

RESEARCH – EVOLUTION – APPLICATION

LSP
&
PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION

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

An International Journal
(Formerly Unesco Alsed-LSP Newsletter)

Volume 5, Number 1
April 2005

Published by:



Copenhagen, Denmark

LSP and Professional Communication

An International Journal

(Formerly Unesco Alsed-LSP Newsletter)

Published by: DSFF / LSP Centre, Copenhagen, Denmark

Editorial Board:

Editor: Ass. Prof. Jacques Qvistgaard, DSFF, Denmark

Co-editors: Ass. Prof. Jan Engberg, Aarhus School of Business, Denmark

Prof. Heribert Picht, Copenhagen Business School, Denmark

Journal Administrator: MA, Françoise Qvistgaard, DSFF, Denmark

ISSN: 1601-1929

Indexed in: Cambridge Scientific Abstracts (<http://www.csa.com>)
MLA International Bibliography (<http://www.mla.org>)
Dansk BiblioteksCenter (<http://wwwdbc.dk>)

The journal is published twice a year (April and October).

All correspondence related to the International Journal "LSP and Professional Communication" should be addressed to:

LSP and Professional Communication
DSFF / LSP Centre
Dalgas Have 15
DK-2000 Frederiksberg
Denmark

Tel: +45 38 15 32 89 Fax: +45 38 15 32 33 E-mail: dsff@cbs.dk

For further information please consult our homepage: <http://www.dsff-lsp.dk>

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Printed in Denmark
by Klink Offset A/S, Herlev

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EDITORIAL:

Dans la série des rencontres annuelles organisées par notre Association (DSFF), s'est déroulé en octobre 2004 un symposium scandinave sous le titre "Communication internationale – globalisation et localisation". Une centaine de représentants des secteurs concernés (entreprises, secteur public, universités, organismes nationaux et internationaux, etc..), échangèrent, en plénière et dans trois ateliers, des vues sur les sujets proposés: l'importance des langues pour la compétitivité du commerce et de l'industrie ; le besoin d'améliorer les compétences linguistiques dans les entreprises et le secteur public ; la place des langues dans l'enseignement (primaire, secondaire et supérieur) ; le rôle des « nouvelles » langues dans la communication internationale ; etc..

Que peut-on alors retenir de ce symposium ?

Déjà, comme le disait notre Présidente dans son allocution d'ouverture, la situation a bien évolué par rapport aux recommandations votées lors du Symposium 2002. A la suite de notre « livre blanc »¹, publié en juin 2003, le Ministère de la Culture publia en septembre 2003 un autre rapport « Langues en jeu »² où l'accent était mis, entre autres, sur l'importance des langues, des LSP et de la terminologie, rapport qui fut suivi d'un débat au parlement danois sur la politique des langues.

C'était justement un de nos objectifs : soulever un débat politique afin de rendre les acteurs de la communication internationale professionnelle, notamment les chefs d'entreprises, conscients de la complexité et de l'importance des problèmes de langue aussi bien au niveau économique que culturel.

Il semblerait que la stratégie a donné des résultats. En tout cas l'attitude des intervenants était beaucoup plus nuancée qu'elle ne l'a été jusqu'ici.

On maintient, bien sûr, l'importance de l'anglais comme langue véhiculaire dans la plupart des relations internationales et la nécessité de connaître cette langue (ce que personne ne conteste), mais pour la première fois les entreprises admettent que la maîtrise d'autres langues (jumelée avec la connaissance des cultures correspondantes) s'impose dans les relations avec beaucoup de pays non anglophones.

¹ Hvidbog om erhvervsliv, sprogpolitik og konkurrenceevne. (Le monde des affaires, politique des langues et compétitivité). DSFF, Copenhague 2003.

² Sprog på Spil – et udspil til en dansk sprogpolitik. (Langue en jeu). Ministère de la culture au Danemark, Copenhague 2003.

Pour la première fois aussi, on semble se soucier de la qualité de l'anglais utilisé et, ce qui est le plus surprenant, on réclame de façon massive une meilleure maîtrise de la langue nationale.

Cela revient à mettre le système éducatif en cause, ce qui est un tout autre problème.

En effet on peut se demander l'utilité d'insister sur la nécessité du plurilinguisme si on ne peut pas livrer la « marchandise », même pas en langue maternelle, comme cela a été souligné lors du Symposium.

Puisqu'il s'agissait en l'occurrence d'un symposium danois/scandinave on pourrait croire à un phénomène local, limité géographiquement, si ce n'était pour les résultats de l'enquête PISA³ 2003 publiés en 2004. Un des volets de PISA porte sur la capacité de lecture des élèves de 15 à 16 ans dans 41 pays, notamment les pays membres de l'OCDE. Les élèves sont placés dans 6 catégories en fonction de leurs scores. Les catégories 0 et 1 représentent le niveau le plus bas, correspondant à ce qu'on appelle analphabétisme fonctionnel.

La somme des pourcentages dans ces deux catégories (0 et 1) dans chaque pays, va de 5% à 63%. Or dans une douzaine de pays, qui par ailleurs restent (tout juste) dans la moyenne internationale, ce pourcentage varie entre 16% et 22% et il s'agit de pays où ces chiffres surprennent un peu : Suisse 16%, France 17%, Danemark 17%, Allemagne 22%, Autriche 20%, etc..

Le classement correspond assez bien au classements de la première enquête PISA en l'an 2000 et aux classements d'autres enquêtes plus anciennes.

On note cependant une baisse pour certains pays, p.ex. la France qui lors d'une enquête de l'OCDE en 1991 se situait en tête juste après la Finlande, et qui ne dépasse pas aujourd'hui la moyenne. De même le groupe 0 de l'échelle PISA est passé en France de 4,2% à 6,3% de l'an 2000 à 2003.

Quelles sont les conclusions qu'on peut tirer de ces enquêtes ? Est-ce que l'enseignement est mal organisé ? Certains le pensent, mais cette idée est évidemment difficile à accepter dans les pays qui se flattent d'avoir le meilleur système scolaire au monde.

En tout état de cause, on voit difficilement comment apprendre les langues étrangères (à un niveau fonctionnel) à des populations où plus de 50% ne maîtrisent que passablement (ou pas du tout) leur langue maternelle.

Au total, la situation est inquiétante, et il serait peut-être temps de repenser les philosophies qui sont à la base des politiques éducatives depuis 35 ans.

³ PISA 2003 (Programme International pour le Suivi des Acquis des élèves). OCDE 2004.

Dans les années 70, le Conseil de l'Europe voulait introduire, dans l'enseignement des langues, un système d'unités capitalisables qui ne fut jamais réalisé. Cependant le rapport du Conseil sur le projet, publié en 1981⁴, reflète l'esprit dans lequel les réformes de l'époque ont été mises en place en Europe.

Le Rapport dénonce « l'élitisme dans l'enseignement traditionnel des langues à l'école », critique « la progression des difficultés de cette discipline intellectuelle » qui fait passer les différentes couches des classes moyennes par « des filtres successifs basés sur certaines normes » et il conclut :

« La grande masse de la population n'est absolument pas touchée par des activités tournant uniquement autour de valeurs, de connaissances et de compétences qui apparaissent étrangères à son existence ».

Ce fut l'époque aussi où on introduisit « le collège unique », la pédagogie « centrée sur l'élève » etc., principes qui sont toujours en vigueur.

Aujourd'hui les gouvernements commencent néanmoins à s'inquiéter et envisagent des réformes, mais personne n'a apparemment le courage de mettre les doctrines pédagogiques en question et aller contre les « experts » qui, encore aujourd'hui, peuvent se permettre de décréter que « l'éducation ne peut être soumise à l'obligation de résultat »⁵.

Heureusement, il y a des responsables de l'enseignement qui ont des vues plus nuancées sur le sujet, et la conclusion de deux professeurs de l'École normale supérieure, dans un récent article paru dans *Le Figaro*⁶, donne matière à reflexion:

« Comment pourrait-on recréer une Éducation nationale efficace en conservant une pédagogie qui ne l'est pas ».

Le Comité Rédacteur

⁴ Langues Vivantes (1971-1981). Conseil de l'Europe, Strasbourg 1981.

⁵ Philippe Meirieu (Directeur de l'Institut universitaire de formation des maîtres de l'académie de Lyon): « Ecole: les échéances dérisoires et les autres ». *Le Monde* 25/11-04.

⁶ Marie-Christine Bellosta et Franck Debié (Maîtres de conférence à l'École normale supérieure): « Critique de la raison pédagogique ». *Le Figaro* 5/2-05.

EDITORIAL:

As part of the series of annual meetings held by our society (DSFF), a Scandinavian symposium entitled “International Communication – globalisation and localisation” was held in October 2004. About a hundred representatives from various areas concerned (such as businesses, the public sector, universities, national and international organisations), exchanged, in plenary session as well as at three workshops, views on the following suggested topics: the importance of languages for competitiveness in trade and industry; the necessity to improve foreign language skills in both the public and the private sector; the position of languages in primary, secondary and higher education; the role of the “new” languages in international communication; etc.

What were the conclusions reached by this symposium?

As our chairman stated in her opening speech, the general outlook has already improved since the approval of the 2002 symposium resolutions. In the wake of our “White Paper”¹ published in June 2003, the Danish Ministry of Culture published its own report entitled “Languages at stake”² in September 2003. This report, among other things, emphasised the importance of languages, LSP and terminology, its publication was followed by a debate on language policy in the Danish Parliament.

This was in exact accordance with our aims, namely to raise a political debate with a view to making chief actors within international communication, such as business leaders, aware of the complexity and significance of language problems at both economic and cultural levels.

It would seem that our strategy has paid off. In any case, the attitude of the participants and the content of their contributions were far more faceted and qualified than hitherto.

The importance of English as a working language in most international contexts was naturally acknowledged along with the ensuing necessity of proficiency in English, a state of affairs no one would deny. For the first time, however, companies admitted that the mastery of languages other than English along with

¹ Hvidbog om erhvervsliv, sprogpoltik og konkurrenceevne. (White Paper on business and industry, language policy and competitiveness). DSFF, Copenhagen 2003.

² Sprog på Spil – et udspil til en dansk sprogpoltik. (Languages at stake – an outline of a Danish Language Policy). Danish Ministry of Culture, Copenhagen 2003.

knowledge of the corresponding cultures was crucial for communication in various non-anglophone countries.

The worry expressed about the poor quality of English in use was another “first”. The biggest surprise, however, was the no less than massive demand for higher proficiency levels in the use of national language.

This means taking education systems to task which is, of course, an entirely different problem.

Effectively, what is the point of insisting on the necessity of multilingual capacity if the “goods” cannot even be delivered in terms of teaching the mother tongue? This question was emphatically underlined at the symposium.

As this was a Danish-Scandinavian symposium, one could think that this was merely a local phenomenon, geographically limited in scope, were it not for the results of the 2003 PISA survey³ published in 2004. One of the areas of the survey was the reading ability of pupils aged 15 to 16 in 41 countries, mainly OECD member states. The pupils were placed in six categories according to their scores. Categories 0 and 1 comprise the lowest levels that correspond to functional illiteracy.

The sum of percentages in these two categories (0 and 1) goes from 5 to 63 per cent for all countries; whereas in a dozen countries who barely managed to stay within the international average, the percentage varies between 16 and 22 per cent. These figures are somewhat surprising for the countries in question: Switzerland 16 per cent, France 17 per cent, Denmark 17 per cent, Austria 20 per cent, Germany 22 per cent, etc.

This ranking matches rather well with the results of the first, 2000 PISA survey and those of earlier, similar surveys.

However, a drop is to be noted in the case of certain countries, France, for instance, which was at the top of the list just behind Finland in a 1991 OECD survey, is now well in the middle. For instance, category 0 has grown in France from 4.2 per cent in 2000 to 6.3 per cent in 2003.

What conclusions are to be drawn from these surveys? Is education poorly organised? There are those who think precisely that; it is, however, a bitter pill to swallow in those countries who flatter themselves for having the best education system in the world.

In any case it is hard to see how foreign languages will be taught at a worthwhile level to populations where over fifty per cent have a mastery of their mother tongue

³ PISA 2003 (Programme for International Student Assessment). OECD 2004.

that, at best, is barely adequate and, at worst, non-existent. Overall, the situation is worrying and it might just be high time that the philosophy and attitudes that have underpinned education policy over the past thirty five years be subject to revision. During the seventies the Council of Europe wanted to introduce a credit unit system for language teaching. The project was shelved, however, the Council's report on the project, published in 1981⁴, does reflect the spirit of the period in which reforms in Europe were carried out.

The report condemned the “elitism in traditional language teaching at school”, criticised “the progressive difficulty of the intellectual discipline” that “filtered the different strata of the middle classes through competitive examinations (overt or ‘norm-references’)” and concluded that:

“The great masses of the population are totally untouched by activities which are concerned exclusively with values, knowledge and skills which appear to have no relevance to their lives.”

It was also at this time that comprehensive schools were introduced along with “pupil centred” teaching methods and the like. These principles are still adhered to in practice.

Nowadays, governments are nonetheless beginning to feel uneasy and are considering reforms. No-one, however, seems to have the nerve to question prevailing teaching methods and oppose the so-called “experts” who, even today, proclaim that “education can never be subject to an obligation to provide results”⁵.

Luckily, there are those in positions of responsibility within education who have qualified and more finely shaded views on this subject. Two professors at the French national teacher training institute, l'École normale supérieure, reached the following thought-provoking conclusion in an article published recently in *Le Figaro*⁶:

“How can one rebuild an effective national education system whilst retaining ineffective teaching methods?”

The Editorial Board

⁴ Modern Languages (1971-1981). Council of Europe, Strasbourg 1981.

⁵ Philippe Meirieu (Director of the Institut universitaire de formation des maîtres de l'académie de Lyon): “École: les échéances dérisoires et les autres”. *Le Monde* 25/11- 04.

⁶ Marie-Christine Bellosta and Franck Debié, senior lecturers at the École normale supérieure: “Critique de la raison pédagogique”. *Le Figaro* 5/2-05.

Characterising the Genre of the Corporate Press Release

Yvonne McLaren and Călin Gurău
School of Management and Languages
Heriot Watt University
Edinburg, UK

1. Introduction

This paper reports on the findings of a study of press releases issued by UK biotechnology companies between 2000 and 2002, which sought to identify the key characteristics of company press releases as a genre, and to relate those characteristics to the context in which press releases are produced and received, in particular the goals they are designed to serve.

Press releases are one type of business or corporate genre amongst many others. Orlikowski and Yates (1994) and Yates and Orlikowski (1992), in their research on organisational genres, refer to other examples, such as the business letter, the memo and the report. What all genres, including organisational genres, have in common, is the fact that they are all examples of “typified rhetorical action in the context of socially defined recurrent situations” (Yates and Orlikowski 1992: 301). Bhatia (1999) takes this further, noting that “Genres are essentially defined in terms of the use of language in conventionalised communicative settings, which give rise to a specific set of communicative goals for specialised disciplinary and social groups, which in turn establish relatively stable structural forms and, to some extent, even constrain the use of lexico-grammatical resources” (Bhatia 1999: 152). Corporate press releases respond to a specific recurring situation and have their own distinctive purpose – that is, to communicate news about the company, usually in relation to a specific event or development, to a wide audience (chiefly external to the company, but internal too), and to serve the public relations needs of the company.ⁱ Press releases also have their own distinctive format and style; these will be the areas of interest examined here. The study will discuss the purpose of press releases, including the topics of press releases, or the types of events or developments which give rise to press releases, the typical format or structure of press releases, and lastly key features of the language of press releases, including

most notably aspects of evaluation and the making of claims. The paper therefore seeks to go beyond the study of schematic structure alone and to examine textural features of press releases – lexico-grammatical features found on the surface of the text – and to relate all of these features which are found to be conventional and expected to issues of context and pragmatics. The study will draw primarily on work in genre analysis (e.g. Bhatia 1993, 1999, 2004; Flowerdew and Dudley-Evans 2002; Gimenez 2002; Luzón Marco 2002; Swales 1990; Van Nus 1999), but also work from a text linguistics and/or pragmatics perspective (e.g. Bell 1984; Hatim and Mason 1990, 1997), including studies of specific types of business texts such as Jacobs (1998, 1999a, b) on press releases, and business communication research by, for example, Rogers and Swales (1990) and Swales and Rogers (1995) on genres such as ethical codes and mission statements.

Unlike some work which has studied press releases (e.g. Bell 1991; Jacobs 1998, 1999a, b), the focus here will not be so much the processes by means of which press releases are created, but rather the conventional features of press releases as corporate texts and as examples of a ubiquitous, familiar and, it would appear, static genre. The approach adopted is therefore product-oriented rather than process-oriented, although the processes of production will be considered where appropriate, and particularly where they help explain certain features of the texts themselves.

The biotechnology sector is a particularly interesting sector to investigate for, in the UK, biotechnology companies are faced with an extremely difficult situation. In biotechnology the process of product innovation and development is extremely complex and costly – according to Gracie (1998), the full development of a new biotechnology product can take as long as six to eight years –, with the result that companies require high levels of investment, especially in the early stages. However, the biotechnology sector is a high-risk sector, since outcomes are uncertain, and so for investors the level of risk is high. A successful communication strategy which creates and maintains a positive corporate image and good investor relations is therefore crucially important for business development. A further complicating factor is the controversy which has surrounded the biotech sector in many countries, not least the UK, where the biotech sector is viewed with some suspicion and mistrust by the general public. It is within this context that press releases have a key role to play; factors external to texts such as these also have an important influence on the linguistic, textual and pragmatic choices made by writers.

2. Corporate Press Releases as a Business Genre

As noted above, genres are defined in relation to recurrent social situations, and Van Nus (1999), who focuses specifically on the corporate context, notes that “business genres are defined as responses to organisational communicative needs in recurrent business situations (cf. Miller, 1984; Yates and Orlikowski, 1992)” (Van Nus 1999: 190). Yates and Orlikowski (1992) examine the features of texts which are examples of organisational and business genres and note, for instance, that each

genre is characterised by “similar substance and form”, “substance” referring to “the social motives, themes, and topics being expressed in the communication”, while form relates to “the observable physical and linguistic features of the communication” (Yates and Orlowski 1992: 301).

Let us consider “substance” first. As Orlowski and Yates (1994) note, drawing on Miller (1984), motives, themes, etc. are conventionalised within the discourse community within which the genre is used: “The communicative purpose of a genre is not rooted in a single individual’s motive for communicating, but in a purpose that is constructed, recognised, and reinforced within a community (Miller, 1984)” (Orlowski and Yates 1994: 543). They give the example of an annual shareholders’ meeting, the commonly recognised purpose of which is “to report on the company’s past accomplishments and present its future outlook to stockholders...” (Orlowski and Yates 1994: 543). The purpose of a company press release is similar: to publish news about the company, to bring information about the new developments into the public domain. A further key purpose of press releases is to present the company in as favourable a light as possible. Press releases, then, tend to be “hybrid” texts (on this, see, for example, Hatim and Mason 1990, 1997): they seek both to inform and to persuade. As Cook (1989) notes in a discussion about American politics, “the point of a press release is not accuracy so much as showing the representative in a good light” (cited in Jacobs, 1999a: 45), and according to Hess (1989), by their very nature, press releases represent the views of the organisation that issued them. Talking about US government agencies, for instance, he notes that press releases “are an agency’s opportunity to order information in a manner that the agency considers most advantageous to its mission” (Hess 1989: 47). In his study of 600 Dutch press releases Jacobs (1999b) also points to their dual function, noting that they occupy the middle ground between advertising and news reporting. He describes them as “egocentric”: “press releases – like other types of corporate disclosure discourse, including business organisations’ annual reports – can be considered ‘egocentric’: organisations invariably issue them when they want to say something about themselves” (Jacobs 1999b: 220). Press releases can be used by companies to shape their corporate image, to show how well they are doing and to persuade potential investors that the company is worth investing in, as well as reassuring existing investors that their choice is still a good one. This is particularly important in the British biotechnology sector because of the enormous financial costs of pursuing research in this area.

The target audience of press releases is multifarious. The main addressees of corporate press releases are shareholders and potential investors, especially in the biotech sector. In addition, however, there are a number of other audience groups, such as market analysts or competitors, who are undoubtedly taken into account during the production of the press release and who would be “auditors” in Bell’s (1984) model of audience design. The situation is further complicated by what Jacobs (1998, 1999a, b) terms the “preformulated” nature of press releases, namely the fact that press releases are written for journalists who, it is hoped, will retell the

company's news in an article or report. This point is made also by Bell (1991) who examines the processes by which news is created and reported, as well as the resulting language used by the news media. Thus, as Jacobs (1999a: 46) argues, "press releases seem to be aimed at two different audiences at the same time, viz. journalists as well as those journalists' own audiences of newspaper readers, TV viewers etc... the role of the journalists seems to be the pivotal one of retelling press releases, of forwarding the news supplied to them." Press releases are also communicated to some audience members directly, however. All biotechnology companies which feature in this study post their press releases on the corporate website, usually in a section entitled either "Information for investors" or "Press"/"Media", which can be accessed by all users of the website, and in many cases it is possible to sign up to receive company news, including press releases by email. This is evidence that the press release is crafted ultimately for the consumption of investors. Although it is true that many such investors will see the text only after the intervention or mediation of the journalist, this is by no means the case for all. Indeed, as has been noted (e.g. by Gurau and McLaren 2003), companies are able now, more than ever before, to communicate directly with their audiences, including investors, through their websites and can perhaps influence the communication process generally and their audiences' perceptions more, thanks to the increasing use of Internet technology.

As far as "form" is concerned, Yates and Orlikowski (1992) note that "There are at least three aspects of form in organisational communication: structural features (e.g., text-formatting devices such as lists and fields and devices for structuring group interactions, such as an agenda and a chairperson for a meeting), communication medium (e.g., pen and paper or face to face), and language or symbol system (which would include linguistic characteristics such as formality and the specialised vocabulary of technical or legal jargon)" (Yates and Orlikowski 1992: 301-302). In the case of a corporate press release the communication medium is clearly the written medium, unlike a genre such as a meeting which is interactive and chiefly spoken (although it should be noted that press releases are often accompanied by a press conference, which is indeed an interactive genre of a similar type to a meeting). The structural and linguistic features of corporate press releases are less obvious and will be examined in this article in some detail.

Although Jacobs, who is responsible for perhaps most research on corporate press releases, does not focus explicitly on issues of format or structure in his work, he does consider textual and linguistic conventions and identifies what he calls the "metapragmatics of press releases". Under this heading he examines the phenomena of self-reference, self-quotation and explicit semi-performatives (e.g. *announce*), all of which he describes as "standard features of press releases" (Jacobs 1999a: 79).

On the issue of self-reference Jacobs's analyses point to the fact that there are hardly any first person pronouns (*we*, etc) used in press releases which he notes "is unexpected, to say the least", because press releases (like other types of corporate

disclosure discourse, such as annual reports) are issued when companies “want to say something about themselves (Jacobs 1999b: 220)”. Instead he finds that “it is a characteristic feature of the production of press releases that self-referencing is almost exclusively realised in the third person, in particular through the use of the organisation’s proper name” (1999b: 220). He argues that the various forms of third person self-reference in his corpus can only be correctly interpreted if the “tellability” of press releases is taken into account: through third person self-reference writers of press releases switch out of their own perspective and move some way towards that of the journalists, who are expected to copy the press releases into their own news reporting.

In his examination of self-quotation, Jacobs notes that press releases are heavily characterised by instances of what Bell (1991) calls “pseudo-direct speech”, where the words “were almost certainly not verbalised by the named source [, but] written by a press officer and merely approved by the source (sometimes not even that)” (Bell 1991: 60). Self-quotation is claimed to fulfil many of the same functions as third-person self-reference, including preformulation: “it appears as if the writer of the press release is switching out of his or her own perspective and takes that of the journalists, who are expected to retell the press release in their own news reporting” (Jacobs 1999a: 183). Self-quotation also allows writers of press releases to distance themselves from what is being reported. As Goffman puts it, “[i]nstead of stating a view outright, the individual tends to attribute it to a character who happens to be himself, but one he has been careful to withdraw from in one regard or another” (1974: 551). Thus self-quotation also serves to make press releases look neutral – it “serves to anticipate the typical objectivity requirements of news reporting” (Jacobs 1999a: 195) – and reliable – “quotation marks are traditionally assumed to signal verbatim reporting... as a result, they lend an air of reliability to the report” (Jacobs 1999a: 196).

Lastly, Jacobs (e.g. 1999a) identifies what he calls semi-performatives in press releases such as *announce* or *remark* in statements such as “The Customs and Excise Administration announces that...”. Here “in the very act of saying that they ‘announce that they managed to confiscate 32 kg of pure cocaine’, the customs authorities are indeed announcing that they did so. In other words, the press release *is* the announcement and this seems to be in line with Allan Bell’s claim that press releases are performative documents (1991)”. Again Jacobs links the use of such semi-performatives to preformulation: “the explicit semi-performative utterances in extracts from press releases... can easily be retold verbatim by journalists in their own news reporting” (1999a: 251) and as such they serve a preformulating function.

As we shall see, a number of the metapragmatic features of press releases identified by Jacobs (1998, 1999a, b) and Bell (1984, 1991) are found in the corpus under examination here. However, a number of other interesting features of a structural and linguistic and/or pragmatic nature were also identified and will be discussed in section 4.

3. The Corpus

The corpus of data used for this study consists of approximately 50 press releases issued by 20 biotechnology companies based in the UK between 2000 and 2002ⁱⁱ and accessed on the company's websites. The companies concerned are all primarily research and development companies and are traded on the stock market, with the result that for them an effective communications strategy which allows them to maintain a positive corporate image and to attract investment is imperative.

Most frequently the press releases included in the corpus used here, and indeed press releases issued by biotechnology companies in the United Kingdom generally, are concerned with one of a small number of topics. These include most notably the publication of financial results; business developments such as the opening of a new facility or expansion into a new market; collaboration between the issuing company and some other company, and acquisitions and mergers; updates on and results of clinical trials; and decisions taken by regulatory authorities. These topics are reflected in the titles given to press releases. These topics are clearly not exclusive to companies in the biotechnology sector, however. Financial results, for instance, are published by all companies listed on the stock exchange, regardless of the sector in which they operate, and business developments of the type noted above are also a general feature of all industrial sectors. Nonetheless, a number of the topics listed are especially important in the biotechnology sector, perhaps more so than in other sectors of industry. Clinical trials, for instance, are very important in the biotechnology sector, especially the biopharmaceutical sector. This is because, as noted above, the process of product development can take many years, with the result that there is very little news for R&D companies to publicise for a very long time on the subject of products. Any progress which is made in clinical trials is therefore extremely important and must be communicated to investors in order that they are kept abreast of developments and that they are reassured that the company will ultimately be successful in developing an end product. Such trials, and the process of product development generally, are heavily influenced by decisions taken by regulatory bodies who control and regulate the activities of biotechnology companies. Such bodies can determine whether research should go ahead or not, whether companies should be issued with a licence to sell a particular product, whether product licences should be suspended and products recalled, and so on. Also involved here is the issuing of patents for particular products and techniques. Consequently, decisions taken by regulatory bodies are frequent triggers for the publication of company press releases. Collaboration between companies is also especially important in biotechnology for many of the reasons given above. Since the process of product development is so lengthy and costly, companies are increasingly looking to form partnerships or collaborations with other companies in order that the financial burden they face may be shared. This means that there are more collaborations in biotechnology than in other sectors and that companies are keen to publicise partnerships to investors and the business community generally. All of the topics relate to the recurring situations to which the genre of the press release responds,

i.e. in which press releases are expected, required, produced and distributed, in the biotechnology sector in the UK.

4. Conventions of Corporate Press Releases

4.1. Structural Characteristics: The Format of Corporate Press Releases

The first stage of the analysis involved an investigation of the format or structure of press releases and the constituents of that format. The approach adopted here is similar to the type of approach adopted by genre analysts such as Swales (1990), Bhatia (1993) or Paltridge (1997), who have shown that genres such as academic research articles consist of a series of “moves” or “steps” or “components”. As is noted by Flowerdew and Dudley-Evans (2002), drawing on Swales (1990), the resulting schematic structures “are prototypes which can be subject to different amounts of variation according to the degree to which the genre is conventionalised (Swales 1990). In most genres, moves will be either obligatory or optional; they may be fixed or in a variable sequence, they may be subject to embedding one within the other, and they may be recursive (Swales 1990)” (Flowerdew and Dudley-Evans 2002: 470).

During the analysis conducted for the purpose of this study, it became clear that most press releases follow a very distinctive format or structure and that there is little divergence from the standard model. The norm is for press releases to begin with an announcement – the news the company wishes to disseminate – which is subsequently elaborated; this is then followed by comments from the CEO or another important figure; finally, the press release includes details of how to obtain further information. In some cases an additional section is appended, usually called “Editor’s note”, which provides additional information about very specific subjects mentioned in the main text e.g. background information about a company mentioned, or definitions of scientific or technical terms. This is the information the company thinks journalists may require when they come to adapt the press release for their own purposes i.e. when writing a follow-up press report, and is therefore included primarily for the benefit of journalists, rather than the other addressee group, investors. This part of the press release can run to several pages. The typical format of a press release is shown in Figure 1. Only the last element is optional.

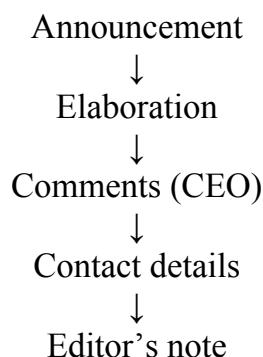


Figure 1. The standard format of a corporate press release

A short press release following this pattern is reproduced below as extract 1 for the purpose of illustration. This is a press release which was issued by Axis Shield on 30 July 2002 and in which the company announces that it has gained clearance from the US Food and Drug Administration for its new rheumatoid arthritis test.

1. Axis-Shield Gains FDA Clearance for New Rheumatoid Arthritis Test

Axis-Shield announces today that it has received Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approval to market its new marker for the early detection of rheumatoid arthritis. With an estimated 2.1 million sufferers in the USA alone, rheumatoid arthritis is still a major crippling disease in the Western world. However, if detected at an early stage by more effective testing, new advances in drug treatment means that prognoses for patients is much better.

The test detects antibodies to cyclic citrullinated peptide (CCP) in blood samples allowing superior specificity and performance compared to current methods of detection. This efficacy has been demonstrated in global studies on over 2700 samples where the specificity was 98%, with a sensitivity of around 80%. The test is licensed from a Dutch consortium, principally the University of Nijmegen and developed in Dundee by Axis-Shield scientists. It has excited much interest among rheumatologists keen to identify and treat rheumatoid arthritics earlier in the disease process.

Svein Lien, Axis-Shield CEO, commented:

“We are very pleased that the test can now be sold in the key American market – we believe anti-CCP is a major step forward in the diagnosis of rheumatoid arthritis and that its launch will strengthen our leadership position in testing for autoimmune disease. It illustrates well our commitment to marketing novel disease markers in areas of clinical need.”

Enquiries:

Axis-Shield plc
Svein Lien, Chief Executive Officer
Tel: +44 (0) 772 029 2152

George Zajicek, Commercial Director
Tel: +44 (0) 772 0449412

Financial Dynamics
Tel: +44 (0) 207 831 3113
Fiona Noblet

As can be seen here, the structure of this press release is clearly in line with that given in Figure 1:

1. In sentence 1 the announcement is made. The occurrence of the announcement in the first sentence is a standard feature of all press releases. In this example the news is that Axis-Shield has received approval from the FDA to market a new product, a marker for the early detection of rheumatoid arthritis. Furthermore, the semi-performative verb “announce” is used, as noted by Jacobs (1999a). This is virtually always the case, although other expressions (e.g. “is pleased to announce”; “is pleased to report”, etc.) may also be used.
2. In the rest of the first paragraph and the second paragraph we find the elaboration. This clearly accounts for a large portion of the press release, which again seems to be normal, at least from the evidence adduced from the analysis reported on here. We are given information about the uses of the test, the rationale behind the test and how the test actually works. This part of the press release also frequently provides information on the expected outcomes of the news being announced.
3. In the third paragraph comments from the CEO (or another relevant high-profile person) are reported in relation to the developments being announced. These comments are always very positive. It is in this part of the press release that we find the phenomenon of “self-quotation” (Jacobs 1999a), where the company quotes itself, or at least a member of its managerial staff (usually the CEO).
4. In the final section contact details are given of those who can provide more information on the company and the developments reported. This can either be contacts at the company itself or at a communications agency.

This is very much the typical structure of the corporate press releases comprising the corpus. There is very little variation. This is undoubtedly due to the fact that corporate press releases are highly conventional texts, responding to frequently recurring situations with a uniform purpose. As is noted by Flowerdew and Dudley-Evans (2002: 470), “It is generally agreed that the more conventional a genre is – that is, the more constrained its communicative purposes are – the more predictable will be its schematic structure”. Drawing on Giddens’s (1984) notion of social rules, Yates and Orlikowski (1992) talk about “genre rules” and posit that “genres are enacted through rules, which associate appropriate elements of form and substance with recurrent situations”, although they acknowledge that “A particular instance of a genre need not draw on all the rules constituting that genre” (Yates and Orlikowski 1992: 302). In the case of corporate press releases the schematic structure identified above would seem to be one aspect of the rules involved in the production (and reception) of such press releases. However, there

are other interesting regularities in press releases. Indeed, each of the component parts of a press release has its own characteristic linguistic and textural features. Although most genre studies have considered first and foremost the structural organisation of texts – according to Van Nus (1999), “as Fairclough (1992) argues, structural organisation has been given too much emphasis at the expense of other generic textual regularities” (Van Nus 1999: 193) – this study will go on in the next section to look at regularities at a linguistic, textual and pragmatic level.

4.2. Linking Format and Form: Textural Characteristics of the Structural Components

During the detailed analysis of the corpus it emerged that each of the structural components of the press release has its own characteristic textural features which can be related to the purpose of the structural component and to the role that component plays in the press release as a whole.

4.2.1. The Announcement and its Elaboration: Presentation of Facts

The function of the announcement and elaboration components would appear to be more informative than persuasive; this part of the press release is primarily expository in text typological terms (see, for example, Hatim and Mason 1990, 1997, and Werlich 1983). It is in this portion of the press release that facts are presented in relation to the developments being announced and this can lead to the presentation of often very technical details, especially in the elaboration, as is exemplified below. This is especially true where the topic of the press release is a clinical trial, as in extracts 2-3, and where consequently the text provides key scientific information. However, press releases on other topics are also characterised by a highly informative announcement and elaboration section in which a great deal of technical information may be given. This is reflected in extracts 4-5:

2. The randomised, double-blind trial enrolled 60 volunteers – 30 received the standard dose of Dryvax® and 30 were given an equivalent dose of ACAM1000. An immune response was assessed by the currently accepted indication of protective immunogenicity in the case of smallpox vaccination, which is the development of a pock-mark on the skin, known as a “take”. This was the primary endpoint of the trial. (Acambis, 3 September 2002)
3. Zavesca is an oral formulation of miglustat, a small molecule developed by OGS for the treatment of patients for whom Enzyme Replacement Therapy is unsuitable. (Oxford GlycoSciences, 26 July 2002)
4. Under the agreement signed yesterday, GEM Global Yield Fund Limited (“GEM Global”), the US based private investment group, has agreed to provide the Company with up to £5 million over the next two years in the form of an equity line of credit. (Osmetech, 28 September 2001)

5. Shire's only other US manufacturing facility, located in Valley Stream, New York, is in the process of being divested. At that facility, Shire manufactures immediate release ADDERALL ® and DEXTROSAT ®, two products that do not require specialty manufacturing and that contribute to just 10% of Shire's Group revenues. (Shire Pharmaceuticals, 13 September 2002)

As can be seen, this part of the press release is highly impersonal and is marked by the use of third-person self-reference, a feature of press releases noted by Jacobs (1999a, b). For instance in extract 5 Shire Pharmaceuticals constantly refers to itself in the third person when the use of the first person is possible, as illustrated below in a non-occurring example:

- 5.* Our only other US manufacturing facility, located in Valley Stream, New York, is in the process of being divested. At that facility, we manufacture immediate release ADDERALL ® and DEXTROSAT ®, two products that do not require specialty manufacturing and that contribute to just 10% of our revenues.

Third person reference is used in this manner for a number of reasons. Firstly, using third person self-reference forms means that journalists are not required to make any changes in terms of reference and point of view and thus helps them to meet the formal requirements of news reporting (this is what Jacobs 1999a, b calls the "tellability" of press releases). Secondly, and perhaps more importantly, the use of third person forms also gives the text an air of objectivity, of neutral detachment, and hence may be interpreted by all audience groups as carrying a degree of authority and reliability. As Jacobs (1999b) points out, "third person self-reference makes press releases look disinterested and neutral rather than self-interested, promotional... In contrast, the use of 'we' to refer to a business organisation has been called an advertising device..." (Jacobs 1999b: 232) and is used in very different genres.ⁱⁱⁱ

The texts are also characterised by the reporting of actions which have been undertaken and/or events which have taken place, with the result that actions and events are reported in the past tense. For instance, in extract 2 above we are told that "The randomised, double-blind trial enrolled 60 volunteers" and that "30 received the standard dose of Dryvax®", while "30 were given an equivalent dose of ACAM1000"; and in extract 4 readers are informed that under the agreement signed on 27 September 2001, "GEM Global Yield Fund Limited ("GEM Global"), the US based private investment group, has agreed to provide the Company with up to £5 million over the next two years in the form of an equity line of credit".

In these extracts we can also see a further typical feature of this section of press releases, which is the use of non-modalised categorical assertions. In other words, the writers opt not to modalise this part of the text with devices expressing high or low confidence in what is being said; rather, writers express their propositions as

categorical assertions (e.g. “You are right”, as opposed to “You must be right” or “You could be right”), thereby expressing the strongest possible degree of certainty in the truth of the propositions expressed. Events and actions are therefore presented as facts, as unquestionable, as unproblematic. In many cases this part of the press release displays additional features which have long been seen to characterise scientific discourse. Passives can be found in most of the extracts given above: examples include “An immune response was assessed by...” (extract 2); and “Shire’s only other US manufacturing facility, located in Valley Stream, New York, is in the process of being divested” (extract 5). The length and complexity of noun phrases is also noteworthy. In the above extracts significant examples include “The randomised, double-blind trial” and “the currently accepted indication of protective immunogenicity in the case of smallpox vaccination” (both in extract 2), “the US based private investment group” (extract 4), and so on.

The combined effect of these textural features – third person self-reference, reporting of actions in the past tense, and the use of categorical assertions – is above all an air of detachment and objectivity in this part of the press release.

4.2.2. Interpretation and Positive Evaluation: Comments from the CEO

If press releases were entirely objective reports of developments, however, they would not fulfil their objective of persuading investors of the merits of the company. Successfully fulfilling this aim is vital to the survival of biotechnology companies. As a result, press releases also evaluate the company and the activities or developments reported, and, unsurprisingly, this evaluation is entirely positive. Positive evaluation is the purpose of the CEO’s comments above all; these comments are designed to provide an interpretation or an analysis of the facts and developments previously presented. The result is that, overall, press releases tend to evaluate the company and its activities (whatever is being reported) in a very favourable light.

The positive evaluation which characterises the CEO’s comments is evident from the very outset in that they tend to start with expressions such as “We are delighted that...” or “We are pleased that...”, regardless of the news being announced. There is relatively little variation in this respect. What then follows is in very much the same vein with the news of the moment (i.e. the topic of the press release) being reported in highly positive terms. Typical examples of CEOs’ comments are given in extracts 6-8 below:

6. “We are delighted that we have met our targets in completing the build of our Tullamore facility on time and to budget, and have now established a strong operating and management team. We see this as the first in a number of milestones we expect to complete this year: we plan to expand our product range, further increase our manufacturing capabilities and conclude a deal with a major European marketing partner. We are confident that this state-of-the-art manufacturing plant will help to establish our position as a

leading supplier of high quality, cost effective generic biopharmaceuticals.” (GeneMedix, 24 June 2002)

7. Christopher Pearce, Chief Executive of Proteome Sciences said: “We are very encouraged by the excellent results obtained from the University Cantonal Hospital, Geneva in specificity and predictive accuracy for the stroke test. This should accelerate the rapid development of a blood test for clinical applications and will allow us to concentrate our research more fully on differentiating between the two types of stroke, haemorrhagic and ischaemic. In combination with our collaboration with ReNeuron plc, this gives Proteome Sciences a major mandate in the field of stroke diagnosis, prognosis and drug targets for therapeutic treatment.” (Proteome Sciences, 1 May 2002)
8. Commenting on this announcement, Phil Gould, Chief Executive of Provalis plc, said, “This is another significant endorsement for our Glycosal product. This opportunity will give immediate sales, of both instruments and tests, in a large number of major accounts in both doctor’s office and hospital laboratory sectors in the USA, as well as increasing visibility of Glycosal within the USA. This is an excellent platform from which to grow this product.” (Provalis, 25 July 2002)

These extracts, and other examples of CEOs’ comments from the corpus, are littered with positively evaluative expressions. These include, to name but a few, “this state-of-the-art manufacturing plant”, “a leading supplier of high quality, cost effective generic biopharmaceuticals” and “a strong operating and management team” (all extract 6); “the excellent results” (extract 7); “another significant endorsement” and “an excellent platform” (extract 8), etc.

Also, as can be seen from the extracts, we find in this part of the press release the use of first-person self-reference forms. This is because the speaker in these cases is explicitly identified and therefore there is no confusion about whose words are being reported. Journalists can just as easily copy this part of the press release into their articles as they can the initial part containing the announcement and the elaboration. This is important because this portion of the press release, as noted previously, provides an interpretation of the news reported, an assessment which the company hopes will be accepted by the final recipients of the press release, namely investors.

In the vast majority of cases it is the second person plural pronoun *we* (and to a lesser extent also the pronoun *us*) and the possessive adjective *our* which are used. This is reflected above. In all such cases *we* refers to the company: it is the corporate *we* or institutional *we*, an exclusive use of *we* to refer to the organisation, rather than *we* used inclusively to refer to writer and reader. Through the use of the plural pronoun, the CEO signals that the interpretation of the news given and the

evaluation drawn represent the reaction or the viewpoint of the company as a whole, rather than just the CEO.

The comments made by the CEO and quoted in the press release also involve “self-quotation” (Jacobs e.g. 1999a) or “pseudo-direct speech” (Bell 1991). Thus, the company effectively quotes itself and, in the introduction of the quotation, names the interviewee (the CEO), and refers to him/her as an external party, as a journalist would.

4.2.3. Evaluation, Expectation and Speculation

One of the most interesting and striking features of the data analysed here, particularly the CEO’s comments, is the combination we find of linguistic and pragmatic features with opposing functions: on the one hand, the press releases are positively evaluative, praising the company for its progress, but on the other hand, the writers of press releases hedge the claims they make because they are required to speculate on the uncertain – future progress, results, and so on – with the result that there is a significant tendency towards the use of expressions of uncertainty. These include modal verbs, lexical verbs which are non-factive, in other words “which do *not* presuppose the truth of what they govern” (Simpson 1993: 154, italics in original), and a whole range of items which invoke possibility, expectation, and prediction. Unlike other business genres such as corporate brochures in which certainty and positivity are the prevailing characteristics (see, for instance, McLaren 1999), press releases issued by biotechnology companies display evidence of the difficult balancing act companies have to undertake.

For example, we find with considerable frequency references to expectations, predictions and projections about the future. Such references occur both in the first part of press releases (i.e. the announcement and its elaboration) and the CEO’s comments. The following extracts are typical examples of statements involving expectations:

9. Osmetech expects to file for this approval by the end of April 2002. (Osmetech, 11 March 2002)
10. We expect that this initiative will spark great interest amongst our customers and will enhance Cytomyx’ [sic] position as a highly valued partner in drug discovery. (Cytomyx, CEO, 9 September 2002)
11. Results from this second trial are expected to be available shortly. (Acambis, 3 September 2002)

In all of these cases the verb “to expect” is used in some form. The suggestion is that, although likely to occur, the future developments mentioned are subject to external factors outside the company’s control, and as such are not certain to occur. A degree of doubt or uncertainty is therefore conveyed and the message to

investors is that, although the company is optimistic about the future, there can be no cast-iron guarantees. This same meaning and stance on the part of the company can also be conveyed by other expressions, as can be seen in extracts 12-14:

12. ... completion of the SMART trial is most likely to take place during the second half of 2004. (Antisoma, 20 August 2002)
13. the project is on track to deliver by the end of 2002. (Acambis, 2 April 2002)
14. Cytomyx is well placed to create such products, which address the market's need. (Cytomyx, CEO, 4 April 2002)

In these examples we find a number of adjectival expressions: "is likely to" + verb (extract 12), "is on track to" + verb (extract 13), "is well placed to" + verb (extract 14), etc. The making of references of this type allows the company to make positive statements, but without committing itself fully to the successful completion of whatever is mentioned. The same function may also be fulfilled by references to possibility, which may take a number of different forms:

15. The results will indicate at an early stage the potential therapeutic effectiveness of these compounds in these specific issues. (Pharmagene, 17 September 2002)
16. We are excited by the possibility that, together, our powerful technologies could assist in exploring new mechanisms of disease intervention in allergy. (CAT, CEO, 13 August 2002)
17. It [early product profiling] may also save costs since many development candidates fail in the clinic despite the preclinical results and significant investment. (Pharmagene, 17 September 2002)

References to possibility include use of adjectives, adverbs and nouns (e.g. "potential" in extract 15, "possibility" in extract 16), but may also include a range of modal verbs which suggest a high degree of uncertainty, including notably "may" (as in extract 17) and "could" (extract 16), or even some combination of devices which are "modally harmonic" i.e. which "are used to convey the same degree of commitment" (Simpson 1993: 152), such as "possibility" and "could" in extract 16. In these instances it would once again appear that claims are being made by the company about what are potentially highly significant developments, most frequently breakthroughs and important progress in product development, but that they are hedged. Companies are clearly not in a position to make categorical claims, but wish, indeed need, to make some kind of statement on the subject in order to keep the community of investors interested, reassured, and willing to invest. As a result, companies find themselves obliged to say something positive,

but in a manner in which they cannot be held to account if their hopes, expectations or intentions are not fulfilled.

Nonetheless, we do find in press releases considerable use of the modal verb “will” which suggests a not insignificant degree of commitment on the part of the writer to the truth of the statement made. Consider the following extracts:

18. CAT and Xerion will explore and evaluate the therapeutic potential of a cell surface protein known to play a role in allergic reactions in man. (CAT, 13 August 2002)
19. Nycomed and KSB will co-fund the development of products for each indication and Nycomed will be responsible for product registration and marketing of TransMID™ in the licensed territory. (KS Biomedix, 17 September 2002)
20. The project will be funded by a Phase I Small Business Innovation Research grant issued by the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases. (Sequenom, 24 August 2000)

All of these cases occur in the main section of the press release, namely what we have termed above the elaboration of the announcement. “Will” is clearly used to indicate future tense, but the degree of certainty is much higher than in cases where, for example, there is reference to expectation: in all of the above cases we are told that X will happen – there is no doubt, no hesitation, no question mark. The use of “will” in this manner and thus the higher degree of certainty or confidence on the part of the writer is much less a feature of the CEO’s comments than the elaboration section. This may be because in the elaboration, as noted above, the company tends to report facts which are objective, uncontroversial and relatively certain. The CEO’s comments, on the other hand, are perhaps the most positively evaluative section of the press release – it is here that the most significant claims are made – and so it may also be in this part of the press release that the extent to which hedging occurs is highest.

5. Conclusions

The aim of this article was to explore the main features of one specific business genre, namely corporate press releases, and to relate those features to issues of context and pragmatics. The data for examination were drawn from the biotechnology sector, an industry which continues to experience uncertainty, fluctuations in fortune, and controversy in the UK. As has been shown, a number of consistencies or trends were found to characterise the press releases which constitute the corpus.

Firstly, in terms of format or structure, there is a standard pattern which all press releases in the corpus follow. This consists of a number of “moves”, “steps” or

“components”, namely an announcement, which is followed by an elaboration of that announcement, followed in turn by comments from the CEO or another important figure, which is followed finally by contact details or information about how to obtain further information. In some cases an “Editor’s note” also features at the very end, which gives extra information (e.g. about the company) and/or definitions of technical expressions. Only the very last component noted here is optional; all other components appear to be obligatory. This format would appear to be highly conventionalised in the UK biotechnology sector and the same format probably characterises corporate press releases generally, although this requires confirmation through empirical, text-based study. Although not all press releases will follow the standard pattern to the letter, they will do so to a greater or lesser degree.

Secondly, the analysis pointed to the occurrence of certain textural features noted by Jacobs (e.g. 1999a) to be examples of the “metapragmatics of press releases” (e.g. third person self-reference, self-quotation, etc.) and to the fact that these and other features are more common in certain parts of the press releases than in others, in accordance with the different purposes the various components are designed to fulfil. The main body of the press release, for example, which includes the announcement and the elaboration, is relatively more information-oriented, and thus impartial, than the CEO’s comments which are more evaluative (positively so) and subjective. These different functions lead to different choices from the available language resources. The announcement and elaboration, for example, tend to be concerned with technical or scientific detail and consequently use many categorical assertions and some modal markers which suggest certainty (e.g. the modal “will”). There may be some expression of uncertainty or expectation in this part of the text, but it is mainly the case that in this portion of the press release certainty prevails. This contrasts with the CEO’s comments which are highly evaluative, interpretive, and also speculative, with the result that they include not only judgement and evaluation (positive self-assessment and self-praise), but also hedging, as the writer attempts to balance the need to make positive claims about the company and its progress on the one hand, with the need on the other to acknowledge the risks associated with the biotechnology sector and the company’s activities, and hence also with investment in the company. Expressions are therefore used to minimise claims, to limit the degree of writer commitment to the truth of those claims. This combination of textural features allows the company to make important claims, but in a non-committal manner. Such a strategy is directly related to the purpose of press releases and their target audience: biotechnology companies, indeed all companies, need to project a positive corporate image as part of their strategy to persuade new investors to invest, and to reassure existing investors that their funds are safe, but they must also be realistic and acknowledge the uncertainties of the sector in which they operate, and hence the risky nature of investment.

The fact that there was so little variation found between the press releases included in the corpus may suggest that this is a highly conventionalised and indeed static

genre. In this respect corporate press releases clearly differ from other, more creative genres (e.g. advertisements) whose defining characteristic is to be innovative, expectation-defying and dynamic. The norms or conventions discussed here may, however, only be valid for English-language corporate press releases, British English-language corporate press releases, or even solely for British biotechnology company press releases, although this is probably not the case. Further research is clearly required to establish, firstly, whether all English-language corporate press releases fulfil the same generic norms, and, secondly, whether the genre of the corporate press release is one that is textualised in a similar manner across languages and cultures.

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ⁱ This study clearly contrasts with much research in linguistics and pragmatics on business communication which has tended to look in particular at different types of letter, notably in relation to interpersonal dynamics and factors of politeness, such as power and social distance (e.g. Bargiela-Chiappini and Harris, 1996; Kessapidu, 1997; Limaye and Cherry, 1987; Pilegaard, 1997; Yli-Jokipii, 1996). The focus in such studies tends to be on interaction between individuals within a business context. By contrast, communication between organisations and the outside world, or at least audiences who are external to the company, has tended to be overlooked. This point is made also by Jacobs (1999a) who notes that "... until recently, the focus was on communication-*within*-organisations", while the "capacity to communicate as an organisation... was strangely ignored. Indeed, for a long time, organisations were looked at as machines or as systems, and until today issues of discourse and pragmatics have remained largely underemphasised (Taylor and Cooren, 1997)" (Jacobs, 1999a: 3-4).

ⁱⁱ It must be acknowledged that this is a small corpus by comparison with the very large machine-readable corpora used today in corpus linguistics. However, as will be shown, the features discussed here as conventional were found to recur to such an extent that this corpus may in fact be seen to be sufficiently large. As Milroy (1987) notes in respect of the representativeness of samples used in linguistic surveys, "it seems to be generally true that very consistent patterns emerge even with a very small sample, provided that it was systematically selected" (1987: 27).

ⁱⁱⁱ Rogers and Swales (1990), for example, look at "how corporations refer to themselves ... in the formal expression of their ethical philosophy and policies" (1990: 294) and find that the ethical code of a large US company, the Dana Corporation, is characterised by the use of the first person pronoun *we*, which is used inclusively to refer to writer and reader, suggesting cooperation between writer and reader and creating "an idealised environment in which all participants, regardless of their relative power, are working together to achieve the company's roles" (1990: 301).

ABSTRACT

Characterising the Genre of the Corporate Press Release

Yvonne McLaren and Călin Gurău
School of Management and Languages
Heriot Watt University
Edinburg, UK

This article discusses the findings of a study which aimed to investigate the conventions of corporate press releases in English. The data consisted of a corpus of approximately 50 press releases issued by biotechnology companies in the UK. The analysis, which adopted a qualitative approach based primarily on work in genre analysis, text linguistics and pragmatics, focused on two main areas: the structure or format of company press releases, and characteristic linguistic and pragmatic features. Clear trends emerged, which will be discussed and exemplified, and an attempt will be made to link textual conventions to contextual features of the genre, such as the purpose of press releases and characteristics of the text users (producers and receivers).

Terminology and Specialized Translation: the Relevance of the Diachronic Approach

Pascaline Dury

Research Centre for Terminology and Translation (CRTT)

Université Lumière Lyon 2, France

0. Introduction

To start this paper, it is perhaps noteworthy to point out that a staggering number of books and articles on terminology do not mention the diachronic approach or do so very briefly. This situation probably reflects the fact that diachrony is still considered as a marginal or minor approach to terminology work.

However, despite this generally unfavourable climate, the history of concepts¹ needs to be developed for at least three reasons.

First, it shows that two concepts are not always strictly identical, even if their names appear to be equivalent or translated from one language into another. Concepts that may be considered as well-known and easy to understand, sometimes appear to be more complex than what they seem to be. This will be illustrated in the field of ecology with the concepts *COMMUNITY* and *COMMUNAUTÉ*².

Second, it proves that translators and terminologists would highly benefit from a more regular use of all the information (including diachronic information) available on terms and concepts as a brief historical study of *ECOSYSTEM* and *BIOSPHERE* shows.

Third, it challenges some of the founding principles of terminology (especially regarding the status and role of terms and words) which may need to be reassessed when studied in the light of diachrony.

But before moving on, it is necessary to explain why we have chosen to illustrate this paper with examples taken from the field of ecology and the environment.

1. The History of the Field of Ecology

Ecology can be considered as a relatively modern science, compared to other disciplines like medicine, chemistry or geography, which have existed for many centuries and whose concepts, for some of them, even go back to ancient times. Ecology, as we know it nowadays, only goes back to the 19th century, with the founding work of the German zoologist Ernst Haeckel (1899) and its coinage of the term *oekology*³. Haeckel based the term on the Greek formant *oikos*, meaning *home*, and wrote (1899, 286) “by oekology we mean the body of knowledge concerning the economy of nature - the investigation of the total relations of the animal both to its inorganic and its organic environment”.

Ecology has a short but interesting history, since it can also be considered as a “cross-discipline”, emerged from the concepts of many other neighbouring sciences like biology, botany and zoology. It has also increasingly been the focus of media attention for a few decades, people having become more and more environmentally-aware, and wanting to be informed about the various types of pollutions and their consequences for our planet. Ecology has therefore undergone quite dramatic changes over the past few decades. From being a discipline seeking to understand the relations between animals, plants and their environment, new goals have been added, and the concepts and methods of “scientific” ecology are now lost in the extension of the term to incorporate almost any idea or ideal, concerning the environment. This situation is at the heart of interesting and major terminological phenomena.

1.1. Conceptual Changes and Terminological Instability

1.1.1. The Case of ECOSYSTEM

Most of the time, the emergence of a new scientific concept also goes with the emergence of a variety of names, which are synonyms and coexist in the language for some time. It is a well-known diachronic phenomenon, often studied for the general language but more rarely described for scientific disciplines. In ecology for instance, the term *ecosystem* (based on the contraction of *eco[logical] system*) was coined in 1935 by Sir Arthur George Tansley, a prominent British ecologist, who defined an *ecosystem* as (1935, 99):

[...] The systems so formed which, from the point of view of the ecologist are the basic units of nature on the face of the earth. Our natural human prejudices force us to consider the organisms [...] as the most important parts of the systems, but certainly the inorganic “factors” are also parts [...]. These “ecosystems”, as we may call them, are of the most varied kinds and sizes.

Tansley therefore used the term *ecosystem* in order to describe the interdependence of organisms among themselves, as well as with their living and non-living environment. But if the coinage of the term goes back to the 1930’s, the concept had emerged earlier, and could already be found under several different names in previous ecological works, notably by Forbes (1887), Clements (1916) or

Friedrichs (1927). As a consequence, when *ecosystem* appears, it becomes the rival term of a long list of synonyms like *microcosm*, *superorganism*, *quasi-organism*, *biotic community*, or *holocen*. This initial profusion of synonymous terms is typical of what Guilbert (1971) called the “transitional polysemy”, also described as “neological synonymy” by Humbley (1994). It is only a transitional situation as the terms which are synonymous at first, then either disappear or do continue to exist but with entirely different meanings. *Holocen*, *quasi-organism* and *superorganism* have indeed disappeared from the language of ecology, whereas the terms *biotic community* and *microcosm* are still in use, but with entirely new meanings⁴. There is no synonym or even near-synonym left for the term *ecosystem*, which seems to have outshone all its previous competitors.

1.1.2. The Case of PARASITISM

Another interesting case of diachronic terminology is when a founding concept becomes so vast and so complex, that it splits up into many sub-concepts or “derivative concepts” as we may call them, which, in turn, are designated by “derivative terms”, as it is the case for *PARASITISM*. *PARASITISM* is one of the oldest concepts of ecology, since it was borrowed from the history of Ancient Greece, to designate a living organism, animal or plant, growing in or upon another organism (technically called its *host*), and drawing its nutriment directly from it. *PARASITISM* is an essential concept in the field of ecology, especially as it is the starting point for researches on pest control. It has therefore been studied intensively and used regularly by scientists. The original concept has consequently undergone dramatic changes in the process, and has kept on expanding and becoming more complex, leading to the emergence of a number of sub-concepts and terms. Some of these terms have become very popular with ecologists (and also with the experts from other fields who have borrowed them). This is the case for the *microparasite*, an organism which multiplies directly within its host, usually within its cells, and the *macroparasite*, an organism which grows in its host, but multiplies by producing infective stages which are released from the host to infect new hosts. The *endoparasite* lives inside its host and usually ends up killing it, whereas the *ectoparasite* lives upon other organisms, but not directly at their expense. Last, but not least, the *parasitoid* depends on others for sustenance, but during one stage of its life only.

In this case as in the case of *ECOSYSTEM*, terminological changes are completely dependent on conceptual changes as new terms are created when new concepts emerge and evolve.

In most cases however, when concepts change, terms are not always created or modified accordingly, which may be the source of difficulties for translators.

1.2. Conceptual Changes and Terminological Stability

1.2.1. The Case of Biosphere

One of the most important ideas brought forward by the diachronic dimension is

that concepts move from disciplines to disciplines over time, and are borrowed by various sciences, undergoing changes in the process (for more information on this point, read Stengers, 1987), changes which are not often reflected in terms. This is the case in ecology for the *BIOSPHERE*.

The concept of *BIOSPHERE* appeared first in the field of biology to designate a circular atom considered as the basis of all organized bodies. The notion was then borrowed and used in biogeography to designate the earth's layer where life is possible, before finally moving on to ecology to define earth's realm of life as well as the total cargo of living organisms it contains. The Austrian geologist Eduard Suess was the first one to borrow and use the term *Biosphäre* in 1875 in order to describe precisely earth's narrow, life-supporting layer of air, water and soil. The case of *BIOSPHERE* shows that neighbouring but different disciplines often borrow concepts from each other. These concepts often undergo modifications when they "migrate" to a new field, whereas their name rarely changes. This type of diachronic information (from which scientific field does the concept originate?, when was it borrowed?, what does it mean now?, etc.) is essential for translators, since it may help them produce more accurate translations.

2. The Relevance of Diachrony for Specialized Translation

This brings us back to a point made earlier in the introduction on the necessity for translators to know more than only the language, and to also acquire also solid and thorough knowledge on the concepts and their organization within a scientific field. Moreover, it may be considered that there are two main categories of translators, and that each of them needs different and adapted working tools.

On the one hand, specialized translators who were trained as scientists and turn to translation for professional reasons have a good knowledge of the concepts and their organization, but lack competence and experience in the process of translating. On the other hand, specialized translators who were trained as linguists should be well experienced in the exercise of translation between two languages, but often lack information and knowledge on the scientific concepts and their organization. It is then worthwhile considering that these two categories of translators need adapted tools, and that the specialized translator trained as a linguist would highly benefit to have access to diachronic information on concepts and terms. He would then be better armed to make the difference between identical and similar concepts, as it is explained below.

2.1. Identical Versus Similar Concepts

One common mistake of specialized translation is to consider that two terms, which are considered as equivalent in two different languages, designate identical concepts. This is especially true when the two languages are close, like French and English, that the terms are "simple" or well-known terms and that their translation seems straightforward to the translator. For this point, I would like to draw from the work of Thoiron (1996), who makes a distinction between what he calls "identical"

and “similar” concepts. Identical concepts (in two or more languages) are composed of the same notional elements, contain exactly the same type of information and correspond to the same reality.

Similar concepts (in two or more languages), on the other hand, correspond partially but not entirely, as they share only part of their information or describe a reality which is slightly different. In other words, similar concepts have part of their information in common and part which is not found in the other concept. This is the case in ecology when having to translate the terms *communauté* and *community*. These two terms, which seem fairly simple to understand, and appear to be well-known even to non-specialists, could therefore be automatically considered as naming identical concepts in English and in French. *Communauté* and *community* actually designate concepts which cannot be considered as identical but only as similar. The concept of *COMMUNITY* shows a larger extension than the concept of *COMMUNAUTE*. *COMMUNAUTE* describes a biotic system composed of different populations, taken in a defined area or biotope, and at a given time. The time and the localized area obviously constitute important information on the concept. In the English language however, the concept *COMMUNITY* seems somehow to have evolved differently, and doesn't imply that the populations have to be of a different nature, and doesn't give any information on the time. A *COMMUNITY* can therefore be defined as a biotic system composed of populations which can be from different or from the same nature, present in a given biotope, at any time. We can thus conclude that the two concepts are not identical but only similar, and that depending on the context, it is a mistake to use *community* as an equivalent of *communauté*, which is often best translated by using the English terms *population* or even *guild*.

It is therefore impossible to reduce the concept of translation to the simple exercise of comparing terms and finding linguistic equivalents in the appropriate language. Translating is also comparing concepts which may have evolved differently in two languages, which sometimes may also mean having to compare different cultural conceptions of the same reality.

2.2. A New Kind of Terminological Definition

Having considered the importance of providing translators with diachronic information, it is now time to move on to consider what is the best way of presenting this information. It seems that the most efficient method would be by including it in the definitions they use.

We therefore consider that the role of a terminological definition is not only a cognitive role of offering information on unknown or not very well known terms, but is also to give a complete description of the conceptual system which is behind the term. This is why we consider that it is also part of the definition to inform the translator about the history of the concept and its name(s). But we are also aware that translators always work under tight time constraints, and that too long or too complex definitions would not be of any use to them in the end. We therefore

suggest to present the diachronic information in the shape of hypertexts or “hyperfiles”, attached to the main body of the definition, and accessible by clicking on a symbol also included in the main text.

By doing so, the translator would then access easily, but only if needed, to the required diachronic information.

The table below shows (in French) an example of diachronic information which could be added to the core of the definition.

Table 1. Diachronic Information Added to the Definitions in French of the Terms *Guild* and *Guilde*.

Terme anglais : <i>guild</i>	Terme français : <i>guilde</i>
corrélates terminologiques : <i>population</i> , <i>community</i> .	corrélates terminologiques : <i>communauté</i> , <i>population</i> , <i>peuplement</i> .
<u>Définition</u>	<u>Définition</u>
(1969/RONEP.335). A guild is defined as a group of species that exploit the same class of environmental resources in a similar way.	(1986/DAPRE.162). On désigne sous le nom de guilde la fraction du peuplement d'un milieu qui réunit un groupe d'espèces se partageant le même type de ressources de la même façon.
(1979/BRPEC.285). A group of species that share a resource (have related niches) in a community.	(1995/BAEGE.185). Une guilde est un ensemble d'espèces taxinomiquement apparentées qui exploite localement un même type de ressources. [...] Le terme guilde est beaucoup plus restrictif que le terme peuplement. Il peut donc être commode de l'utiliser pour désigner des groupements d'espèces taxonomiquement proches et appartenant à un même niveau trophique, réservant celui de peuplement pour des ensembles plus vastes, réunissant plusieurs guildes.
(1980/BMFAE.96). A guild is a group of species having similar niches and performing similar ecological roles.	
(1990/BHTEC.853). Guild : a group of species that exploit the same class of environmental resources in a similar way.	
<u>Contexte :</u>	<u>Contexte :</u>
(1976/MATHE.188). A guild may be defined as a group of species separated from all other such clusters by a distance greater than the greatest distance between the two most separate members of the guild concerned.	(1986/DAPRE.163). C'est au niveau des guildes que la différenciation des niches écologiques, consécutive à la radiation adaptative, se montre le mieux.
<u>Evolution diachronique :</u>	<u>Evolution diachronique :</u>
- Terme utilisé pour la première fois dans un sens écologique par Roots en 1967. - <i>Guild</i> se différencie de <i>population</i> , qui désigne un ensemble d'espèces identiques, réunies au même moment, dans un même	- La dénomination <i>guilde</i> est calquée sur le terme anglais <i>guild</i> . <i>Guilde</i> et <i>guild</i> renvoient aux mêmes concepts en français et en anglais. - Il y a coexistence en français de deux

lieu.

- Certains ouvrages de langue anglaise utilisent le terme *taxonguild* pour désigner des sous-ensembles de guildes, *taxonguild* mettant l'accent sur la similitude taxonomique des espèces.
- Le terme *taxonguild* peut ainsi être considéré comme un des termes le plus proche du terme français *guilde*, qui ne semble pas posséder de réel équivalent linguistique en anglais.

notions proches, dénommées par des termes différents : le *peuplement* désigne un ensemble d'organismes appartenant à des espèces taxinomiquement liées alors qu'*une guilde*, en outre, insiste sur l'identité des ressources partagées par ces espèces.

- Le terme *peuplement* est parfois utilisé comme un synonyme de *communauté*, qui ne renvoie pas au même concept que *community* en anglais. Le concept anglais *COMMUNITY* est d'une extension beaucoup plus large que *COMMUNAUTÉ*.
- Il y a confusion d'emploi entre *guilde* et *peuplement*, considérés à tort comme des synonymes.
- Il ne semble pas exister de concept homologue et de terme équivalent à *peuplement* en anglais.

3. Diachrony and Some Principles of the Theory of Terminology

The diachronic dimension proves to be extremely relevant to translation work, as shown before, but it also sheds new light on some founding principles of terminology.

First, it calls into question the principle first established by Wüster, and according to which each term is part of a scientific or technical discipline and corresponds to one notion only. The term is then viewed as a highly “fixed” entity, marking clearly delineated conceptual spaces within a given domain of expertise, and is therefore protected from synonymy, polysemy and connotation. In this, terms are thus opposed to words which rather appear in non specialized communication and may have different meanings. According to Opitz (1983: 60):

Regardless of their origin or method of construction, all terms aim at one common quality: a rigidly fixed obligatory range of meaning. [...] What terms represent is the inventory, or nomenclature, of their underlying area of specialised pursuit.

Diachronic studies show that this principle can be somewhat questioned and that synonymy does exist in scientific disciplines, as we have seen with *ECOSYSTEM*. Even if short-lived or transitional, synonymy often accompanies the emergence of new concepts.

Then, diachrony shows that it is not appropriate to consider that terms belong to one scientific discipline only and that specialized fields of knowledge are hermetically closed to each other. It suggests on the contrary that scientific domains have fuzzy boundaries which allow terms and concepts to be seen as “mobile entities” which can be borrowed and used in different fields, thus proving that inter-domain lexical and conceptual sharing exists.

This idea has been developed by Gaudin (1993: 82):

L’essentiel de la production terminologique est lié à l’innovation. Or, on sait que celle-ci naît de réseaux transversaux et que la circulation langagière, l’échange et la contamination de concepts entre les disciplines sont des moteurs puissants de l’innovation.

Last but not least, as it seems irrelevant to strictly oppose scientific disciplines, it also seems counterproductive to strictly oppose the languages of scientific and non-scientific fields. Because it is a science so prone to media and public attention, part of the language of ecology belongs both to specialized and general communication and, in many respects, represents a transition zone between them.

The terms *population*, *ecosystem*, *parasitism*, *niche*, *guild*, etc. are indeed part of a specialized language used by ecologists, but are also known, understood and used by laypersons.

Then, is it relevant to strictly oppose words and terms ? From a diachronic point of view, the strict opposition between terms and words is indeed questionable and it seems more appropriate to consider terms as lexical entities which transcends the boundaries of expert language and can also be used by the general public in non-specialized communication. In most cases, when a term migrates to the general language (as it is the case for *ecosystem* for instance), the essence of the notion perceived by laypersons is similar to that perceived by experts, and that the basic domain sense remains identical.

[...] Terminological meaning and usage can “loosen” when a term captures the interest of the general public. In such a situation, a lexical item that was once confined to a fixed meaning within a specialized domain is taken up in general language. We call this process de-terminologization.

(Meyer and Mackintosh, 2000 : 112).

4. Conclusion

Diachronic terminology has become essential for specialized translation.

The growing rate of exchanges of scientific knowledge and products between countries has indeed accelerated the need for multilingual or at least bilingual terminology. Because translation has a history of transferring scientific knowledge across cultural boundaries, we must therefore consider specialized translators as primary users of terminology. Their task is to ensure a good scientific communication between specialists, and translators can be seen as “cross-fertilisers”, since they contribute to the advancement of scientific knowledge in different countries. There is therefore a urgent need to revisit some of the founding principles of terminology and take into account more largely the history of concepts and terms and the cultural differences they carry. This certainly gains

weight and importance when it is observed in the light of corpus linguistics, which opens up new and original possibilities of research in this field.

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge gratefully the help received from Alex Laube for reading this paper with special attention to the English language.

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¹ This paper doesn't discuss the difference made by some terminologists (Goupil, 1988, and Gentilhomme, 1994 among others) between a “notion” and a “concept”. Both terms will therefore be used as synonyms in the article.

² In order to distinguish between them, capital letters and italics will be used for concepts and small letters and italics will be used for terms.

³ Of course, we can find ecological or rather “proto-ecological” trends in various publications and books of the 17th and 18th century, written by naturalists like Buffon and Linneaus, but the constitution of the science of ecology, as we know it nowadays, only goes back to the 19th century.

⁴ A *biotic community* is now largely considered as the community of living organisms which can be found in a certain area called the *biotope* ; whereas an *ecosystem* is considered as being constituted by the *biotic community* and the *biotope*.

ABSTRACT

Terminology and Specialized Translation: the Relevance of the Diachronic Approach

Pascaline Dury

Research Centre for Terminology and Translation (CRTT)

Université Lumière Lyon 2, France

The purpose of this paper is to show the relevance of diachrony for terminology work and to discuss its relationship with other disciplines like the history and philosophy of sciences. It also aims at proving the importance of the diachronic dimension for specialized translation. In order to produce high quality translations, it is indeed essential for translators to know more than only the language. They also have to become familiar with the concepts behind the terms they need to translate, and understand how these concepts organize and interact with each other. Diachronic information is instrumental in providing translators with a thorough and solid knowledge of the source area, especially if this information is added to the main body of the terminological definition as an hyperfile. In this case, terminology work uses information technology to promote the value of the diachronic dimension.

Legal Translation Training and Recognition of Information Needs

Or: Should the teaching of subject matter content be a thing of the past?

Mette Hjort-Pedersen & Dorrit Faber
Copenhagen Business School
Denmark

1. Background

It is generally agreed that LSP translation requires considerable specialised subject matter knowledge, cf. e.g. Gutt (2000:173):

Suppose the translator is dealing with technical material for some specialist audience without being expert himself/herself. In this case, both original and target audience may have similar specialist knowledge – but the translator may not. [...] From the relevance-theoretic perspective, it is a must that the translator have a good grasp of both the receptor and the original context. In some situations this may require substantial preparation and research.

Besides specialised subject matter knowledge, LSP translation, like other types of translation, obviously also requires general world knowledge, knowledge of language (source and target), of genre and of translation processes. Knowledge within all of these spheres is necessary both in order to understand the meaning of a given LSP source text and to convey that meaning into the target language.

Even though it is generally agreed that specialised subject matter knowledge is an important part of the goal of LSP translation training, there is no real consensus on how topics are best dealt with and incorporated into the curriculum. To what extent and how should subject matter be taught to students who are students of language and translation rather than students of e.g. law, economics or science?

Kastberg (2002) focuses on the question of subject matter knowledge in relation to the teaching of technical translation and summarises and discusses the difference

between and appropriateness of what he finds to be the two approaches generally used in German and Danish translation schools: the deductive and the inductive approaches. The difference and aims of the two approaches are outlined by Kastberg as follows:

The deductive approach means that the translation student will be taught or at least exposed to the basics of technical science. [...] From this knowledge base the trainee translators are obviously supposed to derive the knowledge needed to understand and subsequently translate any given technical text. (2002:59)

[In the inductive approach] [...] 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. (2002:60)

Kastberg concludes that both approaches are fundamentally problematic, partly because they do not necessarily prepare students for handling texts they will be faced with having to translate ‘in real life’ as professional translators. The reason is, of course, that the subject matter of such real-life texts will not always (and maybe even seldom) correspond to the technical science topics taught as part of the technical translation training curriculum.

Instead, and in line with Driver & Oldham (1986), Kastberg proposes an alternative approach focusing on teaching methods that in his view will enable the trainee translator to cope with the content of – in principle – any technical text

“[...] I propose a common denominator other than that of disciplines; namely the basic building blocks of disciplines with their representation in texts: information (2002:62).

The focus, then, is shifted away from technical subjects and onto texts as carriers of information about technical subjects. The underlying principle of this proposed alternative approach is a conception of a curriculum as something that is not a body of knowledge but rather a programme of activities from which such knowledge can be acquired. The programme of activities proposed is basically centered on two partially overlapping dimensions (the first one of which we are going to focus on here):

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. (2002:62) (our emphasis)

Four phases are involved in the model proposed by Kastberg. In the first phase, the trainees are trained to recognize any information needs in relation to a specific translation assignment, i.e. what knowledge gaps do they feel they have in relation to the text at hand. In the second phase, the trainees are supposed to seek out any information needed to fill any knowledge gap from whatever source they can get access to. In the third phase the trainees are supposed to analyse the information gathered with regard to authenticity and authority. And finally in the fourth phase, the trainees are supposed in the translation process to make use of information gathered seen in relation e.g. to the skopos, target culture, genre, addressee, etc. of the translation (2002:63).

As teachers of another type of LSP translation, legal translation, we know from experience that the question of subject matter knowledge in curriculum planning is a tricky one to handle. It goes without saying that, ideally, the overall goal of legal translation training, and hence of the curriculum planning, is to enable trainees to develop cognitive strategies that will allow them to reconstruct the context of any legal text they are faced with having to translate. Pursuing that goal by exposing translation trainees to the entire curriculum of – in our case –the law degrees of two different legal systems is simply not an option. Time and money are obvious reasons. And we agree with Kastberg that the method of teaching – in our case - ‘basic law’ or a selected small number of law subjects has its limitations, as this approach will not necessarily enable trainees when they become professional translators to translate any legal text irrespective of subject. We therefore sympathize to some extent with Kastberg’s remarks as to the feasibility of what he calls the inductive and the deductive approaches and with the goal of working towards a teaching methodology focusing on knowledge as something which is constructed along the way by learners rather than simply being transmitted to them by their teachers.

However, it is difficult to judge from Kastberg’s description of the model the extent to which such a model would facilitate trainees’ development of cognitive abilities that will allow them to recognize information needs they may have in relation to a legal text and translation task at hand.

To try to transpose the ideas of informational problem solving as a teaching methodology to our field, let us say that trainees are asked to work with the translation of case documents from English into Danish in which appear terms such as a *Part 20 Claimant* and *Part 20 Particulars of Claim* that are culturally specific to the English legal system. Trainees will most likely have no difficulty in recognizing that they have an information need in respect of such specialised terms, and should be able to work through the phases of locating, evaluating and using information to fill their knowledge gap as proposed by Kastberg. The idea is that on the strength of these activities trainees will go through a four-stage learning process adding to their ability to cope with other subject matter areas, the focus being on their competence in analogical transfer rather than on the teaching of subject matter knowledge. However, information needs cannot be restricted to the identification

and solving of terminological issues. There are other problem areas that must be identified by the trainee, too.

So, what happens if the first phase – the recognition of the information need – is not initiated?

2. Looking at trainee translations

When analysing trainee translations¹ of legal texts at the Faculty of Languages, Communication and Cultural Studies of the Copenhagen Business School (CBS) we find that, in fact, trainees often do not recognize their own information needs in the understanding and translation process. A natural conclusion is that if the trainees do not recognize a particular problem it may be related to their own particular understanding of the events described in the texts. This is not surprising considering that they are not members of the specialist speech community within which the text operates and therefore do not conceptualize the world on the basis of the same frames and scripts² as those who do belong to that speech community.

In other words trainees are in fact often convinced at the outset that they have achieved relevance in the process of understanding utterances in legal texts they are translating when in fact they have not. They will search for utterance meaning and stop too early in the process when they find a solution that is satisfactory, at least to them, and choose linguistic material in the target language that reflects their understanding. That is what we assume happened in the translation of (1) which, we believe, is an illustration of precisely such a situation where the trainees' contextual assumptions about the situation involved do not allow them to arrive at the meaning intended.

In the process of translating (1), which was part of an English sales contract between two businesses, about one-fifth, i.e. 11 our of a group of 47 BA students sitting for the written exams in a particular year, surprisingly produced Danish versions in which 'right' had become 'duty', as illustrated by (1a):

- (1) Nothing in this clause shall confer any right on the Buyer to return the goods.
- (1a) Intet i denne bestemmelse pålægger køber pligt til at tilbagelevere varerne.
[Nothing in this clause shall impose a duty on the Buyer to return the goods]

On the face of it, there is no reason why a particular right should become a particular duty in the translation. There is no doubt that if the trainees were asked out of context, they would never confuse the meaning of 'duty' with that of 'right'.

The provision in (1) was part of a number of provisions with the purpose of safeguarding the interests of the stronger of the two parties to the contract, i.e. the seller. We take it, however, that the trainees' general assumption schemes would be about the interests of consumers rather than about the interests of sellers. The reason is that they play the role of consumers themselves in their everyday lives. Such assumption schemes would interfere with their understanding of the intended meaning and prompt them to make inappropriate inferences about the ST and the situation behind the contract. In their translations it is therefore the interests of the buyer rather than those of the seller that are catered for³. There are certainly no grammatical or terminological difficulties, nor are there any linguistic ambiguities involved in (1).

This possibility of a mismatch between the relevance achieved by trainees as intermediaries between STs and TTs and the relevance intended by the ST sender may of course have many explanations. In (1), one explanation may be that trainees will readily disregard an intended and therefore relevant interpretation when it conflicts with their knowledge of the world and hence with their own perception of relevance.

What trainees think they know, then, may be one factor blocking their recognition of their own information needs. Another reason for possible mismatches between trainee and ST sender relevance is that sentences in texts are often ambiguous in that the same linguistic units can be related to a set of different situations. The phenomenon is explained by Widdowson (1998:19) as follows:

There are innumerable instances of textual imprecision and ambiguity in actual language use which simply pass unnoticed because we of course quite naturally complement what we read with what we know. It is true of all texts that we piece out their imperfections with our thoughts.

In the following example, again from an English sales contract, the ambiguity is linked to the syntactic role played by the prepositional phrase 'with the software' which would allow the trainees to relate the sentence to different situations.

Consider (2)

- (2) In purchasing the Goods, the Purchaser is granted a non-exclusive non-transferable licence to use the software only on the equipment supplied by the Company with the software.

where the prepositional phrase could, seen in isolation, be understood as specifying either 'the equipment supplied' or 'the Company'. Syntactically, both versions are acceptable. (2) was in fact translated by some trainees (BA students) as (2a):

- (2a) Ved køb af varerne bevilges køber en ikke-eksklusiv, ikke-overdragelig tilladelse til at bruge softwaren kun på udstyr leveret af virksomheden som har softwaren
[... supplied by the Company which has the software]

The trainees have chosen to translate the linguistic unit as they would e.g. ‘the man with the boots’. It is not possible to say whether the trainees have identified the ambiguity of the grammatical construction or not, but they do not seem to have recognized that their chosen way of interpreting the construction (with the prepositional phrase specifying the Company) would be an unlikely and much too imprecise way of achieving specification of a contract party in the text type involved. Besides, as one of the two contractual parties, the Company would already have been identified at the beginning of the contract text.

The interplay between the different types of knowledge resources required in understanding utterances is sometimes fuzzy. And it seems that because of this multidimensionality of knowledge resources and the fuzziness involved in their interplay trainee translators are not necessarily able to recognize that they are in fact faced with a problem, what kind of problem it is, and what additional information they therefore need to elicit to understand and translate a given text.

One of the tools that a reader may have when trying to understand a given text is knowledge of what the communicator may normally be assumed to be communicating about as well as how the communicator normally does that. Kramer (2003:179f) discusses the mutual context that parties to, say, a contract have. This mutual context consists of both their personal common ground and their communal common ground which they draw on for the interpretation of a contract entered into by them. The personal common ground is inferred from the communicators’ (the contract parties’) shared experience. In most cases this would not be accessible to a translator working with the translation of the contract. Rather, the question is how to assist our trainee translators in gaining access to what is referred to by Kramer as the communicators’ communal common ground. The so-called communal common ground must be inferred on the basis of the communicators’ membership of the same group (e.g. buyers and sellers in a particular industry), the usual way of doing things in that industry and the lawyers’ knowledge and techniques (since normally lawyers will have drafted the contract for them). The part of the communicators’ communal common ground which is independent of situation and industry is the lawyers’ knowledge and techniques and will therefore for our purposes be the most natural point of focus.

In a simple communication situation it is common sense that speakers will need to express themselves in a way that will enable hearers to assign reference to entities and actions described. However, in legal texts, which have to function independently of the situation in which the texts are drafted, this requirement is particularly acute because in these texts the receiver will expect salient factors (such as agents and events) to be linguistically encoded with a high degree of

explicitness to facilitate the reference assignment process. Explicitness or precision is an often mentioned characteristic feature of legal texts, cf. e.g. Garner (1994):

Traditionally, lawyers have aimed for a type of "precision" that results in a cumbersome style of writing, with many long sentences collapsing under the weight of qualifications. (Garner 1994:1)

If a trainee has no or limited access to the communal common ground, i.e. knowledge of the subject matter and of lawyers' techniques, it will hamper his or her chances of first of all detecting possible ambiguities and secondly, choosing the interpretation intended. (3) is an example which was to be translated by MA students from Danish into English, and again, as in (2), the ambiguity problem is connected with the identification of the role played by a prepositional phrase:

- (3) Vedrørende spørgsmålet om rette værneting antog sagsøgeren først, at der i dette tilfælde var aftalt voldgift i London (og derfor indledte sagsøgeren en sådan voldgift [judgment]⁴)

In (3), the meaning of the prepositional phrase is ambiguous in the source language, and this ambiguity is represented in trainee translations (3a) and (3b) below, where (3a) is less likely even though it is not in any way ungrammatical or otherwise inappropriate in the co-text:

- (3a) With respect to the issue of proper venue, the claimant first assumed that in this case arbitration had been agreed in London, (and consequently, the claimant commenced such arbitration proceedings).
- (3b) With respect to the issue of proper venue, the claimant first assumed that in this case arbitration in London had been agreed (and consequently, the claimant commenced such arbitration proceedings).

(3) conveys information about a particular legal action, namely arbitration. And as it appears from translations (3a) and (3b) this legal action can be related to two different types of situations. In (3a) reference is made to one type of situation, namely a situation involving arbitration which had been agreed in London. In (3b), on the other hand, reference is made to a type of situation involving arbitration which was to be conducted in London. The problem then relates to the identification of the role played by the prepositional phrase 'in London', i.e. whether it plays the role of specifying the place where the two parties initially negotiated and agreed the issue of arbitration proceedings (rather than court proceedings), or whether it plays the role of specifying the place where the arbitration proceedings, if any, were to be held. Seen in isolation, both (3a) and (3b) are entirely possible readings and we again suspect that the ambiguity was not even recognized and identified as a problem by the trainees translating (3). Thus, the trainees may well have processed (3) up to a point where relevance was achieved and then translated what they understood to be the meaning of (3). They

simply went ahead and chose a solution that seemed compatible with their knowledge of the world.

A member of the intended target group, on the other hand, would have opted for the (3b) version based on the communal common ground that consists in knowing what arbitration proceedings are about and what sort of linguistic specifications are needed to achieve the purpose of arbitration. What trainees may not be able to deduce by themselves, but need to be made aware of, is that, in a legal context, (3b) will be the preferred reading by legal users of the text, the pragmatic reason being that the primary information need of such users relates to the place where arbitration was to be conducted⁵. With the (3a) version, the action (arbitration) described cannot be unambiguously identified, i.e. the (3a) interpretation does not enable the TT reader to assign reference to the arbitration proceedings referred to (and identify them as the London-based ones).

Legal documents such as judgments and contracts are meant to be used by judges and lawyers as instruments of action in legal situations. For the communication to be successful the ability of the users to achieve precise reference assignment will therefore be decisive, and knowledge of this need combined with legal knowledge of the subject matter (arbitration) will be part of the communal ground taken for granted by the legal discourse community for the interpretive processing of legal texts. So before they can detect any problems of interpretation and their own information needs in order to be able to determine the relevance intended by the producer of the ST, our trainees need to have made this part of their own contextual assumptions.

3. Legal knowledge and inferencing

So far, we have tried to demonstrate that much depends on the successful implementation of the first phase of the activities-based curriculum discussed by Kastberg (2002), which is the identification by the translator trainee of his or her informational needs in relation to a given translation activity, and that without access to a certain amount of communal contextual assumptions, such identification may not be made.

In the following we want to look a bit more closely at the kind of knowledge that is involved and the way in which it becomes part of the communal common ground of the members of the legal speech community.

The effect of legal knowledge, i.e. knowledge of legal rules, on the way in which a legal text is understood is examined by Kjær (2000), and for this purpose she divides legal texts into three different types (2000:139-40):

- descriptive texts which describe or comment on legal rules (textbooks, law reports, etc.)
- constitutive texts which lay down legal rules (statutes, executive orders, contracts⁶ etc.)

- reproductive texts which apply legal rules (judgments, statements of case, etc.)

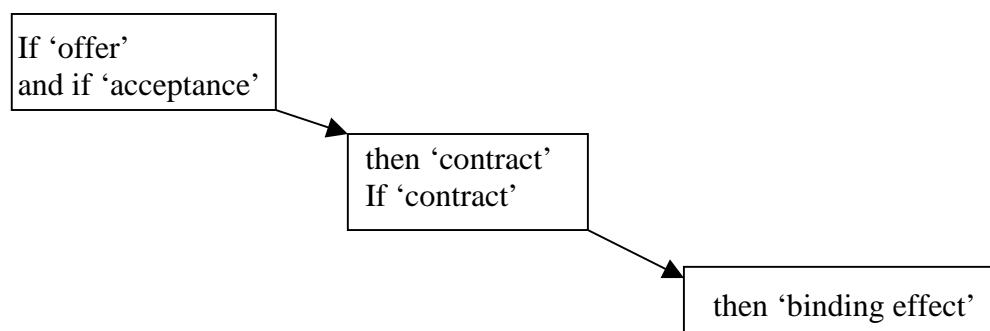
Kjær assumes that

Rule knowledge is of particular importance to the reader of reproductive texts, because legal rules are here only applied (neither stated nor explained). Descriptive texts describe legal rules. Therefore it can be expected that the rules are explicitly stated. Constitutive texts lay down legal rules, which on the face of it also seems to imply that they state the rules in extenso. [.....] (2000:140)

Kjær discusses an example taken from a judgment, i.e. a reproductive text applying rules:

The Plaintiffs have in support of their claim stated that the defendant was bound by his offer when LR accepted it

which can be schematized as follows (2000:145):



and demonstrates the role played by rule knowledge and the understanding of the interrelations of legal concepts. The point is that the ‘if-then-if-then’ relations are achieved by means of the so-called connecting concept of ‘contract’ which is implicit in the text, and thus inferred by the expert reader. Her claim is that only in descriptive, and to some extent constitutive, texts are such rules and relations explicitly stated, whereas in the case of reproductive texts the legal expert ‘co-thinks’ the statutes underlying the argument of the judgment, cf. p. 149:

My assumption is that he intuitively interprets the words of the text as lexical representations of rule fragments. Or more precisely, he understands the words as signals to him to infer relevant rule knowledge

Since the legal translator is not reading the legal texts for the same purposes as the legal expert, it therefore could be argued that the same kind of full understanding is not necessary for the translator. However, the reliance of these texts on a rule

system which may be only implicitly stated nevertheless means that he or she still needs to perform a good deal of inferencing in order to first identify potential personal knowledge gaps of his or her own and then to arrive at the intended meaning of the source text. Thus, the trainee translator not only has to cope with the “normal” indeterminate nature of utterances, but also in the case of reproductive and to some extent constitutive texts, with the implicit reference to a rule system that may not be available to him or her.

So, while legal texts are on the one hand subject to the particular requirement of explicitness to enable precise reference assignment, they are still like other texts characterised by elements of underdeterminacy. For their interpretation receivers consequently have to resort to pragmatic inferencing.

One possible implication of the need to rely on knowledge of rules which are not explicit in the text is that the first phase of the activities, i.e. recognizing their own information needs, becomes even more difficult to implement for trainee translators without a basic knowledge of the rule system.

Consequently, as we see it, for trainees to be able to identify the problems that they may have in understanding and translating legal texts they should be able to make inferences based on

1. the legal situation described in the text, in particular the usual course of events in that type of situation (subject matter knowledge)
2. the way in which legal experts normally express themselves in order to describe such situations and the reasons behind their linguistic choices, e.g. the explication of salient actors and events to enable reference assignment (genre knowledge based on subject matter knowledge)
3. the way lawyers usually infer by co-thinking rules which may be only implicitly referred to (e.g. use of connecting concepts as proposed by Kjær (2000)).

And so we are back to the question of how to implement the intensive and systematic training of trainees in recognizing their informational needs.

4. Concluding remarks

As we see it the main purpose of legal translation teaching is to raise the trainees' process awareness level thereby improving the self-monitoring and inferencing skills of the individual trainee rather than to aim for the fairly impossible, i.e. the legal knowledge level of the legal professional. And we agree with Kastberg that once trainees are able to embark on phase one (recognition of information need), the autonomous handling of terminology and terminological knowledge based on a programme of activities rather than on direct teaching of subject matter knowledge will no doubt allow trainees to develop long-term cognitive strategies of their own more easily. With respect to terminology in particular trainees are very early on in

the process automatically confronted with having to sort out terminological problems relating to culture specificity. In this case, they are aware that they will have to make a choice one way or the other. So in case of terminology, problems emerging in the translation process are evident to trainees, and they should be able to work with the activities outlined by Kastberg.

But as we see it, the model proposed hinges on the need for trainees to be able to recognize their information gaps and on the way they are “trained intensively and systematically” in doing just that. And although our examples are based on relatively limited data, we think that they point to other types of problems that trainees meet, but are unable to recognize as such. They seem to lack sufficient knowledge of the legal system underlying or supporting, so to speak, the text to be translated.

It goes without saying that we sympathize with Kastberg’s attempts to work towards a teaching methodology focusing on knowledge as something which is constructed along the way by learners rather than simply transmitted to them by their teachers. But because of the necessity in legal language of accessing the communicators’ communal ground in Kramer’s terminology and rule knowledge in Kjær’s terminology in order to make the proper pragmatic inferences, we fail to see how lift-off can be ensured for the trainees in phase one without some sort of scaffolding to support them in their own learning process, i.e. a legal knowledge structure. And as illustrated by our three examples, we must by necessity introduce trainees to a basic cross-section of legal topics and in the process focus on types of legal situations with legal actors performing legal actions at certain times, in certain manners etc and on how these actors and actions are described by legal communicators. The trainees need to have some sort of general overview to work from, otherwise they may not succeed in their efforts when trying to understand and ultimately translate legal texts. They cannot rely solely on the text to be translated, cf. e.g. Widdowson (1998:19):

What interpretation involves is the relating of the language in the text to the schematic constructs of knowledge, belief and so on outside the text. [...]

Co-textual connections are semantic in character, and are only relevant to the pragmatic process to the extent that they can be contextually realised.

So despite the appealing aspects of Kastberg’s model, there is no avoiding a curriculum incorporating structured components that will to some degree enable the trainees to build up a legal knowledge scaffold of their own which can be fleshed out during their process of specialisation. Such components must include the study of descriptive texts where the who-where-when-etc. relations of legal situations are spelt out instead of being implicitly relied on.

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¹ Our data consist of translations produced by 3rd year BA students or 1st year MA students of English (LSP).

² See e.g. Scarpa (2002:142): [...]’frames’, which deal with knowledge about the properties of objects [...] and locations, and ’scripts’, which deal with knowledge about events and sequences of events [...].

³ Cf. also Kussmaul’s *misuse-of-top-down-knowledge-hypothesis* (1995:35)

⁴ (3) is a reduced version of a sentence appearing in a Danish judgment involving foreign parties. The full sentence reads as follows: Sagsøgerens advokat har vedrørende spørgsmålet om rette væneting anført, at sagsøgeren først antog, at der i dette tilfælde var aftalt voldgift i London og derfor indledte sådan voldgift.

⁵ Cf.: Oxford Dictionary of Law: **arbitration agreement**: ... No particular form is necessary, but the agreement should name the place of arbitration and ... (1997:29)

⁶ Although Kjær allows that contracts may be seen as constituting rules, she prefers to categorize them as belonging to the reproductive text type based on the claim that the contract ”is always formulated on the basis of rules constituted by statutes.” (2000:140, note 11). This does not seem to fit the Anglo-Saxon contract law picture, however. For our purposes we have therefore chosen to regard contracts as constitutive texts.

ABSTRACT

Legal Translation Training and Recognition of Information Needs

Or: Should the teaching of subject matter content be a thing of the past?

Mette Hjort-Pedersen & Dorrit Faber
Copenhagen Business School
Denmark

This article proposes to discuss a question which was prompted by an article 'Information and Documentation Management in the Training of Technical Translators – As opposed to Teaching Technical Science' (Vol 2, No. 2 of this journal, 2002), by Peter Kastberg: Should the teaching of subject matter content to students of language and LSP translation be a thing of the past?

Granted that specialised knowledge is necessary for the LSP translator to enable him or her to interpret and transfer a ST, this article seeks to discuss the routes towards the acquisition of this specialised knowledge and the alternative process model for information and documentation management proposed by Kastberg which is to form the basis of, in his case, the organisation of a technical translation training curriculum. As teachers involved in another type of LSP translation training, namely legal translation training, we want to consider the pros and cons of transferring this model to our field.

Das Übersetzen von Rechtstexten: Verstehen und Textanalyse¹

Ingrid Simonnæs

Institutt für Fachsprachen und Interkulturelle Kommunikation
Norwegische Wirtschaftsuniversität (NHH)
Bergen, Norwegen

Für Titel gilt allgemein, dass sie zur Identifizierung des nachfolgenden Textes dienen, und zwar dadurch dass sie entweder explizit oder implizit Informationen über dessen Inhalt liefern. Der vorliegende Titel zeigt explizit an, dass das Übersetzen von Rechtstexten hier als **eine** Sonderform des Übersetzens gesehen werden sollte, indem eine besondere Textsorte als Untersuchungsgegenstand herausgehoben wird. Die weiteren expliziten Informationen beziehen sich auf die Faktoren *Verstehen* und *Textanalyse*, die für **jedes** Übersetzen gelten, hier aber besonders im Hinblick auf Rechtstexte diskutiert werden sollen.

In der folgenden Diskussion erfolgt in Abschnitt 1 einleitend die Begriffsbestimmung der zentralen Bestandteile des Titels, ehe in den Abschnitten 2, 3, 4 und 5 im Detail auf sie zurückgekommen wird. Danach wird in Abschnitt 6 das Zusammenspiel dieser Einzelfaktoren diskutiert, ehe Abschnitt 7 den Beitrag abrundet.

1. Definitionen

1.1. Übersetzen

Die Wahl des substantivierten Infinitivs *Übersetzen* wird damit begründet, dass der Fokus dieses Beitrags auf dem Vorgang bzw. der Tätigkeit liegt. In die gleiche Richtung zielt ebenfalls der Einbezug von *Textanalyse*, die bekanntlich einen zentralen Teilschritt im Übersetzungsverfahren darstellt. *Übersetzen* wird außerdem für den Zweck dieses Beitrags in Bezug auf die dabei zum Zuge kommende(n) Sprache(n) eingegrenzt und lässt somit das intersemiotische Übersetzen (Jakobson 1959: 233) außer Betracht. Für das Übersetzen mittels

¹ Dieser Beitrag fußt auf der öffentlichen Probevorlesung vom 18.03.2004 an der Universität Bergen, Norwegen. Für den Zweck dieses Beitrags wurde das von der Gutachterkommission vorgegebene Thema leicht abgewandelt.

sprachlicher Zeichen werden traditionellerweise² zwei Untergruppen unterschieden, (1) intra- und (2) interlinguale Übersetzen. Hier wird die Bedeutung von interlinguaalem Übersetzen von schriftlich fixierten Texten zugrunde gelegt, was als ein Vorgang definiert wird, der mittels sprachlicher Zeichen zwischen Ausgangssprache (AS) und Zielsprache (ZS) stattfindet, um zu einem entsprechenden zielsprachlichen Text (ZT) zu gelangen. Auf die Kriterien, die ein “entsprechender” ZT aufweisen muss, um als Übersetzung (also Ergebnis des Vorgangs) zu gelten, wird weiter unten (Abschnitt 2) zurückgekommen.

1.2. Rechtstexte

Es darf als bekannt gelten, dass in der Übersetzungswissenschaft u.a. Reiß (1969 et passim) das Problem der Textsortenkategorien behandelt hat. Zur Untergliederung der so genannten Gebrauchstexte (im Gegensatz zu den literarischen Texten) wird üblicherweise das betreffende Fach verwendet. Rechtstexte könnten somit als Gebrauchstexte definiert werden, die sich mit dem Fach Recht befassen. Dies wäre aber nur eine erste Grobgliederung, da diese Definition nichts über besondere textinterne Eigenschaften solcher Texte aussagt und auch das Fach Recht einer weiteren Eingrenzung bedarf, worauf bei der ausführlicheren Diskussion über Rechtstexte zurückgekommen wird.

1.3 Verstehen

Bekanntlich spielen die Begriffe Verstehen und Verständlichkeit für jede Textrezeption bzw. -produktion eine wichtige Rolle.³ Die Textrezeption ist, wie zu zeigen sein wird, unabdingbar für eine gute Textproduktion, die z.B. der Übersetzer als sekundärer Textproduzent zu vollziehen hat. Daher soll im Rahmen dieses Beitrags das Augenmerk auf das *Verstehen* gerichtet sein. Für den Zweck dieses Beitrags ist dabei der kognitionswissenschaftliche Ansatz von *Verstehen* von besonderer Relevanz, der den Leser/Empfänger eines Textes mit seinem im Gedächtnis bereits gespeicherten Wissen einbezieht. Dabei stellt die verständliche Textoberfläche nur eine Voraussetzung im Verstehensprozess dar, denn nach dieser Sicht wird das Verstehen beim Leser/Empfänger nicht nur von den durch den Textproduzenten dargebotenen Daten geleitet, sondern auch durch das Vorwissen des Lesers/Empfängers, welches dieser mit dem im Text vorgegebenen Daten in einem *top-down*-Prozess interagieren lässt (vgl. u.a. Christmann & Groeben 1996a: 1536; Christmann & Groeben 1996b: 137; Biere 1998: 403). Somit wird Verständlichkeit, also die Möglichkeit, dass der Leser/Empfänger einen Text verstehen kann, nicht nur als eine Textqualität gesehen, für die ausschließlich der Textproduzent die Verantwortung trägt: Durch den Einbezug des Lesers/Empfängers ist Verständlichkeit nach Kalverkämper (1988: 313) eine kommunikative Qualität. Mit Blick

² So wird z.B. von Halverson (2002: 36) die interlinguale Übersetzung – zumindest für das von ihr untersuchte Sprachenpaar Norwegisch/Englisch – als “prototypisch” angesehen und somit von anderen Formen von Übersetzung abgegrenzt. Jakobson (1959: 233) charakterisiert denn auch die interlinguale Übersetzung als “translation proper”.

³ Für die Behandlung dieses Themas sei exemplarisch verwiesen auf Neubert (1975), Spillner (1995), Deppert (2001), Heringer (1979), Kalverkämper (1988), Tergan (1981) und Göperich (2001 und 2002). Gute weiterführende bibliographische Hinweise finden sich bei Biere (1991).

auf das Übersetzen als eine Form der Fachkommunikation⁴ stellt somit die kommunikative Qualität eines Textes eine wichtige Voraussetzung für den Verstehensprozess dar. Auf die Frage des Verstehens in der juristischen Fachkommunikation im Allgemeinen sowie speziell auf die Frage danach, wer in der Übersetzungssituation als Empfänger₁ und/oder Empfänger₂ bzw. Rezipient⁵ primär verstehen soll, wird unter Abschnitt 4 noch zurückgekommen.

1.4 Textanalyse

Da hier die Rede von Übersetzen von Rechtstexten ist und im Recht Interpretation bzw. Auslegung⁶ eine wichtige Rolle spielt (vgl. u.a. Engberg 2002; Busse 2002), wird *Textanalyse* im Sinne von *Interpretation* von Texten verwendet. *Interpretation* ist dabei das explizite Darlegen dessen, was durch hermeneutisches Vorgehen verstanden wurde, so genanntes Sinn-Verstehen. Unberücksichtigt bleibt also die speziellere Definition von “textlinguistischem Nachweis der Textualität” (Bußmann 2002). Wie der Übersetzer das Sinn-Verstehen von Rechtstexten in Angriff nimmt, hängt ganz klar mit seinem “Vorverständnis” (Gadamer 1959: 30) zusammen. Weiteres jedoch dazu unten.

2. Übersetzen als Vorgang/Tätigkeit

2.1. Übersetzen als zweisprachiger Kommunikationsvorgang

In der Übersetzungswissenschaft, die sich heutzutage als selbständige (Inter)-Disziplin sieht, hat es im Laufe der Entwicklung eine Vielfalt an Definitionen von *Übersetzung* gegeben.⁷ Je nach theoretischem Ansatz werden dabei jeweils unterschiedliche Aspekte besonders hervorgehoben (u.a. Neubert (1968); Wilss (1977); Holz-Mänttäri (1984); Reiß & Vermeer (1991); Kupsch-Losereit (1991); Nord (1993); Snell-Hornby (1994) und Vermeer (1996)). Bezogen auf das Übersetzen von Fachtexten (Rechtstexten) scheint mir der Ansatz, nach dem das Übersetzen als eine besondere Form von Kommunikationsvorgang gesehen werden kann, besonders geeignet. Allerdings sind auch die Bedenken zu berücksichtigen, die gegen das so genannte, ursprünglich von Kade (1968) stammende Kommunikationsmodell in der Übersetzungswissenschaft vorgebracht worden sind. Modelle werden jedoch dazu benutzt, ein komplexes Ganzes vereinfacht darzustellen. In dem Kommunikationsmodell wird der Übersetzer nur als “Umkodierer” gesehen, und es wird nicht berücksichtigt, wie u.a. auch Koller (1992/2001) darauf hinweist, dass der Übersetzer in AS und ZS einschließlich ihrer kulturellen Eigenarten verankert ist. Dies ist eindeutig eine Schwäche des kritisierten Modells, kann aber durch den Einbezug von Ausgangskultur (AK) und Zielkultur (ZK) beim Übersetzer als Empfänger₁ und Sender₂ aufgehoben werden. Da *Kultur* hier im weiten Sinne zu

⁴ Vgl. hierzu u.a. Kupsch-Losereit (1995), wo die Rede von Übersetzen als transkulturellem Kommunikationsvorgang ist, was hier auf die Fachkommunikation ausgedehnt wurde.

⁵ Zur Wortwahl vgl. Reiß & Vermeer (1991: 101).

⁶ Zum Unterschied zwischen *Interpretation* und *Auslegung* in der Rechtswissenschaft vgl. Dreier (1985: Sp. 179).

⁷ Vgl. auch Schäffners Beitrag (2004), der allerdings zum Zeitpunkt der Probevorlesung (18.03.2004) noch nicht erschienen war.

sehen ist, würde auf diese Weise auch der Einbezug von Rechtsordnungen mit abgedeckt, was für das Übersetzen von Rechtstexten natürlich fundamental ist. Ein weiterer m.E. berechtigter Kritikpunkt an dem Kommunikationsmodell ist, dass der von Koller so genannte Übersetzungskontext (op. cit.: 107) nicht ins Modell integriert worden ist, was ebenfalls durch den Entstehungszeitpunkt des Modells erklärbar sein könnte. Auch dieser Punkt ließe sich durch dessen Einbezug auf der Senderseite auffangen. Beim professionellen Übersetzen geht es bekanntlich darum, dass der Sender des AT (Sender₁) eine bestimmte Intention mit der Vergabe des Übersetzungsauftrags hat, und diese Intention muss der Übersetzer als Empfänger₁ **und** Sender₂ bei der Erstellung des ZT berücksichtigen.

Statt der in Abschnitt 1.1 angeführten kurzen Definition von *Übersetzen* soll nun auf eine weit ausführlichere Definition hingewiesen werden, wobei *Übersetzung* sowohl als Vorgang als auch als Ergebnis/Produkt gesehen wird. Es handelt sich demnach bei *Übersetzung* um einen zwischensprachlichen Transfer, bei dem

der Sinn eines Ausgangstextes interpretiert und ein Zieltext verfasst und gleichzeitig – unter Berücksichtigung der inhärenten Kommunikationsparameter und im Rahmen der dem Übersetzer auferlegten Vorgaben – eine Entsprechungsbeziehung zwischen den beiden hergestellt wird. (Delisle et al. 1999: 401)

Diese Definition berücksichtigt die oben kritisierten fehlenden Aspekte (inhärente Kommunikationsparameter und auferlegte Vorgaben), während der Sinn, der durch die Interpretation erst zu erschließen ist, und eine Entsprechungsbeziehung nun im Folgenden diskutiert werden.

2.2. Formen des Übersetzens

Schon seit alters her ist überliefert, dass beim **sinnorientierten Übersetzen** zwei Formen von Übersetzungsmethoden unterschieden werden, deren Bezeichnungen allerdings jeweils unterschiedlich ausgefallen sind. In der Antike war bei Cicero die Rede von “ut orator, ut interpres”, bei Schleiermacher (1963: 47 [1813]) davon, den Leser zum Autor oder und umgekehrt den Autor dem Leser entgegenzubewegen. Später sind die Benennungen *dokumentarische* vs. *kommunikative* Übersetzung, hier als Vorgang und Produkt gesehen, aufgetaucht. Auf dieses Gegensatzpaar werden auch andere Benennungen angewandt, z.B. *verfremdend* bzw. *einbürgernd*. Gemeinsam ist ihnen allen, dass der Übersetzer den Sinn, das Gemeinte, des ursprünglichen Textproduzenten erfassen, verstehen, muss, ehe er diesen je nach Zweck der Übersetzung entsprechend transferiert. Zur Erschließung des Sinns bedient sich der Übersetzer der Interpretation; bei den in diesem Beitrag zur Diskussion stehenden Fachtexten spielt dessen Vorverständnis eindeutig eine wichtige Rolle. Dieses Vorverständnis ermöglicht es dem Interpreten, auch das implizit Mitgeteilte zu verstehen. Das Vorwissen des Übersetzers wird noch genauer unter den Abschnitten 4.2, 5 sowie 6 diskutiert.

Was die Benennung *Entsprechungsbeziehung* in obiger Definition von Delisle et al. betrifft, so ist anzunehmen, dass hier bewusst ein Oberbegriff gewählt wurde, um die altbekannten Probleme des anzuwendenden Vergleichsmaßstabs *Äquivalenz* in der Definition nicht explizieren zu müssen. Der Begriff der Äquivalenz gilt als einer der schillerndsten in der Übersetzungswissenschaft. In der deutschsprachigen Literatur ist dieser Begriff u.a. von Koller eingehendst behandelt worden. Bekannt sind seine Unterscheidung in fünf verschiedene Formen von Äquivalenz (Koller 1992/2001: 216) sowie sein Hinweis auf die grundsätzliche Unterscheidung zwischen *Äquivalenz* als theoretisch-deskriptivem Begriff versus *Äquivalenz* als normativ-übersetzungskritischem Begriff (Koller 2000: 11). Im Rahmen dieses Beitrags ist es leider nicht möglich, auf diese Problematik näher einzugehen.⁸

3. Rechtstexte als Fachtextsorte – Gliederungsmöglichkeiten

3.1. Textexterne Kriterien

Rechtstexte werden aufgrund ihrer Zugehörigkeit zum Fach Recht als eine eigene Fachtextsorte gesehen. Fachtextsorte ist dabei ein Unterbegriff von Textsorten, d.h. Texten mit konventionalisierten Mustern, die gemeinsam bestimmte strukturelle und funktionale Merkmale enthalten. Solche Texte kommen in bestimmten juristischen Textsorten vor, die als konventionell geltende Muster für komplexe rechtssprachliche Handlungen gesehen werden sollen. Unter rechtssprachliche Handlungen fallen diejenigen Sprachhandlungen, die sowohl in der fachinternen als auch fachexternen Kommunikation verwendet werden. Funktionale Merkmale, die zu rechtssprachlichen Handlungen gehören, sind z.B., dass der Autor mit seiner Sprachhandlung ein institutionell festgelegtes Kommunikationsziel verfolgt wie z.B. Gesetze und Urteile und/oder seine Zugehörigkeit zur Gruppe der Juristen zeigen will (Engberg 1993 et passim). Des weiteren ist das Fach Recht *sub specie translationis* auch dahingehend aufzuteilen, dass es in zwei Sprach- und Kulturgemeinschaften, AS/AK bzw. ZS/ZK, vorliegt. Da die Rechtsordnung (RO) im Rahmen dieses Beitrags aus der Sicht von AS/AK bzw. ZS/ZK gesehen wird, werden im Folgenden die Benennungen RO_A und RO_Z verwendet.

Die Gesamtgruppe der Rechtstexte ist weiter zu untergliedern, um zu homogeneren Textsorten zu kommen. Eine gängige Gliederung ist dabei die in (1) normative Texte, also Texte, die Recht setzen, mit u.a. den formellen Gesetzen, (2) rechtsanwendende Texte mit u.a. gerichtlichen Entscheidungen, und (3) rechtswissenschaftliche Literatur, zu der u.a. Lehrbücher, aber auch Kommentarwerke, gehören, wie schon die für sie verwendeten Benennungen als textexterne Merkmale deutlich hervortreten lassen.⁹ So werden Gesetze z.B. mit *XY-Gesetz*, oder *Gesetz über XY* benannt, bei den gerichtlichen Entscheidungen wird auf die Textsorte jeweils mit den Namen *Urteil*, *Beschluss* oder *Verfügung* hingewiesen, und bei der

⁸ Vgl. jedoch hierzu u.a. Wilss (1977), Reiß (1984a), Snell-Hornby (1994), Wotjak (1997), Gallagher (1998) sowie Stolzes fundierten Überblick über den Stand der Forschung anno 2003.

⁹ Vgl. auch Kühn (2001), wo als eine weitere Gruppe noch die “juristischen Sachverhaltstexte” (2001: 586) hinzukommen.

rechtswissenschaftlichen Literatur geht – zumindest aus dem Untertitel – hervor, dass man es mit der Textsorte *Lehrbuch* oder *Kommentarwerk* zu tun hat.

Als weiteres textexternes Merkmal wird der Adressatenkreis herangezogen, wobei es jedoch in der Literatur gegensätzliche Auffassungen darüber gibt, wer bei Gesetzen als primärer Adressatenkreis anzusehen ist (vgl. u.a. Kelsen 1979: 40ff.). In *Civil Law*-Ländern, zu denen sowohl Deutschland als auch Norwegen zählen, gelten Gesetzestexte als **das** zentrale Beispiel für die Rechtsquellen, und es wird vom Durchschnittsbürger erwartet, dass er das Recht seiner Gesellschaft kennt. Wenn der Bürger das Gesetz nicht verstanden hat, ist es ihm auch nicht möglich, das Recht zu befolgen. Als Allgemeinplatz gilt dabei, dass Gesetzestexte schon lange wegen ihrer nicht jedermann zugänglichen Textoberfläche als nicht immer leicht verständlich eingestuft werden.¹⁰ Auch auf Seiten des Juristenstands ist man sich dessen bewusst, dass Normtexte keineswegs eindeutig sind, sondern porös und vage, die Rechtssprache – trotz weit verbreiteter gegenteiliger Vorstellung – oft also ebenfalls ungenau ist wie die Allgemeinsprache. Aus dieser Doppelfunktion, sowohl für den Laien als auch für den Experten verständlich sein zu müssen und für Änderungen in der Gesellschaft offen (genug) zu sein, röhren die vielen bekannten Verstehensprobleme bei den Gesetzestexten her. Dies hat natürlich Konsequenzen für das Übersetzen, wie noch zu zeigen sein wird.

Auch die rechtsanwendenden Texte mit der Judikatur als Untergruppe sind Rechts- texte, die für eine doppelte Adressatengruppe geschrieben werden. Zum einen sind dies die vom Urteil betroffenen Laien, die Rechtsunterworfenen, zum anderen die Richter als Experten. Bei dieser Textsorte ist ebenfalls umstritten, welche Adressatengruppe als die primäre anzusehen ist. So sieht z.B. Kelsen (1979: 40f.) die Richter und nicht den Rechtsunterworfenen als “unmittelbare Adressaten”, da für ihn als unmittelbare Adressaten nur die Individuen gelten, die ermächtigt sind, bei Normverstößen Sanktionen anzuordnen und zu vollstrecken. Hierzu gehören (1) die gesetzgebenden Organe und (2) die Vollziehungsorgane. Kelsens Argumentation hat etwas für sich, auch wenn man (als Laie) in der Regel wohl gewohnt ist, den Rechtsunterworfenen als den unmittelbaren Adressaten zu sehen.

Bei der rechtswissenschaftlichen Literatur als letzte der hier aufgelisteten Textsorten, dürfte es sich hinsichtlich der Adressaten anders verhalten: Zu den Adressaten von Lehrbüchern gehören die Studierenden als Laien bzw. Novizen im Fach. Ihnen muss ein Großteil der *termini technici* erklärt werden. Bei den Kommentarwerken wiederum sind der Adressatenkreis in erster Linie die Experten, aber auch die werdenden Experten, denen die verschiedenen Auslegungsmöglichkeiten eines *terminus technicus* in Form von Definitionen, Erklärungen, herrschender Lehre, früherer Rechtsprechung usw. dargeboten werden.

¹⁰ Vgl. hierzu bereits Friedrich II. “Was [...] die Gesetze selbst betrifft, so finde ich es sehr unschicklich, daß solche größtentheils in einer Sprache geschrieben sind, welche diejenigen nicht verstehen, denen sie doch zu ihrer Richtschnur dienen sollen.” (1780: Sp. 1940).

3.2. Textinterne Kriterien

Für Rechtstexte gilt, wie allgemein für Fachtexte festgestellt worden ist, dass ihre Terminologie, i.S.v. Fachwortschatz, eines der zentralen, aber auch besonders schwierigen textinternen Kriterien (exemplarisch Rogers 1999) ist. Andere Kriterien sind die nachweislich kompaktere Darstellungsweise in Fachtexten (exemplarisch Grosse 1983), die u.a. durch weitläufigen Gebrauch von Nominalisierungen und die im Deutschen typischen stark erweiterten rechts- und linksseitigen Attribuierungen sowie durch hypotaktische Satzkonstruktionen erzielt wird, wozu sich oft noch ein häufiges Vorkommen von Funktionsverbgefügen und Passivkonstruktionen gesellt. Auch in Rechtstexten lässt sich dies ohne weiteres nachweisen. Als ein weiteres besonderes Merkmal bei Fachtexten wird oft berechtigterweise die Thema-Rhema Gliederung im Textverlauf angeführt (z.B. Gerzymisch-Arbogast 1985), wobei dieses Merkmal bei Rechtstexten je nach Textsorte unterschiedlich vorkommen dürfte.

4. Verstehen in der juristischen Kommunikation

4.1. Verstehen (und Verständlichkeit)

Im Folgenden soll es sich in erster Linie um das *Verstehen*, und zwar beim **Übersetzen** von Rechtstexten, drehen. Allerdings darf die *Verständlichkeit* nicht völlig außer Acht gelassen werden, da *Verstehen* und *Verständlichkeit* einander bedingen (s. oben Abschnitt 1.3) : Nur derjenige kann verständlich schreiben, der das Mitzuteilende auch verstanden, d.h. mit seinem Verstand erfasst hat. In Anlehnung an Kalverkämper (1988: 313) wird daher *Verständlichkeit* von Rechtstexten als eine kommunikative Eigenschaft (Qualität) ihrer Textoberfläche gesehen, bei der zumindest einer der Kommunikationsteilnehmer Fachmann¹¹ ist, die bei diesem ein Textverständnis, ein **Verstehen**, ermöglicht. Was noch ungeklärt ist, ist die Abgrenzung davon, primär wer einen Rechtstext verstehen soll(te) und wie *Verstehen* zu interpretieren ist. Bei der letzten Frage knüpfe ich an eine von Herberger (1983) gemachte Unterscheidung an, indem er – bezogen auf das Recht – zwei Stufen des *Verstehens* unterscheidet. Die erste Stufe ist das Begreifen, d.h. mit dem Verstand erfassen, also eine kognitive Fähigkeit. Herbergers zweite Stufe ist das Billigen, d.h. das Annehmen, der im Rechtstext enthaltenen Forderungen (op. cit.: 30), die für den Zweck dieses Beitrags weiter unberücksichtigt bleiben kann. Hinsichtlich der ersten Stufe könnte man auch sagen, dass für das *Verstehen* ein Verstehbarmachen für sich selbst erforderlich ist, was durch die Auslegung geschieht. Diese in Gadamers Terminologie (Gadamer 1960: 291) “explizite Form des *Verstehens*” ist Voraussetzung dafür, dass der Übersetzer als Empfänger₁ durch seine Interaktion von *bottom-up-* und *top-down*-Prozess den neuen Informationsgehalt interiorisieren kann. Erst nach dieser Interiorisierung kann durch den Übersetzer als Sender₂ bzw. sekundärer Textproduzent eine Exteriorisierung erfolgen, bei der mittels der Sprache dessen Denken materialisiert wird.¹² Beide Formen sind also beim Übersetzen von Rechtstexten für den Übersetzer als

¹¹ Zur Diskussion *Fachmann vs. Laie* vgl. Picht (1999)

¹² Zum Sprachgebrauch von *Interiorisierung* und *Exteriorisierung*, s. Hoffmann & Kalverkämper (1998: 358)

Empfänger₁ und Sender₂ lebensnotwendig, denn ohne Verstehen ist er auch nicht in der Lage, den Informationsgehalt verständlich an den ZS-Empfänger (Empfänger₂) zu transferieren. Dies führt zu der oft diskutierten Frage nach dem erforderlichen Umfang der Sachkompetenz des Übersetzers (exemplarisch Fleischmann & Schmitt (2000) und Simonnæs (2003)). In den seltensten Fällen kann damit gerechnet werden, dass der Übersetzer eine Doppelqualifikation besitzt, aber sein Fachwissen muss in dem Ausmaß vorhanden sein, dass er in der Lage ist, den AT richtig auszulegen und anschließend einen ZT zu (re)produzieren, der dem Zweck des Übersetzungsauftrags genügt.

4.2. Wer soll verstehen (können) ?

Die Frage danach, wer verstehen soll, ist hier also abschließend mit Übersetzer als Empfänger₁ **und** ZS-Empfänger (= Empfänger₂) zu beantworten. Die verständliche Wiedergabe dessen, was der Übersetzer verstanden hat, setzt bei diesem wiederum ausreichendes, bereits vorhandenes bzw. punktuell zu erarbeitendes Fachwissen voraus mit einer sich anschließenden adequaten Text(re)produktion. Die Methoden, derer sich der Übersetzer hierfür bedient, werden in Abschnitt 6 “Zusammenspiel der verschiedenen Faktoren” ausführlicher erörtert. Eine Diskussion über die Verantwortung für die Verständlichkeit des AT muss jedoch im Rahmen dieses Beitrags ausgeklammert bleiben.

5. Übersetzungsrelevante Textanalyse von Rechtstexten

Für jedes Analysieren als methodisches Vorgehen gilt, dass man sich klar sein muss, mit welcher Zielsetzung analysiert wird. Aus der Überschrift dieses Abschnitts *Übersetzungsrelevante Textanalyse von Rechtstexten* geht daher hervor, dass der zu analysierende Gegenstand auf Rechtstexte eingegrenzt wird, und zwar mit Blick auf das, was geschieht, wenn solche Texte übersetzt werden (sollen).

Sowohl in der Theorie als auch in der Praxis gilt als unumgänglich, dass beim Übersetzen als erster Schritt eine Analyse vorzunehmen ist. Geteilter Auffassung ist man allerdings, ob als Gegenstand der Analyse zuerst der AT zu sehen ist oder der Übersetzungsauftrag. Da der Übersetzungsauftrag die Zielsetzung angibt, weshalb übersetzt werden soll, vertrete ich die Auffassung, dass erst der Übersetzungsauftrag zu analysieren ist, ehe die Analyse des AT im Hinblick auf diesen erfolgt. Der Übersetzer muss dabei nicht nur die sprachliche Oberfläche des Textes “dekodieren” können, sondern er muss, wie schon mehrmals betont, bei den hier zur Diskussion anstehenden Rechtstexten auch das dahinter stehende Fachwissen erkennen, d.h. verstehen, und für die (Re)produktion des ZT in Beziehung setzen können.

Bei Zugrundelegen der oben vorgeschlagenen Definition von Übersetzen als zwischensprachlichem Transfer in einer Kommunikationssituation wird dem Ansatz entsprochen, der die Anwendbarkeit der Lasswellschen Formel bzw. deren

Erweiterung¹³ auf das Übersetzen aufgezeigt hat (exemplarisch Reiß 1984b und Nord 1991). Die ursprünglichen Fragen von Lasswell¹⁴ können nämlich, wie ich aus eigener praktischer Erfahrung weiß, nicht alle Fragen lösen, mit denen sich der Übersetzer konfrontiert sieht.

Im Rahmen dieses Beitrags lassen sich allerdings nicht alle Faktoren näher ausleuchten, die bei einer Ausgangstextanalyse zu berücksichtigen wären. In Übereinstimmung mit u.a. Nord (1991: 93) und Reiß (1984b: 8) wird jedoch betont, dass der Übersetzer auch darauf zu achten hat, was der AT **nicht** sagt, was also implizit mitverstanden werden soll. Für jeden ist nachvollziehbar, warum unter einander bekannten Kommunikationsteilnehmern ein Verstehen einer Äußerung dennoch möglich ist, auch wenn nicht alles verbalisiert wird. Die Kommunikationsteilnehmer verfügen in einem solchen Fall über einen gemeinsamen Hintergrund, vor dem das Geschriebene/Gehörte mittels Inferierens verstanden wird. Für “außenstehende” Kommunikationsteilnehmer dagegen stellen gerade solche implizit mit gemeinten Informationen schnell einen Stolperstein dar. Dies gilt um so mehr, wenn beim Übersetzen, welches in Abschnitt 2 als interlingualer Kommunikationsvorgang definiert wurde, schriftlich über Fachwissen kommuniziert wird und bei Sender₁ und Empfänger₂ (= Endempfänger) ein Wissensgefälle vorhanden ist. In dem Fall ist Empfänger₂ bei seiner Interpretation auf zumindest ein Minimum an Fachwissen angewiesen, weil er sonst das versprachlichte Wissen nicht in Beziehung setzen und interiorisieren kann. Besonders schwierig wird dies in Fällen unterschiedlicher Gesellschaftsordnungen mit je eigener Rechtsordnung als einem wichtigen Bestandteil davon. Es bleibt also festzuhalten, dass der Fachübersetzer als Empfänger₁ bei der Analyse nicht nur in der Lage sein muss, das im AT z.T. implizit dargebotene Rechtswissen zu verstehen, sondern dieses auch im Hinblick auf den ZT nutzen zu können, also für Empfänger₂ verständlich zu versprachlichen.

Für den Übersetzungsvorgang ist es weiter noch wichtig, das **Wie** der sprachlichen Formulierung(en) zu erfassen, ein Aspekt, der ebenfalls nicht in der Lasswellschen Formel enthalten war. Der Stil eines AT gibt dem Übersetzer ein Indiz für den ursprünglich intendierten Empfänger, beispielsweise als fachinternen Empfänger. Falls nun der Übersetzungsauftrag einen fachexternen Empfänger vorsieht, hat der Übersetzer dies beim Übersetzen zu berücksichtigen.

Als besonders zentral bei der Textanalyse wird zudem die Textfunktion im Sinne von Nord (1991: 79) gesehen, wo *Textfunktion* als kommunikative Funktion bzw. “die Kombination aus den kommunikativen Funktionen eines Textes in seiner konkreten Situation” definiert wird. Im funktionalen Ansatz wird bekanntlich der kommunikativen Funktion des ZT ein höherer Stellenwert eingeräumt als dem AT. Für das Übersetzen von Rechtstexten hat jedoch traditioneller Weise gegolten, wie u.a. Bocquet (1994), Weisflog (1996), Šarčević (1997), Sandrini (1999) und de

¹³ Die erweiterte Formel lautet bekanntlich: “Who says what with what purpose, where, when, why, using which non-verbal means, in what tone”.

¹⁴ “wer sagt was, auf welchem Weg, zu wem, mit welcher Wirkung?”

Groot (2002) zeigen, dass sich der Übersetzer so eng wie möglich an den AT halten solle. Die (Text)Funktion des ZS-Rechtstextes kann dabei vereinfacht unter zwei Aspekten gesehen werden: (1) auch in der ZS als Normtext der ausgangssprachlichen Rechtsordnung zu gelten, also die Rechtswirkung der RO_A zu entfalten, bzw. (2) in der ZS als Information über einen Normtext der RO_A zu gelten. Daraus ergeben sich unterschiedliche Übersetzensverfahren, die auf einer gleitenden Skala von “dokumentarischem” hin zu “instrumentellem” Übersetzen (Nord 1989: 104) gesehen werden können, worauf noch zurückzukommen ist.

Das Übersetzen von Rechtstexten sollte – idealiter – besonders im Bereich der Rechtsterminologie nicht ohne rechtsvergleichende Vorarbeiten in Angriff genommen werden. Dies hängt damit zusammen, dass der Vergleich zwischen zwei Größen ‘A’ und ‘B’ sowohl für das Übersetzen von Rechtstexten als auch die Rechtsvergleichung eine zentrale Rolle spielt. Doch nur wenn Vergleichbares miteinander verglichen wird, kann dies zu dem angestrebten Erkenntnisgewinn führen. Bei der Rechtsvergleichung kann vergleichbar aber nur heißen, so Zweigert & Kötz (1996: 33), wenn das, was verglichen wird, in der jeweiligen Rechtsordnung dieselbe Funktion/Aufgabe erfüllt. Das gleiche gilt beim Übersetzen. D.h. ein Rechtstext sollte, um vergleichbar zu sein, auch die gleiche dominierende Textfunktion (= kommunikative Funktion) in der ZS haben (*Funktionskonstanz* nach Nord 1989: 103). Wenn allerdings z.B. ein performativer Rechtstext aus der RO_A zu informativen Zwecken in einen deskriptiven ZS-Rechtstext übersetzt wird (*Funktionswechsel*), ist diesbezüglich keine Vergleichsbasis mehr vorhanden, was Auswirkungen auf das Übersetzen haben muss. Dazu jedoch mehr im folgenden Abschnitt bei der Erörterung des Zusammenspiels der verschiedenen Faktoren beim Übersetzen.

6. Zusammenspiel der verschiedenen Faktoren

Nachdem bisher die einzelnen Faktoren jeweils separat und ohne systematische Berücksichtigung der Übersetzensperspektive diskutiert worden sind, soll im Folgenden deren Zusammenspiel beim Übersetzen im Zentrum meiner Ausführungen stehen. Da Theorie und Praxis immer interagieren, werden üblicherweise konkrete Beispiele zur Beleuchtung herangezogen, wenn theoretische Überlegungen untermauert werden sollen. Die konkreten Beispiele, auf die im Folgenden verschiedentlich rekurriert wird, entstammen Übersetzungssituationen mit dem Sprachenpaar Norwegisch-Deutsch.

Da *Übersetzen* als Tätigkeit bzw. Vorgang unter Berücksichtigung der Textanalyse gesehen wird, liegt der primäre Fokus auf deren Beschreibbarkeit, während das Verstehen, das, was den nun “wirklich” bei diesem Vorgang in der so genannten black-box abläuft, ausgeklammert bleiben muss. Am Ende der Tätigkeit ist dennoch über den Umweg der Exteriorisierung im Text, also wie die Textoberfläche gestaltet ist, beschreibbar, was verstanden bzw. gegebenenfalls missverstanden worden ist.

Im Zusammenhang mit der Abgrenzung auf das Übersetzen von Rechtstexten wurde u.a. auf die zentrale Rolle des Fachwissens beim Übersetzer hingewiesen (vgl. Abschnitt 4.1). Der Fachübersetzer muss, wie gesagt, über **das** Maß an Fachwissen verfügen, dass er u.a. die Terminologie im AT als kondensierte Wissensrepräsentation richtig interpretieren kann. Dies soll im Folgenden näher ausgeführt werden.

Es liegt auf der Hand, dass die Terminologie für das Fachwissen in der übersetzungsrelevanten (Fach)textanalyse eine wichtige Rolle als “Aufhänger” für die (Teil)begriffssysteme der RO_A spielt. Bei einer strengen Auslegung von *Begriffsgleichheit*, liegt diese jedoch nur vor, wenn in einer mehrsprachigen Gesellschaft (z.B. der Schweiz) mit unterschiedlichen Benennungen auf denselben Begriff in derselben Rechtsordnung Bezug genommen wird. Dennoch wird aus pragmatischen Gründen akzeptiert, auch bei nur teilweise gemeinsam vorhandenen Begriffsmerkmalen für einen Begriff in zwei Rechtsordnungen von “Gleichheit” zu sprechen.

Problematisch kann dabei z.B. die Verwendung von sowohl Ober- als auch Unterbegriff sein: So gilt im Bürgerlichen Gesetzbuch (BGB) *Sache* als Oberbegriff (genus proximum) von sowohl *beweglicher* als auch *unbeweglicher Sache*. In § 242 StGB, der auf den Sachbegriff des BGB abstellt, werden dennoch im gleichen Kontext *bewegliche Sache* und *Sache* verwendet (vgl. Beispiel [1a]), und im norwegischen Paralleltext – i.S.v. Text über das gleiche Thema in einer anderen Sprache – [1b] ist die Rede von *gjenstand* ‘Gegenstand’, ohne dass der *Gegenstand* als *bewegliche Sache* bezeichnet wird.

[1a]

Wer eine fremde bewegliche Sache einem anderen in der Absicht wegnimmt, die Sache sich oder einem Dritten rechtswidrig zuzueignen, wird mit Freiheitsstrafe bis zu fünf Jahren oder mit Geldstrafe bestraft. (§ 242 StGB)

[1b]

For tyveri straffes den som borttar eller medvirker til å bortta en gjenstand som helt eller delvis tilhører en annen, i hensikt å skaffe seg eller andre en uberettigt vinning ved tilegnelsen av gjenstanden. (strl. § 257 (norw. StGB))

Die Disambiguierung in [1a] erfolgt durch den Gebrauch des unbestimmten und dann bestimmten Artikels, woraus sich schließen lässt, dass *Sache* im zweiten Fall als *bewegliche Sache*, und nicht als genus proximum verwendet wird. Auch hier benötigt somit der Übersetzer – neben dem sprachlichen Wissen über verschiedene Möglichkeiten der Rekurrenz –, einiges an Fachwissen, um das Problem erkennen zu können und zu wissen, wie die Entsprechungen in der ZS lauten müssen. Die Disambiguierung in [1b] von *gjenstand* ‘Gegenstand’ im Sinne von *bewegliche Sache* ist auf das Fachwissen des Übersetzers im norwegischen Recht angewiesen, da im norwegischen Sachenrecht *ting* ‘Sachen’ unterteilt werden in *fast eiendom*

'Immobilien' und *løsore(gjenstand)* *'Mobilien'*, so dass *gjenstand* *'Gegenstand'* als *løsøregjenstand* *'Mobilie'* bzw. *'bewegliche Sache'* zu lesen ist. Im norwegischen Strafgesetzbuch wird dann auf diese Gliederung rekurriert.

Noch deutlicher wird das zu geringe Maß an Fachwissen, wenn der Übersetzer Teilgebiete des Rechts, wie z.B. Zivil- und Strafprozessrecht, nicht auseinanderhält. Hierzu ein Beispiel [2] aus einem Vordruck des Norwegischen Justizministeriums (GA-3416.T.), dessen zweite Übersetzung, nachdem die erste wegen mehrerer Fehler aus dem Verkehr gezogen worden war, immer noch zeigt, dass der Übersetzer nicht über das Mindestmaß an Fachwissen verfügt, welches oben als unbedingt erforderlich bezeichnet wurde.

[2]

Auflage zur Abgabe einer Klageerwiderung

[...]

Hat der/die Beklagte Einwendungen dagegen, daß der Fall beim Gericht anhängig gemacht wird, hat er diese in der Klageerwiderung vorzubringen. Der/die Beklagte sollte in der Klageerwiderung auch mitteilen, ob er/sie zu Termin, Ort und Benachrichtigung über die **Hauptverhandlung** etwas zu bemerken hat, und ob er die Bestellung von **Schöffen** verlangt. (Hervorhebung von I.S.)

Aus der Überschrift in Beispiel [2] geht hervor, dass der Kontext eine Klageerwiderung ist, ein Begriff, der zum Zivilprozessrecht gehört. Trotzdem ist im weiteren Verlauf der Übersetzung die Rede von *Hauptverhandlung* und *Schöffen*, welches beides Begriffe aus dem Strafprozessrecht sind. Dies offenbart m.E. dass der Übersetzer den Unterschied zwischen Straf- und Zivilprozessrecht nicht kennt und *hovedforhandling* *'Hauptverhandlung'* nicht als faux amis erkannt hat.

In dieselbe Richtung zielt ebenfalls folgendes Beispiel [3]¹⁵ aus einem Prüfungstext zur Staatlichen Übersetzerprüfung¹⁶ (*Statsautorisert translatøreksamen*), bei der ein Auszug aus der Entscheidungssammlung von dem Obersten norwegischen Gerichtshof (*Høyesterett*) zu übersetzen war. Zwar war kein expliziter Übersetzungsauftrag angegeben, aber es gab nicht zu übersetzende Zusatzinformationen über den Hintergrund des Verfahrensablaufs von erster Instanz *Bergen byrett* *'Amtsgericht Bergen'*, über die zweite Instanz *Gulatings lagmannsrett* *'Obergericht Gulating'* bis zur letzten Instanz *Høyesterett* *'Oberster norwegischer Gerichtshof'*. Für die Kandidaten war trotz dieser Zusatzinformationen und der Erlaubnis, alle möglichen Hilfsmittel mit Ausnahme von Internetrecherchen zu benutzen, das fehlende (Vor)Wissen über den Instanzenzug in Norwegen und die möglichen Rechtsmittel eines der Probleme beim Übersetzen. Nach einer genauen Textanalyse wäre jedoch ohne weiteres der Instanzenzug *Bergen byrett*, *Gulating lagmannsrett*

¹⁵ Für eine ausführliche Diskussion der Übersetzung ins Englische vgl. hierzu Lind (2001)

¹⁶ Kurzform für die umständlichere Bezeichnung "Prüfung zum staatlich zugelassenen Übersetzer", für deren Durchführung und Abnahme die NHH für ganz Norwegen zuständig ist.

und *Høyesterett* zu erkennen gewesen.¹⁷ Das gleiche gilt für den Unterschied zwischen *anke* [Substantiv] *til lagmannsretten* und *anke* i.S.v. *anke* [Verb] *til Høyesterett*. Als korrekte Entsprechung (denotative Äquivalenz *sensu* Koller) kommen daher nur *Berufung* und *Revision* in Betracht bzw. bei Verwendung als Verb *Berufung/Revision einlegen*. Dennoch wird *Berufung* fälschlicherweise auch mit Bezug auf die letzte Instanz verwendet, was das Verstehen beim Empfänger₂ nur beeinträchtigen kann. Dies gilt auf jeden Fall, wenn der Empfänger₂ ebenfalls Fachmann ist und demzufolge diesen grundlegenden Unterschied kennt.

Diese wenigen Beispiele mögen das Problem des m.E. zu geringen Fachwissens beim Übersetzen mit seinen Konsequenzen für das Verstehen des Endprodukts, der Übersetzung beim Empfänger₂, zeigen.

Zusammenfassend bleibt also festzuhalten, dass ich die Auffassung vertrete, dass die verständliche Versprachlichung in der Übersetzung zum überwiegenden Teil ein Ergebnis des Verstehens von und des Einblicks in das Fachwissen seitens des Übersetzers ist. Das Fachwissen ist im Idealfall bereits vorhanden, muss aber in der Praxis oft erst punktuell nach einer gründlichen Textanalyse erarbeitet werden. Ausgangspunkt dafür bilden u.a. die (Teil)begriffssysteme, die als zentrale Hilfsmittel beim fachsprachlichen Übersetzen gesehen werden (Simonnæs 2000). Erst wenn der Übersetzer durch die Textanalyse die Begriffsbeziehungen in der RO_A erkannt hat, kann er die ZS-Entsprechungen finden, die gegebenenfalls in der RO_Z vorhanden sind. Andernfalls muss er die Kluft durch verschiedene Übersetzungsstrategien überbrücken, wie z.B. durch Totalentlehnung oder Ersetzen durch eine ZS-Benennung, sofern diese keinen direkten Bezug zum ZS-System hat sowie Ergänzung der ZS-Benennung durch AS-Bezeichnung zwecks Referenzbezugs. Welche Strategie der Übersetzer schließlich wählt, ist davon abhängig, ob “dokumentarisch” oder “instrumentell” (vgl. Abschnitt 2.2) übersetzt wird, was im Folgenden anhand eines letzten Beispiels [4] angesprochen werden soll.

In Abschnitt 3.1 wurde eine Gliederung der Rechtstexte in normative Texte, rechtsanwendende Texte und rechtswissenschaftliche Literatur vorgenommen. Hauptregel für das Übersetzen von normativen und rechtsanwendenden Texten ist das “dokumentarische” Verfahren, sofern die RO_A auch ihre Rechtswirkung in der ZK entfalten soll. Dies geschieht z.B., wenn der ZT-Empfänger (das norwegische Gericht) im Rahmen eines Rechtshilfeersuchens den Wortlaut der deutschen Regelung über die Rechte und Pflichten, die einem Beschuldigten zustehen (z.B. §163a StPO Vernehmung des Beschuldigten), übersetzt haben muss.

Beim Übersetzen rechtswissenschaftlicher Literatur verhält es sich dagegen anders: Hier findet das Übersetzen überwiegend aus Informationsbedarf über die andere RO statt, weil der Empfänger wissen will, wie der Sachverhalt XY in der anderen Rechtsordnung geregelt ist. In einem solchen Fall kann dann “instrumentell”

¹⁷ Die Bezeichnungen der Gerichte lauten seit 01.01.2002 anders, und auch der Ablauf ist seitdem geändert, indem nun alle Strafverfahren zwei Instanzen durchlaufen.

übersetzt werden, was heißen soll, dass eher beschreibend und explikativ übersetzt werden darf.

[4]

Andere Sanktionen sind Unterbringung in psychiatrischer Zwangspflege, [...] Einziehung und Verfall, **öffentlicher Widerruf einer Äußerung (Mortifikation)** und [...]. (Husabø & Strandbakken 1997: 512; Hervorhebung von I.S.)

[Fn.] Das norwegische Rechtsinstitut der “Mortifikationsklage” sieht die Möglichkeit vor, daß die gegen den Verletzten vorgebrachten Beschuldigungen durch Urteil für ungültig erklärt werden (Öffentlicher Widerruf einer Äußerung). (ibid.)

In Beispiel [4] wird das im deutschen Recht als strafrechtliche Sanktion nicht bekannte Rechtsinstitut *Mortifikation* beschreibend/explikativ einschließlich einer Lehnübersetzung als *öffentlicher Widerruf einer Äußerung (Mortifikation)* übersetzt und mit einer zusätzlichen Fußnote erläutert – alles um den Informations- und Verstehensbedarf des Empfängers₂ ausreichend zu berücksichtigen.

7. Schlussbemerkungen

Um an den Ausgangspunkt dieses Beitrags zurückzukehren, sollte m.E. der zweite Teil des Titels dieses Beitrags von rechts nach links gelesen werden: Die Textanalyse ist der erste logische Schritt, der dem Übersetzer als Empfänger₁ und Sender₂ das Verstehen ermöglicht. Das Verstehen ergibt sich beim Übersetzer durch seine Interaktion zwischen *bottom-up-* und *top-down*-Prozess. Der nächste Schritt ist dann die Exteriorisierung dieses Verständnisses im (Re)produzieren eines verständlichen ZT, wodurch das Übersetzen als Vorgang näher beschrieben ist. Der Einbezug von Rechtstexten schließlich wird dadurch gewahrt, dass sich der so beschriebene Vorgang auf die Sondersorte von Rechtstexten beziehen soll. Mit dieser Rückschau auf den Titel ist auch Gadamers “Zirkel vom Verstehen” Genüge getan worden, weil sich unser Erkenntnisstand nach diesen Ausführungen auf einer höheren Stufe als anfangs befinden sollte, was durch das Bild einer Spirale vom Verstehen treffender ausgedrückt sein dürfte.

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Gesetzestexte:

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ABSTRACT

Das Übersetzen von Rechtstexten: Verstehen und Textanalyse

Ingrid Simonnaes

Institutt für Fachsprachen und Interkulturelle Kommunikation
Norwegische Wirtschaftsuniversität (NHH)
Bergen, Norwegen

Keywords:

*Translation process, “translation proper”,
legal texts, understanding, ‘Vorverständnis’,
translation-oriented text analysis, hermeneutical circle.*

This paper deals with the **translation process** of **legal texts** investigated with regard to **understanding** and **text analysis**. Each of these key concepts (underlined above) is explained and discussed in more depth in sections 2 – 5, followed by a discussion of their interplay as seen in Norwegian-German translation examples (section 6). It is argued that the key concepts in the title should be read in the reverse order: the first logical step is text analysis as a precondition for understanding which in turn enables the translator to produce the appropriate and understandable translation. The final step lies in applying this procedure to legal texts. The insight into this logical order could be seen as a demonstration of the “circle of understanding”.

La détermination du genre à partir de besoins communicatifs - l'exemple du rapport annuel

André Avias
Høgskolen i Østfold
Norvège

1. Introduction

La notion de genre est depuis quelques années devenue une notion très discutée. L'analyse textuelle a en effet besoin d'une théorie générale qui permette de considérer et de comparer des ensembles de textes qui posséderaient un certain air de famille.

Réfléchir sur les genres (ici non-littéraires), c'est faire des choix d'approche. On peut considérer les textes, et donc le genre qui leur correspondrait, à un niveau soit macro soit micro, ou encore – métaphoriquement – dans une vision « d'en haut » ou inversement « d'en bas ». Notre choix ici est la vision d'en haut, en tout cas, dans le premier temps de la détermination du genre. Il est certain que par la suite, dans des analyses fines, il devrait être possible, et même nécessaire, de combiner une analyse sur les deux niveaux, et aussi de se concentrer sur la dynamique liant les deux niveaux.

Il nous semble, et nous considérons cela comme quelque chose d'assez évident, que le genre correspond bien au mariage du social et du linguistique. C'est ce que dit par exemple très bien Schryer parlant des différences de carrières d'étudiants en médecine et des genres employés dans leur vie professionnelle : « Depending on key career decisions, students will be deeply socialised into either of these competing traditions located in the lab and the clinic. A genre choice indicates the nature of the writer's own socialisation. » (1994: 113, cité par Berge, 2003). Ceci converge aussi avec l'approche présentée par Miller qui parle du genre comme d'une action sociale, insistant surtout sur les aspects rhétoriques et la notion d'échange (1994).

Si nombreux sont ceux qui étudient des textes les situent quasi automatiquement dans un genre prédefini, peu nombreux sont ceux qui tentent de démontrer les raisons de leur choix. Comme nous allons le voir ci-dessous, l'approche descendante (l'expression a été utilisée par J-M Adam lors d'une intervention à un colloque à Bergen, Norvège, juin 2002) va nous permettre de pouvoir affirmer l'existence, définir et délimiter de façon formelle et logique un exemple de genre textuel. Nous chercherons ensuite à présenter les différents contextes à prendre en compte lors d'une analyse d'un genre particulier, ici le Rapport annuel (ci-après noté RA) des sociétés cotées en bourse.

2. Comment décider du genre ?

Nous avons une certaine conception anthropologique dans notre approche de cette question. « Trois types de contraintes interviennent sur les pratiques langagières : la division du travail, modalités physiques et les normes sociales. » Malrieu (2004 : 75). A la base, nous avons le fait que les productions langagières apparaissent dans un contexte social et un cadre actionnel où l'être humain s'investit. Ceci a été souvent affirmé par de nombreux chercheurs travaillant sur des productions langagières orales – ainsi en est-il de l'école de Genève ; l'étude des genres écrits non fictionnels permet de montrer qu'il en va de même de l'écrit. Le genre existe donc dans un contexte dialogique où des êtres humains effectuent une certaine action avec certains buts. Ces actions sont produites à l'intérieur de lieux précis, à partir de différentes situations professionnelles ou privées.

Swales (1990) a introduit une notion efficace qui permet de regrouper les textes en genre, en proposant de considérer tout texte reconnu par une certaine communauté comme faisant partie d'un genre spécifique. Swales et Bhatia (1993) suggèrent trois niveaux différents dans leur analyse des genres : l'intention communicative, l'identification de *moves* qui structurent le genre et les stratégies rhétoriques pour leur réalisation linguistique. La définition du genre donnée par Bhatia le considérant comme un « (...) événement communicatif reconnaissable et caractérisé par un ensemble d'objectifs communicatifs identifiés et mutuellement compris par les membres de la communauté professionnelle ou académique dans laquelle il apparaît habituellement. » (1993 : 13; ma traduction), sera notre base de départ.

Notre approche se veut aussi empirique, à partir d'une réflexion stimulée par l'étude de textes authentiques. Il s'agit de la recherche d'un modèle, comme le dit Roulet : « (...) capable de prendre en compte de nouveaux problèmes posés par des discours authentiques » (2001 : 7). A titre d'exemple textuel et générique, nous avons donc choisi le cas du Rapport annuel. Ainsi que Kjersti Fløttum le dit bien (1993 : 25) : « (...) de dire que c'est un genre propre est peut-être douteux, mais il serait naturel d'étudier le Rapport annuel dans son ensemble par rapport à ce concept » (ma traduction). La question qui se pose est double : il faut à la fois pouvoir démontrer l'existence d'un genre et l'appartenance d'un certain nombre de textes au genre désigné.

Comment y répondre de façon sérieuse ? Notre position est celle de démarrer notre réflexion autour de la notion de communauté d'esprit de Swales (*discourse community*). Si donc on considère tout discours spécifique comme correspondant à une famille discursive réunissant un ensemble d'énoncés reconnus par une certaine communauté d'individus, à chaque communauté correspondra tout un ensemble de genres, genres réels, existants au présent et genres potentiels à venir peut-être. Les communautés discursives sont d'ordre assez différent car il y a des communautés *ouvertes* où tous peuvent se permettre d'entrer, au moins comme lecteur, c'est le cas pour la littérature ; et il y a des communautés *fermées*, limitées à un petit groupe de spécialistes, ceci est le cas d'une partie du monde professionnel. Il y a bien sûr des nuances et des passerelles de passage de l'une à l'autre. Le discours économique, qui est celui qui m'intéresse ici, fait partie, pour certains sous-groupes, de cette deuxième catégorie.

3. Pour un modèle matriciel

La notion de communauté d'individus que nous avons choisie, en quelque sorte, comme degré zéro, est très efficace. A la suite de cela on peut ainsi affirmer que la communauté liée au discours économique peut se subdiviser en sous-communautés suivant les situations et lieux où les échanges verbaux ont lieu. Nous allons présenter ci-dessous une matrice (Cf. Tableau 1) qui sur la base d'une argumentation logique va permettre de déterminer un cadre générateur d'une catégorie de textes, et donc d'en apprécier le genre. A titre d'exemple dans notre démonstration nous utiliserons le *domaine* économique qui est celui qui nous intéresse et l'exemple concret du RA. Nos conclusions porteront donc sur ce type de corpus, mais nous pensons cependant pouvoir les élargir à d'autres corpus dans le futur.

3.1. Lecture horizontale

Ce premier choix de domaine correspondra à un premier niveau (N 1). Arrivé ici, Il me semble nécessaire de préciser l'emploi que nous faisons de certains termes tel que le discours économique – il vaudrait mieux parler *du* ou plutôt *des* discours économiques¹. Dans notre modèle, comme nous l'avons déjà indiqué, nous préférerons dorénavant considérer la *communauté économique* comme le sommet de la pyramide, et même d'en parler au pluriel : *les communautés*. Le terme de discours sera limité aux ensembles d'énoncés possibles potentiels auxquels chaque communauté a accès et dont elle dispose pour produire tout acte de communication. Les communautés sont l'ensemble de toutes les assemblées possibles, de toute réunion possible de personnes ayant en commun une certaine partie des discours économiques possibles, et donc de toute communication en contexte économique et aussi de tout texte produit, écrit ou oral dans un tel contexte.

Le terme singulier de communauté sera réservé à un cas précis d'entreprise, d'un lieu social, d'un groupement de personnes ayant en commun un but, une action, une parole sous-tendant un certain type d'échange économique comme base commune et plus précisément, dans leur cas, la survie et le succès de leur

entreprise. Une certaine communauté entraînera la formation d'un certain discours qui est comme un réservoir, un ensemble d'énoncés possibles, comme l'expression sémiotique du monde économique dans lequel il est inclus, et dont les limites d'ailleurs ne sont pas déterminables de façon précise, pensons simplement par exemple aux lignes de contact avec le monde de la presse et aussi celui de l'enseignement. A partir de là, on peut penser que l'on a ensuite toute une arborescence qui ira jusqu'à englober les différents genres.

Notre deuxième niveau (N 2) sera donc celui de ces communautés discursives économiques dans lesquelles notre objet d'étude le RA apparaît. Il va falloir ensuite toutefois tenter de limiter ces communautés. Une façon de créer des sous-groupes est de limiter les lieux de rencontre ou d'action de ces groupes, c'est-à-dire de créer une limitation spatiale et/ou temporelle. Le monde économique étant une réalité constante des sociétés humaines, nous nous plaçons forcément dans un ici et maintenant. Il semble difficile d'introduire un critère temporel déterminant, sauf peut-être à vouloir faire une analyse diachronique. Par contre il est possible de le faire dans l'espace : ce sont les groupements de personnes qui nous intéressent ici et non *a priori* la durée de leur existence. Le fonctionnement et l'organisation économique de nos sociétés mettent en place toute une série de mécanismes et d'institutions clairement définies et situées dans notre environnement sociétal. De plus, le domaine économique est un domaine qui doit son existence au principe de *l'échange*, car quel que soit le produit ou service proposé, il devra finalement trouver acquéreur. Il y a ici plusieurs possibilités de classification, sans que cela soit à proprement parler gênant ou déterminant pour la suite de la création de notre matrice. On peut en effet considérer le monde des affaires à partir de principes différents. On peut cataloguer les entreprises en raison de leur forme juridique, selon la nature de leur activité ou selon leur taille (Cf. *Le monde de l'entreprise française*, P. A. Gaeng, 1990). La nature de l'activité est peut-être celle qui soit la plus légitime en relation avec notre critère principal de communauté. En effet, c'est en situant l'entreprise dans un contexte d'activité, de branche et d'industrie que l'on réintroduit la dimension humaine et donc le besoin de communiquer qui est à l'origine de l'existence des genres. Afin de rester encore à un niveau général, il peut être judicieux de classer les entreprises par *branche d'activité* suivant en cela la classification officielle de la NAF (Nomenclature d'activité française). Cette classification se fait en réalité ici aussi en plusieurs niveaux ou plusieurs nomenclatures² allant de la plus générale à la plus détaillée. Nous allons utiliser ici trois niveaux : un général pour l'ensemble des grands secteurs d'activités, notre niveau deux (N 2), et un particulier pour la branche qui nous intéresse que nous dénommerons deux bis (N 2'), où nous allons retrouver des discours économiques tels que ceux d'entreprises productrices de biens ou fournisseur de services par exemple. Ensuite, au niveau deux ter (N 2''), maintenant moins général, nous allons prendre en compte une *entreprise spécifique* faisant partie de la catégorie prise en compte au niveau supérieur. Il s'agira ici de faire un choix parmi des entreprises réelles, choix qui permettra aussi d'effectuer une étude empirique des documents réels utilisés pour les besoins en communication de ladite entreprise. Cette entreprise représente un *lieu*, lieu de rencontre où des hommes travaillent

ensemble et communiquent entre eux et vers l'extérieur, vers d'autres lieux. Ensuite il est nécessaire de prendre encore en compte un autre groupement qui joue un rôle déterminant sur la création des genres : c'est celui des différents cas de *situations de communication* que l'activité de l'entreprise engendre.

Ceci représentera un troisième niveau (N 3). En effet, pour passer d'une réflexion sur les différentes communautés d'esprit parmi lesquels ont lieu les échanges verbaux, à une réflexion sur les genres, il est nécessaire de placer ceux-ci dans leur contexte proche qui est celui des activités ou situations où ils apparaissent et sans lesquels ils n'existeraient pas. Résultat de l'activité humaine à l'intérieur des situations professionnelles possibles va naître un *besoin communicatif*. C'est le niveau trois bis (N 3'), niveau essentiel. En raison de ce besoin communicatif, et donc d'un besoin de support communicatif, les énoncés à transmettre doivent prendre une forme compréhensible et reproductible. On peut dire que le besoin de communiquer d'un certain groupe entraîne la production de certains textes (oraux ou écrits) porteurs d'informations vitales pour le groupe. La répétition de ce besoin et de son expression textuelle entraînent un effet d'habitude : les mêmes besoins et expressions génèrent les mêmes formes. Dans un deuxième temps cette répétition de textes comparables provoque une systématisation des formes prototypiques utilisées et leur reconnaissance relativement automatique par le récepteur ou allocutaire, ce qui correspond à un genre ou des normes textuelles (cf. Berge, 2003). Ce niveau est décisif : c'est à partir de lui qu'apparaissent les actes communicatifs et donc l'utilisation de formes linguistiques dans une production langagière. De plus, ce niveau nous permet aussi de pouvoir entrevoir dans le futur la possible apparition de nouveaux genres.

A partir d'un catalogue de situations répétitives et reconnaissables, il est alors possible d'établir un catalogue des besoins communicatifs, sans doute jamais exhaustif car il doit toujours y avoir la place pour de nouveaux besoins. L'entreprise en tant qu'organisme vivant évolue et voit ses besoins changer avec le temps. N'oublions pas non plus que nous nous concentrerons ici seulement sur la communication formelle et officielle en entreprise et non pas sur la communication informelle. Ces besoins communicatifs sont donc à l'origine de l'existence des genres, que nous retrouverons finalement alors au dernier niveau (N 4). Il y a ici de plus un passage d'un ordre à un autre puisque de la relation humaine, du besoin de communication, nous passons au genre, c'est-à-dire à la mise en forme d'un certain échange verbal. Nous pouvons désormais proposer une définition opératoire et formelle de la notion de genre placée dans un contexte communicationnel:

Un genre regroupe un ensemble de textes comparables (écrits ou oraux) qui répondent à un même besoin communicatif dans une même situation. Le genre est reconnaissable et interprétable sans effort par tout lecteur-auditeur faisant partie de toute communauté spécifique possédant le même besoin communicatif.

3.2. Lecture verticale

Nous venons de voir les différents niveaux de notre matrice, au nombre total de sept, sur le plan horizontal. Considérons maintenant le plan vertical. Plusieurs des niveaux présentés sont le résultat de *groupements* de personnes ou encore le résultat de la rencontre d'êtres humains en des *lieux* précis. Dans notre matrice, nous placerons donc dans une première colonne toute cette série ou catégorie (C 1) d'ordre physique et social et que nous nommerons : *Groupements et lieux*. Dans cette série nous retrouverons dans un ordre hiérarchique : les communautés larges et limitées, la communauté spécifique considérée et les situations de communication, c'est-à-dire quatre de nos cinq premiers niveaux.

Ces divers groupements seront suivis dans la colonne suivante par la catégorie que nous dénommerons *Actions*, ici au nombre de une car nous nous limitons à l'action langagière : *les besoins communicatifs* (C 2). Il pourrait bien sûr en être présentées d'autres comme celle d'une production industrielle ou d'une tâche concrète quelconque. Enfin, la dernière colonne est celle des *supports médiatiques* (C 3) où nous allons retrouver une matérialisation des échanges verbaux générés, résultat des besoins communicatifs et de leur satisfaction. Sur la même ligne, on retrouvera le Rapport annuel, c'est-à-dire le genre en présence dans l'exemple choisi.

Nous pouvons donc maintenant affirmer, et ainsi répondre à la question de Fløttum, sur la base de notre matrice, qu'effectivement le Rapport annuel correspond bien à un genre spécifique. Nous pensons que la même approche devrait pouvoir servir de base à la détermination de tout genre non-fictionnel. Elle a l'avantage de pouvoir donner une certaine légitimité à leur existence et être moins sujet à des choix basés sur une intuition.

(Tableau 1) - Matrice de détermination de genres :

Niveaux	Exemple 1			Catégories		
				Supports C 3	Actions C 2	Groupements C 1
N 1 domaine →	économique					
N 2	grands secteurs d'activité		←	communautés larges
N 2'	une branche	une autre	...		←	communautés limitées
N 2''	une entreprise	etc.	...		←	communauté spécifique
N 3	production ³	administration	vente		←	situations de communication
N 3'	...	communiquer aux actionnaires	aux clients	←	besoins de communication	
N 4 diffusion ⁴ →	...	ex : RA, etc.	RA ⁵ , etc.	← Texte écrit papier ou version électronique		
		↑ Genres ↑				

4. Du genre au texte

Le genre étant défini et replacé dans son environnement d'apparition, nous pouvons maintenant nous intéresser aux questions liées à l'interprétation des textes faisant partie d'un genre spécifique. Nous allons passer maintenant du genre au texte et continuer notre réflexion à partir de notre exemple choisi.

Mon point de départ, qui est celui de la situation de communication dans le cadre d'une communauté déterminée, donc "vu d'en haut", permet d'établir un cadre générique, en tenant compte d'une intentionnalité d'objectifs communicatifs à atteindre. Un genre déterminé se retrouve actualisé par tout texte concret satisfaisant aux critères déterminatifs de ce genre, comme indiqué ci-dessus.

Nous avons considéré dans des travaux précédents le genre comme intermédiaire entre discours et texte, comme un lien entre eux et une cause-conséquence de leur existence. Il nous semble maintenant plus correct, plus précis et plus concret, ainsi que nous l'avons fait ci-dessus, de ne plus avoir comme point de départ le discours mais de parler de communautés et de situations de communication. Nous l'avons vu, c'est la présence d'une communauté spécifique qui est décisive pour l'existence et l'apparition des genres. Le discours d'une certaine communauté représentera alors plutôt l'ensemble des énoncés possibles de celle-ci. Il s'agit donc de deux dimensions différentes. Différentes formes génériques sont reconnues comme pertinentes et redondantes par un certain groupe d'acteurs de la communauté choisie. Il faudrait aussi étudier si leur nombre peut être limité, en théorie sans doute non, mais dans la pratique chaque communauté spécifique a un certain nombre limité de besoins spécifiques de communiquer, et donc un nombre limité de genres ou tout au moins tendant vers une certaine asymptote. Ces normes textuelles sont celles communément acceptées et utilisées dans cette communauté, et elles se retrouvent actualisées dans les textes produits par celle-ci. Nous passons donc ainsi du genre au texte ou à son actualisation en énoncés réels qui se matérialisent en texte en s'appuyant sur différents supports médiatiques, que ce soit une feuille de papier A 4, un livre ou un document électronique.

Pour la communauté spécifique que nous avons choisie ici : l'entreprise, ceci aura pour conséquence que dans le cadre de la communication liée à cette communauté, nous serons en présence d'une famille de genres que nous qualifierons d'*entrepreunariaux*. Ces genres s'actualisent en une série de textes reconnaissables par des lecteurs compétents⁶, comme par exemple le rapport annuel ou la lettre commerciale qui sont à considérer comme exemples de genres concrets avec de très nombreuses variantes (par branche, type d'industrie, etc.).

5. Du genre aux contextes

Dans une approche pragmatique et communicationnelle il va de soi que le contexte soit pris en considération dans une étude sur les genres. Citons sur ce point Sperber & Wilson: « Un locuteur qui veut produire un énoncé pertinent a, de ce fait, deux objectifs: il veut susciter un effet contextuel chez l'auditeur et il veut minimiser

l'effort de traitement nécessaire pour obtenir cet effet » (1989 : 301). Autre exemple, Maingueneau écrit: « On ne dira pas que le discours intervient dans un contexte, comme si le contexte n'était qu'un cadre, un décor; en fait, il n'y a pas de discours que contextualisé » (2000 : 40). Notre approche va nous permettre de prendre en compte assez facilement la présence et le rôle des différents contextes. Ceux-ci sont actualisés dans le cadre d'une communauté spécifique et de situations de communication. L'étude du contexte va nous permettre d'apporter des éléments plus concrets au fonctionnement du texte dans une perspective générique. Le genre qui a pour rôle de lier besoin communicatif et texte, de rendre le texte acceptable car normé et interprétable par un public choisi, va renvoyer à tout un ensemble de contextes liés à l'énoncé, la situation et au lecteur.

La conséquence d'une focalisation sur le contexte permet d'affirmer que plus un texte est contextualisé plus il est simple à comprendre et moins il demande un travail d'interprétation au lecteur compétent – et donc plus il est pertinent, pour reprendre la terminologie de Sperber et Wilson. La lecture d'un texte entraîne chez le lecteur un travail de recherche d'hypothèses sur son sens, hypothèses qui vont être connectées aux contextes adéquats représentant eux-même souvent d'anciennes hypothèses, ainsi que des informations référentielles. Précisons: le genre est cette entité théorique qui réunit l'ensemble des paramètres nécessaires à la bonne lecture (reconnaissance) des textes. La lecture déclenche un dialogue entre le texte et ses contextes. Ils permettent de décoder certains indices textuels et le texte lui-même en retour déclenche certains informateurs⁷ contextuels. Le lecteur va organiser et interpréter toutes les informations qu'il détecte en prenant en main le document qu'il veut consulter, en utilisant toutes ses compétences cognitives, du monde et autres. Le genre, au départ plutôt incertain, va être reconnu grâce à toute une série de signaux textuels renvoyant à des connaissances contextuelles précises. Cet ensemble de signaux est bien-sûr exploité intuitivement, par habitude, par le lecteur, qui cherche avant tout à comprendre son texte rapidement et au moindre effort.

Une situation de communication, quelle qu'elle soit, débouche normalement – c'est son but – sur un événement discursif où une certaine réalité verbale est présentée, partagée entre interlocuteurs. Il y a échange, oral ou écrit, immédiat ou reporté. L'énoncé qui en résulte est transmissible grâce à une certaine schématisation typique et identificatrice du genre.

Une schématisation est une organisation de connaissances dont le locuteur prend conscience en même temps qu'il les met en forme pour les communiquer. Plus qu'un objet c'est un processus qui, dans un environnement doté de finalités, exerce une activité et voit sa structure interne évoluer au fil du temps sans qu'il perde pourtant son identité unique.(Jean-Blaise Grize: *Logique naturelle et communications*. Paris: 1996, 144)

Le lecteur-auditeur lui, en sens inverse, retrouve ces connaissances au cours de son travail d'interprétation.

Il faut bien sûr comprendre contexte au pluriel car il existe plusieurs types de contexte. Sperber et Wilson définissent la *pertinence*, qui est pour eux le critère essentiel de toute forme de communication, comme une relation entre une hypothèse (une représentation) donnée et un contexte donné (*Ibid.* : 215). C'est bien sûr une approche différente du contexte de l'approche linguistique classique. Ils focalisent sur la question de l'interprétation pragmatique des énoncés et du rôle du contexte dans ce processus. Leur vision est dynamique et lie le contexte aux mémoires (courte, moyenne, longue) du lecteur-auditeur et aux hypothèses effectuées lors de la lecture, et de lectures antécédentes. Ce dispositif déductif va évoluer au fil des lectures et avec lui le contexte. La lecture renvoie à un contexte et à une mémoire d'informations encyclopédiques diverses. Les lectures antérieures font partie du dispositif d'interprétation en mémoire du lecteur-auditeur.

6. Pour une étude du genre en contexte

Nous allons maintenant proposer un cadre d'analyse du genre en contexte (Cf. Tableau 2). Les contextes ne sont pas des unités objectives limitées et structurées, mais sont plutôt tout un ensemble de possibilités, de renvois à des référents, d'unités de sens latentes et potentielles qui doivent être activées par les acteurs de l'échange verbal suivant leurs besoins et savoirs personnels. On parle aussi de contextes général et spécifique dans le processus de lecture et d'interprétation, ceci nous le ferons pour les connaissances d'ordre encyclopédique. Nous proposons trois niveaux différents pour une présentation des phénomènes référentiels liés à tout texte. Un premier niveau, extérieur au texte même, un second marqué linguistiquement dans le texte avec des renvois référentiels externes et un troisième limité au niveau intratextuel.

Premièrement, le texte que l'on va consulter est placé dans un certain *emballage*. Il a besoin pour exister d'être présent physiquement entre les couvertures d'un livre: c'est le contexte physique, que je choisirai d'appeler *support technique*. Cette première catégorie n'est pas à négliger car elle véhicule le plus souvent un grand nombre d'informations. Ainsi, suivant les pages de couverture, on comprendra instantanément que la publication que nous tenons dans nos mains est un Roman ou au contraire un Rapport annuel (si ce n'est pas un faux ou une parodie). Cette fonction de *contenant* informant sur le *contenu* est fondamentale et fortement communicative. On parle souvent ici dans ce cas de médium ou de support médiatique en théorie de la communication. C'est le premier niveau.

1) Premier niveau extratextuel:

- environnement physique ou support technico-médiatique du texte: c'est-à-dire écrit vs oral, format papier/livre vs film/internet, etc.

Le deuxième niveau a un plus grand nombre de composantes :

2) Deuxième niveau ou contextes marqués dans le texte même ou en marge :

- péri-texte (paratexte): les *marges* du texte, titre, sous-titres, résumé, avant-propos, chapeaux, etc.; c'est toute une série d'informations liées de près ou de loin au texte.
- contexte culturel et connaissances générales⁸: la culture et les connaissances d'ordre général que présuppose le texte;
- contexte situationnel⁹ et communicatif: c'est-à-dire lieu et temps, communauté discursive, action, but, objet, auteur et public;
- contexte intertextuel: liens, renvois, citations, relations à d'autres textes et auteurs;
- contexte énonciatif: qui parle à qui, locuteur et allocataire, points de vue, etc.;
- contexte référentiel marqué ou connaissances spécifiques liées à la thématique: les renvois explicites ou implicites à des données, des références spécialisées. Une bonne connaissance de ce contexte est primordiale pour une bonne interprétation du texte. Ce contexte est essentiel pour signaler quel est le lecteur compétent recherché et pour la détermination du genre.

3) Troisième niveau intratextuel marqué dans le texte (contexte linguistique):

- cotexte: les renvois textuels à des données internes, référents et renvois intratextuels telles les anaphores et cataphores.

Toutes ces catégories sont actualisées dans la réalité des textes suivant le genre et peuvent prendre une différente valeur et importance. Si je considère toujours l'exemple du Rapport annuel, on peut concrétiser et détailler pour ce genre chacune des catégories indiquées à l'intérieur du tableau suivant:

(Tableau 2) - Contextes :

	Genre :		
	Rapport annuel		
Catégories	Détails	Variantes	
1^{er} niveau			
	Support	Couvertures et pages	Internet, ajouts de graphiques et photos
2^{ème} niveau			
Péri-texte (paratexte)	Tous les petits textes autour du texte	Avant-propos divers, prise en charge ou non du texte par le Pdg, signature des commissaires aux comptes	
Contexte culturel	Pays, langue, époque, branche, entreprise	Différences culturelles, année de parution	
Contexte situationnel	Lieux, acteurs, déroulement	Ici, variations annuelles possibles	
Contexte intertextuel	Degré d'originalité du rapport: proche d'un modèle de branche ou non	Renvois possibles à une symbolique liée soit à la branche soit à l'entreprise et son histoire	
Contexte énonciatif	Qui agit, parle et à qui ?	Locuteur et énonciateurs : image du Pdg, des actionnaires, de la presse ?	
Contexte référentiel	Tous les renvois externes au texte liés à une compétence nécessaire pour une bonne compréhension	Ex.: conjoncture, investissements, CA, bilan, création produits, etc.	
3^{ème} niveau			
Cotexte	Anaphores, et divers référents intratextuels	Le dit, reprises et mise en forme d'informations données ou nouvelles	

Tous ces contextes n'ont pas un même degré d'importance ; certains sont essentiels, d'autres sont plus des « passagers clandestins », toujours présents, à différentes échelles et plus ou moins utiles. Dans un texte de type spécialisé, ce qui est le cas ici, le contexte que nous avons dénommé référentiel est incontournable ; il est celui qui possède une certaine priorité du point de vue de l'interprétation.

L'expérience le montre bien que si on lit un court énoncé coupé du reste d'un texte et sans explication aucune, hors de tout support, il sera le plus souvent assez difficile de décider avec justesse de son appartenance à un genre précis, à moins que le fragment de texte ne contienne de nombreux signes génériques internes (poèmes) ou de son domaine de spécialité (cours boursiers). Ceci me porte à croire que la détermination du genre d'un texte ne s'effectue normalement pas durant la lecture détaillée du texte, mais plutôt au moment de sa prise en main et dès les premières lignes de celui-ci, ce qui n'est sans doute pas tellement surprenant.

7. Conclusion

Le genre ne peut pas être déterminé à partir du texte seul, hors contexte, pas vu d'en bas dans une analyse ascendante, mais plutôt vu d'en haut dans une vision descendante, à partir des premières informations contextuelles détectées, dès la prise en main du support textuel. Il y a dans ce premier contact une première hypothèse sur le genre, que tout lecteur ne fera pas, bien-sûr, et souvent pas de façon consciente, qui sera ensuite confirmée ou infirmée dès le début de la lecture. Un genre donc existe parce qu'existent des textes mais surtout parce qu'il est reconnu par des lecteurs qui choisissent – ou non – de lire tel texte plutôt que tel autre à une époque déterminée et par rapport à un besoin déterminé.

Les différentes catégories contextuelles sont à prendre en considération lors de l'étude de textes spécifiques. On peut espérer retrouver certains phénomènes récurrents qui permettront alors de définir plus précisément le genre considéré. Les formes linguistiques et toute schématisation textuelle employée dans la construction du matériau textuel ne sont pas décisives ni obligatoires, bien qu'indicatives, dans le processus de détermination du genre, bien qu'il y ait sans aucun doute des usages stéréotypiques de certaines formes langagières, qui peuvent alors faire partie de ce qu'Adam appelle le *noyau normatif* (2001 : 16) du genre, noyau qui toujours risque d'être remis en question par les variations de l'usage.

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¹ Adam exprime qu'il faut toujours considérer le terme discours au pluriel et que tous les discours doivent être placés dans un interdiscours. Reboul et Moeschler de façon assez proche, remettent en question l'idée de discours. Pour eux, parlant d'analyse, il n'y a pas *de discours* mais *du discours*. Ils s'opposent aux tenants de l'analyse *de discours* en linguistique qui recherchent à créer un objet scientifique comparable à la phrase.

² Je n'entrerai pas dans le détail de cette question ici. A titre informatif voir par ex. sur le site de l'INSEE : http://www.insee.fr/fr/nom_def_met/nomenclatures/nomenclatures.htm

³ J'ai choisi ici de subdiviser les situations de communication de l'entreprise en trois sous-catégories. C'est une simplification voulue pour ne pas compliquer ce tableau. On pourra y revenir dans l'avenir. Chaque grande catégorie réunit un ensemble de situations types.

⁴ On passe ici d'une dimension à une autre: jusqu'ici tout était situé dans une dimension intégrant relations et comportements sociaux humains; on passe ensuite à la dimension de la médiatisation d'un message et donc du langage humain.

⁵ Cet exemple montre que le RA en tant que genre peut avoir une diffusion multiple, vers plusieurs cibles, tout en conservant toutefois une cible privilégiée.

⁶ On pourrait parler ici du lecteur modèle d'Eco, mais pour éviter toute discussion du terme je préférerais ici celui de compétent.

⁷ Dans ce travail nous définissons simplement un ‘informateur’ comme un déclencheur d’informations, de connaissances et de points de vue liés à un thème.

⁸ Halliday différencie le contexte situationnel du contexte culturel; il partage l'environnement textuel en trois parties: champ (field) qui représente la situation, relation (tenor), ce sont les acteurs, médium (mode) le support langagier (1976).

⁹ Maingueneau propose trois types de contextes : situationnel (où il intègre l'énonciatif), le contexte et les savoirs antérieurs (que nous avons nous divisé en deux catégories), (2000).

ABSTRACT

La détermination du genre à partir de besoins communicatifs - l'exemple du rapport annuel

André Avias
Høgskolen i Østfold
Norvège

The concept of genre has been developed and used a lot these last years. But still, in the field of LSP, we don't have a consistent theory to help us to decide formally if similar texts are part of a specific genre or not. In this article we try to propose a logical way to do that based on what we chose to call *communicative needs*. Our work is inspired by the propositions of Swales and Bhatia about *discourse community*, but also from Jean-Michel Adam's work in text linguistics and discourse analysis. We try to stress further the place and the importance of the situation and the context in which a text appears. In the second part of the article we present a table with all the different contexts we mean one should consider in analysing an LSP-text. We organize these contexts in three categories: external and containing the publication, text intern with external connections and only text intern.

REPORT:

The CIBLSP Project: Using Electronic Corpora to Investigate Specialised Bilingual Terminology

Nathalie Arlin, Amélie Depierre, Pascaline Dury,
Amélie Josselin, Susanne Lervad and Claire Rougemont
Research Centre for Terminology and Translation (CRTT)
Université Lumière Lyon 2, France

Introduction

Although the compiling and analysing of general language corpora has been common practice for some time now, specialised language corpora are still scarce. The CIBLSP (*Corpus Informatisé Bilingues de Langues de Spécialités*) Project presented in this article has been started at the CRTT by a researcher team of six, in order to investigate scientific English and French, and thus provide much needed information on specialised translation.

It is based on compiling a bilingual (French and English) comparable electronic corpus, in five specialised fields of knowledge: volcanology, medicine, pharmacology, drugs and ecology. Each specialised field represents a sub-corpus of the overall project, and each researcher of the team compiles a different sub-corpus.

As explained below, this project is based on common compiling criteria and a common methodology regarding the sampling and the analysis of the documents. The ultimate objective of the overall project is to give a better picture of terminological links across specialised fields, and to design better tools for investigating and teaching ESP (English for Special Purposes), and specialised translation.

However, although the project is currently underway, CIBLSP is still an in-house corpus at the University Lyon 2. This explains why this paper provides detailed information on the creation of the project and the objectives it follows in the long run, but only gives glances at the work achieved until now, and at the first results obtained so far (the emphasis has been put on the results achieved in the field of volcanology and medicine, the other fields of the project being only briefly presented here).

1. Objectives of the Project

Above all, the project consists in compiling a set of large comparable computerised corpora in English and in French, in the five above-mentioned sub-fields (henceforth called *sub-corpora*).

As explained in the introduction, although each member of the team pursues her own specific goals in the project, the global corpus has been based on common pragmatic and theoretical objectives, which are the following:

1.1. Glossary and Dictionary Making

The most obvious purpose of building a corpus is to extract terminological and terminographic information, i.e. to establish which terms are actually in use and therefore suitable for recording in glossaries and dictionaries.

In addition, analysing the compiled documents from a diachronic point of view should make it possible to study the evolution of terms and concepts, from the time when they appear in a given language to the moment when some of them possibly disappear, together with the semantic or conceptual changes that might affect them.

1.2. Teaching and Translation

The sub-corpora will also be carefully exploited in order to improve specialised languages and terminology teaching methods, by providing genuine examples of terms in context or lexical statistics.

In the long run, the sub-corpora can be made part of translation classes and used as translation tools as detailed below.

1.3. Semantic and Theoretical Objectives

Cross-field analyses of the sub-corpora included in the project should help to detect either common or field-specific phenomena, and hence give a deeper insight into the phraseology of specialised languages.

Moreover, an etymology-based method for calculating the level of specialization of terms and texts (Depierre 2004) should make it possible first to compare the sub-corpora of the project at similar levels of specialisation, (for example comparing specialised papers on the one hand, and popular science articles on the other), and secondly to point out constant or shifting patterns in the use of more or less specialised terms.

Thanks to information extracted from each sub-corpus, various issues will be tackled, such as trying to back up the theoretical assumption that concepts are mobile entities, which can be borrowed and used in different fields and in different communication contexts (non-specialised / specialised), or to prove that translations need to be conceptually accurate, and that it takes a good knowledge of concepts to translate terms properly.

2. Methodology

2.1. Constitution of the Sub-Corpora

The main asset of the CIBLSP project is the common methodology. The coherence and the quality of the project are ensured by the methodology chosen in order to constitute each sub-corpus.

Indeed, the sub-corpora are being compiled according to the following methodological principles: They are bilingual (English/French) and comparable for all the fields included in the project.

A comparable corpus consists of sets of texts in different languages that are not translations of each other. Moreover, the word *comparable* is used in this paper in order to indicate that the texts in both languages have been selected because they have some characteristics in common. According to Altenberg and Granger (2002: 7-8) "comparable corpora consist of original texts in each language, matched as far as possible in terms of text type, subject matter and communicative function".

No geographical variety of English (British, American, etc.) has been given preference, but the documents selected are texts written by native speakers or texts written by non-native speakers but reviewed by international selection committees. Although each researcher pursues her own goals and choice of documents for each field and for each language, we all follow Bowker and Pearson's basic rules (2002) about how to constitute and analyse a corpus. The compiling is therefore based on "choice but not chance". In other words, we collect the texts in order to follow the global objectives of the project, instead of trying to find a conducting line in a set of various documents accumulated by chance.

The sub-corpora will be of approximately the same size and as homogenous as possible. Each sub-corpus in each language and in each sub-field will comprise approximately 500,000 words.

The texts collected in the two languages represent different levels of specialisation (from very specialised to non-specialised texts, but explicit enough to inform about the structure of a field and its basic principles).

Therefore the user will be provided with a whole range of texts thanks to which it will be possible to study phenomena such as science popularisation and to analyse the terminology used in the various fields represented in the project.

2.2. Tools Used for the Project

In order to have the whole corpus in electronic form, we digitised (i.e. scanned and re-read) those documents that were not already available in electronic form using optical character recognition software such as Omnipage (version 10 and 11) and HP PrecisionScan Pro 2.0.

The automatic terminology extraction from the sub-corpora and the concordance analyses are being made with tools such as Hyperbase, Syntex, Wordsmith Tools, TERMplus and Termwatch.

3. What has been Achieved in Each Field

3.1. Pharmacology

As far as pharmacology is concerned, the building of a comparable electronic sub-corpus is linked to the so-called DIBPHARM project, an English/French pharmacological dictionary project, started as a collaborative terminological activity between linguists and subject field experts, based on a printed corpus.

DIBPHARM can be of great help not only to translators, but also to specialised writers and even to specialists. It will be an electronic tool providing information concerning about 4,000 terms and their use, through definitions, contexts and notes, all developed by the various work teams.

The sub-corpus will be composed of a large variety of reference texts. First, digitising texts from a collection of documents compiled for the initial corpus will allow us to check the validity of the terms manually extracted. The initial sub-corpus consists of specialized books, didactic references, summaries of product characteristics, good manufacturing practices or European procedures for marketing authorisations.

In addition, downloaded Web documents identified as using specific criteria can be used to help to find new terms in the field of pharmacology and to find new contexts for new meanings, or to reject some hypotheses.

Due to the fact that pharmacology is a very wide field of research, our sub-corpus analysis will first be tested on 2 sub-fields: *pharmacokinetics* (i.e. Study of drug disposition in a body) and *pharmacovigilance* (i.e. Post-marketing surveillance).

The sub-corpus of pharmacology currently comprises approximately 200,000 words per language.

3.2. Ecology

The sub-corpus is made of texts pertaining to the field of ecology. But since ecology is a very large and fast-expanding field, the collection of documents has been narrowed down to the following subjects: terrestrial ecosystems, ecological successions, niches, habitats and guilds, species communities and their interactions (especially predation and parasitism). Texts relating to aquatic ecosystems and the ecology of waters are not included, and the political aspect of environmentalism has been left out as well.

The sub-corpus of ecology has been devised in order to study the diachronic evolution of terms and concepts of the field, in French and English. The period

chosen for the sub-corpus covers the 20th century¹, in both languages. The oldest document included in the English part of the sub-corpus dates back to 1903.

The sub-corpus will hopefully provide valuable information on the major concepts of the field (and on the extent to which these concepts have evolved over time), and could be used in order to improve the definitions contained in databases accessible to terminologists and translators. It can also prove to be a valuable tool to observe the migration over time of terms and concepts from specialised to general communication.

The total word count is at present a little under 700,000 words for the English part and as the same approximate number is hoped to be achieved in French, the final sub-corpus of ecology will be around 1.5 million words.

3.3. Drugs

The drug terminology in the CIBLSP project is based on the multilingual terminology work of the AVENTINUS project presented below.

3.3.1. The AVENTINUS Project

The aim of the AVENTINUS Project funded by the European Union in the Linguistic Engineering Program (LE-2238) was to provide drug enforcement departments within the European national police and intelligence organisations with linguistic tools that will help the users overcome cross-language problems. The idea is that they should be able to use their own language when searching documents and databases in foreign languages. Thus five languages are supported: English, German, Spanish French and Swedish. AVENTINUS is not a full-fledged information system, but provides the users with the linguistic tools to be integrated into their existing operational environments. Modularity and integrating capacity are the most prominent features proposed. The main partner of the project is the Europol Drug Unit. The department of SRAAKDATA at the University of Gothenburg is in charge for the website (<http://scrooge.spraakdata.gu.se>).

French was only included in the second phase of the project and because of a lack of time, less extensively so than the other languages with only around 900 terms extracted from internal communication texts like police reports. The CRTT was therefore later asked to correct and complete the French part of the multilingual term database (GOT) of the AVENTINUS project. Moreover, drug terminology differs from “normal” terminology in a substantial way as it is used not to make communication easier, but rather to hide acts which are illegal and considered as criminal. This difference is even more emphasised by the fact that many of the terms are slang words or argot. Normally, one can expect a terminological environment to cover a rather specific, well-defined field, and to be rather consistent with ambiguity and stability in meaning and also often in growth. The field of drugs, however, includes such opposite areas as street slang, police and customs vocabulary, drug legislation, medical treatment, and complex chemical compounds. New products based upon new chemical compounds (referred to as

designer drugs) are constantly being developed to keep the trade ahead of the legislation since a drug is not prohibited in our society until it is explicitly put on the list of illegal drugs, i.e. classified as narcotic.

3.3.2. Ontological References

GOT contains some 14,000 terms altogether (mostly English terms -roughly 7,000-, but only around 2,000 Swedish, German and Spanish terms and less than 1,000 French terms). The objective is to reach approximately 2,000 French terms in the completion phase.

Furthermore, the GOT drug term base is connected to a world model ontology, containing seven classes of concepts and their sub-classes. In this dimension, the terms operate on a conceptual level, as each term is immediately linked to the ontology through a restricted set of concepts.

- 1) DRUG (*substance and tool*: 142 FR terms vs. 3,927 EN terms)
- 2) PERSON (*dealer, user, official, smuggler and producer*: 18 FR terms vs .401 EN terms)
- 3) SOCIAL LOCATION (*hotel, house*: 3 FR terms vs. 71 EN terms)
- 4) ORGANISATION (*criminal, company, government*: 4 FR terms vs. 108 EN terms)
- 5) GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION (*city, province, country, region*: 0 FR terms vs. 71 EN terms)
- 6) ROUTE (*trade and smuggling geographical patterns*: 0 FR terms vs. 23 EN terms)
- 7) OTHER

We found an urgent need to complete the drug category with French terms and this work is therefore still ongoing.

3.3.3. Strict and Soft Terminology

The terminology in the AVVENTINUS database is twofold: *strict terminology* on the one hand,, i.e. the kind of well-defined and unambiguous terms which are traditionally associated with certain fields like generic and chemical names for substances (like *diacetylmorphine og H* for heroin), and *soft terminology* on the other hand, characterised by metaphors, and street names.

Examples of soft terminology in the field of drug substances and ecstasy are French collocations like: *soleil avec visage souriant, le ya ba, croissant de lune sans visage*, and simple noun terms like *papillon, coeur, Adam, Eve*.

3.3.4. Semantic Relations

As GOT is a relational database, it contains a semantic hierarchy which is mainly constituted by two levels: terms, their *synonyms* (equal senses – same level) and *hyperonyms*² (superior concepts – superior level). Synonym relations in English amount to 21,926 while the French relations amount to 205 only. The synonym group of the English term *marijuana cigarette*, is, to mention one, rather extensive,

with hundreds of synonyms. The French completion of synonyms for marijuana is expected to be around 100.

3.3.5. Overview of the French Sub-Corpus

The data collected for the French sub-corpus come from texts from open sources. The French sub-corpus consists mostly of popular and semi-popular science articles and reports of the government site (<http://www.gouv.fr>) and the CNDT (*Centre National de Documentation Sur la Toxicomanie*) in Lyon. Using a report of re-transcribed texts from different professionals, we have included material from the TREND project undertaken by specialist Anne Fontaine, a sociologist of the field. Documentalists working with the information database TOXIBASE at the CNDT helped to find and validate the texts for the sub-corpus.

3.3.6. Automatic Terminology Extraction

Using the extraction tool TERMplusExtract, we have, until now, only extracted terms and related information from the French sub-corpus. Because TERMplusExtract gave too many responses, it extracted around 9,000 potential terms. We are currently establishing criteria to make our selection of terms with a specialist from the TREND project and the person in charge of the GOT database.

The frequency of some terms (like *cannabis* and *ecstacy*) is taken into account along with other criteria such as variation, in order to show neologisms. Frequent verbs are: *consommer*, *risquer*, *pratiquer*, *opiacer*, *troubler* and nouns and adjectives are *espaces festif et thérapeutique*.

The same procedure will be used in a next step for the English part of the sub-corpus.

3.4. Volcanology

3.4.1. Goal of the Study

3.4.1.1. General Goal

As part of a research project which aims at improving the treatment of terms in general-purpose (monolingual and bilingual) dictionaries, two sub-corpora dealing with the field of volcanology have been built to see to what extent the comparison of corpus data with dictionary data can improve the content of general dictionaries in order to meet the needs of users, particularly translators³.

This field caught our attention especially because it is a good example of a popularised field and because some volcanologists have noticed that its terminology is poorly treated in existing dictionaries.

3.4.1.2. Particular Objectives

Our goal is to improve the treatment of terms both at the *macrostructure*⁴ and the *microstructure* level of dictionaries. As far as the *macrostructure* is concerned, we want to see what types of terms should be included in the dictionary (e.g. simple

terms (*lava*, *crater*, *lapilli*) or complex terms (*shield volcano*, *bread-crust bomb*) and where they should be included (something of a problem regarding the complex terms). As far as the *microstructure* is concerned, we are particularly interested in definitions, phraseology (collocations and compounds), examples, and cross-references in *monolingual* dictionaries, and sense indications, translation equivalents (number and accuracy), phraseology (collocations and compounds) and examples in *bilingual* dictionaries.

As a consequence, our research objectives that are corpus-related are the following: (i) extract a list of terms and compare it to the nomenclature of six existing general-purpose dictionaries (two English and two French monolinguals, two English / French bilinguals), (ii) retrieve phraseological units (collocations and compounds), (iii) retrieve defining contexts to help to improve definitions (monolingual dictionaries) and sense indications (bilingual dictionaries), (iv) identify semantic relationships between terms (synonymy, hyponymy, etc.), (v) identify interesting examples, and (vi) identify or verify the equivalent(s) of a term.

3.4.2. Methodology

3.4.2.1. Overview of the Two Corpora

The two sub-corpora we have designed are a comparable corpus, as defined earlier, and a translation corpus, which consists of original texts in one language and their translation in another language, and which, moreover, is bi-directional (translations are in both directions: from English to French and from French to English). The comparable corpus is used in order to attain all six objectives, while the translation corpus is used mainly for the sixth objective. The main characteristics of the two corpora are summed up in the table joined below :

		COMPARABLE CORPUS	TRANSLATION CORPUS
Subject-field		Volcanology	
Languages	Names	English and French	
	Authors	Native language speakers	Native language speakers for source language (SL) in all cases ; possibly also for Target Language (TL)
	Geographic Variety	French : FR, (CD) English : US, CD, GB	French: FR (SL & TL) English: US (SL), GB (TL)
Size		400,000 words / language => total 800,000	100,000 words / language => total 200,000
Time-Period covered		Circa 20 years (1977 - 2002)	Circa 20 years (1979 - 2002)
Type of Texts		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Written texts - Whole texts - Reliable texts - Popular-Science texts 	

Table 1. Main Features of the Volcanology Corpora

Several elements of the preceding table are worth commenting upon, but here we will focus on only one aspect - the choice of popular science texts-, and refer the reader to Josselin forthcoming for more details on the other elements as well as the problems encountered when compiling the comparable sub-corpus.

Three main reasons account for our choice of *popular science* texts: (i) according to Delavigne (2001), even popular science texts include terms; (ii) since a popular science corpus is by definition aimed at non-specialists, terms found in such a corpus should logically be included in general dictionaries aimed at the general public (as opposed to specialised dictionaries); (iii) the typical explanatory style of popular science texts provides term definitions that can be used by lexicographers.

These popular-science texts are classified according to two main criteria—*discourse* and *genre*. The corpus represents the following three discourse levels (based on Pearson 1998, and Meyer & Mackintosh 1996): (i) “semi-popularised” discourse, written by experts for those with some knowledge of the field (e.g. *Scientific American*– US; *Pour la Science*– FR); (ii) popularised discourse, written by relative experts for the uninitiated (e.g. *New Scientist*– GB; *Discover*– US; *Science et Vie*– FR); (iii) instructional discourse, written by teachers for students (e.g. *A Teacher’s Guide to the Geology of Hawaii Volcanoes National Park*).

The comparable sub-corpus also contains texts from various genres. First, it covers both running texts and glossaries. The running texts are subdivided into the following categories: journalistic (newspapers and magazines) and non-journalistic (textbooks, books, exhibition texts, Web documents). For more details about the structure of the comparable sub-corpus, see Josselin & Frérot (2004).

3.4.2.2. Use of Corpora

We use the comparable sub-corpus as a starting-point. Thanks to the corpus-based parser Syntex (developed by D. Bourigault, cf. Fabre & Bourigault 2001), we extract terms and related information from the corpus and analyse the corpus data, which we then compare with dictionary data. Then we turn to the translation corpus for research in equivalents. A return to the comparable corpus is often required for further information. Not only is there constant to and fro between the two corpora, but also between the corpora and the dictionaries.

3.4.3. The Findings so Far

As far as objective 1 is concerned, we are extracting a list of 110 English terms and 110 French terms from the comparable sub-corpus (52 simple nouns, 36 noun phrases or compounds, 16 adjectives and 6 verbs for each language). Because Syntex gave too many responses (e.g. it gave us 7,095 potential simple noun terms!), we had to establish a number of criteria to make our selection. For example, we rejected proper nouns and acronyms. Of course, we took into account the frequency of the term in the sub-corpus, along with some other criteria such as distribution in the various sources of the sub- corpus. Since the manual validation of the potential terms suggested by Syntex is time-consuming, the process of term

selection is still ongoing, and comparison of the selected terms with the nomenclatures of existing dictionaries is yet to be done.

Objectives 2, 3, 4 and 6 have been worked upon to some extent in Josselin & Frérot (2004), and Josselin & Roberts (2004). In the former, we focused on bilingual English-French dictionaries⁵, in the latter, on monolingual English and monolingual French dictionaries⁶.

By studying the treatment of two sets of collocations (the conceptual series *active / dormant / extinct volcano* and its French equivalent; and the collocation *volcano / lava + erupt* and its French equivalent) in two bilingual dictionaries and comparing the dictionary data to corpus data, we found that corpus use can improve the content of general bilingual dictionaries both in terms of quantity and quality: for example, we discovered in the corpus that the verb *erupt* is used in a transitive manner in approximately 10% of the occurrences of the corpus, which is recorded in neither bilingual dictionary under study; we also found that some equivalents recorded in the dictionaries did not appear in the corpus (e.g. *volcan dormant*, *volcan au repos*).

By studying the definitions of two conceptual series (again, the series *active / dormant / extinct volcano* and its equivalent in French, and the series relating to some volcanic products: *bomb*, *block*, *lapilli*, *ash and dust* and its equivalent in French) provided in monolingual English and French dictionaries, and comparing them to defining contexts found in the sub-corpus, we discovered that the information extracted from the corpus could help to solve some of the inconsistencies contained in the dictionaries. We also found that, although the definitions present in the sub-corpus were rather different from those of the dictionaries, they were not necessarily incompatible. A happy medium can indeed be found between the terminological and the lexicographical approaches to defining strategies; for instance, a generic term can be used systematically in order to make the semantic relationships more explicit (thus meeting the terminographic requirements) but can be paraphrased with some defining elements found in the sub-corpus therefore meeting the general-lexicography needs): thus, a paraphrase of the hyperonomic term *pyroclastic* – “ejected lava fragment”- found in the corpus can be used to define *lapilli*.

3.5. Medicine

3.5.1. Medical Terminology for LSP and Translation Teaching

In the field of medicine, a comparable sub-corpus is also being built. In its final stage, it will comprise texts of various levels of specialisation, from those aimed at the general public to very specialised research papers, in a wide range of medical sub-fields.

This corpus is going to be analysed while bearing in mind two main objectives:

From a teacher's viewpoint, introducing Applied Languages (Langues Etrangères Appliquées) fourth-year students at Lyon 2 University to the techniques and practices of corpus linguistics as a part of terminology and translation lectures and tutorials.

From a terminologist's viewpoint, studying synonymy and suppletion of terms and their use in the various contexts represented in the compiled corpora, plus comparing and cross-analysing the different sub-corpora of the CIBLSP project, and the different levels of specialisation.

3.5.2. A Long-Term Experiment with Students

Each year, students are asked to observe what has been done in the previous years by other students and to continue the work by developing one particular aspect of corpus analysis. In the first year of this experiment, each student chose a part of the human body and compiled a mini-corpus of specialised texts using as key words the chosen body part and the diseases that might affect it. The students' work is obviously to be checked through before being exploited as a basis of further research.

The single term *kidney* was studied as an example and a 200,000-word corpus was built, consisting of 62 specialised articles in the field of nephrology published between 1996 and 2003 and taken from the archives of the *New England Journal of Medicine* (NEJM). This corpus was given the name KRN62.

This year, which has been year three of the experiment, the students were asked to investigate groups of suppletive synonyms and more particularly their use in context.

Suppletive synonyms are first of all synonyms, i.e. terms which have different forms ("signifiants") but (almost) the same meaning ("signifié"). For example, *postinfectious glomerulonephritis* and *postinfective glomerulonephritis* are synonyms, but they are not suppletive.

A group of two or more synonyms can be considered as suppletive if they are of different etymological origin, native (Anglo-Saxon) or learned (Latin or Greek); they consequently pertain to a different level of specialisation. For example: *kidney stone*, *renal calculus*, *nephrolith*, or *stroke*, *heart failure*, *cerebrovascular neurologic disease*, or else *skin disease*, *cutaneous disease*, *dermatologic disease*, *dermatological disease*, *dermatology disease* are suppletive synonyms.

Terms naturally tend to vary in context, and sometimes synonyms are mistaken for variants of terms and vice versa. Several types of variation can be studied from corpora (Depierre, forthcoming).

3.5.3. Towards a Method for Calculating the Level of Specialisation of Terms and Texts

Another concern of corpus analysis is investigating how terms are used in context. The ultimate goal of such a study, along with the global objectives of the CIBLSP project, is to make it possible to compare different sub-fields in different languages, and to highlight similarities, as well as differences, in the use of specialised terms. In order to do so, we have devised a method for working out the level of specialisation, first of the terms themselves, then of a given text or corpus.

The idea of such a method has its roots in from the observation of several groups of numerous synonyms. Some questions have arisen, such as : Why are there so many synonyms in the medical field? Are they interchangeable? How often and in what sorts of texts are they actually used?

In a group of suppletive synonyms such as the above-mentioned *kidney stone*, *renal calculus*, *nephrolith*, it is clear that *kidney stone* is the least specialised of the three, and that *nephrolith* is the most specialised. This intuitive statement is consistent with the etymological origins of the morphemes of which the terms are composed. Luckily enough, the terms in this example are homogenous as far as their etymology is concerned, which is not always the case; *renal stone* and *kidney calculus* are hybrids. A more scientific method is necessary, should one need to go beyond intuition.

Step 1: The first step of the method proposed here consists in assigning each morpheme a morphology-related coefficient of 0, 1 or 2. At first sight this is time-consuming and requires a good command of etymology. Therefore it is difficult, even improbable, to believe that the process might be successfully automated in the near future. However, the calculations are simplified, as only specialised (and therefore relatively infrequent) morphemes are rated higher than 0.

Highly specialised morphemes of Greek origin, such as *nephro-*, *-lith*, *cyt-*, *h(a)em(at)-*, etc., as well as words directly borrowed from Latin, such as *calculus*, *vena cava*, etc., are rated 2.

Somewhat less specialised morphemes of Latin or Greek origin, which have become part of the English language thanks to a suffix, such as *renal*, *syndrome*, *chronic*, etc., are rated 1.

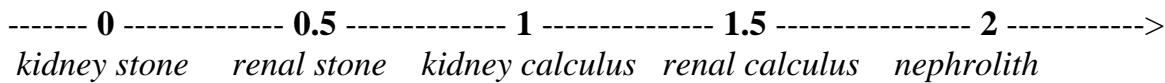
Finally, native morphemes (“vernaculaires”) such as *kidney*, *stone*, *blood*, etc., are rated 0, just as all the remaining non-field-specific words are.

Step 2: Once all the morphemes have been rated, the absolute level of specialisation (ALS) of a term can be calculated simply by adding up the coefficients; in order to compare terms irrespective of the number of morphemes, the relative level of specialisation (RLS) can be calculated by dividing ALS by the number of morphemes. To simplify even

further, only root morphemes can be taken into account, excluding affixes. Thus, for *kidney stone* ALS = 0, RLS = 0, for *renal stone* ALS = 1, RLS = 0.5, for *kidney calculus* ALS = 2, RLS = 1, for *renal calculus* ALS = 3, RLS = 1.5, for *nephrolith* ALS = 4, RLS = 2.

The RLS values are represented graphically in table 2:

Table 2: Graph showing the RLS of the suppletive synonyms of *kidney stone*.



Step 3: Last, but not least, the ALS of a text or a corpus can be calculated as the sum of the coefficients (higher than 0) assigned to the specialised morphemes (M_c) multiplied by the frequency of occurrence of each morpheme (f), according to the formula: $ALS = \sum_i^i (M_{c_i} \times f_i)$.

To calculate the RLS of a text or a corpus, its ALS should be divided by the number of morphemes (N_m), according to the formula: $RLS = \sum_i^i (M_{c_i} \times f_i) / N_m$.

However, these calculations require a clear recognition of the boundaries between morphemes, which is almost impossible to do automatically; a computer program will not recognize the components of *electro-myogram*, *glomerulopathy*, *nephropathy*, *nephritis*, etc., unless a full list of the morphemes is incorporated as a personalised dictionary, complete with their allomorphs, for example: *abdomen* / *abdominal*; *muscle* / *fibromuscular*; *haematology*, *haematoma* / *haemodialysis*, *haeme* / *anaemia* (*hematology*, *hematoma* / *hemodialysis*, *heme* / *anemia*).

The whole process would be simpler, though less precise, if graphical units are considered instead of morphemes, as computers count words, i.e. graphical units between two blanks.

In this case the ALS' of a text or a corpus can be calculated as the sum of the coefficients assigned to the specialised terms (T_c) multiplied by the frequency of occurrence of each term (f), according to the formula: $ALS' = \sum_i^i (T_{c_i} \times f_i)$. To calculate the RLS' of a text or a corpus, its ALS' should be divided by the number of terms (N_t), according to the formula: $RLS' = \sum_i^i (T_{c_i} \times f_i) / N_t$.

For an even simpler calculation, the number of types instead of tokens can be considered, irrespective of their frequency of occurrence, so the ALS'' of a text or a corpus equals the number of specialised terms $\sum_i^i T_{c_i}$. To calculate the RLS'' of a text or a corpus, its ALS'' should be divided by the number of terms (N_t), according to the formula: $RLS'' = \sum_i^i T_{c_i} / N_t$. For our KRN62 corpus, all the above calculations converge to 25% (93% confidence interval), which is much higher than the usual 2% for non specialised texts.

Conclusion

A lot of work remains to be done on the CIBLSP Project before reaching the overall objectives assigned to it, and before yielding the necessary information to analyse in detail the working of the different sub-fields compiled in the global corpus. Nevertheless, carrying out this project has shown that there is still a lot of research to do in the field of terminology and specialised languages that could benefit translators, especially regarding concepts.

We strongly believe that a good translation rests on correct understanding of the concepts involved and how they are “translated” from one language to another by the translator. There is still a need to enhance the current knowledge of how concepts are formed, how they evolve, how they migrate from one field to another and from one culture to another. Then, there is also a strong need to improve the tools that could help the translator to know concepts better (dictionary definitions for instance, as shows the work on volcanology and pharmacology in the CIBLSP Project) before they can translate them properly.

Acknowledgments

We would like to acknowledge gratefully the help received from Alex Laube for reading this paper with special attention to the English language.

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¹ Ecology, as we know it nowadays has been an independent domain (distinct from biology, botany and zoology) only since the end of the 19th century, really starting with the founding work of the German zoologist Haeckel (1899) and his coinage of the term *oekologie*.

² There are two semantic levels in GOT – the *standard level* (includes synonyms) and the *hyperonym* level. There are about 2,000 hyperonym relations in the database for the English language and only 20 for the French language.

For example: hyperonym 1: *person* and hyperonym 2: *addict* both lead to the term: *heroin addict*.

³ We are currently analysing the results of a survey about dictionary use designed and carried out in late 2002-early 2003 among three different categories of potential users of terms in general dictionaries: scientists, language professionals (among whom translators are found), and the general public. This should help define more accurately the needs of these particular types of users, which could affect the lexicographer's working methods.

⁴ The *macrostructure* of a dictionary is the overall wordlist of the dictionary, while the *microstructure* deals with the internal design of the dictionary by providing detailed information about the words that are included.

⁵ The *Harrap's Shorter French and English Dictionary* (2000) and the *Oxford Hachette French-English, English-French Dictionary* (1996), both on Cd-Roms.

⁶ The *Petit Robert* (2001) and the *Petit Larousse* (2002) for French, and the *New Oxford Dictionary of English* (2000) and the *American Heritage College Dictionary* (1996) for English. All 4 are Cd-Rom versions.

ABSTRACT

The CIBLSP Project : Using Electronic Corpora to Investigate Specialised Bilingual Terminology

Nathalie Arlin, Amélie Depierre,
Pascaline Dury, Amélie Josselin,
Susanne Lervad and Claire Rougemont
Research Centre for Terminology and Translation (CRTT)
Université Lumière Lyon 2, France

The presentation shows the first results of a collective research project on specialised languages. The research is based on the assumption that compiling a large-scale bilingual electronic corpus in different scientific fields will provide new and more detailed information on the way specialised languages, especially English and French, work. The project is also based on the belief that such information will be used in order to improve specialised translation, as well as the way it is currently taught at university level.

BOOK REVIEWS:

Die französische Marketingsprache.

Eine diachrone Untersuchung ihrer
Terminologie anhand der Revue Française
du Marketing (1960 – 2000)

Regina Hänchen

Sprache im Kontext, Band 13
Peter Lang: Frankfurt a. M. 2002

Reviewed by :

Jan Engberg
Leiter des Fachbereichs Deutsch
Wirtschaftsuniversität Aarhus
Dänemark

Generell sind im Bereich der Untersuchung von Fachtexten und Fachkommunikation solche Arbeiten rar, die sich zentral mit zeitlicher Entwicklung der Kommunikation innerhalb eines Fachbereichs befassen. Fachkommunikationsforschung fokussiert tendenziell auf synchrone Fragestellungen und versucht das Besondere der Kommunikation in bestimmten Fachbereichen durch Untersuchungen vieler linguistischer Parameter bei aktuellen Texten einer Textsorte eines Fachbereiches und/oder durch synchrone Vergleiche zwischen Textsorten aus unterschiedlichen Kommunikationsbereichen zu ermitteln. Die normale Begründung für diese Entscheidungen ist, dass die Ergebnisse solcher Untersuchungen für die Unterrichtspraxis relevant sein sollten, und dabei seien diachrone Erkenntnisse weniger relevant. Dies ist nach meiner Überzeugung nicht korrekt. Umso erfreulicher ist es, in der Einleitung und der abschließenden Darlegung der Ergebnisse des zu begutachtenden Buches zu lesen, dass seine diachrone Ausrichtung gerade mit solchen praktischen Fragestellungen wie Unterrichtspraxis und praktische Fachlexikographie begründet wird. Diese Einordnung diachronischer Erkenntnisse als auch relevant für die Unterrichts- und Übersetzerpraxis gehört zu den für die Entwicklung der Fachkommunikationsforschung wesentlichen Erkenntnissen des Buches.

Wenn auch die Arbeit so zur Auffüllung einer wesentlichen Lücke in der Fachkommunikationsforschung beiträgt, so hätte sie jedoch durch eine breitere Literaturbasis noch stärker zur Entwicklung der Disziplin beitragen können. Das Desiderat diachroner Arbeiten ist in den letzten etwa 20 Jahren (mindestens seit der generell fachsprachlich und diachron ausgerichteten Arbeit von von Hahn 1983) immer wieder geäußert und auch zum Anlass für einzelne Arbeiten genommen worden (siehe z.B. zu Textsorten des Rechts Krefeld 1985, generell zur Fachkommunikation Gunnarsson 1992 sowie zur Entwicklung der medizinischen Kommunikation Ylönen 2001). Aber die meisten Arbeiten verfahren wie die hier vorliegende Arbeit, d.h. sie weisen auf das Desiderat diachroner Arbeiten hin, nehmen aber die schon vorliegenden Arbeiten nur im unmittelbaren Umfeld der eigenen Arbeit zur Kenntnis. So ist es typisch, dass außer den Arbeiten von Kalverkämper 1993 und Budin 1996 hier nur auf romanische Arbeiten zur diachronen Entwicklung von Terminologie Bezug genommen wird. Die Arbeit leistet damit zwar einen Beitrag zur Entwicklung der romanisch orientierten Fachsprachenforschung, hat aber nicht die Ambition, die ganze Fachkommunikationsforschung weiter zu entwickeln. Diese Entscheidung ist eigentlich schade, denn die Arbeit wäre wegen ihrer methodischen Stringenz dazu schon in der Lage gewesen.

Die letztgenannte Kritik ist eines der wenigen Beispiele dafür, dass diese kurze, aber sehr effizient strukturierte Arbeit durch eine Erweiterung des Umfangs an Qualität hätte gewinnen können. Generell gesehen handelt es sich um eine Arbeit, die durch ihren strikten Aufbau, ihre Kürze und die Stringenz der enthaltenen Argumentation besticht. Der Aufbau ist auf die Lösung der gestellten Aufgabe ausgerichtet. Untersucht werden Entwicklungsprozesse der französischen Fachsprache des Marketings besonders im Bereich der Terminologie und ihrer Kollokationen (9-10). Folglich wird zuerst in den Kapiteln 2 und 3 die Grundlage in Form einer Erörterung von basalen Begriffen aus der (Fachsprachen-)Linguistik und des Marketings gelegt. In Kap. 4 werden diese beiden Grundlagen zur unmittelbaren Basis für die Analyse in Form einer Festlegung des Begriffes „Fachsprache des Marketings“ auf der Basis der vorhergehenden Kapitel zusammengefasst. Kapitel 4 operationalisiert somit Kapitel 2 und 3, indem der Untersuchungsgegenstand genauer bestimmt wird. In Kapitel 5 wird das Analyseverfahren durch eine Erörterung der Verfahren der Korpuslinguistik, der verwendbaren Methoden und der Stichprobenentnahme vorgestellt. Kapitel 6 stellt wiederum eine Operationalisierung des Verfahrens dar, indem festgelegt wird, was unter „zentrale Termini“ bzw. „Kollokation“ in dieser Arbeit konkret zu verstehen ist. Und schließlich werden in Kapitel 7 die Ergebnisse der so vorbereiteten Analyse teils übergeordnet (bezüglich genereller Tendenzen bei der Entwicklung von Termini) teils spezifisch für einige ausgewählte Termini (bezüglich Bedeutungswandel, Wortbildung und Kollokationen) dargestellt. Alle Kapitel sind durch eine relativ schmal gehaltene Literaturbasis gekennzeichnet, bei der aber immer die tatsächlich zentralen Arbeiten im Mittelpunkt stehen. Es gelingt damit der Verfasserin generell auf wenig Raum von der Qualität und der wissenschaftlichen Begründetheit ihres Verfahrens zu überzeugen.

Die Arbeit kann also in drei Teile gegliedert werden, die im Folgenden getrennt behandelt werden sollen: die Grundlagen des Untersuchungsgegenstandes (Kap. 2-4), die Erarbeitung des Analyseverfahrens (Kap. 5-6) und die Ergebnisse der Analyse (Kap. 7).

Als Grundlage für die Beschreibung des Untersuchungsgegenstandes werden im ersten Teil zunächst die Grundbegriffe „Fachsprache“, „Terminus“ und „fachsprachliche Kollokationen“ genauer erörtert. Der Fachsprachen-Begriff wird auf der Grundlage der Anfänge der Fachsprachenforschung in der Wirtschaftslinguistik über die Beschreibungen von Hoffmann Mitte der siebziger Jahre bis hin zum neuesten Stand geführt. Dabei gelingt es der Verfasserin mit den Abgrenzungsmerkmalen der Kommunikationspartner (= Experte), der Funktion (= eines damit verbundenen Erkenntnisinteresses) und des Kommunikationsortes (= Orte der Sachlichkeit) einen Fachsprachenbegriff zugrunde zu legen, der jedenfalls den hier im Mittelpunkt stehenden Untersuchungsgegenstand der Marketingsprache sinnvoll von benachbarten Begriffen wie z.B. „Werbesprache“ unterscheidet. Die Argumentation wird bis zu einem Niveau durchgeführt, wo sie immer noch für die angepeilte Untersuchung relevant ist, auch wenn dadurch nicht all theoretischen Fragen gelöst werden. Die Arbeit konzentriert sich also auf die Lösung der gestellten praktischen Aufgabe.

Ähnlich verfährt die Verfasserin in den Teilen des Kapitels über fachsprachliche Kollokationen, über die Entwicklung von Terminologien und über sprachpolitische Einflüsse. In allen erwähnten Teilen des zweiten Kapitels werden theoretische Grundlagen für die spätere Analyse durch Erörterungen und Diskussionen geschaffen, ohne dass ein Versuch einer eigenständigen Theorieentwicklung gemacht wird. Dies gilt auch für die Beschreibung der Entwicklung des Bereichs des Marketings, die im dritten Kapitel erfolgt. In den Kapiteln 2-3 hebt sich lediglich der Teil des Kapitels 2 über Termini ab, in dem unter Einbezug der Semiotik von Peirce eine lohnende Weiterentwicklung der terminologischen Theorie zur Überwindung bestimmter Mängel der traditionellen, eher repräsentationistischen Semiotiktheorien auf dem Gebiet der Terminologielehre durchgeführt wird.

Auf der Grundlage von Kapitel 2 und 3 (besonders der Teile über Fachsprache und Terminologie) wird in Kapitel 4 die Geeignetheit der untersuchten Zeitschrift als Korpus für die anvisierte Untersuchung ermittelt. Diese Ermittlung ist methodisch sauber und trägt zur generellen methodischen Stringenz der Arbeit bei. Zusammenfassend kann somit gesagt werden, dass mit Ausnahme des Teils über Terminologie der erste Hauptteil der Arbeit das schon erwähnte Grundmerkmal der Arbeit spiegelt, gezielt und methodisch stringent eine wissenschaftlich untermauerte Ausführung der praktischen Analyse anzustreben, ohne aber eine eigentliche theoretische Weiterentwicklung auf den behandelten Gebieten im Visier zu haben.

Der zweite Hauptteil der Arbeit (Kap. 5-6) widmet sich dem genaueren Aufbau des Analyseverfahrens. Dabei werden kurz Grundlagen der Korpuslinguistik und die

Auswahl relevanter Programme und Verfahren (Wortlisten und Konkordanzen, aufgestellt mit dem Programm WordSmith) begründet und erörtert. Anschließend werden Korpusgröße und Stichprobenart diskutiert und festgelegt. Überraschenderweise vermissen wir hier eine Erläuterung dazu, warum die gewählte Korpusgröße (1100 Seiten, 570 000 Tokens) als „ausreichend groß“ einzustufen ist (66). Begründungen für die Bewertung (außer der notwendigen Durchführbarkeit innerhalb des zeitlichen Rahmens, die aber im Anschluss als eigenständiges Kriterium angeführt wird) werden nicht gegeben. Wir sehen hier eines der seltenen Fälle, wo die Anbindung der praktischen Analyse an die theoretische Grundlage nicht optimal gelungen ist. Womöglich handelt es sich auch hier um eine Konsequenz daraus, dass sich die Verfasserin tendenziell immer wohltuender Weise eher auf die Durchführbarkeit der Analyse denn auf die theoretische Stringenz konzentriert. Im Mittelpunkt stehen praktische Fragestellungen, die auf der notwendigen theoretischen Grundlage behandelt werden.

Diese Grundausrichtung spiegelt sich auch im letzten Kapitel dieses Teils, wo eine Operationalisierung der im theoretischen Teil eingeführten Begriffe „zentraler Einwortterminus“, „zentraler Mehrwortterminus“ und „Kollokation“ erfolgt. Hier wird mit einer Mischung aus quantitativen (bestimmte relativ hohe Häufigkeit) und qualitativen (Ermittlung von Termini auf der Grundlage des Fachwissens der Analysierenden) Kriterien gearbeitet, die begründet werden, deren Abhängigkeit von den zeitlichen Grenzen des Projekts aber auch deutlich angeführt werden. Zusammenfassend kann zum zweiten Teil der Arbeit gesagt werden, dass generell mit gutem Überblick und unter Einbeziehung aller relevanter theoretischer Angaben ein Analyseinstrumentarium aufgebaut wird, bei dem der Leser genau erkennen kann, welche Prioritäten gesetzt worden sind und worauf sich die Analyse konzentrieren will und muss.

Im letzten Teil der Arbeit (Kapitel 7) werden die Ergebnisse der Arbeit in Form von Beantwortungen der in der Einleitung gestellten Forschungsfragen vorgestellt. Dabei wird erstens gezeigt, dass über den Untersuchungszeitraum ein kontinuierlicher Anstieg von verwendeten Termini erfolgt ist, so dass mit voranschreitender Zeit immer mehr zentrale Termini in den Texten verwendet werden. Die Entwicklung in den einzelnen Erhebungszeiträumen wird mit den Erkenntnissen aus Kapitel 3 verglichen, wobei eine Übereinstimmung in den Entwicklungen des Faches und des Terminologiegebrauchs zu erkennen ist. Weiter wird ermittelt, dass tendenziell Termini nach ihrer Einführung einen Anstieg in ihrer relativen Häufigkeit erleben, sie nach einer gewissen Zeit wieder absacken, wonach sie unregelmäßigen Schwankungen ausgesetzt sind, je nachdem welche Bedeutung sie in der jeweils aktuellen Diskussion einnehmen. Und schließlich werden ausgewählte Termini detaillierter untersucht, vorwiegend auf ihre linguistischen Merkmale wie Bedeutungsentwicklung, Gebrauchshäufigkeit, Wortbildungsmerkmale und Kollokationsbildung hin. Auch hier werden methodisch sauber relevante Erkenntnisse herausgearbeitet, so dass die Ergebnisse der Arbeit tatsächlich als Grundlage für die angepeilten Praxisbereiche wie Unterrichtspraxis und praktische Fachlexikographie von Nutzen sein werden.

Übergeordnet handelt es sich um eine praktisch ausgerichtete Arbeit, die unter Einbeziehung genereller system- und korpuslinguistischer Kategorien wie Kollokationsmuster, Gebrauchsfrequenz, Wortbildungstypen, Strukturmuster etc. eine gute Beschreibung parallel ablaufender Entwicklungen im Bereich der Termini und des zugrunde liegenden Faches leistet, die für Unterricht und Beratung auf dem Gebiet der französischen Marketingsprache nützlich sein wird. Die Relevanz der verwendeten linguistischen Kategorien und Verfahren wird durch die Ergebnisse demonstriert. Alle ermittelten Daten und Kategorien werden auf die aufgestellten Fragen bezogen. Es handelt sich damit um ein gutes Beispiel für die Kombination fachlicher und sprachlicher Fragestellungen, die für gute fachsprachenlinguistische Arbeiten prägend ist.

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No. 29. "Language and Culture" edited by Irène Baron.
Series editor: Niels Davidsen-Nielsen. Editing board: Gyde Hansen, Michael Herslund, Henrik Høeg Müller. Published by Samfunds litteratur, Rosenørns Allé 9, DK-1970 Frederiksberg C, Denmark. Tel.: +45 3815 3880 Fax: +45 3535 7822. ISSN 0905-9857 / ISBN 87-593-1117-7.

EUROPÆISK RETSKULTUR – PÅ DANSK

Redigeret af Henning Koch og Anne Lise Kjær. Udgivet af Forlaget Thomsen, Nytorv 5, DK-1450 København K. Tlf.: +45 3374 0700 Fax: +45 3312 1636. E-mail: thomson@thomson.dk. Web: www.thomson.dk. ISBN: 87-619-1020-1.

FREMME AF SPROGINDLÆRING OG SPROGLIG MANGFOLDIGHED – HANDLINGSPLAN 2004-2006.

Udgivet af Europa-Kommissionen. Luxembourg: Kontoret for De Europæiske Fællesskabers Officielle Publikationer, 2004. ISBN 92-894-6623-5.

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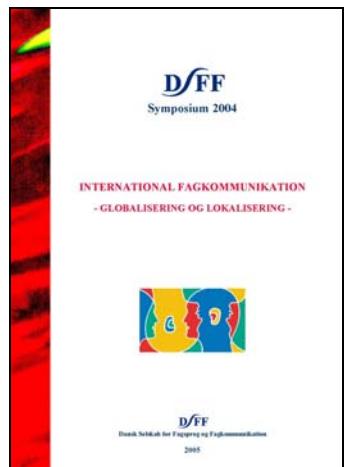
No. 26, February 2005. "Den 9. metaphor: Organisationer som sprog" edited by Thomas Hestbaek Andersen & Flemming Smedegaard (red.). Published by Institute of Language and Communication, University of Southern Denmark, Main Campus: Odense University, Campusvej 55, DK-5230 Odense M.. E-mail: lfn@language.sdu.dk . ISBN 0906-7612

SPRACHREPORT

Heft 4/2004 20. Jahrgang & Heft 1/2005 21. Jahrgang. Informationen und Meinungen zur deutschen Sprache. Herausg.: Institut für Deutsche Sprache, Postfach 10 16 21, D-68016 Mannheim.
Web: <http://www.ids-mannheim.de/pub/laufend/sprachreport/> (D 14288)

SYNAPS – FAGSPRÅK, KOMMUNIKASJON, KULTURKUNNSKAP

Nr. 16 (2005). *Fokus på oversettelse – teori og praksis* (Temanummer). 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. ISSN:1501-732X. (<http://www.nhh.no/spr/Synaps.htm>)



**Proceedings of the DSFF Symposium 2004:
“International Communication
– globalisation and localisation” (in Danish)**

Published by the:

Danish Society for Language for Special Purposes and
Professional Communication (DSFF)

Dalgas Have 15, DK-2000 Frederiksberg, Denmark
Tlf.: +45 38 15 32 89, Fax: +45 38 15 32 33,
e-mail: dsff@cbs.dk, web: www.dsff-lsp.dk

ISBN: 87-989387-1-1

CONFERENCE CALENDAR:

- 2005 -

May 2-6 (2005) - Saarbrücken, Germany

EU-High-Level Conference Series - Euroconferences: Multidimensional Translation (MuTra). Topic of the first conference (held in Saarbrücken): Challenges of Multidimensional Translation. The conference series is intended to examine multiple (multilingual, multimedia, multimodal and polysemiotic) dimensions of modern translation scenarios and to address questions as to the impact of new technologies on the form, content, structure and modes of translated products.

Information: Prof. Dr. Heidrun Gerzymisch-Arbogast, Saarland University, Postfach 15 11 50, D-66041 Saarbrücken, Germany. Tel.: +49 (0)681 302-4248
E-mail: info@euroconferences.info Web: <http://www.euroconferences.info/>

May 5-7 (2005) – Graz (Austria)

International conference: “Translating and Interpreting as a Social Practice”. In translation studies, the discussion of social contexts conditioning the production and use of translations has been largely neglected so far. If the process of translation, including selection, production, distribution and reception, is viewed as a socially regulated activity, the social agents involved can be identified as constructing and constructed subjects in society. Aim: to contribute to the conceptualisation of a general translation sociology.

Information: E-mail: michaela.wolf@uni-graz.at or alexandra.fukari@utanet.at
Web: <http://www-gewi.uni-graz.at/uedo/events/trans-soc/>

May 12-13 (2005) – Cuernavaca (Mexico)

UNINTERlingua 2005 - IV CONGRESO INTERNACIONAL. Las temáticas que se incluyen están relacionadas con: Lingüística, Literatura, Cultura, Traducción y Educación. Objetivos: Consolidar un foro donde educadores, especialistas en las diferentes áreas, estudiantes y público en general se reúnan para compartir los resultados de sus investigaciones y sus experiencias; fortalecer la educación internacional, el entrenamiento técnico de quienes han escogido el camino de la enseñanza-aprendizaje de una segunda lengua o del entendimiento y aceptación de las diferencias entre culturas; y difundir los elementos de cultura popular de los países en todas sus manifestaciones.

Information: Web: <http://www.uninter.edu.mx/web-uninter/uninterlingua/index.html>

May 13 (2005) – Porto (Portugal)

ISAI's 12th annual Conference on Translation: “Traditional vs. New Use for Translation/ Interpreting skills”. The title refers to approaches that may view Translation and Interpreting both from the traditional perspective of foreign-language learning and teaching, in which this “fifth skill” was mainly used to practice and test competence and performance in a second language, and from the most recent perspectives that see it as a unique and complex process, which has to be studied and learnt on its own.

Information: Instituto Superior de Asistentes e Intérpretes, Rua do Campo Alegre, 1376, 4150 – 175 Porto, Portugal. Tel.: (+351) 22 03 03 100 Fax: (+351) 22 609 92 23
E-mail: isai@isai.pt Web: <http://www.isai.pt/xijornadas.html>.

May 14-15 (2005) – Vancouver, BC (Canada)

1st ASA Workshop on Second Language Speech Learning. This workshop is an international gathering of researchers whose work covers all aspects of second language (L2) speech. It focuses primarily on the ways in which people learn to perceive and produce the sound system of a new language, and addresses both theoretical and practical issues. Topics to be covered include perception and production by L2 learners, L2 speech intelligibility, the perception of foreign-accented speech by native and non-native listeners and computer speech recognition of foreign accents.

Information: About the workshop: spchlab@sfu.ca. About registration: asa@aip.org.
Web: <http://www.sfu.ca/~mjmunro/swshp.htm>

May 18-21 (2005) – Maastricht (The Netherlands)

4th International Maastricht-Lódz Duo Colloquium (Maastricht Session): “Translation and Meaning”. The International Maastricht-Lódz Duo Colloquiums consist of two parts in one and the same year: the Maastricht Session and the Lódz Session (23-25 September 2005). The overall aim: to provide an international forum for discussion between translation/interpreting theorists and practitioners on issues of meaning in translation and interpreting.

Information: Drs Marcel Thelen, Department of Translation and Interpreting, Maastricht School of International Communication, Hogeschool Zuyd, P.O. Box 634, NL-6200 AP Maastricht, The Netherlands. Tel.: + 31 43 346 6471 Fax: + 31 43 346 6649
E-mail: m.m.g.j.thelen@hszuyd.nl
Web: <http://www.hszuyd.msti.translation-and-meaning.nedweb.com/>

May 19-20 (2005) – Toulouse (France)

Journée d'étude: “Aspects cognitifs de l'interprétation simultanée” / Workshop: Cognitive Aspects of Simultaneous Interpretation”. Depuis les premières recherches sur l'interprétation, la nécessité de procéder à des études psycholinguistiques prenant en compte tant les capacités cognitives transversales comme la mémoire et l'attention que les contraintes de la tâche a été soulignée à maintes reprises. Malgré un certain nombre de contributions théoriques adoptant une telle approche, les études expérimentales se situant dans cette perspective sont demeurées peu nombreuses et souvent isolées.

Information: B. Köpke, Laboratoire Jacques Lordat, Université Toulouse-Le Mirail, 5 allées Antonio Machado, 31058 Toulouse Cedex 09, France. Fax: +33-561504918
E-mail: bkopke@univ-tlse2.fr
Web: <http://acoustic31.univ-tlse2.fr/lordat/wsi/>

May 19-21 (2005) – Berlin (Germany)

ALTE 2005 - 2nd International Conference: “Language Assessment in a Multilingual Context – Attaining standards, sustaining diversity”. This major international academic conference is a contribution to the 50th Anniversary of the European Cultural Convention. Attended by professionals from over 30 countries, it explores the impact of multilingualism on language assessment and focuses on the need to set common standards while sustaining linguistic diversity.

Information: ALTE 2005 conference organisers.
E-mail: cox.s@ucles.org.uk
Web: <http://www.alte.org/berlin2005/>

May 19-21 (2005) – Bolzano (Italy)

Seminar on Bi- and Multilingualism and Cognition. The aim of this seminar is to discuss the most recent research on cognitive aspects of bi- and multilingualism. Since language research is basically cognitive research, a cognitive theory of language is the most suitable theoretical framework in which to bring together psychology, linguistics, and bilingualism. Research has demonstrated that a significant amount of cognitive development results from the internalization of interpersonal communicative processes. Cognitive approaches to bi- and multilingualism attempt to find out what happens if these interpersonal communicative processes involve the use of more than one language.

Information: Dr. Paola Benevento, Mitteleuropa Foundation:

E-mail: p.benevento@mitteleuropafoundation.it

Web: <http://www.mitteleuropafoundation.it>

May 20-21 (2005) – Joensuu (Finland)

NoDaLiDa2005 - 15th Nordic Conference of Computational Linguistics. The conference will offer presentations on many topics in language and speech technology.

Information: NODALIDA 2005, Language Technology, University of Joensuu, P.O. Box 111, FI-80101 Joensuu, Finland. Tel. +358-13-2514334 Fax +358-13-2514211

E-mail: nodalida2005@joensuu.fi

Web: <http://ling.joensuu.fi/nodalida/>

May 20-22 (2005) – Turku (Finland)

Perspectives inter-culturelles et inter-linguistiques sur le discours académique / Cross-cultural and Cross-linguistic Perspectives on Academic Discourse. La plupart des travaux sur le DA portent sur le recours à l'anglais comme *lingua franca* ou sur l'anglais comparé à des langues moins répandues. La recherche est par contre plus rare en ce qui concerne les langues romanes, tout particulièrement l'italien, le portugais et dans une moindre mesure l'espagnol, pour ne rien dire d'autres langues moins pratiquées. En outre, peu de chercheurs se sont interrogés sur la variabilité des traditions et pratiques du DA à travers les disciplines et les langues. Un autre thème amplement débattu est l'impact de l'émergence de l'espace de recherche européen sur la structuration linguistique et rhétorique de l'argumentation de ce discours ainsi que certains aspects de la politique linguistique. L'objectif de la conférence est de proposer un forum pluridisciplinaire pour aborder des perspectives théoriques et démarches méthodologiques différentes.

Information: Mme Eija Suomela-Salmi : eisusa@utu.fi

Web: <http://www.hum.utu.fi/ranskakk/fran.htm>

May 24 (2005) – Beirut (Lebanon)

Workshop / Atelier: “Document Electronique Juridique”. Cet atelier est organisé dans le cadre du 8ème Colloque International sur le Document Electronique (CIDE.8) en collaboration avec Centre de Recherche en Informatique Juridique de l'Université Libanaise à Beyrouth. Trois thématiques seront abordées : 1) la conception du document juridique (du point de vue redaction) en tant que documents structurés. 2) la modélisation dans une perspective de pré-traitement de documents juridiques dans une problématique d'extraction d'informations stratégiques et décisionnelles. 3) l'aide à la décision pour la consultation intelligente de documents juridiques, une problématique d'archivage dynamique.

Information: Web: <http://www.europia.org/CIDE8/DEJ.htm>

May 25-28 (2005) – Beirut (Lebanon)

CIDE8 – 8ème Conférence Internationale sur le Document Electronique: “Le Multilinguisme”. Objectifs: Resserrer les liens entre l'ingénierie documentaire et l'ingénierie linguistique tout en considérant les différentes dimensions des documents électroniques à savoir cognitive, structurelle et technologique.

Information: Lydie Sauvé, Département d'informatique, Université de Caen.

Tel : + 33 2 31 56 73 95

E-mail: lydie@info.unicaen.fr

Web: <http://www.europia.org/CIDE8/>

May 26-28 (2005) – Copenhagen (Denmark)

7th European Convention of the Association for Business Communication (ABC) : “Business Communication: Making an Impact”. Topics: Intercultural and international aspects of business communication • Communication in languages other than English • Corporate communication • Organizational communication • Interpersonal communication • Meetings and negotiations • Written business communication • Teaching business communication • New technologies in business communication. -- Special themes: Influence and Power in communication • Communication about design and fashion.

Information: Anne Marie Bülow-Møller, Copenhagen Business School: amb.kom@cbs.dk or Gina Poncini, Università degli Studi di Milano: gina.poncini@unimi.it

Web: www.businesscommunication.org/conventions/2005/2005_Copenhagenconference.html

May 26-29 (2005) – Hawaii (USA)

5th Annual Hawaii International Conference on Business. Among many other topics: Business Communication, Business Education, Management Information Systems, Marketing, Organizational Communication.

Information: Hawaii International Conference on Business, P.O.Box. 75023, Honolulu, Hawaii 96836, USA. Tel.: +1 (808) 946 9972 Fax: +1 (808) 947 2420

E-mail: business@hicbusiness.org

Web: <http://www.hicbusiness.org>

May 26-30 (2005) – New York, NY (USA)

55th Annual Conference of the International Communication Association (ICA): “Communication: Questioning the Dialogue”.

Information: Michael L. Haley, Executive Director, International Communication Association, 1730 Rhode Island Ave. NW, Suite 300, Washington, DC 20036, USA.

Tel.: +1 (202) 530-9855 Fax: +1 (202) 530-9851

E-mail: mhaley@icahdq.org

Web: <http://www.icahdq.org/publicPDF/CFP2005NY.pdf>

May 30-31 (2005) – Budapest (Hungary)

EAMT 2005 – 10th Annual Conference of the European Association for Machine Translation. This meeting is the tenth in a series of regular events acting as a forum for the exchange of ideas concerning all aspects of Machine Translation and computer-aids/tools for translator.

Information: Gábor Prószéky: proszeky@morphologic.hu

Web: <http://www.eamt.org/eamt2005/>

May 30 – June 1 (2005) – Düsseldorf (Germany)

4th Conference on Languages & International Business Communication: “Language & Business 2005”. In times of ever-increasing internationalisation of markets and cross-border connections, the demands are also growing on companies and their employees. Cases have recently arisen, where important negotiations and even large-scale mergers have collapsed as a result of linguistic and cultural differences, which has placed renewed emphasis on the importance of these two aspects for business success. What initially perhaps only held true for those in top management positions, now counts for many different organisations and an ever-increasing number of employees: Intercultural communication and linguistic competence have become the decisive pre-requisites for today’s business world.

Information: Web: <http://www.sprachen-beruf.com/>

June 2-5 (2005) – Voss (Norway)

2nd Annual Conference of the European Association for Language Testing and Assessment (EALTA): “Professionalism in Language Assessment”. The importance of the testing and assessment of languages is undisputed. A great responsibility lies on the shoulders of those involved in the field. Yet, can we be sure that this testing and assessment is carried out in a truly professional way? Any profession places demands, for example on training and a code of good practice. This conference will take up central issues underlying the professionalism in our field.

Information: Jayanti Banerjee, European Association for Language Testing and Assessment (EALTA), Department of Linguistics and English Language, Lancaster University, Bowland College, Lancaster University LA1 4YT, UK.

Fax: +44 (0) 1524 843085 E-mail: ealta@lancaster.ac.uk

Web: <http://www.ealta.eu.org/conference/2005/introduction.htm>

June 6-10 (2005) – Dourdan (France)

TALN 2005: “Traitement Automatique des Langues Naturelles”. Thèmes: Lexique / Morphologie / Syntaxe / Sémantique / Pragmatique / Discours / Analyse de phrase, de texte / Génération / Résumé / Dialogue / Traduction automatique / Approches logiques, symboliques et statistiques / Approches du TAL pour la recherche d’information / Approches cognitives pour le TAL / Architectures pour le TAL / Apprentissage pour le TAL . La langue officielle de la conférence est le français.

Information: E-mail: taln05@limsi.fr Web: <http://taln.limsi.fr/site/>

June 9-12 (2005) – Stockholm (Sweden)

Collaboration Scientifique Internationale sur “Le Français parlé des médias”. Orientations et mots-clés: organisation et traitement de corpus oraux des médias ; langue et communication de la télévision et de la radio : analyse structurale, argumentative et interactionnelle ; registres (variations diaphasiques), genres ; langue parlée du théâtre et du film ; analyse sociocritique du champ médiatique. Les recherches scientifiques sur la langue parlée, on le sait, ont longtemps souffert d'un retard regrettable sur les études des textes écrits. Depuis quelques décennies, pour ce qui est du français, la situation a radicalement changé: de nombreuses équipes de recherche, dans les pays francophones surtout, profitent des outils modernes pour saisir, traiter et analyser des données orales.

Information: E-mail: fpmsymp@congrex.se

Web: <http://www.paultenhave.nl/Stockholm2005.htm>

June 9-12 (2005) – Reykjavik (Iceland)

Nordterm 2005: “**Ord vs. termer**”. Det blir holdt 27 foredrag på konferansen. Konferancespråk: Skandinavisk (dansk/norsk/svensk).

Information: Web: <http://ismal.hi.is/Nordterm2005-skand.htm>

June 11-16 (2005) – Suitia (Finland)

Research Course: “**Reference and Referencial Form in Interactional Linguistics**”. The purpose of this research training course is to bring together leading scholars and Ph.D. students and researchers in the early stages of their careers from the Nordic countries and Estonia in order to discuss the latest theoretical and methodological developments concerning the topic of reference and referential form from the perspective of interactional linguistics.

Information: Ritva Laury: laury@ling.helsinki.fi ; Kari Pitkänen: kari.pitkanen@tut.fi ; Päivi Juvonen: juvonon@ling.su.se Web: <http://www.ling.helsinki.fi/laitos/NORFA05/>

June 16-17 (2005) – Nancy (France)

1er Colloque International: “**Langues et relations de service: identités, interactions, formations**”. Ce colloque permettra d'actualiser les connaissances sur la communication interculturelle et plus particulièrement sur cette catégorie d'interaction primordiale: les relations de service. Thèmes: les pratiques et les stratégies de communication / la compétence socioculturelle et plurilingue / l'échec pragmatique / la communication non-verbale / les rôles, les représentations, et attitudes dans les relations de service / les approches pédagogiques des métiers d'accueil et les formations institutionnelles.

Information: CRAPEL, Université Nancy 2, 3 place Godefroi de Bouillon, F-54015 Nancy Cedex, France. E-mail: crapel@univ-nancy2.fr
Web: http://www.univ-nancy2.fr/recherche/actualites/crapel_juin05.html

June 23-25 (2005) – Amsterdam (The Netherlands)

ICLAVE 2005 – 3rd International Conference on Language Variation in Europe. A biannual meeting addressing any aspect of linguistic variation observed in languages spoken in present-day Europe. The conference is intended to provide a platform for every scholar interested in issues related to this topic, be it as a historical linguist, a sociolinguist, a specialist in grammatical theory, a dialectologist, a psycholinguist or from any other point of view. Conference language: English.

Information: ICLAVE 3, Amsterdam 2005, Meertens Instituut (KNAW), Postbus 94264, NL-090 GG Amsterdam, Netherlands. Tel.: +31 (0)20 462 8500 Fax: +31 (0)20 462 8555
E-mail: iclave3@meertens.knaw.nl Web: <http://www.iclave.org/>

June 23-25 (2005) – Pécs (Hungary)

International Conference on Interdisciplinary Aspects of Translation and Interpreting. The conference will be organised around the following themes: Theory of Translation and Interpreting / Practice of Translation and Interpreting / Computer-Assisted Translation / Internet and Translation / Language Policy / Corporate Communication / Intercultural Communication / Languages for Specific Purposes / Specialized Lexicography / Terminology / The Bologna Process (plans and experience).

Information: E-mail: konfreg@ktk.pte.hu
Web: <http://www.ktk.pte.hu/translkonf>

June 29 – July 1 (2005) – Sèvre (France)

Colloque FIPF 2005: “Didactiques et convergences des langues et des cultures”. La langue française et les cultures francophones : un univers à déployer, un outil pour enseigner... La diversité des pratiques constitue un défi au carrefour de nombreuses autres langues et cultures. Thèmes: Le français par rapport aux autres langues dans l'enseignement • De la diversité culturelle aux pratiques didactiques • Enseignements des littératures de langue française • Les médias: apports et rôles pour l'enseignement du/en français.

Information: FIPF, au CIEP, "Colloque 2005", 1 av Léon Journault, F-92310 Sèvres, France. Tel.: +33 (0)1 46 26 53 16 Fax: +33 (0)1 46 26 81 69

E-mail: colloque2005@fipf.org Web: <http://www.fipf.org/colloque2005.htm>

July 1-4 (2005) – Cardiff (UK)

7th Biennial IAFL Conference on Forensic Linguistics/Language and Law. Topics: forensic linguistics/language and law, in both civil and criminal contexts, including: • courtroom discourse/police interviews • courtroom interpreting and translating • the readability/ comprehensibility of legal documents • the analysis/interpretation of legal texts • the comprehensibility of the police caution issued to suspects • interviews with children in the legal system • the communicative challenges of ‘vulnerable’ witnesses • the use of linguistic evidence in court • authorship/speaker identification • the teaching/testing of forensic linguistics/language and law.

Information: Dr Janet Cotterill, Centre for Language and Communication, Cardiff University, PO Box 94 Cardiff, CF10 3XB United Kingdom.

Tel: +44 (0)2920 876393 Fax: +44 (0)2920 874242 E-mail: cotterillj@cf.ac.uk

Web: <http://www.cardiff.ac.uk/encap/clcr/iaflconference/>

July 1-15 (2005) – Indianapolis, IN (USA)

Sixth Annual English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Institute. An intensive two-week institute to introduce ESL practitioners and English language educators to ESP: • Two courses: Linguistics T600: Issues in ESP (3 credit hours) / English G541: Materials Development for TESOL (4 credit hours). • Workshops • Guest speakers from Indiana companies addressing workplace issues • Presentations by ESL professionals.

Information: The Indiana Center for Intercultural Communication (ICIC).

Tel: +1 (317) 274-2555 E-mail: icic@iupui.edu

Web: <http://www.iupui.edu/~icic/events.html>

July 4-14 (2005) – Barcelona (Spain)

V Escuela Internacional de Verano de Terminología & V Simposio Internacional de Terminología: Terminología y derecho: complejidad de la comunicación multilingüe. La *Escuela Internacional de Verano de Terminología* es un curso de introducción a la terminología destinado a estudiantes y jóvenes investigadores interesados en esta disciplina científica. El *Simposio Internacional de Verano de Terminología* es un encuentro interdisciplinario de especialistas interesados en terminología, en el que se debaten temas monográficos. En esta quinta edición, el tema del simposio versará sobre el “lenguaje del mundo jurídico”.

Information: Institut Universitari de Lingüística Aplicada, La Rambla 30-32, E-08002 Barcelona, Spain. Tel.: +34 935 422 322 Fax: +34 935 422 321

E-mail: iulaterm.activitats@upf.edu Web: <http://www.iula.upf/ee>

July 5-9 (2005) - Boulogne-sur-Mer (France)

International conference: Clarity and Obscurity in Legal Language. This international conference will explore how the various linguistic disciplines can help us understand the nature of legal language - both oral and written - and how it might be improved and clarified. The conference will present and examine the latest research and theories, along with practical guidance on how to avoid obscurity. It will also review international efforts and projects to make legal language more understandable.

Information: Conference secretariat: Catherine Wadoux et Monique Random, 17, rue du Puits d'Amour, B.P. 751, F-62321 Boulogne-sur-Mer Cédex, France.

Tel.: +33 (0)3.21.99.43.00 Fax: +33 (0)3.21.99.43.91

E-mail: clarity2005@univ-littoral.fr

Web: <http://www.univ-littoral.fr/confinter2.htm>

July 6-10 (2005) – Ascona (Switzerland)

Tailoring Health Messagens: Bridging the Gap between Social and Humanistic Perspectives on Health Communication. The conference will assess theoretical and practical concerns by examining the content, structure, delivery and evaluation of tailored health messages from an interdisciplinary perspective.

Information: Conference Coordinator, Bernadette Toti, Health Care Communication Laboratory, University of Lugano, Via Giuseppe Buffi 13, CH-6904 Lugano, Switzerland

E-mail: bernadette.toti@lu.unisi.ch Tel: +41 (0)58 666 4511

Web: <http://www.theme.usilu.net>

July 7-9 (2005) – Cardiff (UK)

Language and Global Communication (LGC) Conference 2005. The conference will bring together scholars working with language and global communication across all fields of enquiry. Anticipating innovative, challenging contributions, we welcome proposals from sociolinguistics, linguistics, communication, journalism, semiotics, cultural theory and the social sciences. This is an interdisciplinary conference covering, but not limited to, such areas as: Global media • Shifting flows of communication • Global and minority languages • Policy and practices of global institutions and organisations • Diaspora • Global tourism • Multimodality and global communication • Colonisation and appropriation of communicative forms • Global health • Global governance .

Information: E-mail: lgc2005@cf.ac.uk

Web: <http://www.global.cf.ac.uk/lgc2005/>

July 14-16 (2005) – Castellón (Spain)

ICIL 2005 – 2nd International Conference on Internet and Language. ICIL is intended as a forum of discussion for linguists and researchers in areas such as Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, Literary Studies or Translation, among other disciplines, who are involved in the use or study of Internet, either as a research or teaching resource or as a linguistic phenomenon in itself. Topics: Internet and Literary Studies • Internet and Translation • Internet and Language Use / Linguistics and digital genres • Internet and Languages for Specific Purposes • Internet and Foreign Language Teaching / Second Language Acquisition. Conference languages: English, Spanish and Catalan.

Information: Santiago Posteguillo: postegui@fil.uji.es or

María José Esteve: resteve@fil.uji.es

Web: <http://www3.uji.es/~postegui/indexcongreso.htm>

July 14-17 (2005) – Birmingham (UK)

Corpus Linguistics 2005. Topics: Phraseology • Critical Discourse Analysis • Translation • Pedagogical applications of corpora • Corpora, dictionaries and grammar • Corpus compilation • Software development.

Information: Dr Pernilla Danielsson, Centre for Corpus Research, School of Humanities, University of Birmingham, Edgbaston, B15 2TT, UK.

Tel: +44 (0)121 414 56 88 Fax: +44 (0)121 414 60 53

Web: <http://www.corpus.bham.ac.uk/conference/>

July 16 (2005) – Sydney (Australia)

1st Computational Systemic Functional Grammar Conference. Topics: *Praxis*: Language technology in the service of community needs • Experience as linguists in NLP projects. *Tools & resources*: Development and provision of specific linguistic resources • Descriptions of grammar dialects • Computational tools for linguistic research • Tools for SFG markup • Tools for SFG parsing. *Applications*: Document Classification • Q&A • Discourse analysis • Text generation systems • Machine Translation • Specialised Semantic Processing, e.g. Sentiment, Persuasion, etc.

Information: E-mail: csfg05@it.usyd.edu.au

Web: <http://www.it.usyd.edu.au/~rcdmnl/csfgc.html>

July 17-22 (2005) – Seoul (Korea)

9th International Cognitive Linguistics Conference: “Language, Mind and Brain”. Topics: cognitive linguistics • functional linguistics • discourse studies • corpus linguistics • language processing.

Information: Jeong-Hwa Lee (Korea Digital University).

E-mail: jeonglee@iclc2005.org

Web: <http://www.iclc2005.org/>

July 20-22 (2005) – Ottawa (Canada)

LTRC 27 – 27th Language Testing Research Colloquium. Theme: “Challenges, issues, impacts: The interplay of research and language testing practice”.

Information: E-mail: LTRC@carleton.ca

Web: <http://www.carleton.ca/ltrc/>

July 21-23 (2005) – West Lafayette, IN (USA)

11th Annual Conference of the International Association for World Englishes (IAWE): “The Multiple Expressions of World Englishes”. Since its inception, the world Englishes perspective on the spread of English worldwide (and such related academic enterprises as applied linguistics, English studies, creolistics, sociolinguistics, and literatures in English) has been multidisciplinary and pluralistic. The interests of scholars working in this field span a wide range of interests from linguistic theory to discourse analysis, from literary studies to corpus linguistics, from critical linguistics to varieties-based descriptions, and from the sociology of language to language and gender.

Information: Margie Berns, Conference Chair, Purdue University, Indiana, USA.

E-mail: mberns@sla.purdue.edu

Web: <http://www.moussu.net/iawe2005/>

July 24-29 (2005) – Madison, Wisconsin (USA)

AILA 2005 – 14th World Congress of Applied Linguistics: “The Future is Now”. Presentations at the World Congress will bring together applied linguists from diverse communities and from varied intellectual traditions to explore the future. The theme of the conference is “The Future is Now” – a future where language is a means to express ideas that were unthinkable, to cross boundaries that seemed to be unbridgeable, and to share our local realities with people who live continents away.

Information: Robert Ranieri, American Association for Applied Linguistics, 3416 Primm Lane, Birmingham, Alabama 35216, USA. Tel.: +1 205-824-7700

E-mail: robert1@primemanagement.net

Web: <http://www.aila2005.org>

July 24-29 (2005) – Madison, Wisconsin (USA)

Symposium (at AILA 2005): Language, Ecological Harmony and the Earth Charter. This symposium will be held by the Language and Ecology Scientific Commission at the AILA World Congress of Applied Linguistics. The aim of the symposium is to find genuinely alternative discourses which can contribute to ecological harmony, and to examine critically whether the discourses woven into the Earth Charter can provide such alternatives.

Information: Arran Stibbe, Founder, Centre for Language and Ecology, 1 Sciennes House place #2F3, Edinburgh EH9 1NN, UK. E-mail: admin@ecoling.net

Web: <http://www.ecoling.net/aila2005.html>

July 25 – August 6 (2005) – Cluj-Napoca (Romania)

EuroLAN Summer School 2005: “The Multilingual Web: Resources, Technologies and Prospects”. Topics: • creation and exploitation of multi-lingual resources, including corpora, lexicons, wordnets, and ontologies • multi-lingual alignment of syntax, semantics, discourse, and other language phenomena • annotation of various phenomena in multiple languages, including time annotations, semantics, anaphora • annotation transfer, enabling annotation of new languages using information generated by annotation modules for English etc. • cross-lingual applications, including machine translation, information retrieval, extraction and summarization, document indexing, etc. • the multi-lingual "knowledge web", its philosophy, state of the art, needs, and vision for the future.

Information: Prof. Dr. Dan Cristea, "Alexandru Ioan Cuza" University of Iasi, Faculty of Computer Science, 16, Berthelot St., 700483 - Iasi, Romania.

Tel: +40.232.201542 Fax: +40.232.201490 E-mail: dchristea@infoiasi.ro

Web: <http://www.cs.ubbcluj.ro/eurolan2005/>

August 2-4 (2005) – Kota Kinabalu, Sabah (Malaysia)

10th International Conference on Translation: “Translation and the Globalisation of Knowledge”. Topics: Translation and Knowledge Transfer • The Translator’s Craft • Translation and the Publishing Industry • Translation in Teaching and Learning • Translation and the Meeting of Cultures • Philosophy and Religion in Translated Works • Translation in Multicultural Societies • Translation for the Underprivileged • Machine Translation.

Information: Tel.: (+6) 088 32 02 38 or (+6) 088 43 57 06 Fax: (+6) 088 43 57 08

E-mail: sem_ling@ums.edu.my or on888@streamyx.com

Web: http://www.ums.edu.my/ppib/seminar_translation.htm

August 2-7 (2005) – Tampere (Finland)

FIT 2005 - XVII World Congress of the International Federation of Translators: “Rights on!”. Rights on! reminds us of translators' right to be seen and recognized as key players in the multilingual communication environment of today's globally converging world. Gathering translators and interpreters from all continents, the FIT 2005 Congress offers a palette of topical issues and themes, opportunities for sharing and networking with colleagues, as well as memorable social events and experiences.

Information: FIT 2005 Congress, Tampere Conference Service Ltd, Hämeenkatu 13 B, FI-33100 Tampere, Finland. Tel. +358-3-366 4400 Fax: +358-3-222 6440
E-mail: fit2005@tampereconference.fi Web: <http://www.fit2005.org/>

August 8-19 (2005) – Edinburgh, Scotland (UK)

ESSLLI 2005 – 17th European Summer School in Logic, Language and Information. The main focus of ESSLLI is on the interface between linguistics, logic and computation. The school has developed into an important meeting place and forum for discussion for students, researchers and IT professionals interested in the interdisciplinary study of Logic, Language and Information.

Information: E-mail: esslli@macs.hw.ac.uk
Web: <http://www.macs.hw.ac.uk/esslli05/>

August 16-19 (2005) – Copenhagen (Denmark)

TKE 2005 - 7th International conference on Terminology and Knowledge Engineering: “Terminology and Content Development”. The theme of TKE 2005 will be ‘terminological methods in content development with special emphasis on semantic interoperability and standardization’. Topics: Methodology standardization • Semantic interoperability under the requirements of multilinguality & multimodality • Metadata • Data elements and data categories • Information extraction and retrieval • Content development • Content maintenance and updating mechanisms • Ontologies • Concept systems • Classification systems & thesauri /Taxonomies.

Information: TKE2005. Local Organizers: Bodil Nistrup Madsen and Hanne Erdman Thomsen, Centre for Terminological Ontologies, Department of Computational Linguistics, Copenhagen Business School, Bernhard Bangs Allé 17B, DK-2000 Frederiksberg, Denmark. E-mail: tke2005@cbs.dk Web: <http://www.cbs.dk/tke2005>

August 25-27 (2005) – Kouvola (Finland)

MultiMeDialectTrans 2005 - International Conference on the Translation of Dialects in Multimedia. The conference will concentrate on a complex, interdisciplinary subject area involving linguistics, communication studies, film studies and translation studies as well as other areas of cultural studies, sociology and other disciplines. Language and communication forms, knowledge and thoughts are all influenced by communication media. The main topics to be covered at the conference include dubbing films in dialect and linguistic varieties; cultural transfer processes in the characteristics of dialects; archaisms, regionalisms, varieties in the continuum between dialect and standard language, also in multimedia, as well as associated transfer problems.

Information: Prof. Dr. Irmeli Helin, MultiMeDialectTrans 2005, University of Helsinki, Department of Translation Studies, PO Box 94, FI-45101 Kouvola, Finland.
Tel.: +358 5 8252202 Fax: +358 5 8252251 E-mail: irmeli.helin@helsinki.fi
Web: http://rosetta.helsinki.fi/tutkimus/multimedialecttrans_2005.htm

August 26-30 (2005) – Helsinki (Finland)

6th International Conference of The Science of Aphasia (SoA) 2005. The SoA conferences are intended to bring together established and junior scientists working in the multidisciplinary field of neurolinguistics and language neuroscience, both normal function and disorders. In the year 2005, the 6th SoA conference focuses on recovery and treatment of aphasia, from basic neuroscience to clinic.

Information: E-mail: aphasia@neuro.hut.fi

Web: <http://www.soa-online.com/>

August 29 – September 2 (2005) – Bergamo (Italy)

LSP2005 - 15th European Symposium on Language for Special Purposes: “New Trends in Specialized Discourse”. Themes of the Conference: • Linguistic features of specialized discourse • Textual and genre analysis of specialized discourse • Multilingualism and cultural aspects of specialized communication • Cognitive aspects of specialized languages • Pedagogical aspects of LSP • The translation of specialized discourse • LSP and multimedia communication • Terminology and terminography • Diachronic perspectives on LSP.

Information: LSP2005, CFP, Università di Bergamo, Via Salvecchio 19, I-24129 Bergamo, Italy Tel. +39.035.2052.260 Fax: +39.035.2052.614

E-mail: lsp2005@unibg.it

Web: <http://www.unibg.it/cerlis>

September 1-3 (2005) – Helsinki (Finland)

Bi- and Multilingual Universities – Challenges and Future Prospects. Main objective: to discuss and highlight research and to exchange experiences on bi- and multilingual higher education, in particular on factors that promote and inhibit it. Core issues: • Future scenarios for multilingual higher education • English - threat or opportunity? • How does the EU foresee the future for multilingualism in Europe • The role of Language Centers and new technologies in supporting multilingual instruction • Creating and implementing multilingual policies • Designing and assuring good practice of multilingual higher education • The impact of globalisation on multilingual higher education.

Information: Congress Secretariat Bilingual2005, Ms. Riina Johansson, University of Helsinki, Palmenia Centre for Continuing Education, P.O. Box 58 (Nilsiäntie 3), FIN-00014 University of Helsinki, Finland. Fax. +358-9-191 54135

E-mail: bilingual2005@helsinki.fi

Web: www.palmenia.helsinki.fi/congress/bilingual2005

September 7-11 (2005) – Lodz (Poland)

5th International Summer School in Forensic Linguistic Analysis. The School addresses subjects within the broadly defined discipline of forensic linguistics, including the structure of legal language, forensic authorship attribution, copyright issues, plagiarism and its detection, and forensic phonetics. A conference meant to facilitate integration between scholars from the former Eastern Bloc countries and elsewhere in Europe and the world.

Information: The Organisers' postal address is: University of Lodz, Department of English Language, Al. Kościuszki 65, 90-514 Lodz, Poland.

Tel.: (#48) 42 6655220 Fax: (#48) 42 6655221 E-mail: linglex@uni.lodz.pl

Web: <http://ia.uni.lodz.pl/linglex/school.htm>

September 8-10 (2005) – Fribourg and Biel (Switzerland)

4th International Conference on Third Language Acquisition and Multilingualism. Topics: plurilingual education and immersion • language policies • educational language policies • language concepts • integrated didactics • languages and economics • language acquisition in plurilingual contexts • standards, assessment and evaluation • plurilingualism and higher education • neurolinguistics • multilingualism and emotions • mobility and migration • language and cultures • teacher training in multilingual contexts • translation and mediation • language and globalisation • etc..

Information: Conference office: Doris Penot, IRDP Neuchâtel: doris.penot@ne.ch

Web: <http://www.irdp.ch/l3>

September 8-10 (2005) – Brussels (Belgium)

Tèmes Journées scientifiques du réseau Lexicologie Terminologie Traduction (LTT): « Mots, termes et contextes ». Le réseau de chercheurs Lexicologie, terminologie et traduction de l'agence universitaire de la Francophonie (AUF) organise ses 7èmes Journées scientifiques. Ces Journées, organisées en collaboration avec l'Institut supérieur de traducteurs et interprètes (ISTI) seront précédées, les 6 et 7 septembre, de Journées de formation « Informatique et contextes ».

Information: Philippe Thoiron, Coordonnateur du réseau LTT, CRTT, Université Lumière Lyon 2, 86, rue Pasteur, F-69365 LYON Cedex 07, France.

Tel.:+33 4 7869 7213 Fax: +33 4 7272 0946. E-mail: Philippe.Thoiron@univ-lyon2.fr ou info@ltt.auf.org Web: <http://www.ltt.auf.org/brux.html>

September 12-14 (2005) – Lodz (Poland)

Language and the Law 2005: East meets West. Department of English Language at the University of Lodz will hold an international conference devoted to language and the law. Topics: • analysis of legal discourse • structure and semantics of statutes and legal instruments • legal terminology • legal translation • speech style in the courtroom • social organisation of conversation in legal settings • structure of cross-examination • sociopragmatic aspects of interpreting in court • comprehensibility of legal instruments • language and disadvantage before the law • linguistic minorities and linguistic human rights • forensic linguistics • trade name and domain name disputes.

Information: University of Lodz, Department of English Language, Al. Kościuszki 65, 90-514 Lodz, Poland. Tel.: (#48) 42 6655220 Fax: (#48) 42 6655221

E-mail: linglex@uni.lodz.pl Web: <http://ia.uni.lodz.pl/linglex/>

September 12-14 (2005) – Leeds (UK)

Language in the Media: representations, identities, ideologies. It is not uncommon to hear academic linguists bemoaning the mis-representation of language whenever linguistic issues are taken up by the media. Ironically, however, we have little systematic understanding of the ways in which language, discourse and communication are actually dealt with in... Topics: • Standard languages and language standards • Language acquisition and language teaching • Multilingualism and cross-cultural communication • Language and education • Language and technology • Language and communication in professional contexts.

Information: Susan Lacey, Conference Office, University House, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT. Tel: +44 (0)113 343 6106 E-mail: s.lacey@leeds.ac.uk

Web: <http://www.leeds.ac.uk/linguistics/conferenceIX04.html>

September 15-17 (2005) – Lorient (France)

4èmes Journées de la Linguistique de Corpus. Ces 4èmes Journées de Linguistique de Corpus visent à promouvoir le développement de la linguistique de corpus en France. Thèmes: • la lexicologie et lexicographie, mono- et bilingues • la lexicométrie • la terminologie • la traductologie • l'analyse du discours • la linguistique appliquée.

Information: Journée "Linguistique de corpus", Geoffrey Williams, Dép. LEA, U.F.R. Lettres et Sciences Humaines, 4 rue Jean Zay, BP 92116, F-56321 Lorient Cedex, France. E-mail: Geoffrey.Williams@univ-ubs.fr Web: www.univ-ubs.fr/crelic/journees2005.htm

September 16-19 (2005) – Shanghai (China)

3rd International Conference in Contrastive Semantics and Pragmatics. Aim: to bring together various aspects of research in semantics and pragmatics, based on, or otherwise pertaining to, linguistic constructions from at least two different languages.

Information: Prof. Shu Dingfang: jfl@shisu.edu.cn Web: <http://wyxy.chinajournal.net.cn>

September 17-18 (2005) – Rieti (Italy)

International Conference on “Translation Voices, Translating Regions: Theory and Practice in the Translation of Regionalised Voices”. This conference aims to explore the question of practices and theories in the translation of marginal voices, not only in traditional literature, but also in film dubbing, a process which is particularly strong in the French and Italian tradition of the movie industry. Themes: Dubbing and dialect • Regionalised voices in translation • Languages of minorities and their translation.

Information: Federico Federici, Department of French, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK. Tel.: +44 (0)113 368 0113 Fax: +44 (0)113 343 3477
E-mail: f.federici@leeds.ac.uk Web: <http://www.leeds.ac.uk/translatingvoices/>

September 22-24 (2005) – Koblenz (Germany)

GAL-Tagung 2005: “Profession & Kommunikation”. Themenbereich: • Textdesign und Textwirkung in der massenmedialen Kommunikation • Technikkommunikation (TK) • Kommunikation in virtuellen Arbeits- und Lernkontexten • Kommunikation in Organisationen • Gesundheits-kommunikation • Linguistisches Monitoring der juristischen Experten-Laien-Kommunikation.

Information: Universität Koblenz-Landau, Campus Koblenz, Universitätsstraße 1, D-56070 Koblenz, Germany. Tel.: +49 0261/287-2003 E-mail: gal05@uni-koblenz.de
Web : <http://www.uni-koblenz.de/~gal05/>

September 30 – October 1 (2005) – Moscow (Russia)

30th Annual Conference of the International Association Language and Business (IALB): “Communication Services in the Context of Global Intercultural Exchange”. The IALB Conference deals with the intercultural aspects of multilingual communication services within the framework of industrial and commercial globalisation, i.e. the increasing integration of national economies, in particular due to trade and the flow of capital, but also to the ever increasing migration and technological development across national borders and even from continent to continent.

Information: Dr. Gudrun Jerschow, Tagung IVSW, Humboldt-Universität Berlin Philosophische Fakultät II, Institut für Slawistik, Unter den Linden 6, D-10099 Berlin, Germany. Fax: +49-30-20935171 E-mail: gudrun.jerschow@rz.hu-berlin.de
Web: http://www.ialb.net/inhalte/ialb_conferences_en.htm

September 30 – October 1 (2005) – Perpignan (France)

Colloque: “L’école: instrument de sauvetage des langues menacées”. L’objectif de ce colloque sera d’évaluer l’impact réel du milieu scolaire dans une politique de normalisation linguistique, sa capacité ou non à assurer la survie d’une langue menacée.

Information: Christian Lagarde, Université de Perpignan, 52, avenue Paul Alduy, F-66860 Perpignan Cedex, France. E-mail: lagarde@univ-perp.fr

Web: <http://www.univ-perp.fr/lsh/rch/crlaup/>

October 3-5 (2005) – Cáceres (Spain)

4th AELFE Conference: “Languages for Specific Purposes and the New European Framework: Academic and Professional Context”.

Information: Alejandro Curado Fuentes, IV Congreso Internacional de AELFE, Dpto. de Lengua Inglesa, Escuela Politécnica, Avda. Universidad, S / N, Universidad de Extremadura, E-10071 Cáceres, Spain. Tel: +34-927-25 72 35 Fax: +34-927-25 72 03 E-mail: acurado@unex.es Web: <http://cum.unex.es/congresoaelfe05/>

October 6 (2005) – Copenhagen (Denmark)

Kommunikations- og sprogforum 2005. Arrangementet har status som en stor og vigtig begivenhed i Danmark inden for kommunikation og fagsprog. Det er her du møder tidligere, nuværende og kommende kolleger; netværker; hører de mest spændende, professionelle og underholdende oplæg fra førende eksperter, teoretikere og praktikere.

Information: Forbundet Kommunikation og Sprog (KS) og Dansk Selskab for Fagsprog og Fagkommunikation (DSFF), Skindergade 45-47, Postboks 2246, 1019 København K. Tel.: +45 3391 9800 Fax: +45 3391 6818

E-mail: info@kommunikationogsprog.dk eller dsff@cbs.dk

Web: www.kommunikationogsprog.dk og www.dsff-lsp.dk

October 23-25 (2005) – Delmenhorst (Germany)

5th Workshop on Language and Space: “Spatial Language and Dialogue”. Research on spatial language comprehension and production has been a hive of activity over the last few years. The purpose of this workshop is to bring researchers together working on spatial language and dialogue in order to share what is known about spatial language and dialogue and to facilitate moving the literature in this direction. Topics: spatial language and dialogue, human-human dialogue, human-robot dialogue and robot-robot dialogue.

Information: Thora Tenbrink, SFB/TR 8 Spatial Cognition, P.O.Box 330 440, D-28334 Bremen, Germany. E-mail: tenbrink@sfbtr8.uni-bremen.de

Web: <http://www.sfbtr8.uni-bremen.de/WoSLaD/WoSLaD.html>

October 27-29 (2005) – Bolzano (Italy)

Lesser Used Languages & Computer Linguistics. Topics: • Lexicography for lesser used languages • Terminology for lesser used languages • Computer linguistic applications for lesser used languages • Corpora for lesser used languages • Translation Memory Systems for lesser used languages • On-line dictionaries for lesser used languages • Internet and lesser used languages • Computer Assisted Language Learning and lesser used languages • Lesser used languages and LSP • Linguistic tools for lesser used languages.

Information: EURAC research, Viale Druso/Drususallee 1, I-39100 Bolzano/Bozen, Italy. Tel.: +39 0471 055 100 Fax: +39 0471 055 199 E-mail: language.law@eurac.edu

Web: www.eurac.edu/Org/LanguageLaw/Multilingualism/Projects/conference2005.htm

November 9-12 (2005) – Seattle, WA (USA)

45th Annual Conference of the American Translators Association (ATA). Over 150 educational sessions that cover topics in a variety of languages and specialties, offering something for everyone. A multitude of networking events that allow you to connect with over 1,200 colleagues from throughout the U.S. and around the world. An exhibit hall that brings companies together for you to see the latest products fitting your unique needs.

Information: American Translators Association, 225 Reinekers Lane, Suite 590, Alexandria, VA 22314, USA. Tel.: +1 (703) 683-6100 Fax: +1 (703) 683-6122
E-mail: ata@atanet.org Web: <http://www.atanet.org/conf2005/>

November 11-12 (2005) – Prague (Czech republic)

EXPOLINGUA Praha 2005. 15th International Fair for Languages, Cultures, and Education. Main themes of Expolingua Praha 2005 will be: • Mini language courses • Language tests • Studying and learning abroad • European Union programme • CALL Computer Assisted Language Learning.

Information: Kancelář Praha, P.O. Box 51, 130 11 Praha 3, Czech Republic.
Tel/Fax: +420-222 782 651 E-mail: praha@expolingua.com Web: www.expolingua.cz

November 11-13 (2005) – Baroda (India)

Asia in the Asian Consciousness: Translation and Cultural Transactions. Since this conference is being hosted in India, one stream will be devoted to India and its multiple traditions of translation. Following up on the theme of the London workshop, the theme of the second stream will be translation traditions in parts of Asia other than India. A third stream will bring these together by highlighting the representation of India and Indian writers in translations in other parts of Asia and beyond and the representation of Asia in translations into Indian languages.

Information: Dr Louise Edwards, Reader, China and Korea Centre, Faculty of Asian Studies, Convenor, ARC Asia Pacific Futures Research Network, The Australian National University, ACT 0200, Australia. Tel: 61+2 6125-3143 Fax: 61+2 6125-3144
E-mail: louise.edwards@anu.edu.au
Web: http://mailman.anu.edu.au/pipermail/asia_news/2005-February/000989.html

November 18-20 (2005) – Berlin (Germany)

EXPOLINGUA Berlin 2005. 18th International Fair for Languages and Cultures. Rich and varied programme of workshops and lectures. Main themes of Expolingua 2005 will be: • CALL Computer Assisted Language Learning • Mini language courses • Language tests • Studying and learning abroad • Foreign language professions.

Information: ICWE GmbH, EXPOLINGUA, Silke Lieber + Claudia Schweder, Leibnizstrasse 32, D-10625 Berlin, Germany. Tel.: +49 30327614-0 Fax: +49 303249833
E-mail: info@expolingua.com Web: <http://www.expolingua.com>

Our conference calendar may also be consulted on our web-site:

<http://www.dsff-lsp.dk/LSP/calend.htm>

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.

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