notices d'utilisation sont principalement destinées au médecin, donc à la personne initiée à la matière scientifique. Les étudiants voient ainsi une sous-catégorie de cette sorte de texte et peuvent se poser des questions comme par exemple ‚où sont les parties textuelles exclusivement destinées au médecin, où sont celles qui s'adressent aussi au patient, quelles présuppositions sont incluses?', … En plus, cette partie du texte se révèle être la plus normée renfermant des conventions textuelles assez rigides, mais dont la plupart sont connues par les étudiants, puisqu'ils sont confrontés de temps en temps à la situation de devoir lire des notices d'utilisation d'un médicament. C'est aussi la partie textuelle la plus technique en ce qui concerne les présuppositions médicales et la terminologie technique. Les étudiants y acquièrent donc des connaissances sur les conventions textuelles de cette sorte de texte ainsi que des connaissances sur le sujet technique et la terminologie médicale.

5.1 La localisation de produits

Pour mettre l'accent sur les qualités de localisateur exigés chez le traducteur, un autre exemple d'analyse a été traité dans le même cours. Il s'agissait de plusieurs *documents de visite* pour le même médicament, un antifongique cette fois, mais destiné à des pays et ainsi à des groupes cibles différents. Les étudiants étaient donc confrontés à des variantes de localisation permettant de leur démontrer l'importance d'une adaptation culturelle et pragmatique d'un texte pour créer un produit adéquat orienté vers le skopos de la communication technique. Comme nous l'avons mentionné, cet antifongique devait être vendu en Europe, mais aussi en Afrique Noire, en Arabie Saoudite et au Liban. Les étudiants ont pris connaissance des *documents de visite* réalisés pour les pays en question lors d'une première analyse et ont constaté les différences entre les variantes de ce même *document de visite*. Ces différences étaient en fait le résultat d'un processus de localisation, le même concept de vente et les mêmes stratégies argumentatives avaient été soumis à une adaptation culturelle et pragmatique. Dans le cas présent, cela signifiait que le *document de visite* pour l'Arabie Saoudite et le Liban, des pays dans une situation économique assez prospère où les habitants et les médecins peuvent facilement se permettre un traitement médical intensif en coût, était le même: La langue de travail était l'anglais, le *document de visite* présentait brièvement les avantages de ce nouvel antifongique en comparaison avec des médicaments connus (*higher mycological cure rates, monosubstance with antiinflammatory effect, same effect but no side effect, superior mycological cure rates, additional benefits: once daily application, better patient complicance, fast onset of action, antibacterial effect…*) et mettait lors de la présentation des faits surtout l'accent sur des statistiques, des tableaux, des graphiques et une conception visuelle décente, sans illustrations authentiques. La version française pour l'Afrique Noire, par contre, était dominée par des illustrations assez drastiques montrant les tableaux de maladie et les syndromes dans toutes leurs dimensions désagréables pour le patient. Les rédacteurs de ce *document de visite* avaient apparemment dans leur conception de localisation essayé de convaincre un groupe cible, dont ils savaient que ses conditions de vie étaient moins favorables que celles des groupes cibles dans des pays plus prospères. Par conséquent, une présentation beaucoup plus drastique des menaces et risques encourus a été choisie afin de persuader d'investir dans ce médicament. La stratégie de vente avait donc changé au niveau extralinguistique, à l'égard de la présentation illustrative, tandis que le texte était plus ou moins le même que dans la version anglaise (*activité fongicide primaire, taux de guérison supérieurs, activité inflammatoire, une application par jour, …*) – sauf qu'il a été rajouté la mention *coût du traitement économique* comme argument économique encourageant.

Les étudiants voyaient ainsi un exemple de la localisation comme adaptation pragmatique et culturelle en fonction de l'intention communicative d'un texte et du skopos de la production textuelle. Cet exemple leur facilitait la tâche lors de leur propre traduction où ils devaient tenir compte, en plus du niveau technique, terminologique, linguistique et textuel, aussi de la dimension culturelle, de la composante relative à la culture du récipient cible, qui est d'une importance décisive pour le fonctionnement d'un texte dans son contexte situatif.

6. Bilan (didactique)

La traduction comprend de nos jours des activités très hétérogènes, dépassant largement les limites du simple transfert de langue. Le traducteur doit être un expert de communication qui est à même d'effectuer, en plus de son travail de traduction, des travaux d'optimisation textuelle (cf. Albin 1998:117), d'adaptation culturelle, de création textuelle sur la base de matériel différent. La tendance dans le profil d'exigences au traducteur moderne va vers des activités productrices et non vers des activités exclusivement reproductrices (cf. Göpferich 2002: sous presse). Le travail avec les *documents de visite* en traduction technique médicale satisfait à ces exigences, puisqu'il permet, à part l'acquisition de compétences et connaissances techniques et de traduction en langue technique, d'encourager le développement de compétences créatives, orientées vers la fonction et le but inhérent dans une production de texte planifiée.

Les traductions de *documents de visite* et d'autres sortes de textes similaires, comme des notices d'utilisation, réalisées après l'analyse et le travail des *documents de visite* présentés ci-dessus, reflétaient, en fait, une bonne connaissance des conventions textuelles, de la terminologie adéquate et des faits techniques acquis par le travail précédent avec cette sorte de textes. Les étudiants avaient appris à mettre en relation la situation de travail, le mandat de traduction, le texte, la situation, la spécificité des interactants en question, le processus de traduction et les exigences à leur produit, le texte cible. Les compétences textuelles avec lesquelles les étudiants entament un cours, ne sont souvent que des compétences passives, le travail textuel analytique permet une activation de ces compétences pour enfin pouvoir les mettre en jeu dans le processus de traduction.

La sorte de texte *document de visite* présente, en fonction de la dominance d'éléments visuels ou d'éléments textuels, des présuppositions techniques et de la matière traitée, une certaine graduation technique et ainsi de difficulté pour l'utilisation en didactique. Il y a des textes qui mettent plus l'accent sur l'effet publicitaire et qui sont, pour cette raison, plus faciles en termes techniques, et d'autres qui mettent plus l'accent sur l'information, sur des faits de recherches et sur l'argumentation en matière technique et qui sont pour cette raison plus difficiles à traiter et à étudier en cours. Ainsi, il est possible de choisir pour la didactique une certaine gradation thématique, une gradation en technicité et ainsi en difficulté dont résultent des exigences différentes et graduables aux compétences du traducteur. Ces textes servent en didactique de la traduction en langue de spécialité à l'élaboration de spécificités culturelles, mais aussi à l'élaboration et à la structuration de connaissances techniques et préparent au travail continu avec d'autres types et sortes de textes dans le contexte de la langue technique médicale.

Le travail effectué avec le *document de visite* correspond aux exigences didactiques nécessaires à la formation d'un traducteur. Si la tâche est de constituer un nouveau *document de visite*, il faut travailler avec des sortes de textes différentes, d'une technicité hétérogène comme par exemple des études scientifiques, des conceptions et stratégies du marketing et des textes techniques informatifs figurant comme matériel de base pour la création d'un nouveau texte. Les étudiants vivent, dans un travail de projet de ce type, une motivation de travail exceptionnelle et sont incités à assumer la responsabilité pour un produit entier et pas seulement pour un maillon dans une chaîne d'actions. La complexité et l'intertextualité de cette sorte de texte permet en didactique de faire le pont entre plusieurs niveaux de technicité et il permet de travailler, à part le contenu technique, des stratégies communicatives généralement importantes pour le curriculum du traducteur, comme par exemple des stratégies au niveau de l'argumentation et de l'interaction, au niveau de la stylistique et au niveau des compétences textuelles tout en respectant des conventions textuelles dans la production de textes. L'étudiant analyse ces éléments dans l'étude contrastive de langue et de culture et les applique ensuite dans son propre processus de traduction. Aussi, les étudiants se voient eux-mêmes comme créateurs actifs de textes qui doivent fonctionner dans un cadre déterminé. La composante culturelle est démontrée et mise en jeu et les étudiants se concentrent non seulement au niveau horizontal, mais aussi au niveau vertical à la structuration et aux facteurs de cohérence textuelle. Ainsi, ils acquièrent une compréhension plus profonde pour l'interconnexion des dimensions linguistiques, textuelles, extralinguistiques, pragmatiques et culturelles dans la genèse textuelle – et ainsi dans la traduction. Les étudiants apprennent à évaluer le degré de technicité d'un texte et les dimensions de complexité de leur tâche de travail. Ce sont des connaissances de base nécessaires dans toute situation de travail en tant que traducteur.

Dans le travail avec les *documents de visite*, le traducteur se trouve en permanence dans une relation de tension entre la dimension textuelle avec les conventions textuelles à respecter et les normes linguistiques de la langue et de la culture cible et la dimension des interactants avec leur identité, leur attentes et intentions, situés dans un certain cadre d'actions. Il s'y ajoute la dimension culturelle, le cadre socioculturel, le cadre situatif et pragmatique, dans lequel le texte doit enfin fonctionner et satisfaire les besoins et les attentes des interactants. Ceci figure comme un grand défi de cette sorte de texte à l'égard de la création de texte et de la traduction – et ainsi aussi à l'égard de la didactique en langue de spécialité médicale.

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ABSTRACT

Le *document de visite*: les mérites d'une sorte de texte pour la didactique de la traduction en langue de spécialité

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In the age of globalization specialized knowledge has become an integral component of our culture(s) and with the increasing specialization of technical disciplines it has also become a social necessity. The medical field is characterized by a vast interconnection and interdependence, namely internally with regard to the various specializations as well as externally as seen in the availability and marketing of medical knowledge in the public domain. Maintaining the flow of knowledge internally as well as externally is intraculturally and above all interculturally in the basic interest of society and the individual. Making medical knowledge available has thus also become an integrative component of a translator's professional work as a communications expert.

The task with which today's translators are increasingly faced is evolving from text reproduction to new text production, a fact that today's translation didactics must reflect. For this reason and precisely for medical translations the academic curriculum of a professional translator should include as an integrative component a didactically sound approach to text analysis and, above all, to the production of special texts if it is to prepare the translator for his role as a communications expert. This is particularly true for the field of medical translations, which as a combination of medical science and health care as a social institution embodies a very complex interaction characterized by a multiplicity of function- and situation-relevant levels of specialization and a great heterogeneity of interactors. The translator, who in this role not infrequently optimizes and localizes text, faces a very particular challenge here. Depending on the pragmatic contingencies of the translation assignment and the specifics of the actors involved therein, various and didactically interesting demands are made of the translator, who must not only transculturally and inter-linguistically effect communication in specialized fields, but must also be able to adapt to the changing conditions of the intended reception of the target text and the target public by producing a skopos-oriented adaptation and often a new version of the source text.

Because of their specific text type, their function in the particular context and above all through the characteristics of the interaction partners, *pharmaceutical visiting documents* are, also didactically, interesting for analysis and processing in a translation-relevant context. The translator plays here a very special role as a language and culture expert who is called upon to adapt his product to the intended purpose and the specifics of the cultural environment in which his translation is intended to function. For this reason the following contribution shall examine the *visiting document* in its relevance for translation didactics.

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REPORTS:

Multilingual Police Communication

LinguaNet now installed in 9 countries

Report on an EU Language Engineering project and its present application in police communication across European frontiers and languages

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1. Project background and recent developments

Since 1995, the language of operational police communication has been the focus of research for a team of LSP researchers from the Faculty of Modern Languages at Copenhagen Business School. The team has participated in two major EU projects: Test-Bed LinguaNet and Sensus, both dealing with language engineering related to law enforcement, the overall aim being to combat cross-border crime. This report will focus mainly on the language components of LinguaNet.

Basic project facts are shown in the fact box. Thus, CBS provided linguistic elements of the project; Prolingua provided a multilingual prototype and system software; the University of Bordeaux supported the linguistic effort; the University of Leuven set out the laws governing cross-border communication; Philips experimented with digital radio communications; the Judge Institute in Cambridge supported the awareness of the project and a multinational team of police officers in six countries was co-ordinated by the Kent County Constabulary.

More information is available at the project web sites, cf. below.

Facts about Test-Bed LinguaNet
EU programme: Telematics Applications
Programme domain: Language engineering
Budget, total: 2.4 million ECU
EU contribution: 1.4 million ECU

Participants
Cambridge University, United Kingdom
Copenhagen Business School
Kent County Constabulary, United Kingdom
Leuven University, Belgium
Philips CE BV, Netherlands
Prolingua Ltd, United Kingdom
Université Bordeaux II, France.

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Active front-line police units communicate not only across national borders and language barriers but also across different national legal and penal systems involving complex domains of knowledge and highly specialised subject areas. These include drug trafficking, money laundering, organised crime, fraud, violent crime and economic crime, rules of criminal procedure to mention but a few. Police officers in one country and their counterparts abroad may have a common understanding of a wide range of professional issues, but do not necessarily possess sufficient knowledge about law, procedures and practices in the countries they interact with. Police communication is "knowledge intensive" and there is a need for transfer of highly specialised knowledge across languages and cultures.

LinguaNet provides police units with real time, language assisted, electronic, cross-border communication. Built in response to the relaxation of European frontier controls, LinguaNet offers a secure internet-independent link for routine communication between operational police units in different countries.

The system transfers and translates messages containing formatted controlled text segments dealing with identification and checking of persons, vehicles, bank cards, firearms etc., so that they can be read in any of the interface languages. In addition, the system allows machine translation of incoming free text segments. Images e.g. from digital cameras and sound files may also be integrated directly into the messages. Most carrier technologies can be used to transmit the messages from fixed or mobile terminals: ISDN, PSTN, X400, GSM, ADSL.

Used in concert with national bureaux of Interpol, LinguaNet is an additional tool to help police combat cross-border crime.

Originally, the project grew from an academic orientation, which coincided with an operational requirement. Operationally, no fast, safe and multilingual provision for cross-border police communication existed in a Europe busily engaged in dismantling its internal frontiers. Academically, no machine translation system could deliver translation of a quality sufficient for mission critical communication where an error might result in the loss of a life.

LinguaNet first began in 1992 as an English and French police and emergency prototype for services working at the Channel Tunnel. Beginning with bilingual cross-border emergency messages for the Channel Tunnel between France and England, LinguaNet was later configured for a range of routine police messages between a small number of countries in the region. It has since evolved and expanded.

In 1995, the European Commission DGXIII Framework IV Programme supported a project called Test-Bed LinguaNet; a three year effort to solve issues related to this and other developments. The project also allowed the further development of the operational system. Since 1999, the system has been developed further and is now commercially available. It has been tested, in front line conditions, between nine countries over a four year period. It performs reliably and consistently and a growing network of connections is established. We should distinguish here between the operational system which is implemented and the whole group of methodologies and concepts explored during the Test-Bed LinguaNet project. In several cases academic lines of enquiry went much further than was necessary for immediate system development. These lines of enquiry are discussed therefore, where appropriate, independently of the implementation.

The messaging system is used between nine countries and presently runs in eight languages. There are approximately fifty operational sites, most of which are port and border locations as well as central information bureaux. Forty-five of these are operational police sites which use the technology for daily communication, and the officers concerned meet up twice yearly at user group meetings.

At the same time, resources which may be deployed in further enhancements and academic research have been produced. These include the CBS collection of multilingual police terminology and the methodology created to assemble it, the results of experimentation with proprietary machine translation by CBS, studies of text/graphics integration and broad band radio transmission.

The LinguaNet Project has thus provided the opportunity not only to engage in computational, linguistic and communications research but to do it in a real world context and for a real world outcome. In addition to published papers, the Test-Bed LinguaNet team reports progress in highly unconventional terms:

- Stolen Vehicles worth over 5 million Euro recovered from containers at Felixstowe
- Drugs gang intercepted on the Spain/France frontier traced to Manchester
- Abducted child recovered in Holland
- Relative peace at the World Cup football matches at Lens France
- Stun gun attacker in Berlin found in Birmingham.

2. User involvement and user requirements

One of the most challenging aspects of the project is that research has been carried out in close co-operation with a user group - a multinational team of police end users in six countries coordinated by the Kent County Constabulary. The ongoing dialogue with the users has made the project “interactive”. The need for researchers to respond to user requirements and test results against the demands of the user community has demonstrated the value of user involvement and challenged existing working methods and methodologies.

A formal user requirement study was initiated in the early stages of the project. Contrary to many of the researchers' expectations, extremely practical considerations such as low price, low training implications, simplicity of operation, were highest on the list of priorities and not advanced technical solutions. Salient features of the user requirements which guided the system build are set out in the following list:

General / technical requirements

safe	- internet independent, encryption option
reliable	- low maintenance implications
point to point	- initial system to be server-independent
easy to install	- standard software platform, standard hardware
easy to use	- able to be used by non-technical staff
portable	- able to run on portable PCs via radio links
low training costs	- cheap to purchase and to run

transferable to multi-agency multi-national disaster senarios
able to use available connectivity
able to be upgraded (functionality)
able to be expanded (languages and sites)
able to carry graphics and sound files

Language requirements

interfaces in all user languages
user specified ***templates*** for operational messages
translation modules for controlled text and free text segments
creation of multilingual ***police lexicons and databases***

Some of the user requirement contained non technical issues which had a direct bearing on the technical details of the system build. A good example of this was the need for a thorough research study of existing legal provisions for data security and data interchange between the police forces of Europe. This included a legal study by the University of Leuven[1]. Another interesting feature was the requirement that direct connectivity to national criminal databases be specifically excluded for security, legal and data protection reasons.

To sum up, the system had to provide fast safe and direct communication between police units of any number of countries. It needed interfaces in multiple languages and the capability to translate messages about the basic topics used in real time cross-border police operations between those languages with full confidence. It would permit users to utilise less-than-perfect proprietary machine translation programs for gist translations of incoming free text. Further, dictionary look-up facilities and retrieval of police relevant information would be provided. The system would be capable of operating on or off the Internet, independently of service providers, independently of otherwise incompatible national police computer systems and permit direct exchanges between both static and mobile terminals.

[1] Van Outrive et. al. (1997): Legal Analysis (Final Report), University of Leuven Belgium.

3. Meeting user requirements

The remainder of this report will focus on the efforts to fulfil certain aspects of the language requirements.

A unique resource available to the project team was the collection of a corpus of operational language comprising i.a. messages exchanged between regional police units and between different branches of Interpol. Thus corpus analysis and thorough studies of procedures and linguistic features in police communication constituted the base of the selection of data elements in all languages. In response to the requirements set out by the users and as a result of the analyses, the three-layer model described below was developed as well as system interfaces in all user languages.

3.1 User specified templates and language interfaces

The multilingual corpus of police messages was analysed and relevant high frequency data elements identified and assembled in templates with pick-lists that constitute the backbone of the system. Identification and selection of data elements to populate the system was made by linguists in collaboration with police officers, and the resulting data elements were integrated into pick-lists as described below. Data elements, terminology, and factual police information were stored and managed in user-friendly databases cf. 3.3.

The **corpus analysis** and user surveys conducted during the user requirement stages of the project elicited the most commonly occurring message types. Examples of these are:

- wanted or missing person checks and replies
- vehicle checks and replies
- accident situation reports and updates
- bankers' cards enquiries and replies
- composite messages uniting persons, vehicles, drugs, firearms etc.
- requests and replies to telephone subscriber checks
- requests for and replies to address checks
- enquiries relating to small boats and movements thereof
- enquiries relating to light aircraft and movements thereof
- enquiries relating to companies.

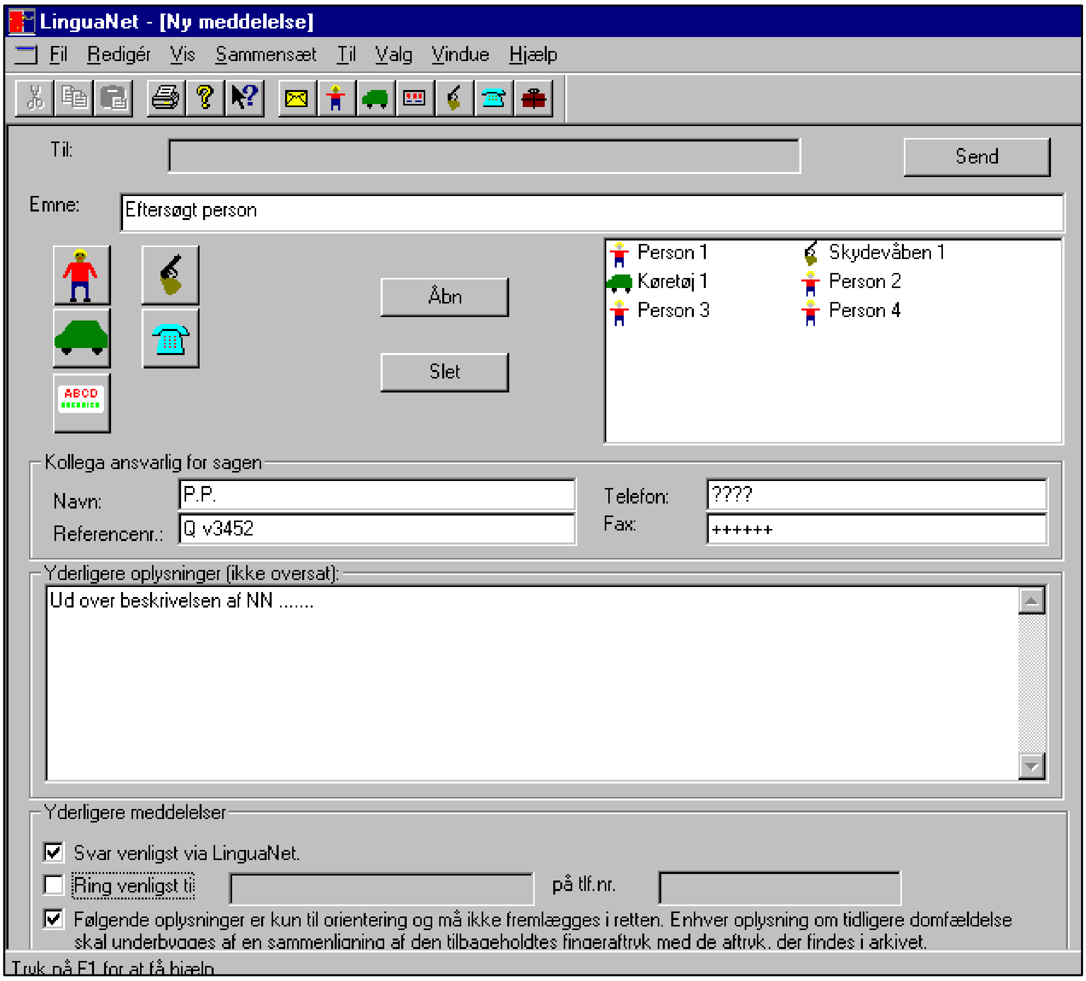
Data elements drawn from the corpus were analysed, compared to existing multi-lingual forms and guidelines (e.g. Interpol) and eventually assembled in multilingual templates representing a standard suited to LinguaNet. Thus, a number of templates were created for message types frequently occurring in cross-border police communication. Person description is a case in point. The below list shows part of the person description template covering eyebrows in three languages. The notation reflects the postion of each element in the knowledge model generated on the basis of the information extracted from the corpora.

LinguaNet standard description of eyebrows			
1.5.4-1.1-1-2	**øjenbryn**	**eyebrows**	**sourcils**
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.1	*(form)*	*(shape)*	*(forme)*
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.1.1	buede	arched	arqués
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.1.2	retlinede	straight	rectilignes
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.1.3	sammenvoksede	joining	réunis
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.2	*(dimension)*	*(dimension)*	*(dimension)*
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.2.1	korte	short	courts
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.2.2	lange	long	longs
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.2.3	brede	wide	larges
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.2.4	smalle	narrow	étroits
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.3	*(fylde)*	*(volume)*	*(volume)*
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.3.1	tynde	thin	minces
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.3.2	tætte	dense	épais
1.5.4-1.1-1-2.3.3	buskede	bushy	en broussaille

Each template consists of a set of predefined fields with picklists. Picklist values represent a selection of terms within the domains covered in the Test-Bed LinguaNet project. The automatic conversion between languages has two important features:

1) users at any site have a choice of interface languages and may switch from one to another. The interface language is usually determined by the language spoken in the country where the system is set up, e.g. English interface language in the UK, Danish interface language in Denmark etc.

2) the picklists match the interface language. This means in practice that a message sent from the UK in English is received in Danish in Denmark, in French in France etc.



This screen dump shows the first page of a set of templates for a composite message covering an enquiry about persons, vehicles, stolen credit cards etc. In this case the interface and the user language is Danish. The icons signal that message refers to four armed persons in a car. To describe one of the persons, a click on the appropriate icon displays a page with templates for person description. Here, the sender may click the appropriate fields in order to describe the wanted person.

An important feature of this methodology is that it is fairly easy to add new languages. The analysis will have to be made for the new language only and results matched against existing data elements. Minor adjustments may have to be made in order to align and standardise data elements when a large number of languages are involved. However, adjustments will always be checked against and related to a controlled knowledge structure.

3.2 Translation modules for controlled text and free text segments

The preformatted messaging component can only process the most common routine messages. Although new messages may be analysed and added on a permanent basis, it is impossible to fulfil all user requirements related to a specific inquiry. Future candidates for standardised templates could be description of the crime scene and Modus Operandi. However, law enforcement officers often need to exchange case-specific information which cannot be standardised, and for that purpose free text fields are available in the system. This created the need for embedding a machine translation system allowing the text written in the free text field to be automatically translated.

It was therefore proposed to make one or more proprietary machine translation systems available to LinguaNet users. After consulting the user group, the following requirements were specified for the machine translation component:

- reliability in an operational context
- robustness
- must not presuppose linguistic expertise at the user level
- possibility to add customised dictionaries
- PC / laptop-based (given that LinguaNet uses point-to-point communication for security reasons).

At CBS, a test involving a user evaluation of the French => English module of SYSTRAN© was carried out with a view to establishing its potential in relation to the LinguaNet user group. SYSTRAN was applied in a small three-step experiment:

1. Segments of unedited corpus text were submitted to the standard SYSTRAN French-English module without correction of spelling mistakes etc.
2. A spell and grammar checked version of the same segments was submitted to SYSTRAN standard module
3. Finally, the checked texts were translated using a selection of SYSTRAN domain specific glossaries and relevant text type options plus a customised project dictionary.

On the input side, the availability of an interactive spell- and grammar-checking facility turned out to be crucial to ensure the quality of the source text to be translated. Some examples below illustrate some of the translation problems caused by typos.

A test panel was asked to read the translations from French into English and decide whether they

a) understood the messages from just reading the translated texts
b) found that they would act on the basis of the translation alone under mission-critical circumstances.

The user test concluded that only step 3 was a viable solution. According to the users, step 3 translations were comprehensible, but police officers would not rely on the translations alone under mission-critical circumstances. However, they found that the translations were by and large good enough for deciding whether or not to (urgently) call in a human translator.

The LinguaNet approach to using embedded MT was on the whole found useful provided that

- MT be available solely for translation of free text elements of an incoming message only as a supplement to controlled content transfer.
- the sender runs a spell and grammar check before transmitting a free text message; this could obviously not be done by the recipient who does not know the source language.
- it is the user in receipt of a free text message in a language he/she is not familiar with who submits the text to MT.
- any raw machine translation output be clearly flagged as 'raw MT output' thereafter.

A SPECIAL PROBLEM: TYPOS and MACHINE TRANSLATION

Spelling mistakes and typos may cause fatal translation problems in MT. Some are not detectable through spell-check: 'no body' (instead of 'nobody') was translated into French by 'aucun corps' (no corpse).

Others are detected but may still cause problems. Thus 'colleague' was spelled in the following ways in a corpus of 5000 messages, the number referring to frequency:

SINGULAR

57 colleague
2 colleages
6 colleaque
1 colleauge
3 colleauqe
22 collega
3 collegae
6 college
17 collegue

PLURAL

208 colleagues
7 collegas
1 colleuages
4 collegeas
3 colleaques
1 colleauges

The variation is quite impressive. The six occurrences of 'college' (should in all cases have been 'colleague') are not picked up by a spell-checker. If automatic spell-checking was used, mistakes like 'collegeas' would be changed to 'colleges' not 'colleagues'. English speakers who read 'college' instead of 'colleague' may easily understand the sentence anyway, but French policemen who read a translation which has 'université' instead of 'collègue' are not likely to detect the original error. These examples prove demonstrate the complexity of the problem of using machine translation under operational circumstances.

3.3 Multilingual police lexicons and databases

In addition to the messaging components and the templates, the Test-Bed LinguaNet results comprise a large multi-lingual knowledge and terminology repository. The compilation and structuring of the repository was headed by CBS in collaboration with police units across Europe. The main objective of the repository was to give police officers easy access to cross-cultural domain specific information as a supplement to the relatively restricted standardised knowledge integrated in the messaging system. At the same time the repository was the backbone of knowledge and terminology management in the project. The CBS repository comprises

- a person description database
- a Justice and Home Affairs database
- a drugs database
- a police facts database
- a casualty registration database

with a total of almost 10,000 concepts and around 35,000 terms including graphics.

Person description database

Person description is one of the most vital elements in police work. In recognition of this and in anticipation of LinguaNet extensions to many more languages a comprehensive set of data elements which can be retrieved for the purpose of form filling, report writing, translation, has been created. Data elements are organised in systems of concepts.

On the basis of source material provided a hierarchical system of concepts has been elaborated, the focal point being the description of the human head and face. One of the advantages of drawing up a system of concepts is that 'gaps' in the overall coverage are disclosed, and the hierarchical set-up gives an overview of the structure of the particular subject. Terms have been organised in a systematic list including position numbers derived from the system of concepts.

The database resulting from the data element engineering contains

1. Comprehensive person description terminology in three languages (Danish, English, French),
2. Systems of concepts in the three languages,
3. Pictures of physical features, and links between records that enable users to track knowledge about a certain term and go from broad to narrow concepts. If, for example, the user wants to describe a head more closely, he/she may look up the term head and gain access to sets of narrower terms.

The record for head has links to records for shape of the head en face and shape of the head in profile. The record has the relevant terminology for describing a head as well as graphics and a link to the appropriate system of concepts.

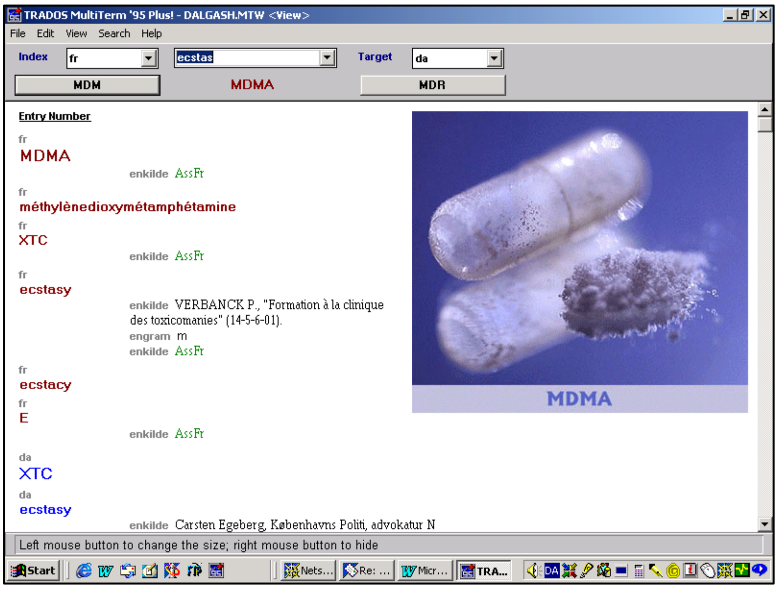
The Justice and Home Affairs Database

The Justice and Home Affairs Database consists of terminology retrieved from the European Commission's Customs Information System database. The multilingual information included comprises subject areas of the EU treaty section VI, article K, i.e. asylum policy, immigration policy, police co-operation (combating drug trafficking, terrorism and organised crime).

The Justice and Home Affairs terminology covers 9 EU languages: Danish, Dutch, English, French, German, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Swedish. Cross-references in the database allow the user to easily access associated concept entries.

Drugs Database

Internet resources concerning police matters have proved to be a useful knowledge source in the project, e.g. Internet sites concerning wanted people, stolen art, missing children, drugs, etc. CBS created a multilingual knowledge base on drugs with their street names, pictures, etc.



The information contained in the database comes mainly from official sources in English, French, German, Spanish, and Danish.

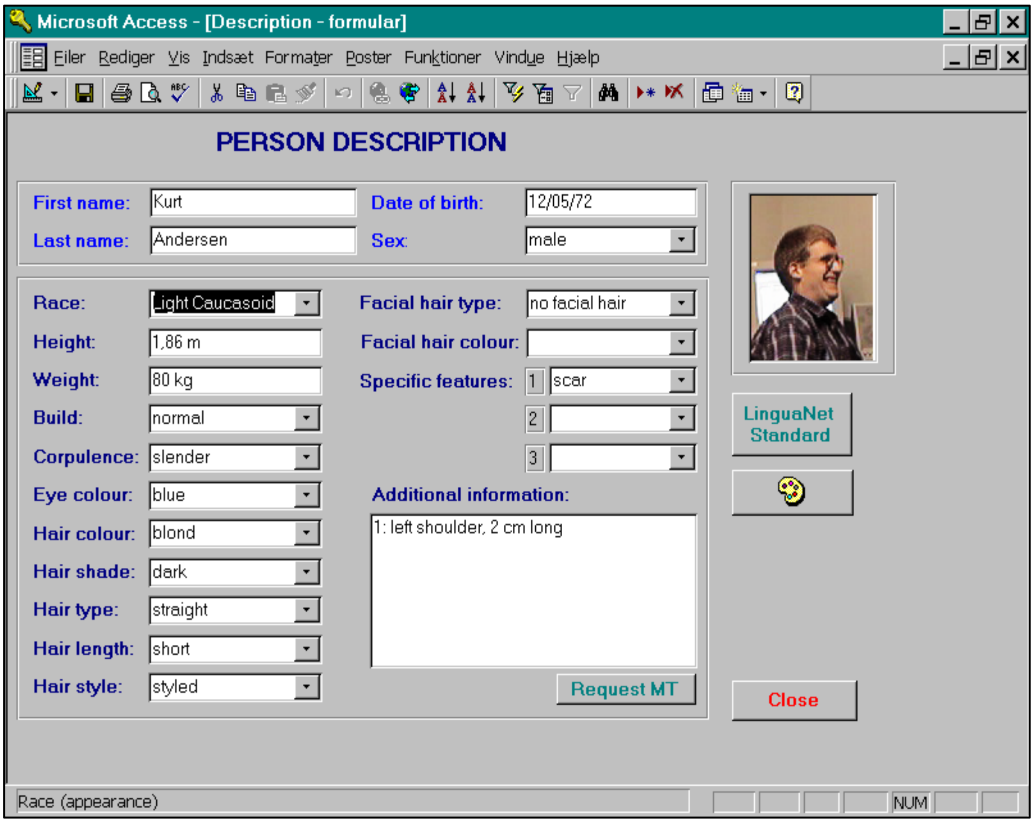
Police Facts Database

This corpus also forms part of the Test-Bed LinguaNet Knowledge Base. The corpus comprises terminology covering policing and rescue terms originating from a number of sources, the main one being a publication in Danish, English, French and German edited by the National Commissioner in Denmark. It gives an introduction to functions, duties, organisation, personnel, etc. of the Danish Police Service containing extensive terminology for description of police including text, concepts, graphics and pictures. This material has a clearly defined source language, which is Danish. This is reflected in The Test-Bed LinguaNet Knowledge Base in that the English, French and German terminology is used to describe the Danish police services. The aim of this work was to develop a methodology applicable to other languages.

Multilingual Casualty Registration

CBS has created a flexible modular system for registering and retrieving incident and person data in connection with a major incident. It does not, so far, form part of the LinguaNet Windows version, but is a prototype for a prospective casualty format.

One of the forms - the Person Description Form - is the result of extensive terminological work on assembling data elements and building concept systems for person description. The information categories represented have been selected by comparing and contrasting existing forms and attempting to satisfy both the need



for quick identification, where only a few information categories are filled in, and a more thorough person description with more details. Picklists reflect the work done on person description terminology.

3.4 Interfaces in all user languages

At present, LinguaNet has user interfaces in Danish, Dutch, English, French, German, Italian, Polish, Portuguese, Spanish and Swedish.

4 Future

In this paper we have focused on the language problems in cross-national police communication and the language resources and data elements developed for LinguaNet. The LinguaNet user community has grown significantly since the conclusion of the EU project. The users find the system as a whole user-friendly and robust and consider the following features developed in the LinguaNet project particularly useful:

a) Easy access to stored and pre-translated data elements supplemented with free text elements.
b) Information retrieval in one or several languages from knowledge bases, lexicons, terminological resources.

c) Interaction between text, pictures and speech.

According to the users, another important advantage has been the creation of trust and confidence between colleagues who speak different languages but need to work closely together.

Future developments could comprise enhancement of the present system with such technologies as speech to text and vice versa, deeper integration of graphics, seamless access to professional databases.

Cross-border communication is in its very nature multilingual and with the disappearance of national borders in Europe there is an increasing need to overcome existing language barriers not only in police work but also in business communications, medical communications etc. The LinguaNet system structure and methodology can be applied wherever the communicative requirements of the participants can be engineered as a series of suitably controlled transactional events using controlled language. The system is easy to expand so as to cover new languages and new domains. The most recent LinguaNet user is the British Immigration Authority, and this may signal the starting point of a new important development for the LinguaNet system.

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LINGUANET WEB SITES

LinguaNet featured as a showcase project	http://www.prosoma.lu
LinguaNet within a EuropeanCommission language engineering project	http://www.hltcentral.org/ (search for LinguaNet)
LinguaNet main website	http://hermesdoc.lib.cbs.dk:80/departments/fir/linguanet/
LinguaNet brochure (1996)	http://www.Prolingua.co.uk/brochure/contents.html

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ABSTRACT

Multilingual Police Communication

Report on an EU Language Engineering project and its present application in police communication across European frontiers and languages

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Edward Johnson (Visiting professor at CBS, 1998-2000)
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The LinguaNet police communication system is significant for four reasons. Firstly, the number of frontier locations using LinguaNet has increased greatly from the original pair of just two police offices in Kent and the Nord Pas-de-Calais. Secondly, the LinguaNet initiative became broader in scope than the Channel Tunnel projects and was eventually supported by the European Commission as a six nation Framework 4 Telematics project. Thirdly, LinguaNet is a provision which recognises the importance of first hand observations and the sharing of those observations between trusted law enforcement professionals across language barriers. Terrorism and organised crime cannot be defeated by techniques such as data mining and analysis of electronic footprints alone. Fourthly, LinguaNet, as a project, has metamorphosed from a custom-built police communications mechanism to a living experiment in cross border co-operation which is running still. Much is being learned from the experiment which, when properly recorded and analysed, can provide vital data for future developments. This paper focuses on the contributions by CBS to the LinguaNet project; these contributions were concentrated on linguistic analysis, terminology extraction and terminology management as well as integration of embedded machine translation.

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L'Europe comme objet d'études

Une nouvelle filière à la Faculté de langues modernes de l'Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales de Copenhague

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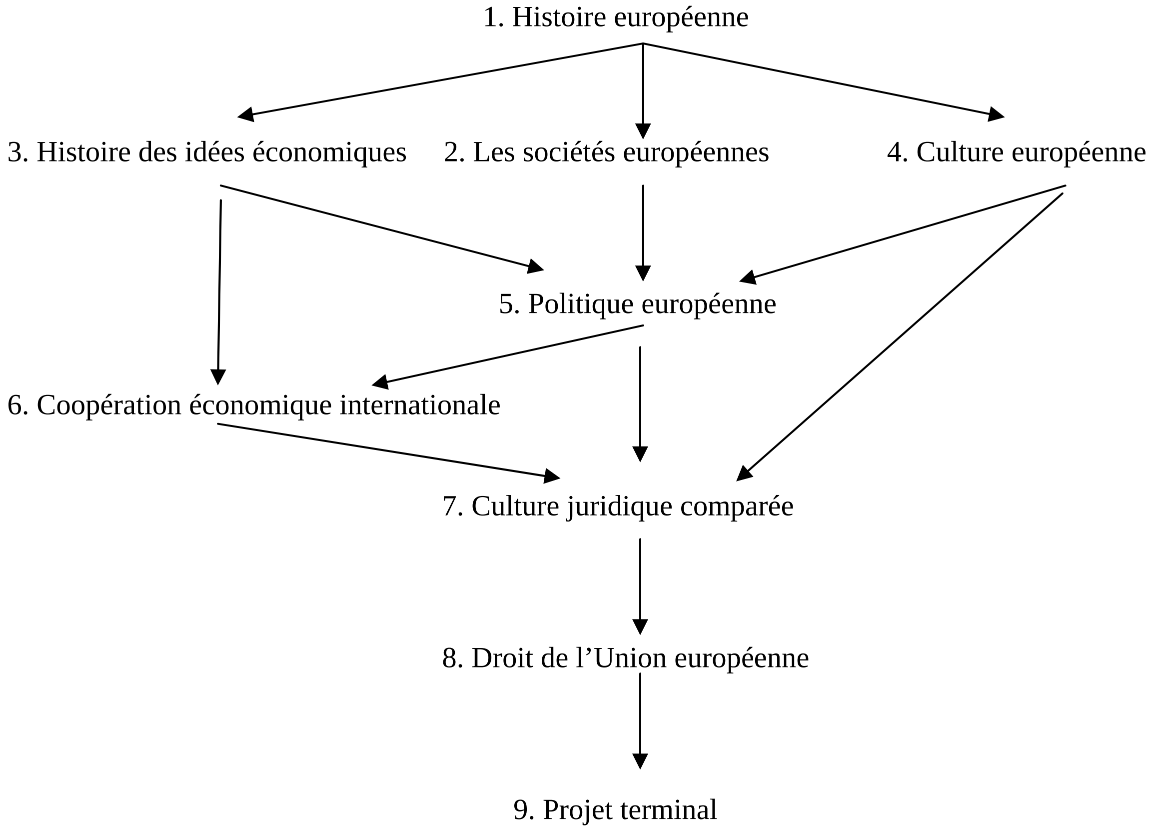
Depuis la rentrée de septembre 2000, l'éventail d'études de la Faculté de langues modernes comprend des choix et des combinaisons nouvelles par rapport aux études traditionnelles. A côté des combinaisons de deux langues, les étudiants peuvent maintenant choisir des combinaisons comprenant une langue – anglais, franHais, allemand, espagnol, italien ou russe – et une matière « non linguistique » telle que Communication, Marketing international, Etudes européennes et Etudes américaines. Ces nouvelles options ont constitué une réponse efficace aux tendances à la stagnation voire à la baisse qui depuis des années menacent les études de langues, en faisant remonter en flèche la courbe du nombre d'étudiants inscrits.

Les Etudes Européennes constituent une nouveauté aussi bien parmi les options d'études de la Faculté qu'au niveau du contenu. Si les cadres formels (durée, nombre de ECTS, etc.) sont établis par le règlement général des études du ministère de l'éducation nationale, l'architecture interne est entièrement originale en combinant des disciplines historiques, économiques, culturelles, politiques et juridiques. L'unité de toute cette diversité est assurée par des optiques communes et une perspective historique générale. Si les neuf modules qui constituent le cursus sont mutuellement autonomes, leur enchaînement ne présuppose pas moins une cohérence entre eux et une certaine progression. Voici le programme et son articulation en neuf modules[1] :

[1] Voir la description complète et détaillée en danois sur internet:

http://www.edu.cbs.dk/ba/studiehaandbog/k9eu_studier.shtml.



Toute étude de l’Europe repose sur une connaissance de son histoire. Voilà pourquoi le premier module est une introduction à l’histoire européenne, de la Grèce ancienne à la fin de la guerre froide. C’est en effet l’histoire qui définit les dimensions qui encadrent l’évolution économique, culturelle et politique du continent, et c’est cette histoire qui, vue comme une dialectique éternelle entre l’unification et la fragmentation, constitue le rythme fondamental des mouvements évolutifs de l’Europe.

L’état national est une invention européenne et cette forme de société a vécu de nombreux avatars et développements vers les formes actuelles qu’on a l’habitude de considérer comme parmi les plus beaux achèvements de l’esprit européen : l’état démocratique, l’état de droit, l’étatprovidence, etc…, bref des formes de société qui n’assurent pas seulement les cadres matériels de la vie et de la sécurité des citoyens, mais qui garantissent aussi leurs droits et libertés fondamentales. Le cours sur les sociétés européennes (module 2.) ne donne pas seulement un aperHu de la formation de ces sociétés, mais offre un choix de cercles d’étude où la connaissance de certains exemples bien choisis est approfondie. A ces approches particulières de différentes sociétés européennes s’ajoute le cours sur la politique européenne depuis 1945 (module 5.) qui, pour ainsi dire, rassemble les fils des deux premiers modules.

Une des forces les plus puissantes de l’évolution sociale est évidemment l’évolution économique qui sous-tend toute politique. Pour comprendre l’Europe, et certains aspects de son histoire, une bonne connaissance des idées économiques est indispensable (module 3.). L'évolution de la pensée économique est aussi indissolublement liée à l'évolution générale des idées et de la culture. Le module 4. donne ainsi un aperHu des courants majeurs de la littérature et de l'art depuis la Renaissance jusqu'à nos jours en leurs rapports organiques avec l'histoire des idées et des sciences.

A côté des idées économiques, l'autre pilier central de la société européenne est constitué par la pensée juridique. Si, historiquement, l'Europe est marquée par un clivage premier entre droit coutumier et droit romain, les bouleversements successifs de l'histoire ont profondément changé les données initiales, et on peut dans l'Europe actuelle distinguer au moins trois familles juridiques, chacune marquée par son dosage particulier de droit local traditionnel et de droit romain (module 7.). Ces différents systèmes se rencontrent de nos jours dans une coopération internationale de dimensions inédites et se fondent dans une nouvelle forme de « ius commune », le droit de l'Union européenne, qui constitue la matière du module 8. Comment comprendre en effet les tentatives de conciliation d'un droit, d'un « common law » anglo-saxon et d'un droit romaniste dans un seul et même système communautaire sans connaissances préalables du fait historique et des différentes cultures judiciaires qui se côtoient sur le continent européen ?

Le neuvième module est un mémoire rédigé par un groupe comprenant de deux à quatre étudiants, qui sous la direction d'un enseignant étudie une question de leur choix. Cette question doit porter sur une problématique européenne et doit se baser sur des théories et méthodes enseignées dans au moins deux modules, c'est-à-dire que le sujet du mémoire est soit économico-politique, historico-philosophique, politico-juridique, etc… Cela donne aux étudiants l'occasion de travailler de faHon indépendante et de faire la synthèse entre plusieurs des sujets traités dans les modules précédents.

En sus des modules qu'on vient de décrire, un certain nombre de sujets libres (d'options) sont offerts aux étudiants, des cours qui approfondissent certains aspects des cours obligatoires. Ces sujets varient et peuvent porter par exemple sur les religions en Europe, sur le tourisme, sur des sujets historiques ou politiques, etc…

La combinaison de l'étude d'une langue européenne avec des sujets européens tels qu'on vient de les décrire vise à la formation de professionnels pouvant assumer des tâches de recherche et de communication, de coordination, de consultation, de documentation et d'information sur des sujets européens dans le cadre d'entreprises privées ou publiques, dans des organisations internationales, etc… Les études permettent un degré élevé de choix personnels donnant ainsi à chaque étudiant la possibilité de définir lui-même son propre profil professionnel.

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BOOK REVIEWS:

Wüster and (Applied) Linguistics Research

Terminology und Wissensordnung. Ausgewählte Schriften aus dem Gesamtwerk von Eugen Wüster.

Edited by: Heribert Picht & Klaus-Dirk Schmitz

TermNet Publisher,
Vienna, Austria, 2001, vi+432pp.
(termnetpublisher@termnet.at)
ISBN 3-901010-27-0

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There has been and there continues to be so much controversy around Wüster that it is hardly possible to avoid polemics in an account of his writings. This book of 432 pages is a collection of Eugen Wüster's writings (some of which are hardly known). It contains 26 pieces (published journal articles, conference papers, etc.) which, for reasons of convenience, will be referred to here as chapters. The last chapter is a tribute to Wüster by the eminent linguist, Leo Weisgerber. Two of the chapters are in English, while the remaining twenty-four are in German. The chapters are divided into 7 sections: theoretical works, terminography, standardization, terminology and other disciplines, terminology training, development and importance of terminology, and contributions on Wüster.

Taken together with other attempts at giving an overview of Wüster's work (e.g. Antia, in press), this book is remarkable because it leaves the reader (and researcher in terminology) with a feeling of humility and emptiness – expressible as 'what-have-I-really-achieved?' or 'have-I-not-been-rehashing-Wüster?' It does not appear to matter what category the reader falls into in Myking's 3-group classification of views on the so-called Wüster school of terminology: (a) moderate and loyal,

(b) radical subversive, and (c) radical and loyal. I take the liberty to quote Myking *in extenso*:

> The position (a) is aiming at (a rapprochement between) terminology and linguistics, even integration, without abandoning the established methodological and theoretical tenets – such as, in particular, the onomasiological approach to conceptology. [...]. The polarity of Terminology and Linguistics, a significant feature of earlier writings in terminology, should, consequently, be diminished [...]. The position (b), on the other hand, seems to reject traditional terminology completely, as documented above. [...]. It is an important consequence of this conception that the polarity between *traditional* terminology and *current* linguistics is maintained and even sharpened. [...]. (The) main feature of position (c) seems to be a linguistic inspiration quite similar to (b) but combined with an explicit intention of analysing Wüster on the background of his historical context – hence the label "loyal". According to Bertha Toft, the wüsterian tradition needs completion and adjustment by cognitive and functional approaches instead of complete overthrowing. [...].

In this review article, it will be shown how a knowledge of Wüster's work serves as an indispensable framework for epistemological discussions (origin and evolution of ideas, assessment of current research achievements, etc.) in the field of terminology studies. This will be done in two ways corresponding, respectively, to the two major parts of this article. The first part of the article will deal with what is loosely called 'status issues'. It will show Wüster as a pioneer of branches of linguistics as well as discuss Wüster's attitude to linguistics. The second part of the article will show the breath of Wüster's preoccupations, against the background of topical lines of LSP/terminology research.

Status issues: Wüster in and on linguistics

It is common to see Wüster referred to exclusively as a/the pioneer, at times as father, of modern terminology. In this description, two senses of terminology appear to be activated: body of theoretical knowledge, and methodology for creating specialized lexical resources. A careful reading of several of the chapters of this book suggests that, perhaps in the eagerness to assert some measure of disciplinary identity by enlisting heroes, scholars have done Wüster the disservice of confining him to terminology. A number of chapters present Wüster as: (a) an early contributor to modern linguistics thought, particularly semantics (see, for instance, chapter 4); and (b) a pioneer of LSP who also tried to claim a place within linguistics for LSP research (see, for instance, chapters 2, 25, 26).

Semantics has become an established branch of general linguistics today, contrary to the situation half a century ago when the subject was of no interest to linguists. The eminent British linguist, Randolph Quirk, in his foreword to Halliday and Hassan's *Cohesion in English*, writes that:

> But as with semantics – another and closely area which linguists have hesitated to enter, often justifying their dissociation on closely-argued theoretical grounds – it was not unreasonably held that relations 'beyond the sentence' involved a complex interplay of linguistics with other concerns ... for which the theoretical foundations and framework were too shaky to support ambitious model building. (Quirk 1976: v).

As late as the1950s, linguists were still trying to make sense of meaning. For instance, the theme of the plenary session of the International Congress of Linguists in 1957 (Oslo, Norway) was: Is meaning structured? Earlier, in 1953, a book by Leisi based on a postdoctoral thesis (Univ. of Zürich) claimed it was the first to attempt a synchronic semantic analysis consisting of a semantic classification of words (chapter 4). That was the air of the times.

Enter Wüster. At the Oslo linguistics conference, Wüster argued that linguistics may only be able to adequately deal with the issue of the structure of meaning by engaging with logic, which studies concepts (which under conditions can be equated with meaning), and shows how concepts can be related to form a structure (chapter 4). Meaning structure can be more or less explicit, as would be suggested by an analysis of relations inherent in components of compound words. Structure can also be implicit, as can be revealed by: (a) a study of a word's characteristics that is intended to account for various phenomena of polysemy (metaphor, metonymy, etc.) – the idea being that polysemous words form a network structure; and (b) a study intended to assign a word a position in the conceptual system of a given language. In the account he gives of these three areas of meaning structure, Wüster repeatedly points to the weaknesses of the dominant linguistic research paradigm.

It is instructive that in this extensive discussion Wüster was not just doing his terminology and only incidentally helping the young area of synchronic semantics come to terms with meaning structure. There are several clues that he saw himself contributing directly to semantics. He, for instance, strenuously rejects the suggestion that his account was applicable only to LSP. He does this by, among others, giving some insight into his preceding 4-year work on a systematic comparison of the meaning of the most frequent words in several Indo-Germanic languages.

An epistemic impact assessment of Wüster must also acknowledge his pioneering work, alongside Weisgerber, Kandler, Deeter and Sperber in the German language space, in providing the groundwork for, and in founding Applied Linguistics. Applied Linguistics is not understood in the Anglo-American acceptation of language teaching and learning, but in the sense of a study of language in its relationship to Man's activities in all spheres of life. Now, some two decades after the founding, in 1909, of the German linguistics journal 'Wörter und Sachen' (words and objects), the need had become felt, according to Weisgerber's tribute (chapter 26), to rethink research on the reciprocal relationship between language and material culture. The work of the preceding two decades had been restricted because the focus had been mainly on etymology, that is, the reference to objects of a non-contemporary material culture to explain word meanings; as a result, beyond the occasional identification of the motivation for object names, there was very little substantial insight into the relationship between objects and words. This is hardly surprising when it is known that, because of the unique requirements of proficiency in subject fields and in linguistic analysis, LSP research was for long beyond the competence reach of linguists. Weisgerber speaks of linguists having missed the opportunity of being LSP pioneers.

That, according to Weisgerber, was the state of research in language and objects until Wüster's 1931 book appeared. In it, Wüster charts a new course of synchronic and multifaceted research into the reciprocal relation of language and material culture. Weisgerber might have illustrated this point with the Wüsterian dictum, so well known in object standardization circles: standardization of objects is not possible without language standardization, and vice versa (cf. chapter 16). What Weisgerber sees as Wüster's pioneering and insightful practical work on the relationship between word and object has a very theoretical side which we find, for instance, in the well-known piece 'Das Worten der Welt' (The wording of the world) – incidentally dedicated to Weisgerber (chapter 3). Here, Wüster gives an account of the four-some: ontology, epistemology, designation and discursification.

In summing up this section, attention may be drawn to a claim which, if correct, would show just how pioneering a figure Wüster was in German Applied Linguistics – easily one of the most sophisticated. In chapter 7, Wüster writes that he was the first to use the term 'angewandte Sprachwissenschaft' (Applied Linguistics) in his 1931 book!

The third status issue (after synchronic semantics and Applied Linguistics) which this book addresses is that of Wüster's attitude to linguistics, and his view of the relationship between terminology and linguistics. It is at this point that the perceptive reader begins to question some of the putative polarity between Wüster/terminology and linguistics. In a number of articles, some of which are included in this book (e.g. chapter 7), Wüster presents differences between terminology/LSP and linguistics. In showing (in chapter 2), even against the backdrop of these differences, how several terminological activities are operations on meaning – *international standardization=comparison and delimitation of meanings; definition= delimitation of a concept's meaning from the meaning of related concepts; conceptual representation of terms = ordering of concepts according to meaning; etc.* – Wüster seems to be claiming a place within linguistics for LSP/terminology, and to be implying something of the relationship between terminology and linguistics that is different from what is normally imputed to him.

Rather than imply polarity, Wüster appears to be indicating what is and what is not worthwhile for linguistics to study in LSP/terminology, given: (a) the nature of specialized subject fields, (b) what their discursification shares with general language, and (c) the intellectual climate at the time. Diachrony had been studied *ad nauseam*, and as such linguistics could concentrate on other issues. A phonetics of LSP is hard to justify. The general language framework for inflectional morphology and syntax is adequate to deal with corresponding phenomena in LSP/terminology (chapter 7). Because language evaluation for purposes of concept harmonization and term standardization are not issues in general language, linguistics would require retooling if it is to cope. Now, evidence that Wüster was thinking of the kind of linguistics needed to cope with LSP/terminology can be found in chapter 4 (see the discussion on, among others, 'Internationale Sprachbetrachtung' – p. 140; 'Die Wortbildung in der Sprachwissenschaft' – p. 164f.). This chapter 4 is, paradoxically, the piece which Wüster loyalists and subverts alike use to make the same point on the differences between terminology and linguistics, even though they disagree on what needs to be done! (See Myking's classification).

The following observations give the lie to claims or suggestions that, being an Engineer, Wüster knew very little about linguistics: more than half of the articles in this book were published under linguistic auspices (journals, conference proceedings, etc.); Wüster was very familiar with the work of leading linguists of his time (as attested to by Weisgerber); he saw a model terminological dictionary like Schlomann's and work on term standardization as applications of structural semantics; the publication of his 1931 book by the Association of German Engineers could easily have been scuttled by an assessor who found the book too steeped in linguistics. Contrary, therefore, to what is generally believed, Wüster had a positive attitude towards linguistics.

However, the fact of Wüster being at home with linguistics did not mean that he had to cease to be an engineer or a scientist. The possibility of scientists and linguists having different starting points in their common work on LSP, as hinted at in Antia (2000:88), does not appear to be sufficiently appreciated in the literature. It is worth recalling that 'although science uses language, it is concerned with the designated things themselves in that it analyzes these things and makes a statement about them' (Coserieu, quoted by Baldinger, 1980). Baldinger writes further that the 'only language which tries to follow objective borders is scientific language.' This contrasts with the goal of structural semantics as stated by Kleiber (1990): 'the European structuralist movement precisely sought to free semes of all association with the referent in order to emphasise their operational or functional side, which is linguistic and nothing else' (my translation from the French). So, while applying structuralism, the dominant paradigm at the time, Wüster must, in the light of the foregoing, have had to perform strange balancing acts – if not in his own mind, certainly in the perception of observers.

Besides its surprising answer to the above status questions, this book is remarkable in another sense. Wüster comes across as having worked on or broached a number of the topics in the research on terminology and LSP of the last ten years.

Sometimes, the approach of contemporary research is so strikingly similar to Wüster's that one has to conclude that, if this collection of papers had been accessible, the sense of achievement of current work (as an analysis of premises suggests), or the reception accorded it, would have been a lot more measured. See Antia (in press) on what is happening in Terminology: paradigm articulation or paradigm shift? That discussion suggested that labelling as paradigm articulation a line of research does not diminish the quality of contribution.

The study of the following topics has been hailed as important advances and novel in LSP/terminology, or as radical departures from traditional positions:

(a) visual-graphical and other non-verbal resources in specialized texts, including terminologies (dictionaries, databanks, etc.);
(b) difference between terms at system level and at text level;
(c) diversity of interests that may be associated with terms (as units of specialized designation) in a given field;
(d) morpho-conceptual analyses of terms;
(e) social auspices or nexus of terminology (standardization, synonymy, etc.) and the importance of diachrony.

With respect to (a), Laurén, Picht, Galinski, Pilke – to mention only a few names from the terminology end of the LSP research spectrum – have in recent papers been pointing to the expressive limitations of verbal texts, or to the complementary nature of the verbal and the non-verbal in enhancing the expressiveness of specialized texts. Pilke's interest here is in the use of graphics for representing 'dynamic' (as opposed to 'static') concepts in terminological glossaries. Now, it is interesting to see how far ahead Wüster was. For him the question was not one of desirability of non-verbal supports, but that of 'debugging' dictionary illustrations. In chapter 11 (an extract from Wüster's 1968 *Dictionary of Machine Tools*), the reader finds very useful reflections on the challenges of graphically representing degrees of abstraction (genre, species) in dictionaries. How do you, for example, illustrate a generic concept (thus, an abstraction) in a dictionary that also enters species of that concept? *Think about it*!

It is concerns such as the foregoing that one finds in chapter 8 on notations for indicating directions (e.g. broader to narrower concept, coordination, etc.) in the concept records of a dictionary, etc.

With respect to (b) on the differences between terms in system description and terms as text, one might cite research by Gerzymisch-Arbogast, Rogers and Antia, which present either a typology of system-text variations of concept/term or the dynamics of textualization that account for variations. Interestingly, chapter 6 of the book has a section titled 'Wesensunterschied zwischen Systemarbeit und Terminologieverwendung' which discusses precisely the differences in the nature of terms seen as components of a system and as discourse realizations of the system. Wüster describes the difference between these two conceptualizations as fundamental ('grundlegender Wesensunterschied'). Mindful of Wüster's claim in his allusion to his 4-part word model, developed in another piece, that no two tokens or realizations of a term are identical ('keiner davon ist dem anderen vollständig gleich) – whether formally or content-wise – it becomes clear that Wüster was conscious of the need for a functional account of terms, and that he squeezed whatever functionalism he could get from the dominant, Saussurean account of language. Wüster is here clearly switching hats, from that of a scientist doing LSP to that of a linguist co-worker.

With respect to (c) on the diversity of interests in the 'term' as object of terminological research, one might cite, among others, the work by Cabré and Estopà presented at the 1999 edition of the conference on Terminology and Knowledge Engineering. (The work is not part of the pre-published Conference volume). The presentation compares units of designation in a given field as evident in the work of various interested parties (professionals in the field, documentalists, translators, etc.), and shows that there are pragmatic dimensions to the conceptualization of objects of terminological research. In chapter 6 of the Wüster collection, published in 1969, Wüster identifies three approaches ('Sprachzugang') to work on terminology: the approach of those who look at terms from the outside (perspective of documentalists); the approach of users of terms in texts (writers, translators, etc.); and finally, the approach of subject insiders interested in researching or representing the system of concepts and terms of a field (disciplinary terminology commissions, etc.). See also chapter 21.

With respect to (d) on the relationship between morphemic structures and concept structures, one might cite Weissenhofer, who develops a morpho-conceptual classification of compounds used in English baseball terminology. It is interesting to see or learn from the Wüster collection just how further back (than the 1980s sources cited by Weissenhofer) this type of research goes. Already in Wüster's 1931 book, we see a concern to account for how compound terms reflect the logical relations (determination, conjunction, integration, etc.) between the concepts designated by these compounds. Chapter 9 of the Wüster collection titled 'Bildung zusammengesetz Hauptwörter in Naturwissenschaft und Technik' is an account of key compound words in the Natural sciences and in Engineering. Dimensions employed in classifying these compounds include entity category (e.g. object, size, unit of measurement) and logical relation type (determination, conjunction, etc). See also the section of chapter 7 treating logical relations in word formation. In effect, therefore, Weissenhofer's work on classifying the relations between concepts in compounds – according to agent, purpose, origin, etc. – has a rather long pedigree in Wüsterian thought.

With respect to (e), that is, work on the functionalism of synonymy, the societal auspices of term use, and on the importance of diachrony, one may mention Temmerman. The collection under analysis makes it obvious that Wüster was well aware of these issues. Consider, for example, the following extract from chapter 11 dealing with the 1968 *Dictionary of Machine Tools*:

> In every language there are many concepts for which several **synonyms** exist. In such cases the question of which synonyms ought to be admitted, and which not, has been settled on the principle of **including all those in current usage**, whether they are standardized terms or not. [...].
> There is one last type of synonym, in which two or more terms stand for exactly the same concept but cannot nevertheless be used interchangeably; the reason being that the different terms are used by persons in **different social groups**. Concept 49, for instance, which is called *feeler gauge* in English and *thickness gage* in American, is called *Fühllehre* or *Spaltlehre* by German engineers, but *Spion* by most German artisans. [p.228].

Before commenting on this quotation, let us recall the danger Wüster believed an essentially etymological work posed in terminology (see chapter 2). Let us also recall from the Weisgerber tribute (chapter 26) just how dominant diachronic studies of words had been, yielding (for the study of language and material culture) little more than an occasional insight into the motivation for a given designation. Now, if Wüster had turned a blind eye to these reservations, and added a line or two on etymology to the above quotation, the passage might have read very much like a passage from Temmerman's book discussing the functionality of the (near-) synonyms: *Southern blotting*, *(Southern) transfer* and *(Southern) hybridization*.

Now, being aware of the functionality of synonyms and of the legitimacy of its study is not to ignore just how high the stakes of dysfunctional communication (arising from synonymy) can be, particularly in safety-critical environments. It is no doubt a reflection of how Wüster viewed his social or ecological responsibility that he considered the social impact of standardization greater than the impact of etymological studies.

The foregoing also seems to provide the perspective for some of the chapters on standardization (e.g. 12, 13). As if to correct views or possible impressions of there being a contradiction between practice and theory in terminology, particularly in respect of synonymy, these and other chapters remind us that documentation (e.g. in dictionaries) of diversity in term usage (the so-called '*ist-Norm*') is indispensable for standardization or prescription (the so-called *'soll-Norm'*).

Two final issues may be mentioned on the relationship between this book and current preoccupations. It is not infrequently suggested today that for a long time there was only one man, Wüster, running the terminology empire, responsible for virtually all the drafts from standardization bodies, holding everyone in the empire in his sway. This type of criticism, incidentally, was made as far back as 1965. Wüster strenuously denies this in chapter 5 of the book, where he also replies point by point to 20 other specific criticisms. Admittedly, on the issue of holding everyone in the empire in his sway, this is a case of Wüster's word against that of his critics. At any rate, Wüster sets out in great detail, in this chapter and in several others (10, 14, 15, 17, 22), the inner workings of standardization bodies and the process of developing a dictionary or a standard on terminological principles, etc. The reader is supposed to infer the difficulty of a single individual having his way within national and international standardization bodies.

There is also the issue of training in terminology. One might mention here contributions by, among others, Wright, Budin, Sandrini, Schmitz, Nuopponen & Järvi, Plested and Sandrini, in vol. 8 (1997) of the journal, *Terminology Science & Research*. It is quite interesting to see how chapter 21 of the Wüster collection provides something of a broad framework for understanding these contributions. This chapter sees Wüster answering questions on who needs terminology training, the orientation (language or subject-field) of the needs, the level of terminological knowledge required by each group, the integration of terminology into university-level programmes, etc.

As stated at the beginning, this book is quite remarkable in the sense of the relative emptiness it imposes on the reader, irrespective of his or her status as a Wüster loyalist or subvert of whatever hue. The compilers of this volume, Heribert Picht and Klaus-Dirk Schmitz, are leading terminology scholars who have been following trends in the field. In putting together the papers in this book, it was their aim to provide a context for observing how Wüster's ideas developed, and for evaluating these ideas. It was also their aim to make available otherwise inaccessible materials, and thereby achieve two things: demonstrate how broad the spectrum of Wüster's concerns were, and afford contemporary researchers the opportunity of assessing their work. On both accounts, Heribert Picht and Klaus-Dirk Schmitz have been very successful. To ventilate the second point, it is striking to notice how, in criticisms of Wüsterian terminology, Wüster is scantily cited. With this book allowing Wüster to severally articulate his ideas, some of the excuse for reading him through Felber, for instance, is gone; in other words, the groundwork for engaging directly with Wüster has been done. Engaging directly with Wüster is of course about finding the good, the bad and the ugly in his writings. This book, particularly in an English translation, will raise the level of informed discourse on Wüster's place in language research in general, and in terminology in particular.

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El Inglès Profesional y Académico.

Author: Enrique Alcaraz Varó. Universidad de Alicante (Spain)
Editorial: Alianza Editorial

Alianza Editorial. S.A. Madrid. 2000. 240 pp
ISBN 84-206-5754-9

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English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has become an important focus for English as a Second Language programs not only in American universities but also in most universities worldwide whether it is in Western or Eastern Europe, Asia, Latin America, etc. In Western Europe, Spanish universities are certainly no exception. On the contrary, there is nowadays an increasing interest in the teaching of EAP – or IPA (*Inglés Profesional y Académico*), as Dr. Alcaraz Varó labels it in Spanish— in Spain where it is seen, as elsewhere, as a separate activity within the broad field of English Language Teaching (ELT), and where ESP research has also become a clearly identifiable component of applied linguistic research. In fact, quite a few Spanish universities have lately opened EAP "c*ursos de doctorado*" (doctoral courses) which are attended by an increasing number of students who carry out research in this area. The University of Alicante where Dr. Alcaraz Varó teaches is a good example. We could also cite the University of Valencia, Complutense, Castilla-La-Mancha, La Laguna (Sta. Cruz de Tenerife. Canary Islands), etc.

Dr. Alcaraz Varo's volume is best evaluated according to what it offers to the primary audience it targets: doctoral students for whom it provides an excellent basis to understand the lexical, syntactical, generic, rhetorical and socio-pragmatic tenets of IAP. Broadly speaking, *El Inglés Profesional y Académico* examines the theoretical and applied research possibilities IPA offers to both students and ESP instructors. The book is divided into eight chapters. Chapter 1 serves as an introduction which deals, *inter alia*, with the role of English as a specialized, specific, academic and/or occupational language. To this end, the author offers a balanced overview of linguistic theories, models, and paradigms. Chapter 2 analyzes in great detail the lexical components of IPA: polysemy, monosemy, homonymy; word formation; anglicisms (lexical borrowings and calques); false friends or false cognates; metaphors, etc. Chapter 3 specifically focuses on English for science and technology, business and legal English: morphosyntaxis, compound words, nominalizations, modals, passivization. In Chapter 4, Dr. Alcaraz Varó addresses important issues of IPA from a pragmatic and pragma-linguistic standpoint by referring to discourse and text, the concepts of coherence and cohesion and those of theme and rheme. In Chapters 5 and 6, the author discusses some macro-structural and rhetorico-pragmatic features of IPA from a typology/generic stance by referring to some of the most highly-valued written and oral scientific genres such as the research paper, the scientific abstract, the business letter, legal texts, the language of scientific lectures and that of business meetings. In Chapter 7, Dr. Alcaraz Varó wisely chose to concentrate his attention on an important and now quite well-documented socio-pragmatic EAP topic, i. e., that of the linguistic formulation of courtesy (positive and negative courtesy, mitigation, face-threatening acts), an aspect of scientific discourse that is perhaps one of the most difficult to master for non-native English-speaking scientists precisely because courtesy and dissension are culture and language-dependent. The final Chapter is the most practical of all: it differs from the previous ones in the sense that it does not deal with linguistic aspects of IPA but with its teaching *per se* (syllabus design, the four communicative skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking). The comprehensive and up-dated bibliography Dr. Alcaraz Varó has consulted presents the advantage of mentioning the work of Spanish EAP/ESP researchers (their publications in Spain and abroad is rapidly increasing) which rarely appears in bibliographies of books published on the subject and written by Anglo-Saxon writers[1]. *El Inglés Professional y Académico* ends up with a very useful analytical index which includes the concepts the author deals with in his book and the page number where these are discussed.

El Inglés Profesional y Académico is a highly structured book presented in a most pedagogical fashion and perfectly accessible to both undergraduate and graduate students. Its clarity of expression will help newcomers to the field understand concepts they might not be familiar with. Avoiding the abstraction of some densely theoretical texts on the market, the author actually backs up his arguments and all research findings with excellent examples. He further combines research with practical guidelines for authentic teaching situations (cf. Chapter 7). As students

[1] I would like to refer here to another interesting book as well written by a Spanish ESP practitionner which is not mentioned in Dr. Alcaraz Varó's bibliography perhaps because it has been published in the same year as *El Inglés Profesional y Académico*. It is *English for Specific Purposes: Discourse Analysis and Course Design* by María del Pilar García Mayo. Universidad del País Vasco. 2000. The purpose of García Mayo's book is however different from that of Dr. Alcaraz Varó in the sense that it mainly deals with an ESP course design (Chapter 7 of the book under review here).

read the chapters, they will encounter useful information that will become part of their lives as EAP students and future researchers. On the other hand, legal, business, scientific and technical ESP practitioners as well as translators will undoubtedly find in Dr. Alcaraz Varó's volume important information for course design and other purposes.

Perhaps, in order to illustrate the concepts the author deals with in the various Chapters of his book, he could have provided less general/common English examples and more examples drawn from the ESP literature itself. An idea for a further edition of Dr. Alcaraz Varo's book could also be to include "questions for reflexion" at the beginning of each chapter or "reflection and review" questions at the end that could be used for graduate class discussion and to address issues related to diachronic and comparative (cross-linguistic) EAP studies.

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INFORMATION:

ASB Centre for Business Communication

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A new research centre was founded at the Aarhus School of Business in November 2001. The name of the centre is ASB Centre for Business Communication.

The purpose of the centre

The ASB Centre for Business Communication has been established for a period of four years and the vision is for it to develop into an international *centre of excellence* within research in business communication. In this connection, business communication includes all the aspects of communication where Danish or foreign companies function as either sender, receiver or are mentioned. Business communication thus includes areas such as management communication, market communication, corporate communication, public relations, internal communication and business journalism.

The purpose of the ASB Centre for Business Communication is:

- To collect, coordinate and strengthen the research in business communication taking place at the Faculty of Modern Languages at the Aarhus School of Business.
- To profile the research of the faculty in business communication towards international and national groups of researchers and towards the Danish business sector.
- To enter into a close cooperation with Danish and foreign companies concerning research projects in business communication.

Consequently, the centre is able to comply with the large and new needs for knowledge about communication existing in the business sector.

New research, new events

Several research projects have already been initiated at the ASB Centre for Business Communication. The projects concern research in *crisis communication*, *environmental communication* and the *digital rhetoric* appearing on company websites. Other areas which will be researched are: *management communication* (for example storytelling as management), *market communication* (for example communication in relationship marketing), *corporate communication* (for example branding, image and reputation), *internal communication* (for example performance reviews, use of intranet, development of annual reports), *tourism communication* and *business rhetoric* (in connection with the cross faculty research group at the Aarhus School of Business within this specific area).

From spring 2002, the ASB Centre for Business Communication organizes a series of meetings and company conferences for the Danish business sector where the research of the centre will be presented and discussed.

The centre will also organize international conferences, seminars and workshops concerning business communication during the four-year period. Furthermore, an annual lecture by an internationally recognized expert in business communication will be arranged. This lecture will be sponsored by a Danish company.

The centre is managed by senior lecturer Finn Frandsen and includes for the present four senior researchers (Finn Frandsen, Inger Askehave, Winni Johansen and Anne Ellerup Nielsen), three junior researchers (Dorrit Bøilerehauge, Peter Kastberg and Martin Nielsen) and six PhD. students (Charlotte Albrechtsen, Mona Agerholm Andersen, Bjørg Hellum, Michael Kristensen, Bente Foged Madsen and Carmen Daniela Maier). Moreover, both a panel of international researchers in business communication and a panel of Danish business leaders will be established. These two panels will function as consulting authorities and "ambassadors" for the centre both in- and outside Denmark.

New educational programs

Apart from being a research centre, the ASB Centre for Business Communication also possesses a coordinating function in relation to the new educational programs in business communication at the Aarhus School of Business: the new Bachelor in Language and Communication, which started in September 2001 as well as the new Master in Corporate Communication and the new cand.comm.merc., which are expected to start in February 2003 and September 2004 respectively.

Contact

For further information about the ASB Centre for Business Communication please contact Finn Frandsen, tlf. 89 48 62 68 (direct), e-mail: ff@asb.dk or Mia Bay Jacobsen, tlf. 89 48 65 99 (direct), e-mail: mbj@asb.dk or Marie-France Pors, tlf. 89 48 62 62 (direct), e-mail: mfp@asb.dk.

Read more about the ASB Centre for Business Communication at: ***www.cbcom.dk***

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LE GROUPE NOMINAL DANS LE TEXTE SPECIALISE

Textes réunis par David Banks.
"Le groupe verbal est souvent considéré comme la charnière de la proposition. Mais la charnière n'a aucune utilité si ce n'est d'orienter les battants que constituent les groupes nominaux. Le groupe nominal constitue donc un champ d'études important, et son apport au texte non littéraire est particulièrement significatif. Les contributions ici réunies portent sur les langues française et anglaise, dans les domaines aussi variés que les textes de l'article de recherche scientifique et les cartes de restaurant." Publié par: L'Harmattan, France (http://www.editions-harmattan.fr), nov. 2001. 182 p. ISBN 2-7475-1584-2

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SPROGFORUM

Dec. 2001, Nr. C og Jan. 2002, Nr.22 "Lytteforståelse".Tidsskriftet udgives af Informations- og Dokumentations-centret for Fremmedsprogspædagogik ved Danmarks Pædagogiske Bibliotek i samarbejde med Foreningen for anvendt Sprogvidenskab i Danmark (ADLA). Redaktion: Karen Lund, Michael Svendsen Pedersen, Karen Risager, Elsebeth Rise (ansv.) og Peter Villads Vedel. 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

SPROGÅR
Nr. 3, oktober i Det Europæiske Sprogår 2001.
- PDF-version: http://www.europasprog.dk/publikationer/Sprogaar_3.pdf
Nr. 4 i Det Europæiske Sprogår 2001 (sidste nummer af nyhedsbladet!)
- Web-version: http://www.europasprog.dk/publikationer/sprogår_4.htm
Udgivet af Undervisningsministeriet i anledning af Det Europæiske Sprogår 2001. Web: http://www.europasprog.dk

SPRÅK I NORDEN/SPROG I NORDEN 2001
Årsskrift for Nordisk Sprogråd og sprognævnene i Norden (2001). Redigeret af: Henrik Holmberg (hovedredaktør), Charlotta af Hällström, Silva Lindberg, Aino Piehl (Finland), Ari Páll Kristinsson (Island), Svein Nestor (Norge), Birgitta Lindgren (Sverige). Nordisk Språkråd, Postboks 8107 Dep, NO-0032 Oslo. E-mail: hauge@sprakrad.no. / Novus Forlag. (http://www.novus.no) 223 sider. ISBN 82-7433-042-0.

STUDIEN ZU SPRACHE UND TECHNIK
Band 8, 2001. Reiner Arntz: “Fachbezogene Mehrsprachigkeit in Recht und Technik”. 411 Seiten. ISBN 3-487-11412-7
Band 2, 2002. Reiner Arntz, Heribert Picht, Felix Mayer: “Einführung in die Terminologiearbeit”. 331 Seiten. ISBN 3-487-11553-0
Herausgeber: Reiner Arntz und Norbert Wegner. Georg Olms Verlag, Hildesheim, Zürich, New York. (http://www.olms.de)

SYNAPS
Nr 9 (2001) “Fagspråk, Kommunikasjon, Kulturkunnskap”:
- Anne Kari Bjørge: “Trial Lecture”
- Dagrun Lorgren: “Le concept de “reformulation”, un concept bien défini?”
- Juan A. Martinez: “Semantisk endringer i spansk fagspråk og terminologi”
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.

ZEITSCHRIFT FÜR ANGEWANDTE LINGUISTIK (ZfaL)
Heft 35, September 2001. Herausgegeben: im Auftrag der Gesellschaft für Angewandte Linguistik (GAL) von Gerd Antos, Josef Klein, Walter F. Sendlmeier. Redaktion: Prof. Dr. Joseph Klein, Institut für Germanistik, Universität Koblenz-Landau, Abt. Klobenz. Rheinau 1, D-56075 Koblenz. Tel.: +49 0261 9119 205 und 9119 231 Fax: +49 0261 9119 209
E-mail: jklein@uni-koblenz.de. ISSN 1433-9889.

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CONFERENCE CALENDAR:

- 2002 -

May 2-4 (2002) – Copenhagen (Denmark)

11th International Symposium on Lexicography. Organized by the English Department, the Department of Germanics and the Center for Translation Studies and Lexicography at the University of Copenhagen. Conference Language: English and German.
Information: Jens Erik Mogensen, Assoc. Professor of Germanic Philology, University of Copenhagen, Njalsgade 80, 2300 Copenhagen S, Denmark.
Tel: (+45) 35 32 85 91 or (+45) 35 32 81 62 Fax: (+45) 44 48 00 50
E-mail: jem@hum.ku.dk Web: http://www.angelfire.com/nf/lexi/

May 7-8 (2002) – London ON (Canada)

First Annual UWO Conference on Applied Linguistics: "Applied Linguistics Across Disciplines: Multiple Perspectives".
Information: Fleurette McComb, French Department, University College, The University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario N6A 3K7, Canada.
By e-mail to conference organizers: Mitsuyo Sakamoto: msakamot@uwo.ca or Shelley Taylor: taylor@uwo.ca Web: http://www.uwo.ca/linguistics/appliedling/

May 13-14 (2002) – Almagro (Spain)

Congreso Internacional: El español, lengua de traducción.
Information: E-mail: Carlos.Paz-Carneiro@cec.eu.int
Web: http://europa.eu.int/comm/translation/bulletins/puntoycoma/almagro/index.htm

May 22-24 (2002) - Evry (France)

GLAT 2002:"Langues spécialisées et besoins spécifiques: théorie et pratique" Organisé par le Groupe de Linguistique Appliquée des Télécoms (GLAT). Lieu: L'Institut National des Télécommunications.
Information: Avril Andrews, Département Langues et Formations Humaines, Institut National des Télécommunications, 9 rue Charles Fourier, F-91011 Evry Cedex, France.
Tel.: +33 (0)1 60 76 44 97 Fax: +33 (0)1 60 76 42 86 E-mail: glat2002@int-evry.fr
Web: http://www.int-evry.fr/GLAT2002/

May 23-25 (2002) – Aarhus (Denmark)

4th ABC European Convention. Theme:"Business Communication across Contexts, Cultures and Continents". Organized by the Association for Business Communication (ABC) European region in conjunction with the Faculty of Modern Languages, the Aarhus School of Business.
Information: ABC European Convention, Convention Chair, Anna Trosborg, Dept. of English, The Aarhus School of Business, Fuglesangs Alle 4, DK-8210 Arhus V, Denmark.
Tel: +45 8948 6276 Fax: +45 8615 7727 E-mail: at@asb.dk
Web: http://www.sprog.asb.dk/abc/

May 23-25 (2002) – Los Angeles, CA (USA)

8th Conference on Language, Interaction, and Culture.
Information: Center for Language Interaction and Culture, Graduate Student Association, University of California, Los Angeles, Department of Applied Linguistics, P.O. BOX 951531 3300 Rolfe Hall, Los Angeles, CA 90095-1531 , USA.
E-mail: clicgsa@humnet.ucla.edu Web: http://www.humnet.ucla.edu/humnet/al/clic

May 24-26 (2002) - Iasi (Romania)

IASI2002. 8th International Conference on "Law and Language: The theory and the practise of linguistic policies". Organised by the International Academy of Linguistic Law.
Information: Pr. Genoveva Vrabie, Principal, Universitatea Mihail Kogalniceanu, Str. Balusescu nr. 2, Iasi, 6600 Romania.
Tel.: + 0040.32.21.24.16 Fax: + 0040.32.27.98.21. E-mail: fcsmold.@mail.dntis.ro

June 8 (2002) – Madrid (Spain)

Conference for Financial Translators.
Information: Jack Atkinson, E-mail: ja@rgft.es Tel.: +34-91-5350962
Web: http://www.rgft.com/events/2002/gb.html

June 13-15 (2002) – Lyon (France)

Colloque International: "Pluralité des langues et des supports dans la construction et la transmission des connaissance".
Information: Marie-Anne Mochet, Plurilinguisme et Apprentissages, E.N.S. Lettres et Sciences Humaines, 15 Parvis René Descartes , F-69366 Lyon cedex 07, France.
Tel.: +33 (0)4 37 37 62 25 Fax: +33 (0)4 37 37 62 35
E-mail: Marie-Anne.Mochet@ens-lsh.fr
Web: http://www.ens-lsh.fr/labo/plurapp/actual/reche/colloque/milcoll.htm

June 13-15 (2002) - Brussels (Belgium)

Terminology Summit. Aims: the establishment of a world-wide cooperative framework essentially based on electronic structures within terminology, and the firm of a Chart which will formulate the importance and the role of terminology in the society, strengthening the multilingualism in different world-wide exchange networks. Organized by the European Assiciation for Terminology (EAFT), in association with several international terminology networks and with the Union Latine.
Information: EAFT c/o Union Latine, 131, rue du Bac, F-75340 Paris cedex 07, France.
Tel.: +33 (0)1 45 49 60 60 Fax: +33 (0)1 45 44 45 97 E-mail: dtil@unilat.org
Web: http://www.eaft-aet.net

June 17-21 (2002) - Surrey (England)

Short Course for Professional Translators: "New Technologies, Intellectual Property Rights & Ethical Codes in Business: New developments in business practice". In a world of rapidly changing technological developments, the above residential course aims to broaden participants knowledge of intellectual property rights and new technologies and their impact on business practice. The course will also include sessions looking at the specialised language and context of ethical codes in business. Organised by the Centre for Translation Studies at the University of Surrey.
Information: Gillian James, Project Development & Short Course Administrator, Centre for Translation Studies, School of Language, Law and International Studies, University of Surrey, Guilford, Surrey GU2 7XH, England.
Tel.: +44 (0)1483 879969 Fax: +44 (0)1483 879528 E-mail: g.james@surrey.ac.uk
Web: http://www.surrey.ac.uk/LIS/CTS/

July 5-7 (2002) – Sydney (Australia)

ASFLA Conference 2002 (Australian Systemic Functional Linguistics Association).
Information: E-mail: asfla@mac.com
Web: http://homepage.mac.com/asfla/asfla2002.htm

July 5-7 (2002) – Washington DC (USA)

2002 World Symposium for Sign Language Interpreters. Hosted by RID (Registry of Interpreters for Deaf).
Information: Laurie Hunter. Tel.:+1 618-622-3464 E-mail: conference@rid.org
Web: http://www.rid.org/conv.html

July 7-12 (2002) – Philadelphia, PA (USA)

ACL-02. 40th Anniversary Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, USA.
Information: ACL-02, Association for Computational Linguistics, 75 Paterson Street, Suite 9, New Brunswick, NJ 08901, USA.
Tel.: +1-732-342-9100 Fax: +1-732-342-9339 E-mail: acl@aclweb.org
Web: http://www.acl02.org/

July 12-14 (2002) – Sydney (Australia)

27th Annual Congress of the Applied Linguistics Association of Australia (ALAA): “Crossing boundaries through linguistic and cultural diversity”. Venue: Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia.
Information: E-mail: antonia.rubino@italian.usyd.edu.au
Web: http://www.arts.usyd.edu.au/departs/langcent/alaa/congress.htm

August 5-16 (2002) – Trento (Italy)

ESSLLI’02. 14th European Summer School on Logic, Language, and Information.
Information: ESSLLI’02, Istituto Trentino di Cultura (ITC), Via Santa Croce 77, I-38100 Trento, Italia. Tel (+39) 0461-210111 Fax (+39) 0461-980436
E-mail: esslli02-local@itc.it Web: http://www.esslli2002.it/

August 7– 10 (2002) – Vancouver, British Colombia (Canada)

FIT Congress 2002 - XVI World Congress of the International Federation of Translators. Theme: "Translation: New Ideas for a New Century". Organized by the Society of Translators & Interpreters of British Columbia (STIBC).
Information: Meghan O'Connell, Vice-Chair, FIT Congress Committee, tel.: 604-874-8011, e-mail: meghan-o@portal.ca / Kawal Kahlon, FIT Congress Committee Chair, tel.: 604-254-1802, e-mail: k2lang@infinet.net / Fenella Sung, FIT Congress Committee P.R. Officer, e-mail: fenella@telus.net
Web: http://www.fit2002.org/ (or http://www.stibc.org/fit2ki.htm)

August 22-24 (2002) - Aalborg (Denmark)

International Conference: Constructing Image and Ideology in Mass Media Discourse. The symposium aims at offering researchers who are interested in mass media communication an opportunity to share innovative ideas on the construction of public image and the embedding of ideology in mass media texts. We invite participants to explore which implicit or subtle strategies are being used to achieve specific communicative purposes in private and public sector mass media discourse. Organised by Forum for Discourse Studies (Aalborg University).
Information: Bente Vestergaard (Conference Secretariat / Image2002), Aalborg University, Department of Languages and Intercultural Studies, Kroghstraede 3, DK-9220 Aalborg East, Denmark. E-mail: image@sprog.auc.dk
Web: http://www.sprog.auc.dk/image2002/

August 24 – September 1 (2002) – Tapei (Taiwan)

COLING 2002. 19th International Conference on Computational Linguistics. Organized by Academia Sinica, the Association for Computational Linguistics and Chinese Language Processing (ACLCLP) and the National Tsing Hua University.
Information: Jen-Yi Lin, Chinese Knowledge Information Processing Group, Institute of Information Science, Academia Sinica, Nankang, Taipei 11529,Taiwan.
E-mail: coling02@sinica.edu.tw Web: http://www.coling2002.sinica.edu.tw/

August 28-30 (2002) - Nancy (France)

TKE'02. 6th International Conference on Terminology and Knowledge Engineering Organized by Academia TKE 2002 will explore the following theme: "how computational terminology can help us organize information in order to make it more accessible". Organized under auspices of GTW (Gesellschaft für Terminologie und Wissenstransfer - Association for Terminology and Knowledge Transfer).
Information: E-mail: laurent.romary@loria.fr Web: http://www.loria.fr/projets/TKE/

September 12-14 (2002) – Toledo (Spain)

The Toledo Conference 2002 on "Language for Specific Purposes: European Economy and European Law".
Information: Universidad de Castilla – La Mancha, Facultad de Ciencias Jurídicas y Sociales, Cobertizo de San Pedro Mártir, s/n., E-45071 Toledo, Spain.
Tel.: +34 925 268800 – Ext. 5126 Fax: +34 925 268801 E-mail: lsp@jur-to.uclm.es
Web: http://www.uclm.es/lsp/

September 12-14 (2002) – Cardiff, Wales (UK)

BAAL 2002: "Applied Linguistics & Communities of Practice ". 35th Annual Meeting of the British Association for Applied Linguistics hosted by the Centre for Language & Communication at Cardiff University.
Information: Local conference organisers: Srikant Sarangi: sarangi@cardiff.ac.uk or Theo van Leeuwen: vanleeuwent@cf.ac.uk
Web: http://www.baal.org.uk/baal2002.htm

September 19-21 (2002) – Cologne (Germany)

33. Jahrestagung der GAL (Gesellschaft für Angewandte Linguistik): "Sprachliche Kompetenzen erforschen und vermitteln".
Information: Prof. Dr. Gerd Antos (GAL-Geschäftsstelle), Martin-Luther-Universität Halle, Germanistisches Institut, Luisenstr. 2, DE-06099 Halle/Saale, Germany.
Tel: +49 0345/552-3611 (3600) Fax: +49 0345/552-7107
E-Mail: geschaeftsstelle@gal-ev.de
Web: http://www.gal-ev.de/gal_jahrestag.htm

September 19-21 (2002) – Paris (France)

7th CercleS International Conference. "University Language Centres: Forging the Learning Environments of the Future"
Information: Dr. Nicole Chenik, CERCLES 2002, CIP/CRL (C 606), Université Paris IX Dauphine, Place du Maréchal de Lattre de Tassigny, F-75 016 Paris, France.
E-mail: chenik@dauphine.fr Web: http://kalle.cip.dauphine.fr/cercles2002/

September 19-21 (2002) – Warsaw (Poland)

International Conference on "Globalization: English and Language Change in Europe".
Information: Urszula Okulska, Institute of Applied Linguistics, University of Warsaw, Browarna 8/10, 00-311 Warsaw, Poland. E-mail: globe@mercury.ci.uw.edu.pl
Web: http://www.ils.uw.edu.pl/ftpwebs/webils/globe.html

September 26-27 (2002) – Berlin (Germany)

LangTech 2002: "The New European Forum for Language Technology".
Information: Michael Huch, VDI/VDE – Technology Centre for Information Technologies, German EUROMAP NFP. Tel.: +49 3328 435-193
E-mail: Organisation@lang-tech.org Web: http://www.lang-tech.org/

September 26-28 (2002) – Madrid (Spain)

International Conference on Language for Specific Purposes.
Information: Marinela Garcia Fernandez, A.E.L.F.E. (Asociación Española de Lenguas para Fines Específicos / Spanish Association of Languages for Specific Purposes) Universidad Politécnica de Madrid, Escuela Técnica Superior de Ingenieros de Minas de Madrid, C/ Ramiro de Maeztu, 7, ES-28040 Madrid, Spain.
Tel: +34 913 36.61.68 E-mail: marinela@upm.es

October 2 (2002) – Copenhagen (Denmark)

DSFF-Symposium 2002: "Erhvervsliv, Sprogpolitik og Konkurrenceevne" (Business, Language Policy and Competitiveness). Conference language: Danish.
Information: DSFF, Dalgas Have 15, DK-2000 Frederiksberg C, Denmark.
Tel.: +45 38 15 32 89 Fax: +45 38 15 32 33 E-mail: fq.fc@cbs.dk
Web: http://www.dsff-lsp.dk/centres/dsff/Symp2002/

October 8-12 (2002) – Tiburon, California (USA)

AMTA-2002 Conference: "From Research to Real Users". Organized by the Association for Machine Translation in the Americas.
Information: E-mail: AMTA2002@microsoft.com
Web: http://www.amtaweb.org/AMTA2002/

November 15-17 (2002) – Berlin (Germany)

EXPOLINGUA Berlin. 15th International Fair for Languages and Cultures. Organized by ICWE GmbH, under the patronage of Edelgard Bulmahn, German Minister for Education and Research. Venue: Russisches Haus der Wissenschaft und Kultur.
Information: EXPOLINGUA Berlin, Leibnizstr. 32, DE-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 16-21 (2002) – (Singapore)

13th World Congress of Applied Linguistics (AILA 2002): "Applied Linguistics in the 21st Century: Opportunities for Innovation and Creativity"**.** Theme: Globalisation, creativity and the infusion of Information Technology in the 21st Century.
Information: AILA 2002 SINGAPORE, c/o Conference & Travel Management Associates Pte Ltd, 425A Race Course Road, Singapore 218671.
Tel: (65) 299 8992 Fax: (65) 299 8983 E-mail: ctmapl@singnet.com.sg
Web: http://www.aila2002.org

- 2003 -

March 13-15 (2003) – Aarhus (Denmark)
EU High Level Scientific Conference: "Knowledge Systems in Text and Translation". Organized by the Aarhus Business School (local organizer and host).
Information: Web: http://www.euroconferences.info/aarhus.htm

March 22-25 (2003) – Arlington, Virginia (USA)

AAAL 2003 Annual Conference: "The Diversity of Applied Linguistics".
Information: American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL).
Tel: +1 205 824 7700 Fax: +1 205 823 2760 E-mail: aaaloffice@aaal.org
Web: http://www.aaal.org

April 30 – May 3 (2003) – Tempe, Arizona (USA)

4th International Symposium on Bilingualism
Information: 4th International Symposium on Bilingualism, Arizona State University, PO Box 870211, Tempe, AZ 85287-0211, USA.
Tel: +1 (480) 727-6877   Fax: +1 (480) 727-6876   Email: isb4@asu.edu
Web: http://isb4.asu.edu/

July 2-6 (2003) – Johannesburg (South Africa)

21st FIPLV World Congress. Venue:Rand Afrikaans University (RAU) Aucland Park 2006 Johannesburg, South Africa.
Information: Web: http://www.fiplv.org/conf.htm

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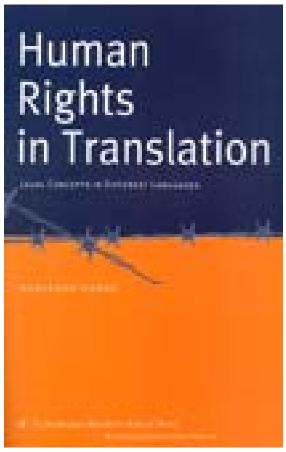
Human Rights in Translation

Legal Concepts in Different Languages
By Marianne Garre



Publisher: *Copenhagen Business School Press*

ISBN 87-630-0024-5
1999, 233 pages, hardcover

Price: DKK 232,00 incl. VAT.

Translating human rights texts is not a simple task. It requires excellent tools as well as insight into the world of human rights if a translator is to provide applicable and understandable human rights translations. Even though analyses of translations and translation problems may take a very narrow perspective and focus on concrete problems and details of translation, it is crucial for practising translators to adopt a wide.

Based on the specific analysis as well as a broad perspective on human rights translation in general, the author suggests a cognitive approach to human rights translation that takes into consideration aspects of law, linguistics, translation, and language policy. With the tools and knowledge from these fields, legal translators will be in a much better position to translate successfully.

Human Rights in Translation has been awarded the Vinay-Darbelnet Award for best monograph on translation studies (2000), an award offered by The Canadian Association for Translation Studies.

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LSP and Professional Communication is an international refereed journal aimed at those interested in language for special purposes and professional communication. The aim of the journal is to build bridges between theoretical and applied research within these areas along with the practical applications of both types of research. The articles published in the journal will be targeted towards researchers as well as practitioners.

The Editors especially wish to encourage papers on: recent research within the field of LSP and new comments or reports on particular problems or on situations special to certain countries or regions. Papers should be written in an accessible though rigorous style, which also communicates to non-specialists.