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Contents

EDITORIAL:

Comme toutes les sciences, la linguistique (y compris celle des LSP) évolue en fonction des besoins de la société, des découvertes dans d'autres domaines scientifiques, des nouveaux courants philosophiques etc.

A ceux qui pourraient en douter nous pouvons recommander la lecture de l'étude de Thorsten Fögen: "Antike Fachtexte / Ancient Technical Texts"[1] qui vient de paraître (2005) et qui traite de l'histoire de la communication professionnelle depuis l'antiquité jusqu'à nos jours.

Toujours est-il que ladite évolution, dans une société de plus en plus complexe, semble nécessiter qu'on sorte des cadres traditionnels des disciplines. Le mouvement se reflète dans ce qu'on appelle aujourd'hui : « Les sciences cognitives » définies comme « un ensemble de disciplines ayant un objet d'étude commun »[2].

La cognition, la mémoire, le langage, les émotions, l'attention, la vision par ex., sont autant d'activités cognitives abordées par ce domaine pluridisciplinaire en pleine expansion. « Les sciences cognitives forment ainsi un domaine de recherche qui se nourrit de multiples concepts et méthodes en franchissant les frontières classiques entre les disciplines »[2].

Or l'interdisciplinarité n'est pas inconnue en linguistique. Dans son livre mentionné ci-dessus, Thorsten Fögen énumère toute une série de branches (anciennes et récentes) de la linguistique (phonétique, statistique, sociolinguistique, psycho-linguistique, LSP, traductologie, entre autres) et les nombreuses sciences et méthodes scientifiques (non linguistiques) qu'elles mettent en jeu : physique, mathématiques, psychologie, médecine, sociologie, anthropologie, sciences culturelles, pour en citer quelques unes.

Mais le champ va en s'élargissant, et la linguistique va devoir s'engager dans des domaines, sinon nouveaux du moins différents de ceux qui ont préoccupé les linguistes jusqu'ici. Un exemple se trouve dans le présent numéro de la Revue : l'article de Bassey Antia (et al.) qui démontre que la morphosémantique a une utilité directe dans le domaine de la commercialisation des produits pharmaceutiques. La base théorique de l'étude est donc constituée par des modèles

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[1] Thorsten Fögen (2005): Antike Fachtexte / Ancient technical Texts. W de Gruyter, Berlin. ISBN 3-11-018122-3

[2] Association des Étudiants en Sciences Cognitives (ASCo), Bordeaux. http://www.sm.u-bordeaux2.fr/asco/Scico/def.html

théoriques de la linguistique et des LSP mais les auteurs sont conscients de l'importance d'une interdisciplinarité plus poussée.

Un autre exemple, lié également à la santé publique, est un problème du secteur alimentaire qui fera l'objet de notre prochain symposium au mois de novembre.

Il s'agit d'une part des noms donnés aux produits alimentaires par les producteurs et de la façon de laquelle ces noms sont décodés par les consommateurs, et d'autre part des allégations nutritionnelles et de santé pour informer le consommateur.

Les allégations sont des informations d'étiquetage, de présentation et de publicité qui annoncent au consommateur les caractéristiques d'une denrée alimentaire ou d'un composant alimentaire. C'est surtout le deuxième volet qui intéresse pour l'instant le Parlement Européen qui prépare une législation dont l'objectif est « d'éliminer les allégations nutritionnelles et de santé trompeuses ou peu compréhensibles »[3].

Les recherches qui s'imposent dans ce domaine complexe exigera une collaboration internationale étroite entre linguistes, psychologues, sociologues, spécialistes du droit du marketing, producteurs, autorités etc.

A Copenhague, un centre de recherche est justement en création à cet effet à l'Université commerciale (Copenhagen Business School).

<div align="center">Le comité de rédaction</div>

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[3] Étiquetage et emballage des produits : Allégation nutritionnelles et de santé pour informer le consommateur. Activités de l'Union européenne. Syntèse de la législation.
http://europa.eu/scadplus/leg/fr/lvb/l21095.htm

EDITORIAL:

Linguistics, along with Language for Special Purposes, as is the case for all sciences, evolves according to societal need, discoveries in other fields of science, new currents within philosophical thought, etc.

Should anyone be in any doubt about this, we recommend that they read the study entitled "Antike Fachtexte / Ancient Technical Texts"[1] by Thorsten Fögen published last year which deals with the history of professional communication from Antiquity to the present-day.

The above-mentioned evolution of an evermore complex society does, however, apparently require the breach of the established boundaries between the various scientific disciplines. This particular tendency is reflected in what is nowadays known as the "cognitive sciences" further defined as an "assembly of different scientific disciplines with a common object of research"[2].

Cognition, memory, language, emotions, attention, vision for instance, are all examples of cognitive activities that fall into the ambit of this multidisciplinary research area in full growth. "Cognitive sciences thus form a research area working with many concepts and methods across classic interdisciplinary lines"[2].

Interdisciplinary research is, however, not a new aspect of linguistics. In his book, Thorsten Fögen sets up a whole array of both old and new branches of language science such as phonetics, statistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, Language for Special Purposes, translation science, etc. All of which have brought into play an extensive array of non-linguistic scientific disciplines and methods such as physics, mathematics, medicine, psychology, sociology, anthropology and cultural sciences, just to name a few.

This particular field is undergoing continuous expansion, this means that linguistics will have to deal with areas that may, in themselves, not all be new although they might differ from those that linguists have dealt with hitherto. An example of this is to be found in this issue of our journal: Bassey Antia et al. demonstrate in their article the direct usefulness of morphosemantics in connection with the marketing of pharmaceutical products. Although the theoretical basis of this study consists of linguistics and LSP theoretical models, the authors are aware that it also indicates the growing necessity of the interdisciplinary approach.

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[1] Thorsten Fögen (2005): Antike Fachtexte / Ancient technical Texts. W de Gruyter, Berlin.
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[2] Association des Étudiants en Sciences Cognitives (ASCo), Bordeaux.
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There is another example that also concerns the area of public health; this is a problem of the food production sector which will be the subject of our next symposium to be held in November. The problem consists of the names given by food manufacturers to their products along with the way consumers decode these names on the one hand, and the claims made by the manufacturers on behalf of their products concerning their nutritional and health value on the other.

These claims or puffs are to be found on the labelling of, in the presentation of and in the publicity announcing the characteristics of foodstuffs or nutritional components thereof. This second aspect is of particular interest to the European Parliament which is in the process of drafting legislation designed to "eliminate those puffs concerning nutritional value and health that are either misleading or meaningless to the consumer"[3].

The research that is clearly necessary in this complex area will require the close international co-operation of linguists, psychologists, sociologists, experts in commercial law, manufacturers, authorities etc.

A research centre is in the process of being set up at the Copenhagen Business School for this very purpose.

The Editorial Board

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[3] Product labelling and packaging: Nutrition and health claims in consumer information. Activities of the European Union. Summaries of legislation.
http://europa.eu/scadplus/leg/en/lvb/l21095.htm

ARTICLES:

Big science, internationalisation, professionnalisation et fonction sociale de la science à travers l'analyse diachronique des recensions d'ouvrage[i]

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1. Introduction. La recension s'ouvrage: un texte de référence important et pourtant négligé

La recension d'ouvrage (RO) est un genre «partial» (Giannoni 2000: 357) ou «intermédiaire» au status marginal (Felber 2002). Ce n'est pas un genre de recherche dans le sens strict du terme ni un de ces genres «occultes» (Swales 1996) de la vie académique, comme le sont les lettres de recommandation ou les curricula vitae. La RO, bien au contraire, est un genre ouvert au public qui joue un rôle informatif et évaluatif important dans la vie académique. En effet, la section de RO dans les journaux scientifiques fournit un espace où les chercheurs peuvent participer à la conversation dans leurs disciplines en expliquant pourquoi, comment et jusqu'à quel point la recherche de leurs collègues contribue à la construction de la connaissance. En outre, en offrant un forum de discussion dans lequel la qualité et la valeur des nouvelles contributions dans un domaine particulier sont évaluées, les recensions d'ouvrage reflètent indirectement les relations sociales qui existent entre leurs participants: l'auteur du livre, d'une part, et l'auteur de la RO, d'autre part, c'est-à-dire entre l'évalué et l'évaluateur.

Il est évident cependant que malgré l'importance des RO dans la construction de la connaissance, celle-ci ne peut se comparer en aucun cas à l'importance du rôle de l'article de recherche (*research paper*) dans la construction du fait scientifique, bien que, comme le remarque Hyland (2000), les sciences sociales attribuent en général plus d'importance à la publication de livres que les sciences dites dures. Nous pourrions donc parler d'une limitation des RO comme textes de référence, ce qui explique pourquoi Hyland qualifia ce genre académique comme «an unsung

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genre» (2000: 43) qui n'a que très peu attiré l'attention des linguistes, linguistes appliqués, sociologues ou historiens de la science.

Plusieurs linguistes se sont cependant penchés sur l'examen des RO. Motta-Roth (1998), la pionnière dans ce domaine, a examiné la macro-structure des RO dans trois domaines différents (linguistique, économie, chimie). Cette étude fut suivit de plus amples recherches interdisciplinaires (Hyland 2000), d'analyses à orientation sociologique (Burgess 2000, Gea Valor 2000), diachronique (Salager-Meyer 2001), diachronique et à la fois interculturelle (Salager-Meyer et al. 2003), et finalement d'analyses d'un sous-genre de RO, à savoir de recension de logiciels (Giannoni 2002).

Toutes ces études ont, d'une façon ou d'une autre, souligné le fait que la RO représente le genre académique le plus «menaçant» qui existe puisque sa fonction est essentiellement et fondamentalement évaluative. Comme le dit Giannoni (2002:356) «Conflict is the common thread that holds the genre together». En outre, considérées d'un point de vue Hallidayien, ces études ont également mis en évidence que la RO remplit deux fonctions principales: 1) une fonction idéationnelle où l'auteur de la RO exprime son opinion au sujet de la qualité du livre qu'il évalue et 2) une fonction interpersonnelle qui se réfère à la démarche cognitive de l'auteur de la RO qui, à la recherche d'un équilibre entre éloges et critiques, doit tenter de ne pas trop directement menacer la face de l'auteur du livre.

2. Objectifs

Le but de cet article est d'examiner un certain nombre de variables ecdotiques[ii] (*cf. infra*) des RO publiées à deux époques différentes (à la fin du XIX° siècle et à la fin du XX° siècle) et écrites en français, langue qui, tout comme les RO, est quelque peu négligée dans le domaine de l'analyse du discours scientifique.

Les variables ecdotiques que nous examinons dans cet article concernent:

1) L'ouvrage recensé proprement dit: le genre de livre (s'agit-il d'un manuel, de mémoires de congrès, d'un ouvrage (co)-édité ou d'un ouvrage écrit par de «vrais auteurs»[iii]) et la langue dans laquelle est originellement rédigé le livre.

2) L'auteur de l'ouvrage recensé : la façon dont il(s) est/sont mentionné(s), leur nombre par livre, les informations professionnelles ou autres données à son/leur sujet, le type d'auteurs (s'agit-il d'un ou plusieurs «vrais auteurs» ou de (co)-éditeurs ?)

3) La RO : sa longueur et la présence de marqueurs de courtoisie

4) L'auteur de la RO: la façon dont il est mentionné et les renseignements professionnels ou autres données à son sujet.

3. Corpus et méthode

Nous avons sélectionné au hasard 100 RO de diverses revues médicales (voir appendice: Tableau 1,1), 50 RO de revues publiées entre 1890 et 1900 (Bloc A) et 50 RO de revues publiées entre 1990 et 2000 (Bloc B). Ces 100 RO représentent un total de 67.079 mots, les 50 RO du Bloc A comptant 50.831 mots et celles du Bloc B 16.248 mots. La taille du corpus que nous avons examiné surpasse largement les recommandations données par certains analystes du discours comme, par exemple, Paltridge (1997), Conrad (1999), Fox (1999) ou Henry et Roseberry (2001), ce qui nous permet de penser que l'échantillon de RO étudié est suffisamment important pour montrer tout au moins des tendances dans l'évolution des variables étudiées.

Pour mener à bien notre recherche, nous avons eu recours à l'analyse textuelle. Afin d'éviter le plus possible une lecture et une interprétation trop subjectives, et afin de donner plus de validité à nos résultats, les trois auteurs de cet article ont chacun lu séparément les 100 RO et ont comparé leurs résultats. Les divergences d'interprétation étaient minimes, et lorsqu'il y avait des cas épineux ou des divergences importantes quant à la lecture et à l'interprétation des textes, nous avons eu recours à un chercheur en médecine qui clarifia nos doutes.

Quant au plan méthodologique, nous avons tout d'abord compté le nombre de mots de chaque RO afin d'en comparer la longueur d'un bloc à l'autre. Puis nous avons enregistré dans chaque RO les données ecdotiques mentionnées *supra* (*cf.* «objectifs») dans le but de comparer leur fréquence d'un bloc à l'autre et à l'intérieur d'un même bloc. Ces données en main, nous avons évalué la signification des différences observées en appliquant le test de Chi au carré avec un niveau de probabilité de 0.5.

4. Résultats

4.1. Le livre recensé

4.1.1. Genres de livres

Dans les 2 périodes étudiées (voir appendice: Graphique 1), ce sont les monographies qui forment le groupe le plus important: 26 (52%) dans le Bloc A vs. 29 (58%) dans le Bloc B. Suivent les traités, les travaux de comité et les manuels dans le Bloc A, représentant chacun 12% du nombre total de livres recensés dans notre corpus du XIXº siècle. Dans le Bloc B arrive en seconde position un type de livre inexistant dans le Bloc A (tout au moins dans notre corpus), à savoir les actes/mémoires de congrès (7 au total, soit 14% du nombre total de RO étudiées dans le Bloc B.)

Finalement, la mention de la maison éditoriale n'apparaît que dans 72% des cas dans notre corpus du Bloc A, tandis qu'elle est systématiquement mentionnée dans tous les livres du Bloc B.

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4.1.2. Ouvrages «d'auteurs» vs. ouvrages (co)-édités

Il est intéressant de noter la relation inverse observée dans les 2 Blocs quant à la proportion entre les ouvrages d'auteurs (les livres écrits par un ou plusieurs «vrais» auteurs) et les ouvrages (co)-édités. En effet, dans le Bloc A (Graphique 2), le nombre de livres d' auteurs est plus de 4 fois supérieur à celui des livres (co)-édités (41 soit 82% vs. 9 soit 18%, p= .0001). Par contre, dans le Bloc B les livres (co)-édités surpassent en nombre les livres d' auteurs (29 soit 58% vs. 21 soit 42%) bien que la différence ne soit pas statistiquement significative. Cependant, si nous comparons ces données d'un Bloc à l'autre, la différence est significative tant en ce qui concerne le pourcentage de livres d'auteurs (82% dans le Bloc A vs. 42% dans le Bloc B, p = .0004) comme celui de livres (co)-édités (18% dans le Bloc A vs. 58% dans le Bloc B, p = .0001).

4.1.3. Langue d'origine des livres recensés

Dans le Bloc A les livres originellement écrits en français surpassent en nombre, et de très loin, les livres écrits en d'autres langues (Graphique 3). Ils représentent 82% du total de livres recensés dans notre échantillon de fin du XIX° siècle, alors qu'ils ne comptent que pour 36% du total de livres recensés dans notre échantillon de fin du XX° siècle (p = .0001). Dans le Bloc B, en effet, ce sont les livres écrits en **anglais** qui forment le groupe le plus important (56%), l'un d'eux étant en fait une traduction d'un livre originellement écrit en allemand. Par contre, nous n'avons enregistré que 2 (4%) livres écrits en anglais dans le Bloc A (p = .0001).

D'autres données quantitatives du Graphique 3 quant à la langue d'origine des livres recensés valent également la peine d'être soulignées:

1) Le fait que 8 livres du Bloc A (soit 16% du total de livres recensés dans notre échantillon de fin du XIX° siècle) sont des livres originellement écrits en d'autres langues: en allemand (4), en anglais (2), en italien (2) et un livre écrit en français, certes, mais traduit du suédois.

2) La situation est sensiblement différente dans le Bloc B où, outre les 28 livres originellement écrits en anglais, nous avons enregistré seulement 2 ouvrages écrits en une autre langue étrangère, 1 en italien et 1 en espagnol.

3) Finalement, très peu nombreuses dans les 2 Blocs sont les traductions en français de livres écrits dans d'autres langues. Elles ne représentent que 2% du total de livres recensés dans le Bloc A et 4% dans le Bloc B.

4.2. Sur l'auteur (ou les auteurs) des livres recensés

4.2.1. Identification de l'auteur ou des auteurs

Des 50 RO du Bloc A, 37 (74%) mentionnent le nom de/des auteur(s) ou de l'éditeur précédé de son/leur prénom (celui-ci étant indiqué soit en toutes lettres

soit par ses simples initiales), 6 (12%) n'indiquent que le nom de famille et 7 (14%) ne mentionnent ni le prénom ni le nom.

En revanche, dans toutes les RO du Bloc B est mentionné le nom complet de l'auteur/(co)-éditeur (ou des auteurs/(co)-éditeurs) du livre, précédé de ses/leurs prénoms, ceux-ci étant indiqués soit en toutes lettres soit par leurs simples initiales.

Quant aux renseignements institutionnels et autres détails personnels au sujet des auteurs des livres, dans les 2 Blocs ils sont toujours très brefs et apparaissent beaucoup plus souvent dans le texte même de la RO que directement après le titre de l'ouvrage.

4.2.2. Nombre d'auteurs par livre

En ce qui concerne le nombre d'auteurs par ouvrage (Graphique 4), dans le Bloc A 38 livres (76%) sont rédigés par un seul auteur vs. 12 (24%) dans le Bloc B (p = .0001). Une relation exactement inverse est enregistrée quant aux livres écrits par 2 auteurs ou plus : 12 livres (24%) dans le Bloc A vs. 38 (76%) dans le Bloc B (p=.0001). Quel que soit donc le nombre d'auteurs, les différences inter-Bloc sont donc toujours significatives.

Des comparaisons intra-Bloc montrent également que dans le Bloc A les livres écrits par un seul auteur sont significativement plus nombreux que ceux écrits par 2 auteurs ou plus (p = .0001). En revanche, dans le Bloc B les ouvrages rédigés par 2 ou 3 auteurs sont significativement plus nombreux que ceux écrits par un seul auteur (p = .0001) ou que ceux écrits par plus de 3 auteurs (p = .0013).

Finalement, pour ce qui est du nombre de (co)-éditeurs (Graphique 5), il est intéressant de remarquer que celui-ci a sensiblement augmenté d'un Bloc à l'autre. En effet, alors que la totalité des ouvrages édités dans le Bloc A l'étaient par un seul éditeur, 14 du Bloc B (48% du total d'ouvrages recensés dans le Bloc B) le sont par un seul éditeur, et 15 (52%) par plusieurs co-éditeurs.

4.3. Sur les recesions

4.3.1. Longueur des RO (Tableau 1,1)

Les RO du Bloc A sont presque 4 fois plus longues (presque 1.200 mots en moyenne) que celles du Bloc B (325 mots en moyenne). [iv]

4.3.2. Présence de marqueurs de courtoisie (Tableau 1,2)

Plus de la moitié des RO du Bloc A contiennent des marqueurs de courtoisie contre seulement 5 (10%) dans le Bloc B (p = .0001).

4.4. Sur l'auteur de la recension (Tableau 1,3)

Contrairement aux auteurs des RO du Bloc B dont les initiales des prénoms et les noms sont toujours indiqués, ceci n'est le cas que dans 27 RO (54%) du Bloc A.

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Dans le reste des cas, il est soit indiqué par ses initiales seulement (38% des cas) soit, mais très rarement, par son nom de famille (8% des cas).

Nous allons maintenant tenter d'interpréter les résultats exposés ci-dessus d'un point de vue socio-constructiviste, c'est à dire en les situant dans leur contexte socio-historique.

5. Discussion

Les résultats quantitatifs que nous venons d'exposer soulignent tous, d'une façon ou d'un autre, la croissante hyper spécialisation, professionnalisation et internationalisation de la science ainsi que l'accentuation du caractère social de l'activité scientifique à la fin du XX° siècle. Analysons les arguments qui soutiennent une telle assévération.

5.1. Hyper spécialisation et professionnalisation

Notre recherche a mis en évidence le fait que les RO publiées dans le Bloc A sont beaucoup plus longues (4 fois plus longues en moyenne) que celles publiées dans le Bloc B. Nous pensons qu'il y a deux facteurs principaux qui peuvent expliquer cette différence très marquante. Le premier est d'ordre rhétorique. En effet, au XIX siècle, l'auteur de la recension très fréquemment citait textuellement de longs passages du livre où étaient exposées les idées avec lesquelles il n'était pas d'accord, puis il expliquait de façon très détaillée les raisons pour lesquelles il était en désaccord avec ces idées.

Le second facteur qui expliquerait l'extension des RO à la fin du XIX siècle est d'ordre historico-contextuel. A travers le temps, en effet, les livres ont perdu de leur importance surtout dans le domaine de la science médicale et ont été remplacés par les articles de recherche expérimentale (Salager-Meyer 1998)[v]. Les RO ont donc peu à peu été reléguées à un second rang (elles apparaissent toujours à la fin des revues scientifiques, et ceci, soit dit en passant, quel que soit le domaine scientifique considéré) et l'espace qui leur est aujourd'hui consacré a donc fortement diminué par rapport à celui qu'elles occupaient à la fin du XIX° siècle. Nous pourrions rajouter à ceci le fait qu'il y a plus de «concurrents» aujourd'hui pour occuper les pages des revues qui, il est important de le mentionner, sont de plus en plus onéreuses.

Il est important de rappeler que c'est surtout à partir des années 1960 que le nombre de revues scientifiques (donc d'articles) augmenta de façon considérable (*cf.* note 2). Se référant précisément à l'inflation des revues scientifiques dans les années 1960, Gross et al. (2002: 29) affirment métaphoriquement: «It is a proliferation as startling as the overnight increase of bacteria in a petri dish». Or, qui dit article scientifique dit également professionnalisation et spécialisation de l'activité scientifique[vi].

Il ne faut pas oublier non plus que c'est au début du XX° siècle qu'apparaissent les spécialisations médicales et, à partir des années 1950, les «sous-spécialisations». Le cardiologue d'aujourd'hui, par exemple, n'est plus seulement un cardiologue, mais il est un spécialiste en électrophysiologie ou en échocardiographie. Le psychiatre n'est plus seulement un psychiatre, mais un spécialiste en psychiatrie pédiatrique, etc. Comme l'explique Régent (1992), chaque champ se subdivise en moyenne tous les 10 ans, donnant lieu à la création de nouvelles revues spécialisées dont au départ le lectorat et l'autorat coïncident à 100%, et plus les champs se fractionnent, plus ils ont besoin de revues spécialisées pour que les groupes restreints de (sous)-spécialistes puissent communiquer avec les groupes plus larges de spécialistes et de généralistes.

Il est intéressant de remarquer que notre résultat quant à la longueur des RO va de pair avec le résultat obtenu dans une de nos études antérieures sur l'analyse du discours médical écrit en anglais (Salager-Meyer 1997). En effet, dans cet article nous mettions en évidence le fait que les articles médicaux écrits au XIX° siècle étaient beaucoup plus longs que ceux écrits à la fin du XX° siècle. Nous pourrions également faire un parallèle entre notre résultat quant à la longueur des RO au XIX° et au XX° siècles et le fait que les phrases de la littérature scientifique écrite en anglais, français et allemand au XIX° siècle étaient beaucoup plus longues et complexes que celles de cette même littérature écrite au XX° siècle (Gross et al. 2002).

5.2. Internationalisation de l'activité scientifique

5.2.1. Langue originelle des ouvrages recensés

La prépondérance de RO de livres écrits dans des langues différentes du français dans le Bloc B (presque 60%) ne fait que souligner ce qui est aujourd'hui un lieu commun : que la science actuelle est un phénomène global dominé par les publications en langue anglaise, la *lingua franca* de la communication scientifique d'aujourd'hui. Comme l'exprime Halliday (1993), jamais dans l'histoire de la science une langue a t-elle autant dominé la communication scientifique.[vii]

Cette évolution linguistique va de pair avec celle observée par Gross et al (2002: 195) dans les articles scientifiques écrits en français dans le *Journal de Physique* qui, à la fin du XIX° siècle et au début du XX°, citaient principalement des sources non-anglophones (français, allemand), mais qui, dès les années 1970 commencèrent à citer des sources anglophones, une moyenne de 7 références sur 10 étant à des articles écrits en anglais. Carvalho et Vergara (1996, reporté dans Hemais 2001) et Navarro et Alcaraz Ariza (1997) font une remarque similaire lorsque les premiers affirment que 60% des références citées dans les articles de recherche écrits par des chercheurs brésiliens sont des sources nord-américaines, et les seconds que le nombre de références à des sources anglophones augmenta de 3% en 1920 à plus de 80% en 1995 dans les articles de recherche en dermatologie écrits en espagnol. Nous pourrions extrapoler de la dermatologie à toutes les autres spécialités médicales et, très certainement, à l'énorme majorité des autres disciplines, sauf peut-être, dans le domaine des humanités.

5.2.2. Genres de livres, auteurs, (co)-éditeurs et «pléiade d'auteurs»: la Big Science

D'autres résultats quantitatifs de notre étude soulignent également le caractère international de la science actuelle.

1) Le genre de livres recensés : Nos résultats quantitatifs montrent que nombreuses dans le Bloc B sont les RO de mémoires de congrès scientifiques, un genre absent de notre corpus du XIX° siècle. Il est intéressant de noter à cet égard que c'est à partir de la seconde moitié du XX° siècle que les chercheurs commencèrent à se référer aux mémoires de congrès dans leurs articles, et ceci quelle que soit la langue de publication (*cf.* Gross et al. 2002: 176).

2) Le nombre croissant d'auteurs par livre. Comme nos résultats quantitatifs l'indiquent aussi clairement, les livres écrits par un seul auteur sont aujourd'hui très rares. A ce sujet, nous ne pouvons nous empêcher de citer ici cette remarque pour le moins sarcastique d'un auteur d'une RO publiée en 1996. Se référant au nombre de collaborateurs dans un livre co-édité, il écrit: «Comme à l'accoutumée, l'ouvrage est le fruit d'une pléiade d'auteurs». Nous pourrions voir ici une allusion critique et quelque peu dénigrante à la *Big Science*, phénomène caractéristique de la science actuelle dont les abus sont de plus en plus dévoilés et dénoncés par certaines des plus prestigieuses revues médicales au monde, phénomène auquel les Anglo-saxons ont attribué la très explicite métaphore de *ghost and host authors* (Smith 1994, Mowatt et al. 2002, parmi tant d'autres).[viii]

En outre, ces «auteurs», comme nous l'avons vu, sont de plus en plus fréquemment des éditeurs ou des «co-éditeurs», c'est-à-dire qu'il s'agit d'un ou plusieurs chercheurs qui coordonnent la publication d'un livre dont les chapitres sont écrits par des collaborateurs-spécialistes. Il est facile de spéculer que ce phénomène de co-édition de livres scientifiques est dû à la pression de plus en plus forte qu'exerce aujourd'hui et de façon impitoyable le monde académique sur les scientifiques non seulement de toute discipline mais aussi de tous les pays du monde (développés ou soi-disant «émergents») en appliquant le tristement fameux syndrome *publish or perish*, duquel dépend, entre autres, la promotion des chercheurs.

Mais qu'il s'agisse de «vrais auteurs», d'éditeurs ou de co-éditeurs, leur nombre est non seulement croissant, mais aussi leur provenance géographique est de plus en plus variée. Nous avons maintenant à faire à des réseaux de chercheurs géographiquement dispersés mais qui forment, selon l'expression de Crane (1988), des «collèges invisibles» ou des *collaboratories* (Gross et al. 2002: 233) dont les membres, grâce aux nouveaux moyens de communication électroniques, n'ont même plus à se déplacer pour travailler en collaboration.

Les résultats auxquels nous venons de faire allusion reflètent donc la croissante internationalisation, globalisation et professionnalisation de la science. D'autres reflètent l'accentuation de la fonction sociale de son entreprise.

5.3. La science comme pratique sociale

5.3.1. Les références professsionnelles

5.3.1.1. L'auteur du livre recensé

Très laconiques sont dans les 2 blocs les références professionnelles des auteurs des livres recensés (*cf.* exemples 1 et 2 *infra*).

> 1- M. le Dr Marcel Baudoin, ancien interne de l'hôpital Bichat (1891)
> 2- Dans ce livre de 550 pages élaboré par 2 membres de l'équipe du New York Medical Center (1993)

Ce laconisme contraste avec la fréquente abondance dans les RO de la fin du XIX siècle de détails personnels (i.e., non professionnels) concernant les auteurs, comme l'illustre très bien l'exemple suivant dont la saveur bucolique ne saurait échapper à personne:

> 3- C'est en même temps qu'une oeuvre scientifique d'un intérêt évident, une curieuse page d'histoire scientifique. Ce laborieux médecin de campagne, parcourant à cheval les landes, les forêts de sapin et pratiquant la médecine dans ce milieu aride et désolé, médite sur les graves problèmes médicaux et cherche parmi les causes des maladies virulentes, celles qui sont les plus acceptables. (RO publiée en1890)

Ces détails sont une réminiscence du style anecdotique, personnel et épistolaire de la littérature médicale du XVIIº et XVIIIº siècle écrite en français et en anglais (*cf.* Atkinson 1999, Gross et al. 2002).

Il est intéressant de remarquer que ce relatif manque d'intérêt quant aux références professsionnelles des scientifiques français n'est pas nouveau: il date en effet du XVIIº siècle et contraste très nettement de la tradition anglo-saxonne. En effet, selon Gross et al. (2002), 80% des <u>articles</u> écrits en anglais au XVIIº et XVIIIº siècles mentionnaient de façon très détaillée les références professsionnelles de leurs auteurs[ix] (en général membres de la *Royal Society*), tandis que les <u>articles</u> écrits en français n'indiquaient que très rarement de tels détails personnels, peut-être parce qu'il était sous-entendu que leurs auteurs appartenaient à l'Académie Royale. Il semble donc que le résultat obtenu par Gross et al. puisse également s'appliquer au genre de la RO.

5.3.1.2. L'auteur de la RO

Quant à l'auteur de la RO, comme nous l'avons vu, dans plus du tiers des RO publiées à la fin du XIXº siècle, il n'était mentionné que par ses initiales si bien que nous pouvons parler d'un anonymat. Peu lui importait que son nom figurât ou non comme signataire de la RO. En revanche, toutes les RO de la fin du XXº siècle indiquent les initiales des prénoms et les noms de leur auteur.

5.3.2. Les marqueurs de courtoisie

Un autre résultat de notre étude souligne également la dimension ou la fonction interpersonnelle (sociale) de l'acteur principal de la science, i.e., le chercheur. Nos résultats montrent en effet que les marqueurs de courtoisie étaient beaucoup plus fréquents dans notre corpus du XIX° siècle (plus de 50% des RO en contenaient) que dans celui du XX° d'où ils sont pratiquement absents. Ces marqueurs se référaient principalement à l'auteur (ou les auteurs) de l'ouvrage recensé (voir exemples ci-dessous): on parlait à l'époque d'*éminents spécialistes/collègues, d'auteurs prestigieux, de ces savants*, etc.

> *M. le Dr Thoinot* a exposé les faits de l'épidémie de fièvre typhoïde d'Avesnes en 1891… nous ne pouvons oublier qu'elle a été une occasion nouvelle pour *l'éminent hygiéniste, dont le monde savant déplore la perte,* de réduire à sa juste expression le rôle de l'eau dans la genèse typhique. (1894)

> *Le distingué secrétaire du Conseil, le Dr Deshayes*, nous pardonnera cette critique, dont il peut se défendre aisément, puisqu'il suit de vieilles traditions, mais elle nous semble très fondée, étant donné le prix du temps. (1895)

> C'est une oeuvre de divulgation sans doute, mais c'est la divulgation de cette science d'hier et de demain que *M. Bouchard* est en train de créer avec une phalange de jeunes savants *dont il est le maître aimé et respecté*. (1896)

> Parmi les rapports les plus importants qu'il nous reste à rappeler, il faut citer le travail de M. Le professeur Proust sur l'épidémie de grippe de 1889-1890. Les conclusions de *l'éminent inspecteur des services sanitaires* sont très réservées et se bornent à la transmission par communauté humaine… (1897)

Il y avait donc déjà une préoccupation d'ordre social de la part de l'auteur de la RO à la fin du XIX° siècle. Cette préoccupation existe toujours, mais elle se manifeste différemment, non plus par des marqueurs de courtoisie, mais par la forte présence de marqueurs de modalisation comme l'illustrent les quelques exemples suivants (pour une analyse contrastive de la modalisation dans le genre de la RO écrite en français, anglais et espagnol, voir Salager-Meyer et Alcaraz Ariza 2004).[x]

> On *peut* regretter que les auteurs n'aient pas consacré un chapitre aux syndromes myasthéniques. (1996)

> On *peut simplement regretter* les délais de parution et que l'abondance des communications impose une trop grande brièveté de certains articles qu'on aimerait plus développés. (1996)

> On *peut toutefois regretter* que ce livre limite trop souvent le système au complexe hippocampique. …. (1996)

5.4. La science comme entreprise commerciale

Finalement, comme nos résultats l'indiquent très clairement, aujourd'hui la mention de la maison éditoriale qui publie le livre est obligatoire. Ne pourrions-nous par voir en ceci l'importance croissante de l'aspect commercial de la science actuelle?

6. Conclusion

Il nous est donc possible de conclure que l'évolution des variables ici étudiées reflètent les changements de la science et de la société scientifique en général. Ces changements ne doivent pas se considérer comme un progrès au sens propre du terme, mais comme une adaptation aux besoins et à la complexité croissante de l'environnement dans lequel se déroule l'activité scientifique de plus en plus compétitive, spécialisée, professionnelle et internationale et aux changements que souffre, en conséquence, la société scientifique dont les acteurs de tous horizons linguistiques et géographiques doivent lutter pour se faire une niche sur la scène de la *Big Science*.

De la même façon donc que nous pouvons être certains que l'article de recherche scientifique continuera d'évoluer en réponse aux demandes des disciplines, des sociétés scientifiques et des nouvelles technologies de la communication (*cf.* Gross et al. 2002), nous pouvons aussi nous attendre à ce que les variables ecdotiques ici étudiées dans les RO continueront d'évoluer… tant qu'il y aura des livres à recenser.

APPENDICE
Bloc A : Revue d'hygiène et de police sanitaire (1891, 1894, 1895, 1896)
Bloc B : Journal français d'ophtalmologie (1994, 1995), Revue de chirurgie orthopédique (1995), Revue française de gynécologie et obstétrique (1996), Revue neurologique (1996, 1999).

Tableau 1

Les recensions d'ouvrage: fréquences des variables ecdotiques

Blocs	A	B	Total
1) Longueur (les 100 RO)			
Nº total de mots dans le corpus	58.831	16.248	67.079
Longueur moyenne des RO	1.176	324	
2) Nº de RO où apparaissent des marqueurs de courtoisie	26 (52%) P=.0001	5 (10%)	31 (31%)
3) Auteur de la recension			
Initiales seulement	19 (38%)		19 (19%)
Initiales prénom + nom	27 (54%)	50 (100%)	77 (77%)
Nom seul	4 (8%)		4 (4%)

Graphique 1: Genres des Livres Recensés
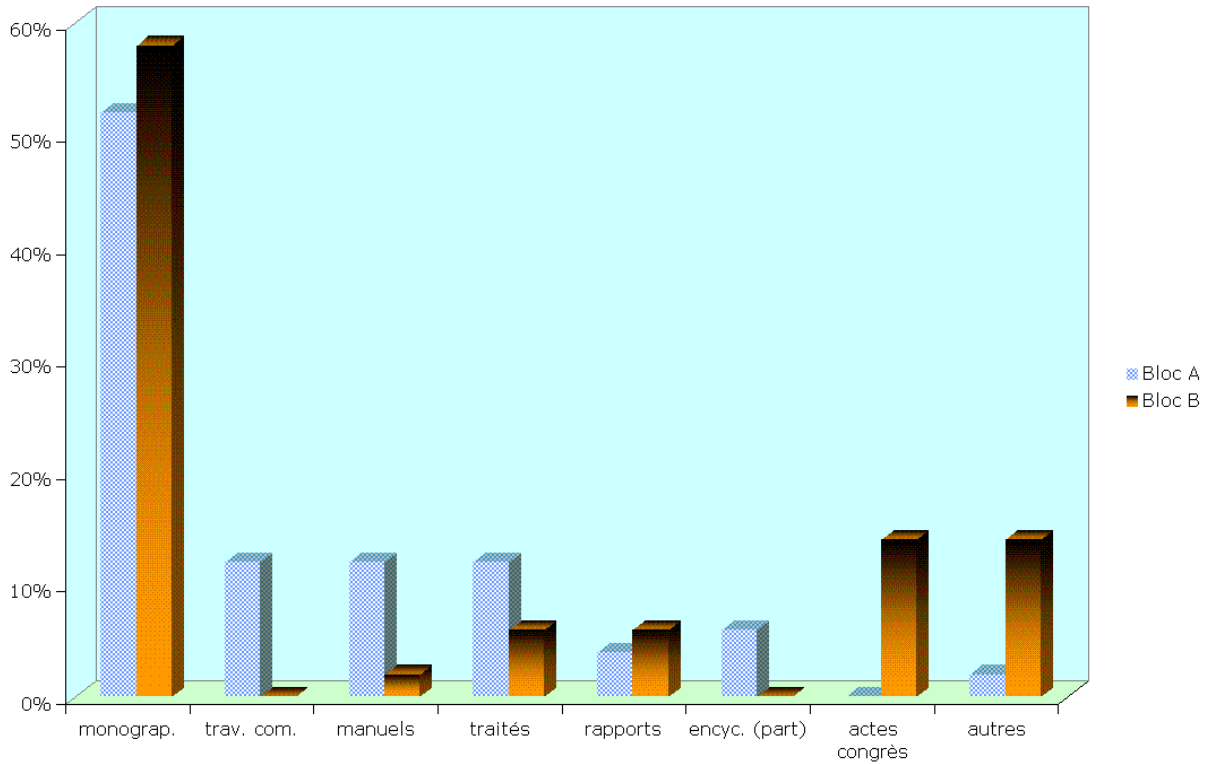
Graphique 2 Livres d'auteurs et livres (co)-édités
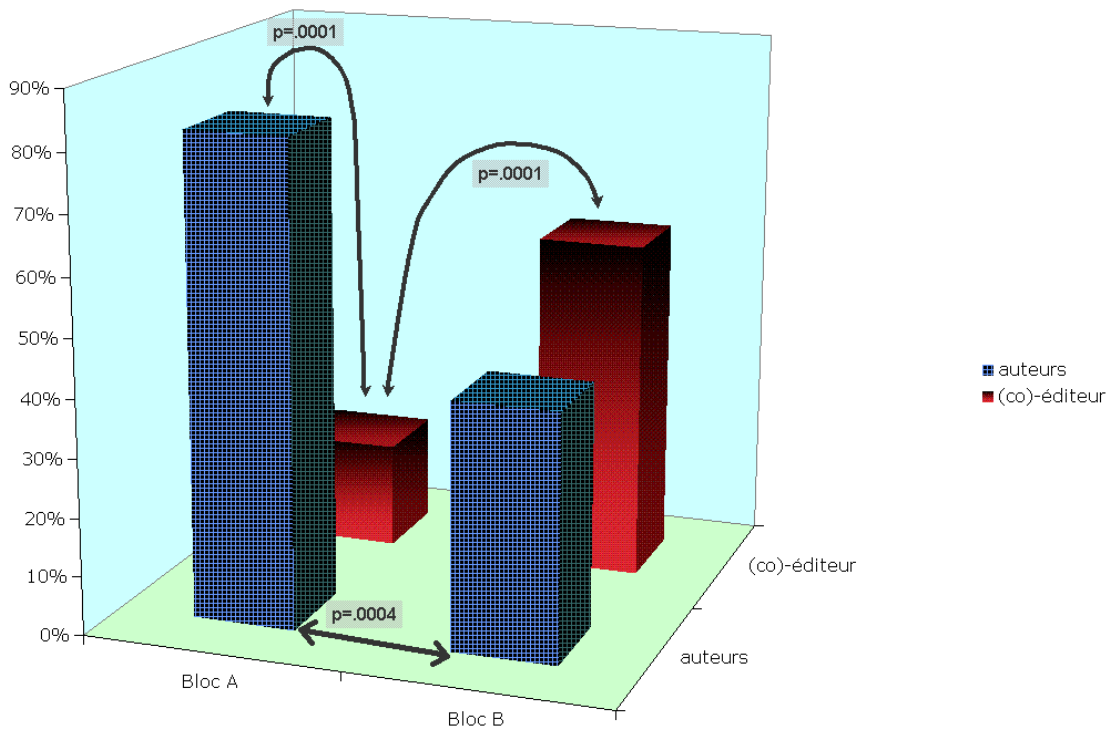
Graphique 3 Langues originales des livres recensés

Légende:
- ■ Bloc A
- ■ Bloc B

Axe horizontal (Langues): français, anglais, allemand, espagnol, italien, Traductions

Annotations: p=.0001, p=.0001
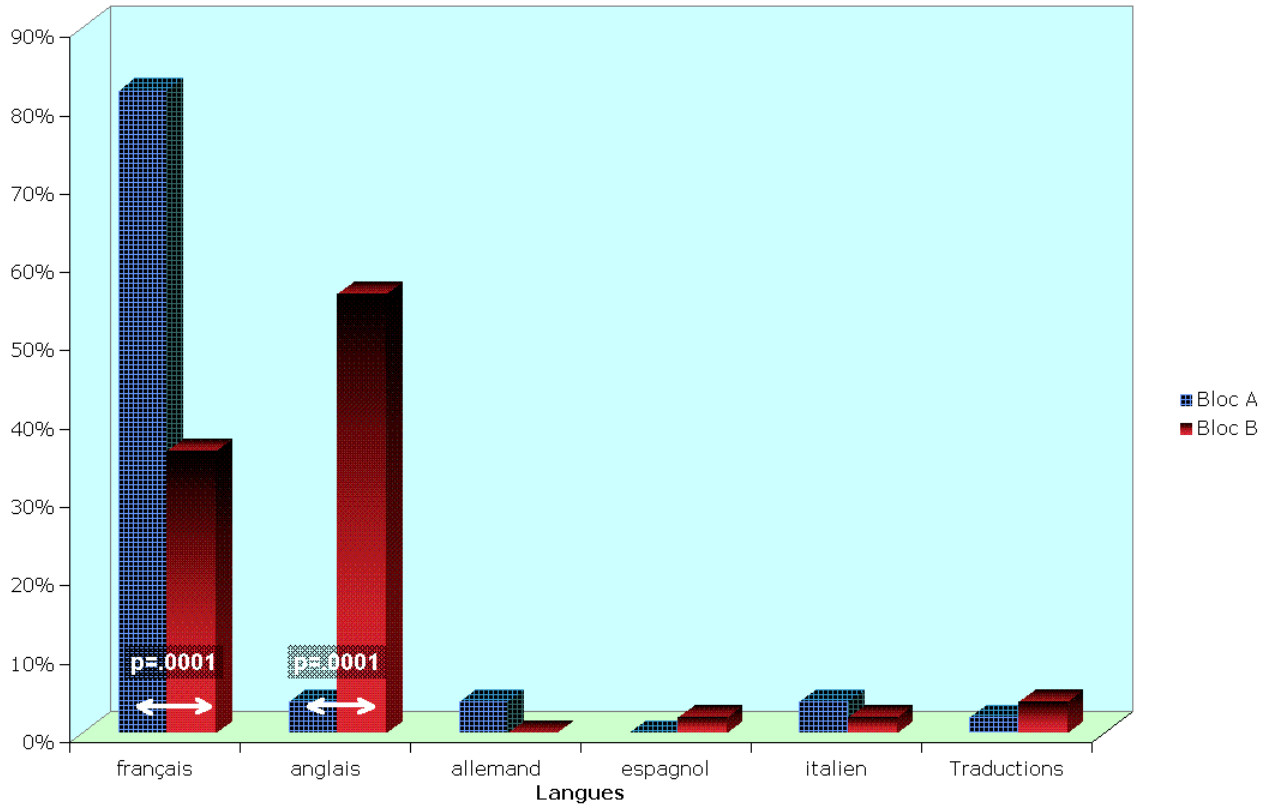
Graphique 4 Nombre d'auteurs par livre dans les deux Blocs

Légende:
- ■ 1 auteur
- ■ 2 et plus

Axes: Bloc A, Bloc B / 1 auteur, 2 et plus

All arrows p=.0001

20
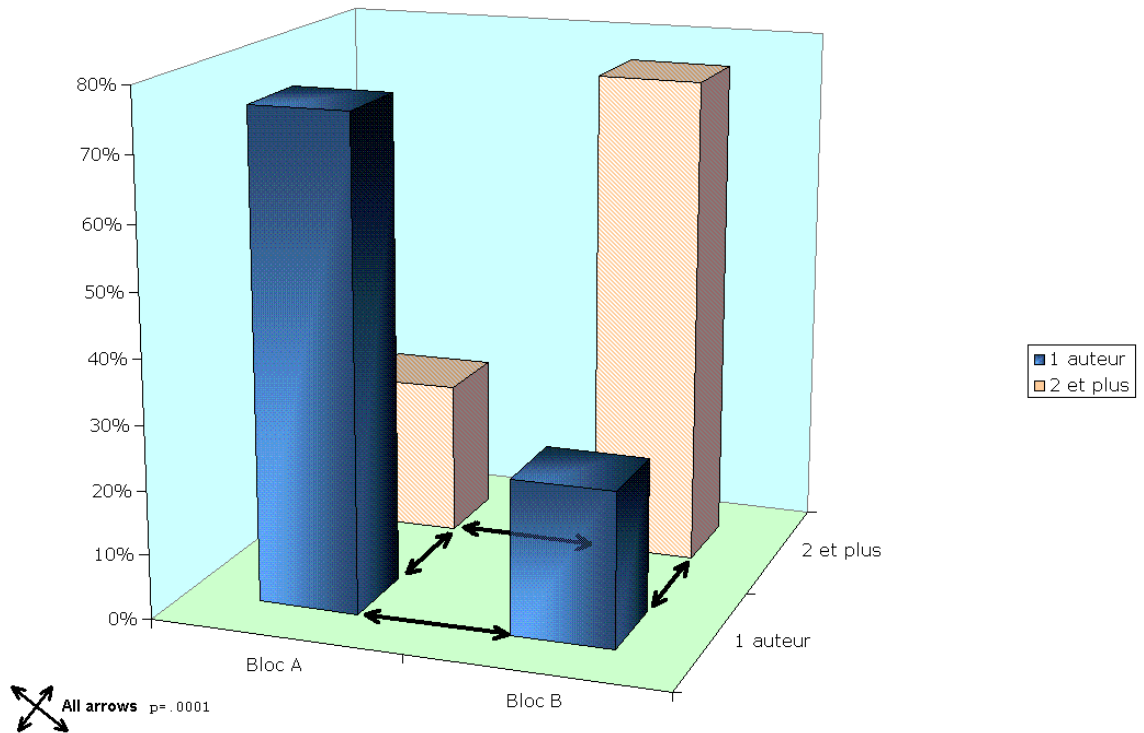
Graphique 5

Nombre de (co)-éditeurs des livres (co)-édités dans le Bloc B
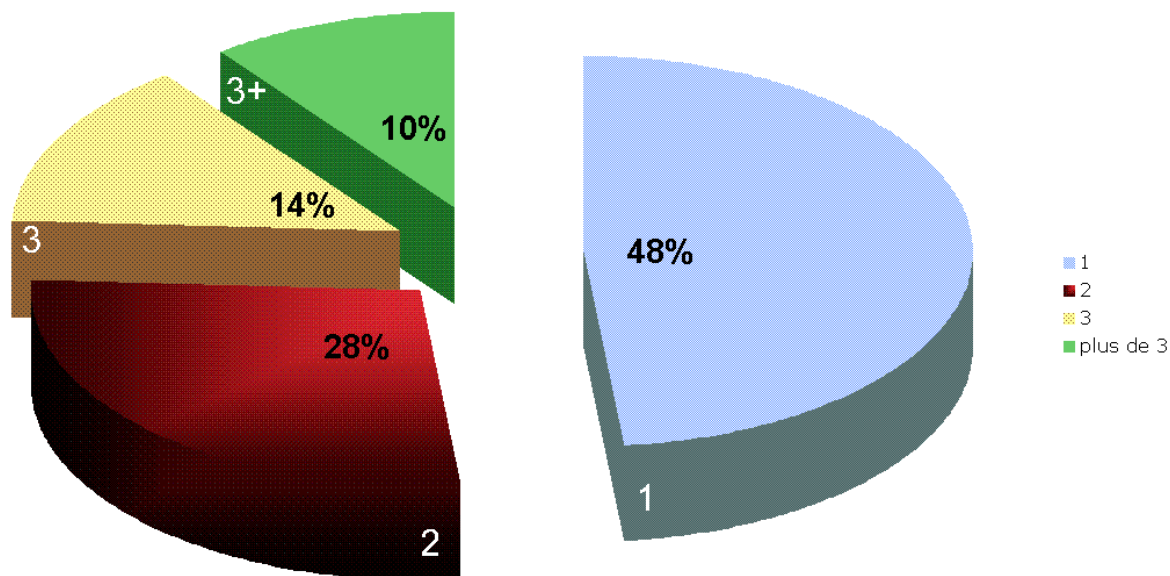
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[ii] L'ecdotique est la science qui étudie la critique et l'édition des textes.

[iii] Par «*vrai auteur*», nous entendons le livre entièrement écrit par un ou plusieurs auteurs par opposition au livre (co)-édité dont les différents chapitres sont écrits par des collaborateurs spécialistes dans un domaine précis.

[iv] Selon Richard Horton (ancien éditeur de The Lancet, communication personnelle), les recensions d'ouvrage publiées dans ce journal ont en général entre 500 et 1.000 mots. Il est très rare qu'une recension dépasse les 1.000 mots.

[v] En sciences sociales également les livres ont perdu de leur importance au cours du temps. Selon Swales (1990), par exemple, les références aux livres ont diminué de façon importante au cours des 30 dernières années dans les articles publiés dans *TESOL Quarterly.*

[vi] Il est évident que la professionnalisation n'arrive pas du jour au lendemain ou même au cours du même siècle. Lorsque nous utilisons le mot «professionnalisation», il est important de tenir compte du fait que le concept de profession se réfère à une entité relativement stable, tandis que celui de professionnalisation est essentiellement dynamique. Il s'agit d'un processus, non pas d'un état.

[vii] Au début du XX° siècle, lorsque la communauté scientifique japonaise lança de nouvelles revues spécialisées, leurs éditeurs choisirent l'anglais comme langue de publication afin de capter le plus grand public possible au-delà de leur petite île (Montgomery 1996: 326). En outre, de plus en plus nombreux sont aujourd'hui 1) les scientifiques non-anglophones qui publient en anglais et 2) les

revues scientifiques écrites dans les langues vernaculaires (par exemple, le danois, le suédois, le français) qui sont remplacées par des revues écrites en anglais considérées plus prestigieuses et qui, indubitablement, ont une audience beaucoup plus grande (Flowerdew 2000, Engberg 2003, Maisonnneuve 2003). C'est ce que Chiti-Batelli (2002: 82) appelle le *cultural Chernoby*. Selon Kerans (2005), des 88 revues médicales italiennes recensées dans Medline, plus de la moitié sont écrites en anglais, tandis qu'aux Pays Bas toutes les revues scientifiques sont monolingues…. mais en anglais. En Russie l'anglais est de plus en plus utilisé dans les revues scientifique (Roitman 2004).

viii Pour une étude très détaillée de l'inflation du nombre d'auteurs par article scientifique dans le monde de la recherche médicale, voir Sobal et Ferentz (1990) et Drenth (1998). Les travaux de Sobal et Ferentz montrent que le nombre d'auteurs augmenta de 4 à 6 entre 1975 et 1989, tandis que le pourcentage d'articles écrits par un seul auteur déclina dans cette même période de 9% à 3%.

ixix Celles ci pouvaient occuper plusieurs lignes. En voici un exemple tiré d'un corpus de RO écrites en anglais à la fin du XIXº siècle sur lequel nous travaillons actuellement «… by Christopher Martin, M.B. (Edinburgh). F.R.C.S. (England), Extraordinary Professor of Gynaecology, Surgeon to the Birmingham and Midland Hospital for Women, formerly Professor of Electro-Therapeutics in the London School and Hospital, etc. etc...(sic)». Contraste très surprenant avec les références professionnelles des RO écrites en français à la même époque dont aucune ne dépasse une ligne!

x Nous sommes en train de rédiger un article sur le thème de l'évolution de la fréquence, de l'expression et des cibles des actes critiques dans ce même corpus de RO écrites en français.

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Article by Salager-Meyer, Ariza & Zambrano (abstract)

ABSTRACT

Big science, internationalisation, professionnalisation et fonction sociale de la science à travers l'analyse diachronique des recensions d'ouvrage

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The aim of this paper is to analyze the evolution of some ecdotical variables in an academic genre that has so far received little attention, viz, book reviews (BR). Toward that end, we analyzed 100 BR written in French and published in 2 different time periods: between 1890 and 1900 (Block A) and between 1990 and 2000 (Block B). The variable we studied were: 1) the book reviewed (its length, genre and original language), 2) the book author (a single author, an editor or a co-editor and the way his credentials are presented), 3) the BR itself (its length, the frequency of courtesy markers and of bibliographical references) and 4) the BR author (anonymat vs. identification). Quantitative results were analyzed by means of the Chi square. Our most salient results show that in both Blocks the most frequent book type is the *monographie*, followed by the *traité* and the *manuel* in Bloc A, and by congress proceedings in Bloc B (a genre non-extant in Bloc A). In Block A, BR are 4 times longer than those of Block B (p = .0001). The great majority of the books reviewed in this Bloc are single-authored books (p = .0001 when comparing their frequency to that of multi-authored books) written in French (p = .0001 when comparing their frequency to that of books written in other languages). The BR author very frequently remains "almost-anonymous" (his initials only are mentioned), and courtesy markers are a rhetorical hallmark of these end-of-19th century BR. Conversely, in Block B most books reviewed are multi-authored/edited books (p = .0001 and p = .0047 when comparing their frequency to that registered in Bloc A) written in English (p= .0001 when comparing their frequency with that recorded in Block A). Contrary to what was observed in Block A, most books reviewed in Block B are then collaborative works. Finally, the name of the publishing company is a routine feature of BR in Bloc B, whereas it not so in Bloc A. These quantitative results are explained from a socio-constructivist standpoint. We conclude that they underline the hyper specialization, professionalization and internationalization of today's science and reflect the increasing social … and commercial concern of today's scientific enterprise.

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Building a Controlled Language Lexicon for Danish

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1. Introduction

A controlled language (CL) is *"[…] an explicitly defined restriction of a natural language that specifies constraints on lexicon, grammar, and style."* (Nyberg et al. 2003). CLs are used primarily for technical texts, e.g. user manuals, and although most CLs share a common core, they need to be tailored for each organisation or enterprise. The objective is to improve the quality of the texts. Ambiguity and complexity are reduced with a view to making texts easier to read, understand and translate. As an additional benefit, controlled texts will make the use of language technology more efficient. In translation memory systems, the number of hits (the leverage) is increased, and in machine translation systems, the quality of raw translations is improved. As the type of CL-rules needed for texts intended for human readers and texts intended for machine processing may differ, a distinction is made between human-oriented CLs and machine-oriented CLs.

So far, most CLs have been designed for English documentation, the most famous example being ASD Simplified Technical English (ASD-STE100[TM]), previously known as AECMA Simplified English. ASD Simplified Technical English is a CL for aircraft-maintenance documentation which has become an international standard within the aerospace industry. In Denmark, Center for Sprogteknologi (Centre for Language Technology) at the University of Copenhagen has been working with controlled languages for two Danish enterprises using English as their corporate language, within the VID project (Henriksen et al. 2004).

In the project "Controlled Language for Danish Enterprises", we are investigating methods for designing controlled languages for Danish, and testing these methods on Danish enterprise texts. Another objective of the project is to develop Danish modules for a CL-checker. A CL-checker is a specialised grammar and style

checker which may assist technical writers using the CL of the enterprise when producing and revising technical documents.

The present paper is a preliminary result of our work with texts supplied by industrial partners and focuses on problems related to building the CL-lexicon.

2. The CL-lexicon: One word – one meaning?

The CL-lexicon consists of approved and non-approved words, the latter carrying a reference to an approved word to be used by the technical writer. We talk about "words" and not "terms", because the controlled language may restrict not only specialized terminology, but also general vocabulary. We define words as single words as well as multiwords.

As in terminology work, the ideal is a one-to-one correspondence between words and concepts: "one word – one meaning" (Felber 1993:83; Nyberg et al. 2003:246). In controlled language, this means that synonyms and spelling variants (several words for one and the same concept) and homonyms (one word for several concepts) are banned. Typically, it also means that words may only be used as one part of speech, which is given in the CL-lexicon. Thus, according to ASD Simplified Technical English, the English word *check* may only be used as a noun, and not as a verb. Consequently, the sentence "Check the hydraulic system" must be rephrased into "Do a check of the hydraulic system".

When planning a CL-lexicon for an enterprise, it is important to take the text types and the intended readers into consideration. ASD Simplified Technical English was constructed for aircraft-maintenance documentation for readers who do not have English as their mother tongue, and who are easily confused by complex sentence structures and by the number of meanings and synonyms which English words can have. This motivates strict adherence to the principle of "one word - one meaning". On the other hand, in our project, we work with technical specifications and instructions in Danish intended for readers who are native speakers. Our project partners would like terminological consistency, but they would also like to adhere to the conventions – the "technical register" – of the subject areas and the text types in question. At the lexical level, this means that we may have to allow some synonyms and homonyms.

3. Creating a CL-lexicon

The lexicon of a CL-checker serves two purposes: that of an analysis lexicon and that of a CL-lexicon.

Serving the purpose of an analysis lexicon, it has to supply the parser with the linguistic information necessary to carry out grammatical analysis of texts, and it has to include all words which may appear in the texts to be analyzed.

Serving the purpose of a CL-lexicon, it has to supply the CL-checker with the information necessary to trigger lexical error messages, i.e. information about unapproved words, supplemented by references to approved words to be used instead, short definitions and examples.

The CL-lexicon may either include **all approved words** (and unapproved words, with a reference to an approved word to be used instead) in the documents of the enterprise in question, i.e. a positive list, or it may include **only the unapproved words** (with a reference to an approved word to be used instead), i.e. a negative list.

If a positive-list strategy is chosen, the CL-checker will display error messages a) when the technical writer uses unapproved words, and b) when he or she uses words that are not in the lexicon (unknown words).

If a negative-list strategy is chosen, the CL-checker will display error messages when the technical writer uses words which have been registered as unapproved, but not when he or she uses unknown words.

The ASD-STE CL-lexicon uses the positive-list strategy. However, it is a huge task to ensure completeness of the CL-lexicon, and error messages triggered by unknown words which should actually have been in the CL-lexicon as approved words, will annoy the user. Therefore, at least in a first stage, we have settled for a negative list in our project.

In addition to approved and unapproved words, the CL-lexicon may contain definitions and examples. The organization of the information may differ; in Figure 1 is an example from AECMA Simplified English (now ASD Simplified Technical English), cited from Nyberg et al. (2003:246).

Approved word	*prevent* (v)
Definition	To make sure that something does not occur
Example	*Attach the hoses to the fuselage to prevent their movement.*
Unapproved word	*preventive* (adj)
Approved alternative	*prevent* (v)
Unapproved example	*This is a corrosion preventive measure.*
Approved rewrite	*This prevents corrosion.*
Approved word	*right* (adj)
Definition	On the east side when you look north
Example	*Do a flow check of the pump in the right wing tank.*
Unapproved word	*right-hand* (adj)
Approved alternative	*right* (adj)
Unapproved example	*The fuel connector is in the right-hand wing.*
Approved rewrite	*The fuel connector is in the right wing.*

Figure 1. Examples of Simplified English: *prevent* vs. *preventive* and *right* vs. *right-hand*

Definitions and examples are short because they have to be quick and easy to read and must fit into the message window of a CL-checker.

4. Types of term variants and their treatment in the CL

Data for the CL-lexicon may be collected in various ways. Ideally, the enterprise has a terminological database where all relevant concepts have been defined, a unique, preferred term has been selected for each concept, and any synonyms, spelling and syntactic variants and deprecated terms have been registered. In that case, the linguist building the CL-lexicon may take over the information, perhaps shortening the definition into a format suitable for a CL-checker and adding unapproved examples and approved rewrites.

Less ideally, the linguist building the CL-lexicon may have to collect information from various sources, e.g. a corpus of texts of the type the enterprise wants to control, and a descriptive terminological database in which no distinction has been made between preferred terms and synonyms, and in which, perhaps, definitions are missing.

The enterprise's own experts (engineers, terminologists, translators) always constitute a very important source when it comes to verifying suggestions for synonyms and homonyms and deciding which terms should be approved or unapproved. That also involves deciding how restrictive the CL-lexicon should be.

4.1. Synonyms and homonyms

CL-lexicons are built by linguists and terminologists. Synonyms and homonyms may be difficult to identify for a non-subject-field-expert linguist. One method may be to study bilingual material, i.e. texts and their translations, or a bilingual term bank.

Gasser (2004:252f.) reports about using a term-extraction tool for bilingual term extraction from parallel texts (English-German) in order to identify possible synonyms in German: if several German terms were suggested for one English term, the German terms were potentially synonymous. The final decision as to whether they were actually synonyms was left to an expert of the subject domain.

In our project, we used a bilingual term bank to detect possible synonyms and homonyms in the Danish texts of one enterprise. The term bank had English as the pivot language, i.e. all definitions were given in English, and each concept had one English term and one or more Danish terms attached to it. The term bank was descriptive rather than prescriptive, i.e., although some Danish terms were marked as deprecated terms, no systematic attempt had been made to choose one preferred Danish term among several synonyms – probably because the term base was conceived for translation purposes, not for normative purposes. Consequently, there were many synonymous and a number of homonymous Danish terms in the term bank, see examples in Figure 2 and 3:

English term	Danish equivalents in the term bank
shaft end	*akseltap*
	akselende

Figure 2: Example of Danish synonyms in the term bank

English terms	Danish equivalents in the term bank
alarm signal	*alarm*
alarm unit	*alarm*

Figure 3: Example of Danish homonyms in the term bank

In these examples, the CL-lexicon could specify the Danish term *akseltap* as the approved term and *akselende* as an unapproved term. Also, the Danish term *alarm* could be restricted to the English *alarm-signal* meaning, and the Danish term *alarmanlæg* could be specified as the approved term in the English *alarm-unit* meaning.

The term bank often had one Danish term for what should, according to the English definitions in the term bank, be two or more concepts. Thus, the Danish term *fejlmelding* (Eng. lit. 'fault message') had three English equivalents according to the type of signal, see Figure 4:

English terms and definitions	Danish equivalents in the term bank
fault reading (message in text or code in a display)	*fejlmelding*
fault indication (indication by means of indicator light)	*fejlmelding*
fault signal (signal sent via transmitters, contacts, relays etc. to external controllers or systems)	*fejlmelding*

Figure 4: Example of potential Danish homonyms in the term bank

This could be seen as homonymy in Danish, where the CL-principle of "one meaning – one word" would require three distinct terms in Danish. In many cases, however, a more precise description of the problem is that Danish uses a hypernym (a superordinate word) where English uses a hyponym (a subordinate word). If a language – or an enterprise or text type – does not need a certain distinction, i.e. several hyponyms, but prefers a hypernym, this cannot be said to violate the principle of "one meaning - one word", and no attempt should be made in the Danish CL-lexicon to coin three distinctive terms for the three meanings of the Danish term *fejlmelding*.

In some cases, both the Danish term and the English term are homonymous, e.g. the Danish term *belastning* (Eng. *load*) covers three different concepts relevant to the texts produced by the enterprise in question, see Figure 5:

English terms and definitions	Danish equivalents in the term bank
load (the amount of work assigned to a machine or mechanical system)	*belastning*
load (the power absorbed from an electric circuit, i.e. the power output of an electric machine)	*belastning*
load (the weight supported by or the mechanical force applied to sth.)	*belastning*

Figure 5: Example of English and Danish homonyms in the term bank

These three concepts can be assigned to three different subject areas: mechanical engineering, electrical engineering and physics. As Felber notes, the one-to-one-relationship between terms and concepts should apply within a subject area (Felber 1993). In most cases, technical texts are a mixture of several subject areas, and in practice, it would hardly be possible to create new terms in order to disambiguate the three meanings of *belastning* or *load*. So, when homonyms come from different subject areas, they will often have to be accepted in the CL, and they should not trigger an error message from the CL-checker – in other words, the terms in question should simply be ignored by the CL-checker.

4.2. Other term variants

In addition to synonyms in the ordinary sense, there are a number of other types of alternative designations to concepts in technical texts – we will refer to them here as 'term variants' – which will be discussed below. These are spelling variants, syntactic variants and various types of compression.

Generally, human readers will have no problems with these types of term variants, although they may be annoyed by those variations which are in conflict with Danish spelling rules (see below), so a human-oriented CL may allow them.

But if the texts are intended not only for human readers, but also for computer-aided translation by means of machine translation systems or translation memory systems, spelling variants and syntactic variants and compressed forms will reduce the efficiency of the systems. In a machine translation system, all variants will have to be entered in the lexicon to be recognized, and compressed forms will be difficult for the system to interpret correctly. In a translation memory system, variants will reduce the hit rate of the system. Therefore, a machine-oriented CL should preferably choose one variant as the preferred one in order to ensure maximum lexical consistency in source texts.

Because these term variants are built of the elements also constituting the approved term, they can often be recognized automatically (Schmidt-Wigger 1999). Thus, if they are formed in a regularized way and the CL-checker has rules to recognize them, they will not have to be included in the CL-lexicon.

4.2.1. Spelling variants

According to Danish spelling rules, compounds can be written in one word, in exceptional cases with a hyphen. Compounds written with a space as in English constitute a frequent error type in Danish texts, see the following example from an electronics text:

> *buskommunikation*
> - term variant with hyphen: *bus-kommunikation*
> - term variant with space: **bus kommunikation*

In a CL-checker which is able to use syntactic analysis to rule out *bus* as a possible verb in the context, **bus kommunikation* can be recognized as an erroneous variant of the approved term *buskommunikation* and trigger an error message.

4.2.2. Syntactic variants

In Danish texts, compound terms may be varied according to several patterns, e.g. the following ones:

> *tætningsdiameter* (nominal compound, Eng. *seal diameter*)
> - term variant with genitive attribute: *tætningens diameter*
>   (Eng. lit. 'the of-the-seal diameter')
> - term variant with prepositional modifier: *diameteren på tætningen*
>   (Eng. lit. 'the diameter of the seal')
>
> *atmosfæretryk* (nominal compound, Eng. lit. 'athmosphere pressure')
> - term variant with adjectival attribute: *atmosfærisk tryk*
>   (Eng. lit. 'athmospheric pressure')

As mentioned above, these types of variants will not disturb the human reader, but they will reduce the efficiency of a translation system. Consequently, they should trigger an error message in a machine-oriented CL. It is not necessary to include them in the CL-lexicon, if the CL-checker has rules which can recognize them.

In lists and indexes, the adjectival pre-modifier is often put behind the head word:

> In running text: *metalimprægneret kul* (Eng. lit. 'metal-impregnated coal')
> Term variant in list: *kul, metalimprægneret*

Also this type of term variant should be recognized by CL-checker rules, but it should not result in an error message unless the term is unapproved. A prerequisite for the correct treatment of this problem by the CL-checker would be that such elements are marked up as list or index elements in the text, and that the CL-checker is designed to use markup information.

4.2.3. Compression of terms: abbreviations, acronyms and codes

Term variants can be created by compressing long terms in various ways, e.g. by creating acronyms such as *DDT, A (Amp), V (Volt)* or by leaving out letters or syllables as in *lab (laboratory)* and *stagflation (stagnation + inflation).* Sager (1997:37) refers to this technique as compression, the purpose being to create short forms for frequent terms or to create new exclusive terms for long terms which might not be understood as terminological units.

In our texts, there are many examples of compression, e.g.

- types of material: *Krom-nikkel-molybdæn-stål* (Eng. lit. 'chrome-nickel-molybdenum-steel') - compressed form: *Cr-NiMo-stål,*
- components: *O-ringstætning med fast medbringer* (Eng. lit. 'o-ring shaft seal with fixed seal driver') - compressed form: *Type A.*

If the compressed form is not generally known, it is usually introduced together with the long form in the beginning of the text or the paragraph, and subsequently the compressed form is used.

In a controlled language, it would not be reasonable to enforce the principle of "one word - one meaning" by prescribing either the long term or the compressed term. Therefore the CL-checker should accept both, but it should be a general rule of the CL to write the long term in brackets the first time the compressed form is used.

Furthermore, the CL-checker should be able to recognize strings such as *DDT* and *Cr-NiMo* as acronyms and issue an error message if an acronym is not in the CL-lexicon and therefore potentially wrong.

4.2.4. Compression of terms: head words

Another way of compressing long terms is to mention them via their head word when they are repeated in a text. In other words, a superordinate term (a hypernym) is used as a substitute for a subordinate term (a hyponym). Göpferich (1998) refers to this type of compression as "spontane Abkürzungen" ('spontaneous abbreviations') and notes that in running text, exact terms like e.g. *Wasserpumpenzange mit Rillengleitgelenk* (Eng. lit. 'water pump tongs with grooved joint') are often too differentiated and difficult to handle.

If the modifiers included in the exact term are not necessary in the context, they will, according to Göpferich, hamper communication and reading speed. Therefore, they are often replaced by short compound words or, more frequently, head words.

Head words are often polysemous, but in actual texts, they are mostly disambiguated in context – e.g. by means of a headline.

As Göpferich notes, the short forms are often used in texts oriented towards man/machine-interaction, e.g. in manuals, and therefore, the principle that product-related concepts, e.g. the components of a car, should always be referred to by the same term, is rarely followed in practice (Göpferich 1996:388-390).

In a controlled language for the text types and the target groups we work with, it would not make sense to prescribe the consistent usage of the exact, long term. However, it should be a general rule of the CL to use the head word, only if it is clear from the context which concept is meant. This is an example of a rule which could probably not be checked by a CL-checker.

4.2.5. Term variants consisting of an approved term and a support noun

Most terms can be combined with generic nouns, which Reinhardt et al. (1992) refer to as support nouns.

We have identified different types of support nouns, e.g.:

- nouns indicating that the term is a superordinate term in a concept hierarchy, e.g. the Danish noun *type* (Eng. *type*) as in *tætningstype* (Eng. *seal type*)
- nouns relating to systems and components, e.g. the Danish noun *enhed* (Eng. *unit*) as in *kommunikationsenhed* (Eng. *communication unit*)
- nouns relating to dimensions, e.g. the Danish noun *størrelse* (Eng. *size*) as in *beholderstørrelse* (Eng. *container size*).

In a complete CL-lexicon, all possible combinations of approved terms and support nouns plus any unapproved variants should be registered. However, this would be very inefficient. Instead, the CL-checker should have grammar rules which can strip off the support noun and check the term as such. Thus, if the Danish *bus-kommunikation* (with a hyphen) is an unapproved term and *buskommunikation* is approved, then the support-noun compound *bus-kommunikationsenhed* (Eng. *bus communication unit*) should trigger an error message recommending *buskommunikationsenhed* instead.

5. Concluding remarks

When mentioned in connection with CL, the principle of "one meaning – one word" seems well-motivated. From a theoretical point of view, it is easy to understand that this principle will reduce lexical ambiguity in texts and make them easier to understand. In practice, however, there are difficulties. First, "one meaning" may be a superordinate concept in one language, enterprise or text type whereas in another language, enterprise or text type, in which more fine-grained distinctions are needed, "one meaning" may be a number of subordinate concepts. Second, homonyms in a text may come from different subject areas, in which case there may be no natural and acceptable way to assign different terms to the different concepts.

As noted before, a machine-oriented CL requires more restrictions than a human-oriented CL. When building a CL-lexicon, one goal must be to strike the balance between eliminating lexical ambiguities as far as possible and necessary and attaining a result that seems both acceptable and relevant to the enterprise and the readers in question. Rephrasing the sentence "Check the hydraulic system" into "Do a check of the hydraulic system" results in stilted language and may not be necessary for the purposes of a human-oriented CL. Likewise, eliminating homonyms from different subject areas may be difficult. On the other hand, the easy task, and the one which is most readily understood and accepted by enterprises, is to eliminate synonyms.

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Article by M. H. Møller & E. Christoffersen (abstract)

ABSTRACT

Building a Controlled Language Lexicon for Danish

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A controlled language (CL) is a set of writing rules for the technical texts of an enterprise specifying constraints on lexicon, grammar and style with the purpose of reducing ambiguity, thus making texts easier to understand and process - by human readers and/or by translation systems. So far, most CLs have been designed for English documentation. The present paper is a preliminary result of our work within the project "Controlled Language for Danish Enterprises" and focuses on problems related to building the controlled-language lexicon, e.g. on whether it is possible to enforce the principle of "one word – one meaning".

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Modifications in documentation processes and their impact on the work of technical communicators and translators and their training

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1. Factors determining translation processes

An examination of workflows in companies which produce multilingual technical documentation reveals that achieving the goal of multilingualism is being taken into account at an ever earlier point in the production chain. A decade or so ago, technical documentation and translations were produced one after the other in separate departments (cf. Göpferich 2000). Since then, a number of factors have made closer cooperation between technical documentation departments on the one hand, and translation services on the other hand, a prerequisite for producing documentation that meets customers' expectations, complies with product liability regulations, and achieves the goals of cost reduction policies at the same time. These factors and their impact on documentation and translation processes are represented in Fig. 1. (on page 39). They will be explained in the next sections.

1.1. Technological progress

Technological progress leads to an increasing complexity and diversification of technical products. For example, the number of car models an automotive manufacturer offers has increased considerably over the last few years and the technical equipment we find in these cars is becoming more and more diversified too. This is reflected by the owner's manuals which, in the case of Mercedes Benz cars, for example, have increased in volume by more than 100 percent in the last decade. The latest edition of the E-Class owner's manual comprises almost 500 pages. Due to technical standardization, the individual models and variants are not composed of completely different parts and equipment so that many descriptions and instructions applicable to one model can be re-used in manuals for other models or variants which use the same components. As I will show, this re-use of documentation sections necessitates changes in the way the production of documentation is organized.
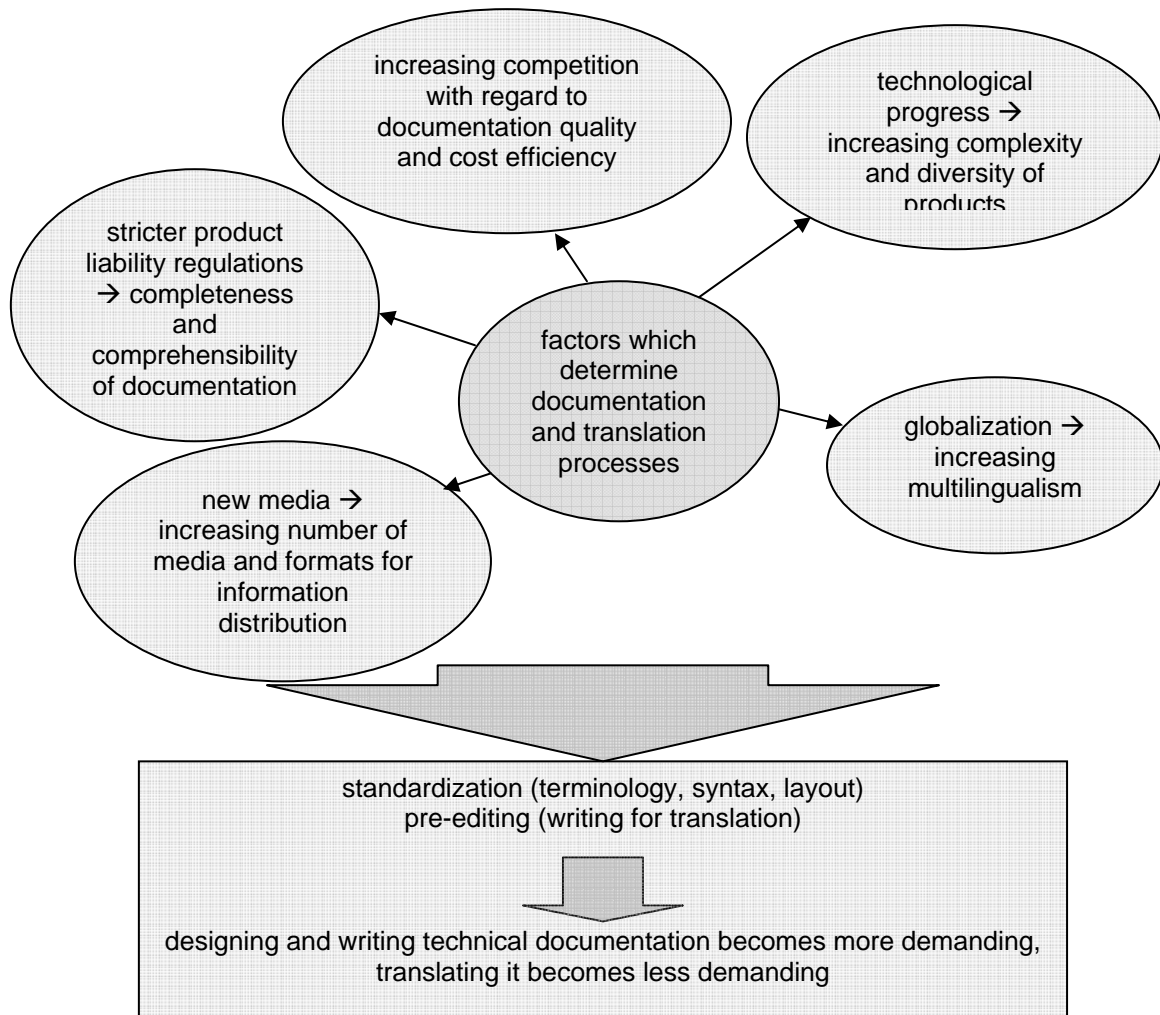
Fig. 1: Factors which determine documentation and translation processes and their impact on technical documentation and translation

1.2. Globalization

Globalization has necessitated an increase in the number of languages in which technical documentation is supplied. With each additional language into which documentation has to be translated, translation costs increase. To keep costs low, the source text volume which needs to be translated has to be reduced. In car owner's manuals this can be done by cutting out descriptive sections which users do not need to make full use of their cars, by using more concise descriptions and instructions, and by re-using sections of documentation which have already been translated and whose translations can be retrieved from a translation memory system.

1.3. New media

Documentation is delivered to the customer not only as printed information, but also on CD ROM, as integrated help texts, or on the Internet. Although the amount of information supplied in each of these media may differ, the wording of many

parts of the documentation can be used in all media. These parts must be generated from single-source texts which can then be converted into medium-specific formats. This makes sure that a new medium does not require a completely new translation process (single-source and cross-media publishing).

1.4. Stricter product liability regulations

Product liability regulations, such as the EU product liability directive, which had to be adopted as national law by the EU member states by the beginning of the 1990s, had an enormous impact on the quality of technical documentation. Until the 1990s, documentation in Europe was produced by people who had not received any special formal training in technical communication. As a consequence, the quality of many documents was poor. The stricter product liability regulations forced manufacturers to raise their documentation standards and led to a demand for experts in technical documentation, who, at that time, could not be found because there were no special training courses for them. This deficit led to the foundation of the first university programs in technical communication in Europe and to special courses in technical writing being integrated into programs in translation and interpreting. The effect of the EU product liability directive is an example of the impact new legal regulations may have on the development of academic programs.

1.5. Increasing competition with regard to documentation quality and cost efficiency

As differences in functionality and quality of technical products become less and as the complexity of these products increases, the quality of the documentation becomes a decisive selection criterion for the customer. At the same time, the sheer volume of documentation which has to be provided represents an enormous cost factor, which has to be reduced as much as possible to remain competitive.

2. Meeting the requirements

The automotive industry is particularly affected by these factors. Therefore, in this industry, the pressure to optimize and streamline documentation processes is extremely high, thus forcing the sector into a pioneering role in this field. I have been working together with DaimlerChrysler since 2000 and spent my sabbatical there in 2002 contributing to a large documentation project. Drawing on this experience, I will describe the measures taken by DaimlerChrysler within the last years to make their customer information meet the requirements specified above. In doing so, I will put special emphasis on the changing roles and tasks of the people involved in producing this customer information.

DaimlerChrysler regularly conducts surveys on customer satisfaction with regard to both vehicles and the quality of documentation. Customers complained that the owner's manuals were too large, contained too much technical jargon and were often incomprehensible. This led to several projects launched by DaimlerChrysler to improve the user-friendliness of their documentation and to reduce the size. The

first project of this type was VERONA (<u>Ver</u>ständlich <u>o</u>hne <u>Na</u>chfragen – Comprehensible without having to ask further questions).

2.1. The VERONA project

The aim of VERONA was

- to reduce the size of owner's manuals by approximately 25 percent,
- to eliminate all information from the manuals that was not necessary to make use of the car's functionality,
- to improve user access to specific information by typographic highlighting and a better structure, and
- to improve the comprehensibility of the documentation by a more user-friendly terminology and syntax.

The effect of VERONA on Mercedes Benz owner's manuals can best be demonstrated by comparing a passage from an owner's manual in its original version with the version optimized according to the VERONA strategy. Fig. 2 shows the original passages on the seat heating as used in the 2000 Mercedes Benz C-Class owner's manuals.

Sitzheizung

Den Schlüssel im Startschalter in Stellung 1 oder 2.

Sind viele elektrische Verbraucher eingeschaltet oder ist die Batterie nicht ausreichend geladen, kann die Sitzheizung abschalten. In diesem Fall blinkt eine Kontrollleuchte oder es blinken beide Kontrollleuchten.

Ist wieder genügend Spannung vorhanden, schaltet die Sitzheizung selbsttätig ein.

Taste (1) drücken:
Eine rote Kontrollleuchte in der Taste leuchtet auf. Normale Heizstufe.

Nach ca. 30 Minuten wird die Sitzheizung automatisch abgeschaltet.

Taste (2) drücken:
Beide roten Kontrollleuchten in der Taste leuchten auf. Höchste Heizstufe.

Nach ca. 5 Minuten wird automatisch auf normale Heizstufe umgeschaltet.

Taste (1) oder (2) nochmals drücken:
Keine Kontrollleuchte leuchtet. Sitzheizung aus.

P54.25-2346-26

Der Schalter ist an der Mittelkonsole.

Sitze   57

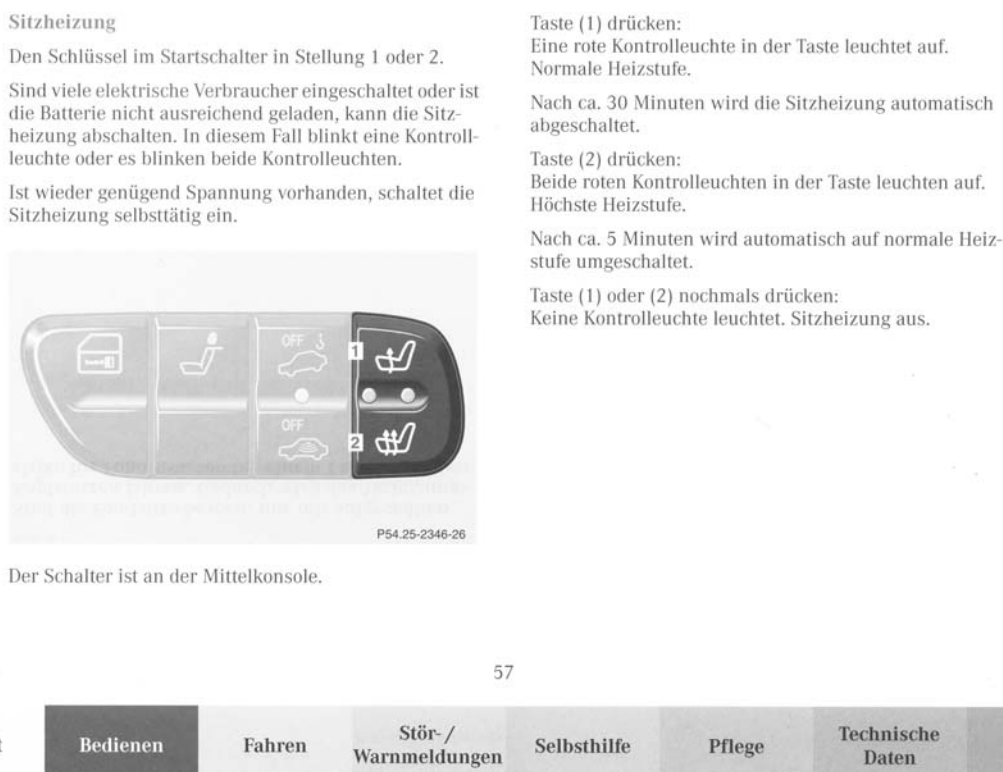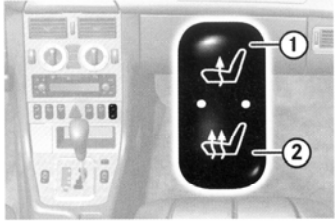| Cockpit | Bedienen | Fahren | Stör- / Warnmeldungen | Selbsthilfe | Pflege | Technische Daten | Index |

Fig. 2: Extract from the Mercedes Benz C-Class owner's manual (DaimlerChrysler 2000:57)

Fig. 3 shows an optimized version of these passages as used for the first time in the 2001 SLK Roadster owner's manual.

Sitzheizung

Der Schalter ist oben an der Mittelkonsole.

1 Sitzheizung
2 Schnelles Aufheizen

▶ Schalten Sie die Zündung ein (Schlüssel im Lenkschloss auf Stellung **2**).

Sitzheizung einschalten

▶ Drücken Sie oben auf den Schalter.

Die rechte Kontrollleuchte auf dem Schalter leuchtet auf.

Sitzheizung ausschalten

▶ Drücken Sie erneut oben auf den Schalter.

ⓘ Die Sitzheizung schaltet nach etwa 30 Minuten automatisch ab.

Sitz schnell aufheizen

▶ Drücken Sie unten auf den Schalter.

Beide Kontrollleuchten auf dem Schalter leuchten auf.

ⓘ Nach etwa fünf Minuten schaltet die Sitzheizung automatisch auf normalen Heizbetrieb. Es leuchtet nur noch die rechte Kontrollleuchte.

Schnellaufheizen ausschalten

▶ Drücken Sie erneut unten auf den Schalter.

Sitze
Bedienen im Detail — 47
Selbsthilfe — 130
Was tun, wenn...

Schalter an der Mittelkonsole

Problem	mögliche Ursache	Lösungsvorschläge
Eine oder beide Leuchten auf dem Schalter der Sitzheizung blinken.	Es ist nicht ausreichend Spannung vorhanden, da zu viele Verbraucher eingeschaltet sind. Die Sitzheizung hat sich automatisch abgeschaltet.	Sobald wieder genügend Spannung vorhanden ist, schaltet sich die Sitzheizung automatisch wieder ein.
Die Heckscheiben-Heizung schaltet sich zu früh aus.	Es ist nicht ausreichend Spannung vorhanden, da zu viele Verbraucher eingeschaltet sind. Die Heckscheiben-Heizung hat sich automatisch abgeschaltet.	Sobald wieder genügend Spannung vorhanden ist, schaltet sich die Heckscheiben-Heizung automatisch wieder ein.
Die AIRBAG OFF Kontrollleuchte leuchtet auf.	• Der Beifahrer-Airbag ist abgeschaltet, weil sich ein Kindersitz auf dem Beifahrersitz befindet. • Der Beifahrer-Airbag ist defekt, da sich kein Kindersitz auf dem Beifahrersitz befindet.	▶ Lassen Sie das Airbag-System von einer Mercedes-Benz Service-Station überprüfen.

Fig. 3: Extract from the SLK Roadster owner's manual
(DaimlerChrysler 2001:47, 130)

A comparison of the two extracts reveals that the SLK Roadster version has been improved in the following respects:

1. In the C-Class manual, instructions (e. g., "Taste (1) drücken:") and descriptions of system reactions ("Eine rote Kontrollleuchte in der Taste leuchtet auf.") are represented in the same typography. In the SLK Roadster manual this is different: Here instructions are preceded by a black triangle, whereas reactions of the system (descriptions) are not. Furthermore, in the SLK Roadster manual subheadings in bold typeface subdivide the text. The advantage of this

typographic differentiation for users is that they can access the specific information they are looking for more directly and thus faster.

2. The C-Class manual has a system-oriented (hardware-oriented) structure, i. e., the text structure reflects the structure of the car. This can be seen from the fact that, for example, the keys have been chosen as the topics of the subheadings ("Taste (1) drücken:", "Taste (2) drücken:", "Taste (1) oder (2) nochmals drücken:"). In owner's or user's manuals and operating instructions, such a system-oriented or hardware-oriented structure is not user-friendly: Users usually do not start from the system (here the keys) and ask *What can I do with these keys?* Instead, they start from what they want to achieve and ask *How can I switch the seat heating on/off?* The headings and subheadings should therefore reflect the questions the user asks, i. e., they should not refer to system components (such as the keys), but to actions which can be performed with these components. This has been taken into account in the SLK Roadster manual ("Sitzheizung einschalten," "Sitzheizung ausschalten," and "Sitz schnell aufheizen").

3. In the C-Class manual, the imperative infinitive *(Taste drücken.)* is used for instructions whereas in the SLK manual instructions are given by means of the imperative *(Drücken Sie die Taste.).* In manuals for prestigious products such as Mercedes Benz vehicles, the imperative is the more polite option; it gives the manufacturer a more service-oriented image.

4. In the C-Class manual, the passage about the seat heating begins with problems which may occur. Situations in which the user is confronted with such problems should be an exception and should, therefore, only be mentioned after the information about the regular operation has been given. Mentioning problematic situations at the beginning, and thus in an exposed position, may be detrimental to the manufacturer's image. This has been taken into account in the SLK manual: There the problems which may occur appear in a separate trouble-shooting chapter ("Selbsthilfe") at the end of the manual.

5. In the C-Class manual, the switch which German car drivers usually call *Zündung* (*ignition*) is termed *Startschalter.* Since *Zündung* is more common among car drivers, it is certainly also the more comprehensible term for them and is therefore to be preferred. This has been taken into account in the SLK manual.

6. The picture in the C-Class manual does not make clear where exactly in the centre console the user may find the switch in question, since the centre console houses several switches. The information given in the SLK manual is more precise. It states where exactly the switch is to be found ("oben") and furthermore, the picture not only shows the switch itself, it also shows the position where it is integrated.

Optimizations like those of the extract in Fig. 2 resulting in the version in Fig. 3 are typical tasks of technical writers. If we translate the version in Fig. 2 into English without combining the linguistic (and cultural) transfer with text optimizing measures, the English target text will not fulfil its function in an ideal way, just as the German original does not. To achieve an optimal result for the English readership, a translator following the principles of functional translation theories such as the theory of translatorial action by Holz-Mänttäri (1984) must have the desire to combine a linguistic (and cultural) transfer from German into another language with optimizations such as the ones explained above and thus produce an English version, for example, as the one illustrated in Fig. 4. This combination is what I call *intercultural technical writing*.

Seat heating

The switch for the seat heating is located in the upper section of the centre console.

[Fig.]
1 Seat heating
2 Rapid heating

▶ Make sure that the ignition is switched on (key in the ignition switch in position **2**).

Switching on the seat heating

▶ Press upper section of the switch.
  The right-hand indicator lamp lights up on the switch.

Switching off the seat heating

▶ Press upper section of the switch again.

i
The seat heating switches off automatically after approximately 30 minutes.

Switching on rapid heating

▶ Press lower section of the switch.
  Both indicator lamps light up on the switch.

i
After approximately five minutes the seat heating switches to normal heating mode automatically. Only the right-hand indicator lamp remains lit.

Switching off rapid heating

▶ Press lower section of the switch again.

Problem	Possible cause	Suggested solutions
One or both of the indicator lamps in the seat heating switch are flashing.	There is insufficient voltage because too many consumers are switched on. The seat heating has switched off automatically.	The seat heating will automatically switch back on as soon as there is sufficient voltage again.

Fig. 4: Optimized English version

In practice, however, translators are not always allowed to carry out such optimizations while translating. Owner's manuals are translated using translation memory systems in which, for reasons of efficiency, major modifications in layout and structure beyond the segment boundary are not allowed. As a consequence, translators who keep their audience in mind and take their roles seriously, must be dissatisfied when forced to transport deficiencies of the type described above into the target text. If they want to do something about these deficiencies, they have to move to a position upstream in the production chain, i. e., to the position of a technical writer.

This is only one example of the fact that the creative leeway translators have in an industrial environment becomes more and more restricted by the conditions under which they have to produce translations. Since the advance of functional translation theories into our translator and interpreter training, our students have been taught to take on more and more responsibility for their work. However, as I have shown,

they often cannot put this into practice when working as technical translators in companies. Therefore, if we do not want them to become frustrated, we must take the next step and also train them as full-fledged technical communicators who can produce texts which not only fulfil the expectations of their intended readership but also meet the requirement of leading to good translation results in the environments (such as translation memory systems) used in translation services.

2.2. Model manual and organizational changes

As we have seen from the example in section 2.1, VERONA has led to better source-text documentation quality and thus also to better translation quality. What could not yet be achieved in the VERONA project was a maximum degree of consistency in the customer documentation. This, however, is necessary to take optimal advantage of translation memory systems.

The inconsistency in owner's manuals has organizational reasons. Until recently, the production of owner's manuals at DaimlerChrysler was organized in the following manner: For each model range there was one in-house technical communicator who coordinated and supervised the production of the manuals for this model range. The production of the manuals themselves was outsourced, with different documentation companies in charge of the development of the various manuals. This had the effect that passages which cover exactly the same component in the manuals for different models varied, although, ideally, they should have been identical.

In the following, let us have a look at the passages covering the Sequentronic transmission from two different Mercedes Benz owner's manuals. The first extract is from the owner's manual of the Mercedes Benz E-Class (Fig. 5), the second, from that of the SL-Class (Fig. 6). The information the driver needs on the operation of this transmission is almost identical for both car models, yet the two extracts differ in many respects. One reason for this is that they were written by different authors.

Manuell-Modus
Im Manuell-Modus wählen Sie alle Schaltvorgänge manuell.

Anfahren

Es kann nur im 1. Gang oder im Rückwärtsgang angefahren werden.

► Treten Sie auf das Bremspedal.

► Schalten Sie in die Fahrstellung **G** oder **R**.

In der Getriebestellungs-Anzeige wird der eingelegte Gang angezeigt.

► Geben Sie dosiert Gas.

► Lassen Sie die Bremse langsam los, um langsam anzufahren („Ankriechen").

Wenn die SEQUENTRONIC den Schaltvorgang nicht ausführt, zeigt die Getriebestellungs-Anzeige eine „0", und im Multifunktions-Display erscheint die Anzeige `Bremse betätigen!`.

Hochschalten

► Tippen Sie den Wählhebel in Richtung +.

Das Getriebe schaltet in den nächsthöheren Gang.

Herunterschalten

► Tippen Sie den Wählhebel in Richtung -.

Das Getriebe schaltet in den nächstniedrigeren Gang.

Schleudergefahr   !

Schalten Sie auf glatter Fahrbahn nicht zum bremsen zurück. Die Antriebsräder können die Haftung verlieren.

Fig. 5: Extract from the Mercedes Benz E-Class owner's manual (DaimlerChrysler 2003:156f.)

Manuell-Modus

Im Manuell-Modus schalten Sie von Hand. Sie können in den nächsthöheren oder in den nächstniedrigeren Gang schalten.

Anfahren

Sie können nur im ersten Gang oder im Rückwärtsgang anfahren.

▶ Treten Sie auf die Bremse.

▶ Schalten Sie in die Wählhebel-stellung G oder R.

Im Multifunktions-Display wird der eingelegte Gang angezeigt.

▶ Lösen Sie vorsichtig die Parkbremse und fahren Sie langsam an.

ⓘ

Wenn die SEQUENTRONIC nicht schaltet, steht im Multifunktions-Display 0 und die Meldung `Bremse betätigen!`.

Hochschalten

▶ Tippen Sie den Wählhebel in Richtung +.

oder

▶ Drücken Sie außen auf die Lenkrad-Schalttasten (▷ Seite 150).

Das Getriebe schaltet in den nächsthöheren Gang.

Zurückschalten

▶ Tippen Sie den Wählhebel in Richtung -.

oder

▶ Drücken Sie innen auf eine der Lenkrad-Schalttasten (▷ Seite 150).

Das Getriebe schaltet in den nächstniedrigeren Gang.

ⓘ

Wenn Sie mit zu hohen oder zu niedrigen Drehzahlen fahren, schaltet die SEQUENTRONIC auch im Manuell-Modus auto-matisch.

Unfallgefahr !

Schalten Sie auf glatter Fahrbahn nicht zurück, um zu bremsen. Die Antriebsräder könnten die Haftung verlieren und das Fahrzeug kann schleudern.

Fig. 6: Extract from the Mercedes Benz SL-Class owner's manual (DaimlerChrysler 2002:142f.)

Since Mercedes Benz owner's manuals are translated using a translation memory system (TRANSIT), almost identical passages in the two manuals would have the advantage that the translation of the second manual could to a large extent be composed of 100-percent matches. A comparison of the two extracts, however, reveals numerous discrepancies, which have been highlighted in Fig. 5 and 6.

Many of these discrepancies could have been avoided by establishing and using a standardized terminology and a style guide. Both measures have been taken in the meantime. To achieve an even higher degree of consistency, additional organizational measures have been taken. Whereas in the past, one in-house technical communicator had been responsible for the customer information of an entire model range, s/he is now responsible for the documentation of one component in all model ranges. At the same time a model owner's manual has been designed for a fictitious car which contains all the options available in a Mercedes Benz vehicle. Whenever a component or an option has to be documented for a new model, the respective passages from the model manual have to be used as a starting point and adapted as needed. This example shows that increases in quality can sometimes only be achieved by means of organizational changes.

2.3. The ARKI project

ARKI (Allgemeines Redaktionssystem Kundeninformation – General editing environment customer information) was launched to increase the quality of customer information while at the same time reducing the cost of its production and

translation. The goal of this project is the development of an editing environment which allows the composition of customer information

- by re-using text modules,
- by providing the authors with a standardized terminology and a style guide, and
- by allowing automatic checking of the documents for conformance with the terminology released for use and the rules defined in the style guide.

Where do translators come in in this project? – First of all, they come in before a new term is released for use in customer information. For the purpose of terminological consistency, a concept-oriented termbase has been created. For each concept only one term per language is allowed (no synonyms). Technical authors may make suggestions for new German terms they need. Before these terms are released, they are passed on to the translation services where terminologists find equivalents for them in all languages in which they are needed. In so doing, they become aware of terminological incongruencies between languages and cultures which may make it necessary to split up a source-language concept into two or more target-language concepts. Only after this has happened are the terms released. This is necessary because, in the database, each concept has an individual concept number. In the case of polysemy the concept number allows the translator to find out in what sense the term is used in the particular context (for further information on this cf. Göpferich 2003). This, again, makes the actual translation task easier and more monotonous while at the same time shifting the interesting and more demanding tasks to stages prior to the actual translation process.

2.4. DaimlerChrysler text optimization competition

Another measure taken by DaimlerChrysler was a competition, in which several universities in German-speaking countries were invited to take part. Among those who took part in this competition was a team of five of our students at Graz whom I had encouraged to take part because this competition provided them with realistic working conditions. Within three month they had to make suggestions on how to improve the quality of sections of the E-Class owner's manual and to further reduce its size. For this purpose, they were provided with an E-Class vehicle (the E-Class is produced in Graz), which they could use for usability testing; they could talk to both documentation experts and specialists in automotive engineering to get their specific questions answered; and they had to work closely together in a team to cope with their workload in a limited time span and to produce consistent results. These realistic working conditions together with the chance of winning the award were a highly motivating experience for them (and resulted in them winning the first prize of €7.500 and a trip to Stuttgart). The project had provided a real social constructivist learning environment for them as suggested by Kiraly (2000) in his excellent work *A Social Constructivist Approach to Translator Education*. He describes such a learning environment as follows:

In a classroom based on transformational beliefs, the teacher will assume roles such as guide, assistant, mentor and facilitator and will see his or her job primarily in terms of helping create complex, naturalistic learning environments in the classroom, and providing support for collaborative learning processes. In such a classroom, learning activities will be marked by proactive students working in collaboration with each other and with the teacher, and a focus on situationally embedded real-life or realistic projects rather than on memorization of discrete pieces of knowledge. Rather than a place where students are isolated from the real world after graduation while being prepared to face it, the transformationist classroom is seen as being inextricably embedded with authentic, real-world activity. Thus learning becomes a forum for guided social and cultural experience. The individualized nature of the learning process will be respected and, rather than distributing knowledge, the facilitator will guide learners in the construction of their own meaning. (Kiraly 2000:23)

My role as a teacher in this project was exactly that of a facilitator: I provided my students with the contacts at DaimlerChrysler and passed on to them what I had learned about the production of customer information in this company. My students had to use these contacts and the information I provided them with to solve new problems and make innovative suggestions. This was a real challenge to them, especially since they knew that there was no model answer in my drawer which I could hand out to them after they had tried to solve the problem by themselves. At the same time, such projects give us teachers an opportunity to keep in touch with what is going on outside the ivory tower and thus to continuously adapt our training to the requirements of the market. They also enable us to intervene in market developments whenever we feel that they are incompatible with our professional ethos.

3. Conclusion

As I have shown above, the use of a standardized terminology, the aim of consistency in source documents, and the employment of translation memory systems makes translating technical documentation easier and more monotonous while at the same time shifting the interesting and more demanding tasks to stages prior to the actual translation process (standardizing terminology, developing style guides and editing environments, optimizing texts, writing for translation, etc.). If we do not want our graduate translators to become frustrated in these translation environments, we must also train them as full-fledged technical communicators, who are able and allowed to perform text optimizations and produce source texts which not only fulfil the expectations of their intended readership but also the requirements of being translatable and leading to good translation results in the environments (such as translation memory systems) used in translation services.

As I have also shown, translation cannot be regarded as an isolated process, must be seen as one step in a complex documentation production chain. Such documentation production chains cannot be simulated in traditional translation

practice classes. Therefore, if we want to prepare our students for the full range of language and culture mediation tasks that will wait for them outside our institutions, we must give them the chance to do authentic praxis-oriented work where they must "come to grips with the types of constraints and expectations they can expect to face once they graduate" (Kiraly 2000:193). Providing our students with such realistic working conditions makes close cooperation between translator training institutions and companies indispensable. For this purpose, the Laboratory for Communication & Documentation (LabCom.Doc) was established, a transfer centre at the Department of Translation Studies of the University of Graz, which gives students and young graduates the opportunity to work on projects launched and financed by companies and institutions.

Cooperating closely with companies not only provides students with realistic working conditions, it also helps the teaching staff to keep in contact with the world outside the ivory tower and to adapt their training to the requirements of the market. This does not mean that our training institutions should become the slaves of industry. On the contrary, working closely together with companies gives us the opportunity to recognize developments which we cannot tolerate at an early stage and take measures to divert them into more favourable directions. Such interventions may, for example, concern the development of new computer tools which support documentation and translation processes. Being able to develop ergonomic computer tools which really meet the needs of translators necessitates field studies, so called workplace studies, such as the one carried out by Risku (2004). They help us to find out how translators and related professional groups organize their work and cooperate with each other and at what points in these processes what types of computer support could be of advantage. Once the specifications are clear, those who have carried out the field studies must be able to communicate with software engineering specialists who can develop the programmes that meet these specifications.

If Kiraly (2000) is right with his social constructivist theory of translator education, we must give our students the chance to cooperate with all the professional groups with whom they will have to work together at their later workplaces. This means that we must bring them together with marketing experts, who know customer wishes, technical communicators, software engineers, etc. Ideally, the individual university programs for these professional profiles share courses where the students from the different programs come together to solve problems in model projects in a joint effort. Such cooperation will not only contribute to better cooperation in their later positions but also to new professional profiles which result from a blending of qualifications from training programs which, today, are still offered separately and independently.

In such projects, our students can gain their own insights. At the same time, it gives us teachers the chance to quit our traditional role as "sage on the stage" and accompany them as "guide on the side" (King 1993). This not only makes their

education a more challenging task for them, but also gives us university teachers the chance to keep embedded in working environments outside the ivory tower.

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Article by Susanne Göpferich (abstract)

ABSTRACT

Modifications in documentation processes and their impact on the work of technical communicators and translators and their training

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A number of factors, such as technological progress, globalization, the new media, stricter product liability directives, and increasing competition with regard to documentation quality and cost efficiency, force companies to optimize and streamline documentation processes. This article presents the measures a large automotive manufacturer has taken within the last five years to cope with this pressure and describes the impact of these measures on the task profiles of technical communicators and translators working in the automotive industry. Drawing on Kiraly's social constructivist approach to translator education, the last section of this paper discusses how university programs in translation and interpreting can prepare students for these changing professional profiles.

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Drug Trade Names:
A Morpho-Semantic Study
in Resourcefulness and Perfidy

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1. Introduction

Drug trade names are an important object of study because of the health, legal and commercial concerns they represent. For instance, look-alike and sound-alike names of drugs contribute to the burden of medication errors, which are a subset of adverse events in healthcare. These errors of prescription, dispensing and use account for 7000 annual deaths in the US (cf. Kohn et al 2000), and for 25% of litigation claims in general medicine practice in the UK (cf. Department of Health 2000). As might be expected, there is also undocumented and anecdotal evidence. The pharmacist co-author of this paper (C.E.) has been witness to two interesting scenarios involving two drugs, Virex and Virest. In the first, a client returned to a pharmacy to complain that a drug previously sold to him (Virex, for HIV-AIDS) was not having the desired effect. Upon closer examination of the original prescription, it was discovered that Virest (for herpes), not Virex, is what was prescribed and what should have been sold. The second scenario occurs during a follow-up visit to a hospital to which C.E. had introduced a drug (Virest) manufactured by the company he represents. C.E. was given what was intended as cheering news: 'Virex is now being prescribed.' Flabbergasted, C.E. protests: 'No, no, my drug is Virest, not Virex.' Another company and another drug were now undeservedly enjoying the fruits of C.E.'s marketing labour (as sales pharmacist).

Invaluable insight into drug trademarks has come notably through initiatives of the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). The rationale for this agency's keen interest can be gleaned from the following admission: 'FDA has determined that many of the medication errors reported to the agency result from medical products having proprietary names that look or sound like the names of other medical products. Reducing the potential for medication errors due to proprietary name

confusion is part of FDA's ongoing medical product risk management effort' (cf. Department of Health and Human Services 2003).

At a June 2003 public meeting of the FDA to brainstorm on methods for evaluating the potential for drug name similarities, there were presentations on: the need to carefully think through and plan the phases of a trademark development model (Olmstead 2003); the range of factors that make name confusion possible (Lesar 2003); the need for manufacturers to generate protocol data showing how a proposed drug name avoids confusion with an existing name, and supply same to the FDA when approval is sought (Hassal 2003); the place of handwriting technology in predicting the likelihood of a proposed name being confused with another in written prescriptions (Jaszczak 2003); how phonetic and orthographical strings (subsequence of characters) can be used to assess the similarity and distance of names (Dorr & Kondrak 2003); etc.

In Nigeria, it is rare to find any kind of linguistic research on drug trade names, whether conducted from the medical safety standpoint (a perspective that enjoys prominence in, say, North American literature), or from the equally important ethical-commercial perspective that is particularly dictated by the context of drug management in the country. The overall consequence of this dearth is that knowledge of issues in drug trade names is arguably rudimentary, to the disadvantage of all stakeholders. Drug manufacturers may not be aware of the infringement of their rights by competitors through trade name counterfeiting, or they may not have a robust framework for thinking through trade naming possibilities and for reflecting broadly on the implications of whatever trade names are assigned to drugs. Lawyers who have to prosecute trademark cases may not have access to useful perspectives for their cases. On their part, regulatory authorities may employ rather rudimentary criteria for scrutinizing trade name licence applications for drugs to be marketed within national borders.

This article seeks to analyse the semantic motivations underlying drug names marketed in Nigeria as well as the morphological processes employed in encoding these motivations. In doing this, our objectives are to find out: a) how exhaustively available naming resources have been utilized, b) how resourceful manufacturers have been in assigning trade names to drugs, c) if and how trade naming contributes to unfair trade practices and to the potential for adverse drug events, d) the challenges which drug naming practices pose to regulatory authorities and the legal framework within which they operate. In order to elaborate on the context within which the study derives its significance, we first describe the environment of drug administration in Nigeria.

2. The context of drug administration in Nigeria

There are changes taking place currently in the drug administration environment in Nigeria, thanks to the multi-pronged approach of the country's National Agency for Food and Drug Administration and Control (NAFDAC) under the much decorated Dora Akunyili. Insight into the state of drug administration in the country's very

recent past can be gleaned through the prism of novel initiatives launched by Akunyili's leadership of NAFDAC. However, to be at a turning point, as drug administration in Nigeria currently is, means that there are residues of those practices which have been largely tackled by reforms.

Fake and substandard drugs have been a bane of healthcare in Nigeria. A BBC Two, July 12, 2005 broadcast ('bad medicines') described the quality of drugs sold in Nigeria and the international sources of substandard medicines. It also showed accounts by patients' relatives of drug failures (with often irreversible consequences) caused by what turned out to be fake and substandard drugs. Strikingly, these incidents did not always take place in some corner street patent medicine store but also in University Teaching Hospitals.

NAFDAC has, by the admission of all, made tremendous progress on the road to ridding Nigeria of fake and substandard drugs. In 1989, for instance, 25% of drugs sold in Nigeria were fake and substandard, 25% genuine, and in 50% of cases studied the evidence was inconclusive. A 1990 study similarly showed that 54% of drugs in 'every major pharmacy shop were fake, a figure that had risen to about 80% in the subsequent years.' (cf. NAFDAC 2005). At the end of 2005, it was estimated that over 80% of the drugs marketed in Nigeria were genuine.

Quite a number of factors brought about the situation currently being addressed by NAFDAC. For instance, the combination of a tradition of long-distance road travel would seem to have spawned a drug hawking industry revolving around intestinal motility-inhibiting medicines and closely linked to passenger vehicular movement. Initially, diarrheal drugs were the medicines sold, but over time the range increased. It was common sight to see – at petrol stations where buses and taxis stop over – barely literate vendors, hawking search-light batteries and air-fresheners alongside antibiotics under all unimaginable weather conditions. Thanks to NAFDAC, which has declared this practice illegal and is clamping down on perpetrators, the industry is increasingly becoming less visible and may only now exist underground. Outright success is probably a tall order because deep-rooted practices, bolstered by poverty and low levels of education, make it difficult to enforce appropriate measures. Unlike in a pharmacy or a patent medicine store, the hawker can sell two of the ten tablets in a sachet if that is what the client can afford.

Health in Nigeria is largely financed through out-of-pocket expenses. This factor combines with a myriad of other factors such as the following to create other challenges for drug administration: widespread poverty, poor patient–physician ratios, questionable educational levels of persons manning drug outlets, a tradition of purchase and sale (without prescription) of what are prescription-only-medicines (POMs), and so on. Every so often at patent medicine stores and pharmacies, clients are seen coming in and complaining of a long list of problems, then offering the local currency equivalent of less than a cent, and asking for whatever drug description(s) and quantity thereof can address the catalogue of problems. At once the vendor, who may be barely literate, is pressured into the role of physician-

economist, clearly oblivious of the distinction between POMs and over the counter (OTC) medicines. Here again, NAFDAC is having drug vendors comply with the international practice of selling only on prescription medicines that are so classified. Drug vendors are increasingly wary of selling POMs without prescription as the client could very well be an undercover NAFDAC agent or a security operative. Again, success here is likely to be a tall order because of system linkages. If the physician–population ratio is poor or if access to a physician is difficult for financial, geographical and other reasons, operators of pharmacies will continue to have a steady flow of clients that require POMs but without the prescriptions. Since pharmacies are essentially business outfits, business sense is likely to prevail.

It is indeed this warped business sense that often exploits the low educational levels of the clientele and/or the absence of prescriptions to create a common but unfortunate scenario in pharmacies and other drug sales outlets in Nigeria. A request by a client for drug XA, which turns out to be unavailable in the given pharmacy, is hardly answered in the negative. In the better of two scenarios, the vendor says XB is available, implicating to the client that XA and XB are identical. In a worse case, XB is simply passed off as XA, with no apparent concerns about bioavailability. In the course of writing this article, one of us (BA) went to a pharmacy with a request for Ceporex (a Cephalexin-based antibiotic syrup from GlaxoWellcome). With no explanation whatsoever, the dispensing pharmacist packages Spirodex, a competing product. BA rejects it. An apology is only (sarcastically) offered after BA affirms that a client has the right to the brand of choice for what might be considered psychological reasons, assuming there are no pharmokinetics to worry about.

In sum, the context in which this study is set is one in which drug counterfeiting is or has been a problem. It is an environment in which drugs are requested, not on the basis of (authorized) prescription, but on the recommendation of a neighbour who, for all we know, is barely literate in English and may have mixed up the pronunciation of the drug's English-sounding name. The context is also one in which drugs are sold by all manner of persons with questionable credentials and with scant regard for prescription; even where there is a prescription, the dictates of the bottom-line are such that the client's right of choice is disregarded. In these circumstances, it becomes clear that drug trade naming practices can be a veritable source of concern from the health, commercial and similar standpoints.

3. Theoretical framework

A discussion such as this on the name by which something is called is necessarily framed by an outline of concept characteristics and by the word-formation processes that give expression to the decisions taken at the concept characteristics level.

It is often the case that the name of an object will be motivated by some characteristic of that object, in other words, attributes. We interpret Dahlberg's

(1995) account of concept characteristics in terms of a cline, from a high level of abstraction or generalization to a low or zero level. See Figure 1 below.
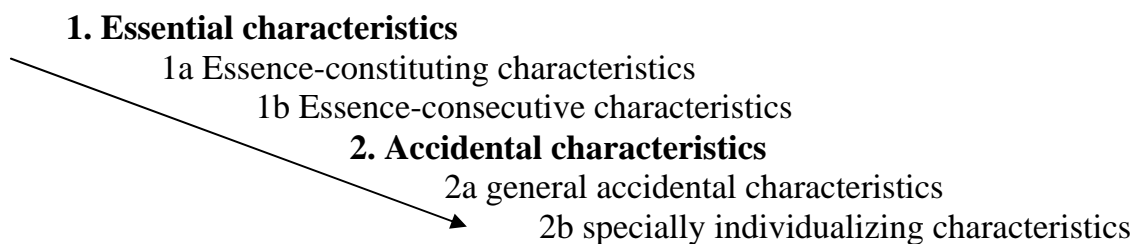
1. Essential characteristics
     1a Essence-constituting characteristics
     1b Essence-consecutive characteristics
      2. Accidental characteristics
       2a general accidental characteristics
        2b specially individualizing characteristics

Figure 1: Typology of concept characteristics

Following Dahlberg, if we take a human being as referent, an example of…

- 1a would be: to have a living body, to have a soul, to have a divine spirit – these being according to her the necessary and sufficient conditions. (For a drug, this would be a brand attribute like chemical composition or the generic on which it is based);
- 1b would be: (from having a living body) metabolism & reproduction; (from having a soul) feeling; (from having a divine spirit) creativity, free-will power, etc. (For a drug, this would be a brand attribute like, say, therapeutic effect);
- 2a would be: sex (male, female), height (tall, average, short), etc. (For a drug, this would be a brand attribute like the presentation form: tablet, caplet, etc.);
- 2b would be: date of birth, domicile, name of parents, etc. (For a drug, this would be a brand attribute like the name of the manufacturer).

When a decision is taken on what characteristics, brand attributes or motifs to implement in a name, the next issue is that of the word-forming method that will give expression to that decision. Name formation is a peculiar activity in that it does not appear subject to all of the same kinds of constraints or rules for forming general language words. It is intuitively assumed that, with perhaps the exception of compounding, relevant word formation processes would fall into the category of what is severally referred to as oddities, unpredictable formations, and so on. Since in its treatment of these processes the relevant literature (e.g. Francis 1981, Bauer 1983, Mathews 1991) sometimes differs in terminology, classification, level of generalization, perspective, we outline below our operational acceptation for a number of processes relevant to the current context.

1. When two or more words (including names and coinages) combine, or when a word combines with a word-part whose underlying base is despite the shortening still transparent, and the resulting combination is a hyponym of the grammatical head, then we will speak of an **endocentric compound**. Examples: Robert Paracetamol, Moko Chloroquine, Alagbin Plus, Voltaren

SR (the latter two being of course left-headed, whereas the former two are like all typical English language compounds right-headed).

2. When two or more words or transparent word-parts combine, and there is no apparent head within the construction because the real head is actually external and is only metaphorically referred to, we will speak of an **exocentric compound**. Examples: Painax (<pain + axe), Pengo (<pain + go) – in which the words occupying the traditional position of head refer metaphorically to the named medicines.

3. When two or more words (typically proper nouns) combine and no meaningful analysis into modifier and head can be made literally or metaphorically, then we have a **copulative compound**. Example: Alka-Seltzer. (Company mergers often are a source of copulative compounds).

4. When a word is made up of initials and other place holders like numbers, the result is **abbreviation**. Examples: M & B 5, CQP 500.

5. When a word is shortened but its base remains recognizable in the reduction, or when two or more shortened words are combined to form a new one that is semantically recoverable, then we have **clipping**. Examples: Clofenac (< diclofenac), Emzoquine (< clipped forms of Emzor – name of manufacturer – + Chloroquine), Lariam (< malaria).

6. When a word or proper noun combines with an unrecognizable word-part (including initialism), or when two word-parts are combined such that one or both of the parts is not recognizable, or is only recognized after being explained, the process is described as **blending**. Examples: Emprin (<clipped forms of Emzor and Aspirin), Imoceta (<unknown + clipped form of paracetamol).

7. When a previously non-existing word is formed with no motivation of any kind, the result is **word manufacture**. Examples: Propon, Daga, Afrim.

To allow them remain basic or no more complicated than they already are, these operational definitions have not been encumbered with such otherwise necessary specifications as: the nature of the word (orthographic vs. phonetic: recall examples painax and pengo); whether letters of a word are written in their correct sequence or in some inverse or other order (recall example: Lariam < malaria); and so on. The criterion of transparency/recognition which serves to distinguish blending and (a compound form of) clipping is a rather subjective one, depending as it is on the observer. The perspective that will be adopted here is that of the health professional or other persons who, through interest, have gained some familiarity with the drug industry in Nigeria (generics of trade names marketed, notable manufacturers, etc.).

It is within this framework, then, that we will be analysing (in the manner outlined in the next section) the data for this study.

3. Materials & Methods

Data required for the study is made up of trade names of drugs, and these names are sourced from the *Emdex Complete Drug Formulary for Nigeria* (2005), a published reference resource based on the World Health Organization (WHO) model formulary. It contains, among others, generic names of drugs, trade names of drugs that are registered in Nigeria, features of these drugs (composition, strength, presentation form, base, etc), the conditions they treat as well as the names of their manufacturers or importers into Nigeria[1].

A total of 209 trade names constitute the corpus for this study. These names are taken from three drug categories: non-opioid analgesics and antipyretics (66 proprietary drugs distributed over 6 generics), nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (72 proprietary drugs distributed over 11 generics) and antimalarial drugs (71 proprietary drugs distributed over 15 generics). Pain/fever and inflammation (the first two categories) and malaria (third category) are very common conditions for which there is a diversity of generic and proprietary drugs. Only trade names for proprietary formulations are of interest to this study.

In addressing the first objective on how exhaustively available naming resources have been utilized, the motifs or concept characteristics encoded as names in our corpus will be identified as well as the patterns of combination and morphological processes. The identification of motifs may be subjective, but it will be seen to be intersubjectively verifiable. On the basis of the list of motifs, the number of naming options will be determined through a permutation analysis using the following formula:

$$^{n}P_{r} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

where

        P = Permutation symbol
        n = No. of available motifs (in this case *n* =13)
        n! = Factorial *n = n(n-1)(n-2)...1*
        r = No. of motifs in a drug name (in this case *r =1, 2* or *3*)

The number of possibilities (permutations) will show not just how exhaustively naming possibilities have been actually used, but also a sense of the distribution of the actual naming patterns over possibilities. What motivation patterns are over- or underused? The question will also be asked in respect of morphological processes.

In addressing the second objective on the resourcefulness of manufacturers, we draw on the results of a general analysis of the motivations of all trade names and the morphological processes that encode these motivations into names. The specific

data of interest here are those situations where there are several manufacturers producing proprietary versions of the same generic and having trade names reflect this generic without *apparently* infringing on one another's names.

To address the third and fourth objectives on the relationship between, on the one hand, trade naming and, on the other, adverse drug events (associated with prescribing, dispensing and using), fairness and regulation, several kinds of data will be presented, notably data showing a perfidious genericization of trade name parts.

3. Results

3.1. Distribution of trade names over naming possibilities

Appendices 1 – 8 present data on motivation patterns as well as on the morphological processes encoding instances of these motifs into trade names. With respect to motifs, the appendices show that forty-four possibilities are used. Leaving out instances of the motif referred to as 'stolen' in serial numbers 6, 28, 35, 38, 39, 40, 41 (to which we shall return subsequently), we have thirty-seven motivation patterns.

From the standpoint of the typology of characteristics, the corpus exemplifies the whole range: motif combinations that highlight essence-constituting characteristics like serial no. 18 (generic + base + strength = CQP-500, where CQP=Chloroquine Phosphate), no. 25 (condition + generic = malaquine), no. 42 (effect + condition = antimal); and motif combinations that slight essential characteristics like no. 2 (unknown + fortification = Alagbin Plus), no. 32 (manufacturer + presentation form = Emcap), no. 33 (manufacturer + strength = M & B 5), no. 36 (attribute + presentation form = toptabs).

Again leaving out the motifs referred to as stolen, we see from appendices 1 – 8 that, essentially, thirteen motifs are implemented, namely: 1) unknown (often we have proper nouns here), 2) generic name, 3) condition (to be treated), 4) manufacturer's name, 5) effect (the therapeutic consequence of drug), 6) attribute (expressive, judgmental description of drug), 7) strength (SR: slow release; mg: milligram), 8) fortification (e.g. extra, plus, both indicating a combination of generics), 9) presentation form (e.g. tablet, capsule, elixir), 10) base (phosphate, sodium, etc.), 11) user group (of the drug, e.g. kids), 12) substance (other composite besides generic), 13) category (the group to which several generics belong, e.g. analgesics, antimalarials). The question now is: just how many naming possibilities can these thirteen motifs generate, assuming a maximum of three motifs per name?

Using the formula for permutation analysis given earlier, if a drug name were to consist of no more than k motifs (where $1 \leq k \leq n$), the number of possibilities (permutations) would be:

$$\sum_{r=1}^{k} {}^{n}P_r = \sum_{r=1}^{k} \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

Therefore, a permutation analysis of the 13 motifs in our corpus, where a drug name consists of no more than 3 motifs, gives rise to the following number of possibilities:

$$\sum_{r=1}^{3} {}^{13}P_r = \sum_{r=1}^{3} \frac{13!}{(13-r)!} = \frac{13!}{12!} + \frac{13!}{11!} + \frac{13!}{10!} = 13 + (13)(12) + (13)(12)(11) = 1885$$

Intuitively, however, certain motif permutations are conceptually or otherwise implausible, even though those examples of trade names that implement essence-irrelevant characteristics tend to suggest that just about any selection is possible. We nonetheless assume that some motifs or motif permutations may not (always) be possible, and that there would be certain constraints to selections/sequences. For instance, the motif 'fortification' is not uniformly available because a given drug's composition needs to have been fortified with some other generic for this motif to be used. Besides, fortification will necessarily occur in the proximity of 'generic'. The motif 'effect' necessarily has to be in the proximity of motif 'condition'. Although it cannot be stated just how many such exceptions there would be[2], it appears, intuitively at least, that the thirty-seven options actually used in the corpus represent a small fraction of the 1885 possibilities. Table 1 below presents a sample of patterns (two and three motifs) that have not at all been attested in our corpus.

Generic + user group	Presentation form + generic	Generic + base
Manufacturer + condition + effect	Generic + presentation form	Manufacturer + unknown
User group + effect + condition	Fortification + generic	Condition + presentation form

Table 1: Motivation patterns unattested in studied corpus

Turning now to morphological processes employed in encoding these motifs, Table 2 shows the distribution of names according to process.

Occurrences of processes						
Endocentric compounds	Exocentric compounds	Copulative compounds	Abbreviation	Clipping	Blending	Word manufacture
12	3	1	4	68	95	26

Table 2: Word formation processes employed in studied corpus

It is obvious from Table 2 that blending and clipping together account for 163 out of the 209 trade names. Together the three compound types account for just 16 of the total, while word manufacture (or coinage) is used for 26 of the names[3]. The

latter corresponds to single-unit terms with the motivation unknown (cf. appendix 1).

With respect to our first objective, therefore, it is obvious that many more possibilities for trade naming exist than have been actually used in the three drug categories under study. Leaving aside for a moment the point about implausible selections/sequences, the 37 patterns used out of the 1885 possibilities amounts to only 1.9%. We note that some of the most frequent motifs in our trade name corpus are: generic (in 134 names), unknown (in 110 names), manufacturer (in 39 names), and condition (in 34 names). The least frequent motifs include: user group (in 1 name) and base (in 1 name). As far as morphological processes are concerned, it is obvious for instance that compounds are not nearly as frequently used as clipping and blending.

The foregoing will be at the background in the following sections on resourcefulness and perfidy.

3.2. Resourcefulness in naming

Intuitively, there could be a host of parameters for assessing what resourcefulness in trade naming is: a) ease of recall; b) ease of pronunciation; c) transparency of the drug's essential characteristics (to health professionals, but also to the clientele); d) mirroring of some strategic interest (e.g. corporate identity) or other essence-consecutive characteristics (presentation form, etc.); e) distinctiveness, that is, attaining all or several of the above parameters without demonstrably being liable of infringement of other trademarks. Below we shall be concerned with (aspects of) parameters c – e.

Paradoxically, motif 'unknown' is in absolute terms the second most numerically significant motif, after 'generic' (cf. appendix 2). From the standpoint of transparency of a drug's characteristics, the 25 instances of single-unit names with motif 'unknown' are apparently problematic. Informants who are medical students or fresh medical graduates claim that recognition of a drug is enhanced when the trade name implements motifs that are easily matched with some general characteristics, such as chemical grouping (generic), condition treated, effect, etc. The learning curve is a lot steeper with trade names that are integrally based on proper nouns or motifs that are not generally known. So, within what must be considered a tension system of transparency and distinctiveness, the 25 single-unit trade names implementing motif 'unknown' are very distinctive and are unlikely to contribute to name-related medication errors. However, this putative resourcefulness loses its value, or translates into a challenge, in settings where, because of concern with faking, physicians have to actually know and prescribe trade names rather than generics.

By the same token, where there is an attraction to motifs that are transparent, the challenge inevitably becomes one of how to maintain some form of distinctiveness.

Appendix 2 shows that the motif 'generic' is in absolute terms the most frequent, with 52 occurrences name-initially and a further 83 occurrences in other positions.

As the data below will show, distinctiveness seems to be achieved through the creative use of clipping and through blending of generic name parts with a variety of other formants (full, clipped or abbreviated names of manufacturer or of other proper names, form of drug, user population, etc.).

Consider Table 3 below which shows that there are three manufacturers with naproxen-based products.

Naproxen	
Trade name	Manufacturer/importer
Apo-Naproxen	Lahams, Nigerian agent to Apotex Pharmaceuticals, Canada
Hoproxen	Hovid (Malaysian). Phamatex is Nigerian agent.
Naxen	Swipha (Swiss Pharma, formerly Roche)

Table 3: Attempts at reflecting the generic, Naproxen

Swipha's 'Naxen' is a composite front-back clipping: the generic is clipped in such a way that the initial and final syllables of the base remain ('na + xen'). The middle syllable 'pro' is thus deleted. Hovid, on its part, uses back clipping (as it deletes the initial syllable 'na'), and the outcome is then blended with the first syllable ('Ho') of its name. Manufacturer Apotex retains the entire generic name, then blends it with a front clipping of its name 'Apo'.

The deletion of the middle syllable in 'Naproxen>Naxen' can also be seen in Table 4 with the two amodiaquine-based drugs in our corpus.

Amodiaquine	
Trade name	Manufacturer/importer
Amoquin	Pharma-Deko
Camoquin	Pfizer

Table 4: Attempts at reflecting the generic Amodiaquine

While manufacturer Pharma-Deko only clips, taking away the third syllable 'dia', Pfizer blends the outcome of the same process with an initial (unknown, difficult to recover) C. Since Camoquine from Pfizer came before Amoquin, manufacturer Pharma-Deko would be said to have failed to be sufficiently distinctive if such a claim of confusion were ever made.

So far, we have seen instances of 2-3 proprietary drug preparations competing for use of the generic name. Let us now turn to a situation where 26 trade names are able to reflect the generic 'chloroquine' and still maintain a measure of distinctiveness. Table 5 below presents the relevant data.

Chloroquine-based drugs					
Reflecting initial syllable (Chlo)		**Reflecting initial & final syllables**		**Reflecting final syllable (quine)**	
Trade name	*Manufacturer*	*Trade name*	*Manufacturer*	*Trade name*	*Manufacturer*
Avloclor	Reals	Kloquin	Ranbaxy	Assiquine	Dizpharm
Fapchlor	Food & Pharma	Moko chloroquine	New Healthway	Capquine	Evans
Pentaclor	Morison			Donaquine	Doyin
				Emzoquine	Emzor
				Fevaquine	David
				Fevokine	GSK
				Kidiquine	BCN
				L-quine	Leady-pharma
				Malaquine	Farmex-Meyer
				Mathewquine	Daily need
				Maxiquine	Vitabiotics
				Miraquine	Mirapharm
				Nasmoquin	Nasdmu
				Nivaquine	May & Baker
				Normaquine	Geneith
				Quimal	Dana
				Robaquine	Swipha
				Samquine	Sam
				Silaquine	GoldMoore
				Tavquine	Justeen
				Ultiquine	Ulticare-Lyka

Table 5: Attempts at reflecting generic Chloroquine

A new entrant into medical practice in the community where these drugs are marketed hardly has a problem associating these trade names with the generic chloroquine. Table 5 shows that of the three syllables in the generic name – chloroquine – it is the final one that is the most used. 'Quine' becomes something of a final combining form (Bauer 1983:214) to which a variety of formants (manufacturer name, other names, etc.) can be 'prefixed'. It is interesting that the initial orthographic syllable 'chlo', in the much fewer instances where it is used in

the proprietary versions, does not occur word-initially. Fronting proper names, particularly when they reflect the manufacturer, allows for the simultaneous attainment of two goals: projecting the manufacturer's corporate identity and reflecting the generic name of the drug.

It is equally instructive to note from Table 5 that even when drug companies implement the very same motifs in the names of their drugs, distinctiveness can be achieved through sequencing of the motifs. Though in the pair 'Malaquine' and 'Quimal' the extent of clipping of the combining motifs is not identical, there is no mistaking that both trade names implement the motifs 'malaria' and '(chloro)quine'. Looking at drugs under the different generic name 'Quinine', we find further confirmation of the resource that sequencing represents: 'Quinimax' is largely a mirror image of the chloroquine-based 'Maxiquine'.

While the combining formant 'quine' is the hallmark of chloroquine-based products, clipped versions of malaria (notably: mal, lari) are more evenly spread across all genera of antimalarials. Table 6 shows this.

Clippings of malaria as formant			
Mal	Generic name	**Lari**	Generic name
Maladrin	Chloroquine	Lariago	Chloroquine
Malaquine	---- ditto ---	Lariam	Mefloquine
Quimal	---- ditto ----	Laridox	Sulfadoxine + pyrimethamine
Malagold	Quinine	Larimal	Amodiaquine + artesunate
Antimal	Sulfadoxine + pyrimethamine		
Malakare	---- ditto ---		
Malcidal	---- ditto ---		
Maldox	---- ditto ---		
Maloxine	---- ditto ---		
Malpan	---- ditto ---		
Malwin	---- ditto ---		
Ridmal	---- ditto ---		
Malafloq	Sulfadoxine + pyrimethamine + mefloquine		

Table 6: Attempts at reflecting 'mal' and 'lari'

As Table 6 shows, the clipped 'mal' is more often used, and more word-initially than word-finally.

Although we have no explanation why certain drugs are not included in our reference resource, the Emdex Formulary, there is a rather interesting pattern that is noticeable when some of these non-documented drugs are considered alongside the ones in our data. It does seem that even when the motifs in two or more trade names are fundamentally the same the specific lexical, orthographical and phonetic realisation or name encoding of these motifs may be different. In Table 7 below we use the concept of lexical functions to illustrate this. Following Mel'cuk, a lexical function is a semantic abstraction, comprising an argument to which is assigned a function in order to obtain institutionalized realizations/expressions in language of the given function (Antia 2000:137). Supposing a function, *Antiver*, standing for 'not the appropriate or expected form'; in the context of the argument (**drug**), the institutionalized expressions in English would include: fake, substandard, adulterated, counterfeit, and so on.

Facets	Against	Cause to end	Condition	Fortification
Malarial drugs	**Anti**mal	**Rid**mal	**Mala**drin	
	***A**malar	Mal**cid**al	**Palu**drine > French: paludisme	
			Paluther	
Analgesics		Pain**kil**		Pentax **Plus** (paracetamol 500mg + caffeine 25mg)
		Pen**go**		Zimol **Extra** (paracetamol 500mg + caffeine 30mg)
		Pen**stop**		
Rheumatoid arthritis drugs		Arthracid		
		Romacid		

Table 7: Different motif realisations in trade names (*not in Emdex formulary)

Notice that the function 'against' is realised as 'anti' and 'a' in malarial drugs; the lexical function 'cause to end' in analgesics as three verb realisations (kill, go, stop); phonological and orthographical clippings of the composites of 'rheumatoid arthritis' provide two realisations of this condition (arthr and roma) to which 'cid', a realisation of the lexical function (cause to end) is added.

It is equally interesting to note that some manufacturers have attempted to uniquely identify their products by consistently or frequently using the following pattern of trade naming: manufacturer's name (usually front-clipped) blended with some other formant (generic name, form of drug, etc.). Table 8 presents the data.

Emzor product range	Apotex product range	Food & Pharma product range
Empirin (~ + aspirin)	Apo-Keto SR (~ + Ketoprofen + slow release)	Fapdol (~ + paracetamol)
Emcap (~ + capsule)	Apo-Naproxen (~ + Naproxen)	Fapchlor (~ + chloroquine)
Emzorquine (~ + chloroquine)	Apo-Piroxicam (~ + Piroxicam)	
Hovid product range	**Mirapharm product range**	
Hostan (~ + unknown)	Mira-para (~ + paracetamol)	
Hoproxen (~ + Naproxen)	Miraquine (~ + chloroquine)	

Table 8: Corporate identity advertised in trade names

These names have the effect of projecting the corporate identity of the manufacturers. A visit to the websites of several of these companies confirms that this pattern is one that is quite frequently used. See, for instance, the following websites:

- Emzor Pharmaceuticals: www.emzorpharma.com/html/product_catalog.htm
- Apotex: www.apotex.ca/Products/EN/Default.asp

With respect to Apotex, it would appear that all its drugs have the 'Apo' prefix.

The question arises as to whether the resourcefulness represented by the use of a motif representing corporate identity does not sometimes lead to drug confusion as data such as the following might suggest: Barbi**mol** (paraceta**mol**-based) and Barbi**mox** (amoxicillin-based). The particular manufacturer, Juhel, wishes to use Barbi as its identity marker.

To conclude, what we see in much of the preceding discussion is an almost frenzied foraging of generic names and conditions for motifs to be used in trade names. The search has seen a most creative use of morphological processes (e.g. clipping and blending) and motifs like 'quine' and 'pain' (some of which are realised orthographically, phonetically, or as corruptions of both: kine, pen). When proper names (e.g. manufacturers' names) are thrown into the combination of motifs and pharmaceutical lexical functions (each of which can be lexically realised in a variety of ways), what we have is a confirmation of the impression that the pool of motifs for drug naming is large. It is precisely this potential that invites a rather different assessment of the practice of genericizing trade name parts.

3.3. From resourcefulness to perfidy: genericizing of trade name parts

Besides the naming strategies that are driven by the need to reflect characteristics of the drug, there are other strategies that are more concerned with exploiting resources of actual trade names. Admittedly, there is no way of knowing whether a given mala- or -quine trade name seeks primarily to reflect some characteristic of the drug (generic name, the condition it treats, etc.) or is merely a subterfuge for

imitating or exploiting an actual trade name. As a result of this dilemma, the discussion in this section is limited to the exploitation (by some manufacturers) of existing trade names which are not in any way motivated by any attribute of the corresponding drugs (generic name, the condition they treat, manufacturer, delivery form, etc.). Exploiting such trade names typically has the effect of converting to generic what is actually a proper name (or name part), and the practice smacks of infringement of trademark.

Let us consider the piroxicam-based drugs in Table 9 below.

Piroxicam-based drugs			
Trade name	Manufacturer/importer	Trade name	Manufacturer/importer
Feldene	Neimeth (Formerly Pfizer Products Plc)	Apo-piroxicam	Lahams (Apotex)
Feloxin	Diamond Remedies (Sole agent for Tenderwell Ltd, England)	Artrite	Strides Vital
Felvin	Greenlife (no foreign link)	Grevicam	Geneith
Felxicam	Hovid	Piro	Titan
		Proxisam	Sam
		Reumadene	LBS
		Ricam	GoldMoore
		Roxiden	Fidson

Table 9: Attempts at genericizing trade name parts (Feldene)

Although not in our corpus and not reflected on Table 9 above, Felwyn and Felvacap 20 are two unregistered piroxicam-based drugs that were until recently openly marketed in Nigeria. Now, with the exception of Artrite and Reumadene, the trade names in the third column of Table 9 can be seen to make use of various clipped parts of the generic drug. Apo-piroxicam is a combination of the formant 'Apo' (from the Canadian manufacturer, Apotex) and the generic name.

From the standpoint of genericizing trade name parts, the drug names in the first column of the Table are rather interesting. There is no known characteristic of the generic, Piroxicam, or of any proprietary preparation that has 'Fel…' as name. A look at an international resource, the American AHFS Drug Handbook (2003), shows that 'Feldene' is one of three proprietary versions of Piroxicam on sale in US and Canada. This, together with the number of Internet search hits, suggests that Feldene is a more established name than Feloxin or Felvin.

Unlike, say, instances of orthographically or phonetically realized *'consonant + in'* (e.g. xin, dene), etc. which have established themselves as common endings for drugs (irrespective of drug category), the repeated use of 'Fel' must be motivated by considerations we shall speculate on in section 3.4. The inference will inevitably be drawn against the backdrop of the pool of naming possibilities described earlier.

The trade name 'Panadol' (generic: Paracetamol; synonym: acetaminophen) is one whose final syllable has also been genericized. Consider Table 10 below, which lists in the first column some trade names that reflect the generic, and in the third column other trade names with questionable motivation.

Select trade names based on paracetamol (> **par**a-**acet**yl-**am**ino-phen**ol**)			
Trade name	Manufacturer	Trade name	Manufacturer
Acamol	Dizpharm	Pana**dol**	GSK (GlaxoSmithKline)
Barbimol	Juhel	Chema**dol**	Chemiron
Fevamol	David	Fap**dol**	Food & Pharma
Gatmol	Gateway	Mathew**dol**	Daily need
Leadmol	Leady-pharma	Phar**dol**	Pharma-Deko
Nacemol	Nasdmu	Remi**dol**	Ranbaxy

Table 10: Attempts at genericizing trade name parts (Panadol)

It is difficult to describe as mere coincidence the replication or genericization of ***dol*** in the third column of Table 10, or to say that in each case there is a unique motivation for this ending. The pioneer preparation is Panadol, which has been traded under that name since 1956 (cf. Wikipedia). Again, ***dol*** is unlike, say, orthographically or phonetically realized forms of '*consonant + in*,' etc. which are common endings for drugs (irrespective of drug category). There is nothing in the chemical compound that is ***dol***. Even if the argument were made that ***ol*** was traceable to the chemical compound, the question would still remain as to why other manufacturers felt the need to copy ***dol*** from the pioneer preparation. We could just as well have had ***Chemol*** or ***Chemanol***, ***Fapol***, etc. After all, the popular US brand, Tylenol, ends with ***ol***. It should be noted that although there is a generic by the name Tramadol (which is also an analgesic), none of the above drugs is based on it.

So far we have seen genericization of trade name parts across manufacturers. There is an interesting case in our data of in-house replication of part of a trade name. Again, the part in question has nothing to do with any of the characteristics of the drug. Consider Table 11 below.

Two antimalarials from Swipha	
Trade name	Generic name
Fansidar	Sulfadoxine + pyrimethamine
Fansimef	Sulfadoxine + pyrimethamine + mefloquine

Table 11: In-house genericizing of trade name parts

Assuming, as we are compelled to by the data, that Swipha's initial trade name, Fansidar, represents a blending of Fansi + dar, the question arises as to what the motivation for these items is, as they can hardly be related to the generic name, to the condition treated, manufacturer, etc. At any rate, by the time manufacturer Swipha was ready to launch another antimalarial that combines mefloquine

chloride with the compounds of the previously successful Fansidar, it decided to front clip Fansidar, blending the result with a front clip of mefloquine. The outcome, Fansimef, now makes Fansi look like such popular combining forms as: -quine, mala, etc. While in the best of possible worlds, this would have come across as an excellent strategy for uniquely identifying Swipha's antimalarial product range with the formant Fansi, and protecting this formant from use by competitors keen on taking advantage of the market popularity of Fansidar, there is no guarantee of this happening in light of the *Fel-* and *-dol* cases.

In concluding this section it is obvious that clipping is the major tool for genericizing name parts, with blending being the morphology of the finished process.

3.4. Trade naming and the challenge of fair trade, safety and regulation

Our corpus of trade names raises issues related to fair trade practices, efficacy and safety of medication, and the regulatory environment within which drug names are approved.

A legally registered trade name confers rights and privileges on the name owners, and protects them from all such actions that can be construed as undermining the privileges appertaining to the exclusive use of the duly registered trade name. As a subset of intellectual property, these industrial property rights are obviously infringed when it can be demonstrated that, notwithstanding the *caveat emptor* injunction, clients repeatedly and erroneously buy or are made to buy a given medicine in the belief that it is the same as the one they wished for.

A quick reaction test (of sameness or difference) administered either aurally or visually might see some respondents claiming identity of the following pairs of trade names:

> Feldene – Felvin
> Fevaquine – Fevokine
> Camoquine – Amoquine

To give an example with the first pair: a potential aural confusion arises from the stealing of the initial syllable and the identical placement by both buyer and seller of the primary stress on this syllable. If the initial syllable is stressed, then confusion is likely to arise. As vowel length (in <u>ene</u> of Feldene and <u>in</u> of Felvin) may not be an issue for potential buyers, this would mean that the unstressed second syllables share a high front vowel /i/ and an alveolar nasal /n/, and are differentiated only by consonants: the alveolar plosive /d/ and the labiodental fricative /v/. The foregoing analysis of the degree of phonetic match between the two names can be expressed thus:

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In applying the orthographic measure to any pair, one would be interested in the number of steps it takes to convert one name to the other, then dividing the number by the length of the longest string (Dorr & Kondrak 2003). Thus, the orthographic distance between the Fevaquine – Fevokine pair is $^3/_9$, (0.33), whereas the orthographic similarity is $^6/_9$ (0.66). For the pair, Camoquine – Amoquine, the distance is $^1/_9$ (0.11), whereas the similarity is $^8/_9$ (0.88). Assuming that in an environment with low literacy levels the threshold of orthographic difference in two trade names were placed at a minimum of 65%, then these two pairs would fail the distinctiveness test. In the light of the numerous naming possibilities described earlier, there is hardly any justification (other than perfidious intent) for the similarities in names.

It is not only in the mistaken impression of sameness that a manufacturer's rights can be infringed. These rights can be infringed when a drug is named in a way that gives the impression that it is from the same stable (manufacturer) as another with which the public is already very familiar. How easily the fortunes of the pioneer drug, Feldene, can be affected by the other Fel-names can be seen from local trading practices in Nigeria. As earlier described, the client's question 'do you have XB?' is hardly answered by 'No.' The typical vendor's answer is 'We have XD', implicating to the client that the available XD is the same as XB. With sound-alike name parts, the client who, when confronted with completely different names (XB and AG), might have asked a few more questions or insisted on the prescribed XB, now lowers his *caveat emptor* guard and settles for XD. The effect, from a commercial standpoint, is that the manufacturers of XB lose out on sales revenue.

In an environment where fake drugs have been of concern, a fake manufacturer who chooses to maintain some unique identity even in thievery finds in a look/sound-alike name an effective means for passing off the fake drug as being in some way related to what the unsuspecting public knows to be the genuine drug. Here again, the manufacturer of the genuine drug is losing out on revenue.

It is no doubt to counter occurrences such as these that the local manufacturers of Panadol run TV and radio adverts with the message: 'if it is not Panadol, it is not the same thing as Panadol.' Obviously, a judgement of infringement here would have to be contextually circumscribed. Thus, given the time-depth associated with the widespread genericization of ***dol*** (from Panadol), the use of this formant today might elicit less negative assessment compared to that of ***Fel***, which perhaps is also more strikingly perfidious because it occurs name-initially.

This aside, the Panadol message is not mere marketing gimmickry. The point is that chemical equivalence is not the same as bioavailability. In other words, when drugs are compounded on the same generic, formulation variables will markedly affect availability. A sodium base for a drug has a relatively faster speed of delivery (i.e. absorption) compared to a potassium base for the same drug. Similarly, a patient who has been advised to reduce salt-intake would be running a risk with a drug that has a sodium delivery base. For instance, in the management of musculo-skeletal

pain in a known hypertensive, diclofenac potassium (Cataflam[R]) would naturally be preferable to its sodium counterpart (Voltaren[R]). In effect, an adverse drug event can occur when the trade names of two drugs (derived from the same generic) lead to the presupposition of identity in pharmokinetic properties.

The situation is of course worse when the name confusion is in respect of drugs that treat different conditions. Novadex (in our corpus) is a paracetamol-based analgesic, while Nolvadex (not in our chosen corpus, but listed in the same Emdex Formulary) is a tamoxifen-based drug for the treatment of breast cancer. The orthographic distance between Novaldex and Novadex is $^1/_8$ (0.12), whereas the similarity is $^7/_8$ (0.87)! Given what is known of physicians' handwriting, it is attention to accompanying information (such as dosage, strength, sex of patient, etc.) that would prevent one drug from being mistaken for the other in a handwritten prescription form.

Such confusing pairs can sometimes be the result of a rather lengthy corporate identity marker. It was seen earlier that manufacturer Juhel uses Barbi as its identity marker. This situation thus leads to a potentially confusing pair like Barbi**mol** (a paraceta**mol**-based drug) and Barbi**mox** (an **amox**icillin-based drug).

All of the foregoing clearly challenges regulatory authorities and the legal environments within which they work. This is as true within a country as it is across national borders. It is well within the remit of a national drug administration agency to refuse to register a given trade name licence application. Such an agency of course can only enforce its powers if (a) it is aware of the perfidious nature of the name application, (b) it can find appropriate legal support to back a denial, and (c) if it is sufficiently committed to carrying out its mandate. It is one or the other factor that explains what must be considered an international industry-wide perfidy. To take an example outside of our data, the Indian manufacturer, Rajat, has produced a drug for male erectile dysfunction which is being traded under the name, Miagra, clearly motivated by Pfizer's Viagra. In the October 3, 2005 issue of the Nigerian daily, *Thisday*, Pfizer and Nigeria's drug control agency (NAFDAC) alerted the public to the existence on the market of ten brands of what was described as 'Counterfeit Sildenafil Citrate tablets,' noting that Viagra is the only registered brand of this product. Some of the disparaged trade names include: Vega, Pangra, Penegra, Pesigra, Ceagra, Jeansiagra, Vinagra. There is absolutely nothing in either impotency or Sildenafil Citrate that motivates the replication of the tri-, quadri- or quinqui-gram: *gra/agra/iagra.*

Awareness of the perfidious nature of a name licence application can also be hinged on the information management systems and sources available to a drug administration agency. Limited access to trade names internationally means a narrow base for decision-making as far as trade name licence applications are concerned. We notice, for instance, in our data that there is an Aspirin-based drug manufactured by a Nigerian company, Emzor Pharmaceuticals, and called Empirin (< front clipping of manufacturer name + back clipping of generic). A look at the

AHFS Drug Handbook (2003) shows that an Aspirin-based drug exists in the American market that goes by the same name, Empirin. A Nigerian patron of Emzor visiting the US might consider what he finds there as the American packaging of the home product. Of course the reverse situation also holds. The need for international cooperation in the processing of trade name applications is obvious.

4. Conclusion

When public health is defined as societal action in guaranteeing collective health, it is a statement of what we all from our various disciplinary and other biases and standpoints can do to secure our collective health. In previous studies on childhood diarrhea (cf. Antia, Omotara, et al 2003), animal care (cf. Antia, Mohammadou, Tamdjo 2004), health planning (cf. Antia & Fankep 2004), our point has been to show what can be offered by such branches of linguistics as the following: text analysis, terminology and sociolinguistics (specifically, multilingualism). In the present study, we have shown what morphology, that branch of linguistics that deals with the internal structure of words, can offer.

This morpho-semantic study has shown manufacturers targeting a core of motifs or brand attributes which are then encoded (often via blending and clipping) into trade names. It is a reflection of the resourcefulness of some manufacturers that they are able to propose different realisations of this core motif set, and thereby maintain some form of distinctiveness. It has also emerged that some manufacturers have actually given thought to, and implemented, a systematic and consistent pattern of naming their medicines. On the other hand, we have seen trade names that smack of perfidy. Remarkable in this respect is the conversion to generic of what is otherwise a unique name-part. This and some of the otherwise resourceful naming practices have been shown, through a combination of orthographic and phonetic measures, to have the potential for causing confusion. The health, commercial and regulatory challenges such confusion raises are discussed.

It is no doubt a statement of the significance of the linguistic discipline of morphology that its application to the study of drug trade names can provide the basis for the following recommendations:

> a) National drug administration agencies, such as Nigeria's NAFDAC, need to review trade names already approved by them in order to: identify and commend best practices; identify possible safety and industrial rights concerns; revoke those trade name licences considered problematic. Nigeria's NAFDAC can reverse itself and revoke names, pursuant to the agency's registration guidelines 2004, which state at section D4 that: 'Any drug whose name, package or label bears close resemblance to an already registered product or is likely to be mistaken for such registered product, shall not be considered for registration.'

b) These agencies need to periodically review and revamp their trade name licensing procedures to make them keep pace with industry-wide issues and challenges, including perfidy. There is probably a need to define the threshold of non-acceptable resemblance. Indeed, it could be the absence of a linguistically defined threshold of (non)acceptable resemblance that has seen trademarks make it through the scrutiny net of NAFDAC's provisions in (a) above.

c) Drug manufacturers need to have a rethink on their trade naming practices, in light of the possible safety and legal implications of these practices. As in some other environments, they should bear the burden of proving distinctiveness of a proposed trade name in line with the regulatory agency's standards. There are, in Nigeria, some trade names that derive from local languages (e.g. Alagbin Plus, Alabukun powder). There could be some sense to exploiting this resource, given that national proficiency in English is regularly estimated to be about 30% of the population.

d) There needs to be greater information sharing among national drug control agencies. For instance, national databases of approved drug names could be linked as a safety valve for look-alike or sound-alike names across national boundaries. The importance of such collaboration is better appreciated in an age where travel has become very easy.

e) National legislations need to be strengthened in such a way as to make the use of confusingly similar trade names actionable under infringement laws, and such other provisions as passing off, misrepresentation or other laws regulating unfair business practices.

5. Notes

[1] The foregoing may give the erroneous impression that the discussion is primarily of Nigerian interest. On the contrary, several of the manufacturers are non-Nigerian. Whether or not they maintain some local presence (regional or scientific office, import agency) under their traditional names, several companies like Pfizer, Roche and Bayer have incorporated in Nigeria under different names (Neimeth, Swiss Pharma, and Gemini, respectively). Others like Hovid (Malaysian) and Rajat (Indian) operate in Nigeria under the names by which they are known in their mother countries.

[2] It is outside of our current scope to define permissible motif permutations. See Nkwenti-Azeh (1994) for a relevant analysis of positional and combinational constraints in compound terms from the field of telecommunications.

[3] The foregoing is actually a slight simplification of the word forming processes. At times, the processes are actually complex, and involve some recursiveness. The trade name, Strimol Extra, is first formed from a clipping of the manufacturer's name (Strides Vital) and a clipping of the generic (mol > paracetamol). The

outcome, Strimol, is blending. The addition of Extra converts Strimol into a grammatical head, and the entire trade name becomes an endocentric compound (interpretation: 'Strimol Extra is a type of the head, i.e. Strimol'). While this construction should ideally be reported as blending + endocentric compound (as in appendix 4), in Table 2 above it is reported simply under blending.

6. Acknowledgement

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Appendix 1: Motivation unknown (including proper noun) alone or as modifier (i.e. in initial position) = 83; total occurrence of unknown in all positions = 109

	Motivation pattern	Examples	Generic {Category}	Morphological process	Remarks
1	Unknown (no = 25)	Tabalon	Ibuprofen {Anti-inflammatory}	Word manufacture	
		Feldene	Piroxicam {Anti-inflammatory}		
	Unknown + unknown (no = 1)	Alka-Seltzer	Aspirin. Synonym: acetylsalicylic acid; ASA {Analgesic}	Copulative compound	

2.	Unknown + fortification (no = 5)	Alagbin Plus	Aspirin. {Analgesic}	Endocentric compound	
		Pastin Extra	Paracetamol. Synonym: acetaminophen {Analgesic}		
3.	Unknown + generic (no = 44)	Lapdap	Chlorproguanil + dapsone {Antimalarial}	Blending	
4.	Unknown + strength (no = 3)	Lam 200	Ibuprofen {Anti-inflammatory}		SR = slow release
		Voltaren SR	Diclofenac {Anti-inflammatory}	Endocentric compound	
5.	Unknown + generic + fortification (no = 1)	Zimol Extra	Paracetamol. {Analgesic}	Blending (+ endocentric compound)	
6.	Unknown + stolen (no = 2)	Mathewdol	Paracetamol {Analgesic}	Blending	
7.	Unknown + substance (no = 1)	Meracaf	Paracetamol {Analgesic}	Blending	
8.	Unknown + presentation form (no = 1)	Oruject	Ketoprofen {Anti-inflammatory}	Blending	ject < injection

Appendix 2: Generic alone or as modifier (i.e. in initial position) = 52; total occurrence of generic in all positions = 134

	Motivation pattern	Examples	Base {Category}	Morphological process	Remarks
9.	Generic + unknown (no = 16)	Roxiden	Piroxicam {Anti-inflammatory}	Blending	
		Ibunex	Ibuprofen {Anti-inflammatory}	Blending	
10.	Generic + unknown + strength (no = 1)	Arthlon-50	Artesunate {Antimalarial}	Blending (+ abbreviation)	
11.	Generic + manufacturer (no= 4)	Paradana	Paracetamol {Analgesics}	Blending	Manufacturer name is Dana
		Proxisam	Proxicam {Anti-inflammatory}		Manufacturer name is Sam
12.	Generic + manufacturer + strength (no = 1)	Indobeta-25	Indometacin {Anti-inflammatory}	Blending (+ abbreviation)	Manufacturer name is Beta Drugs
13.	Generic (no = 14)	Clofenac	Diclofenac {Anti-inflammatory}	Clipping	
		Cicam	Piroxicam {Anti-inflammatory}	Clipping	
14.	Generic + strength (no = 4)	Artequin-600	Artesunate + mefloquine {Antimalarial}	Blending (+ abbreviation)	
		Q-300	Quinine	Abbreviation	
15.	Generic + category (analgesic) (no = 4)	Diclogesic	Diclofenac {Anti-inflammatory}	Clipping	
		Indogesic	Indometacin {Anti-inflammatory}		
16.	Generic + condition (no = 2)	Quimal	Chloroquine {Antimalarial}	Blending	
		Primalar	Sulfadoxine + **pyr**imethamine {Antimalarial}		
17.	Generic + condition + fortification (no = 1)	Ibupain forte	Ibuprofen {Anti-inflammatory}	Blending (+ endocentric compound)	
18.	Generic + base + strength (no = 1)	CQP-500	Chloroquine {Antimalarial}	Abbreviation	CQ= Chloroquine P= Phosphate
19.	Generic + attribute (no = 2)	Arsumax	Artesunate {Antimalarial}	Clipping	max < maximum (if there were evidence of less stronger versions, max would have been assigned under category 'fortification'
		Quinimax	Quinine {Antimalarial}		
20.	Generic + generic (no = 1)	Parafen	Paracetamol. Synonym: Acetaminophen {Analgesic}	Clipping	
21.	Generic + substance (no = 1)	Parakaf	Paracetamol {Analgesic}. Caffeine.	Clipping	

Appendix 3: Condition/cause alone or as modifier (i.e. in initial position) = 28; total occurrence of condition/cause in all positions = 34

	Motivation pattern	Examples	Base {Category}	Morphological process	Remarks
22.	Condition (no= 3)	Lariam	Mefloquine {Antimalarial}	Clipping	Lariam<Malaria Changed sequence of letters
		Artrite	Piroxicam {Anti-inflammatory}	Clipping	< Arthritis
23.	Condition/cause + unknown (no = 4)	Reumadene	Piroxicam {Anti-inflammatory}	Blending	Rheumatism
		Malagold	Quinine {Antimalarial}		
24.	Condition + manufacturer (no = 1)	Malpan	Sulfadoxine + pyrimethamine {Antimalarial}	Blending	Manufacturer name is Panvij Biotec
25.	Condition + generic (no = 9)	Malaquine	Chloroquine {Antimalarial}	Clipping	
		Malafloq	Sulfadoxine + pyrimethamine + mefloquine {Antimalarial}		
26.	Condition + effect (no= 9)	Painkil	Paracetamol {Analgesic}	Exocentric compound	
		Penstop	Paracetamol {Analgesic}	Exocentric compound	
27.	Condition + presentation form (no = 1)	Febrilix	Paracetamol {Analgesic}	Blending	
28.	Condition + stolen (no = 1)	Reumadene	Piroxicam {Anti-inflammatory }	Blending	

Appendix 4: Manufacturer as modifier (i.e. in initial position) = 33; total occurrence of manufacturer in all positions = 39

	Motivation pattern	Examples	Base {Category}	Morphological process	Remarks
29.	Manufacturer + generic (no = 24)	Hoproxen	Naproxen {Anti-inflammatory}	Blending	Manufacturer name is Hovid
30.	Manufacturer + generic + fortification (no = 1)	Strimol Extra	Paracetamol. Synonym: acetaminophen {Analgesic}	Blending (+ endocentric compound)	Manufacturer name is Strides Vital
31.	Manufacturer + generic + strength (no = 1)	Apo-Keto SR	Ketoprofen {Anti-inflammatory}	Endocentric compound (+ abbreviation)	SR = slow release
32.	Manufacturer + presentation form (no = 1)	Emcap	Paracetamol. Synonym: acetaminophen {Analgesic}	Blending	Manufacturer name is Emzor

33.	Manufacturer + strength (no = 1)	M & B 5	Paracetamol. Synonym: acetaminophen {Analgesic}	Abbreviation	Manufacturer name is May & Baker
34.	Manufacturer + unknown (no = 2)	Vitadar	Sulfadoxine + pyrimethamine {Antimalarial}	Blending	Strides Vitalis
35.	Manufacturer + stolen letter sequence/syllable (no = 3)	Chemadol	Paracetamol {Analgesics}	Blending	Manufacturer name is Chemiron
		Phardol			Manufacturer name is Pharma-Deko

Appendix 5: Attribute as modifier (i.e. in initial position) = 3; total occurrence of attribute in all positions = 5

	Motivation pattern	Examples	Base {Category}	Morphological process	Remarks
36.	Attribute + presentation form (no=1)	Toptabs	Aspirin {Analgesics}	Exocentric compound	
37.	Attribute + generic (no=2)	Dependol	Paracetamol {Analgesics}	Blending	

Appendix 6: Stolen alone or as modifier (i.e. in initial position) = 6; total occurrence of stolen in all positions = 14

	Motivation pattern	Examples	Base {Category}	Morphological process	Remarks
38.	Stolen (no = 1)	Panda	Paracetamol {Analgesics}	Clipping	Cf. Panadol
39.	Stolen + presentation form (no = 1)	Voltaren emulgel (cf. Voltaren)	Diclofenac {Anti-inflammatory}	Endocentric compound	
40.	Stolen + unknown (no=3)	Feloxin	Piroxicam {Anti-inflammatory}	Blending	'Fel' is probably taken from the pioneer drug in the category, 'Feldene'.
		Felvin			
41.	Stolen + generic (no=1)	Felxicam			
		Fansimef	Sulfadoxine + pyrimethamine + mefloquine {Antimalarial}		'Fansi' is probably taken from the earlier 'Fansidar'.

Appendix 7: Miscellaneous = 4

	Motivation pattern	Examples	Base {Category}	Morphological process	Remarks
42.	Effect + condition (no = 2)	Antimal	Sulfadoxine + pyrimethamine {Antimalarial}	Clipping	
43.	Presentation form + generic (no = 1)	Capquine	Chloroquine {Antimalarial}	Clipping	
44.	Group + generic (no=1)	Kidiquine	Chloroquine {Antimalarial}	Clipping	Kidi >Kiddies

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Article by by Antia, Emoabino & Egbejimba (abstract)

ABSTRACT

Drug Trade Names: A Morpho-Semantic Study in Resourcefulness and Perfidy

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Linguistic analyses of drug trade names are of interest because they reveal the challenges of uniquely identifying proprietary medicines and because responses to these challenges can have a range of implications: health (medication errors), commercial (compromised sales figures of specific brand names), and legal (protection of industrial property rights). Regrettably, and to the disadvantage of many stakeholders, these perspectives have scarcely been brought to bear on the trade in medicines in a complex environment such as Nigeria, which is a microcosm of environments in the developing world.

Based on a corpus of trade names for three categories of medicines (non-opioid analgesics and antipyretics, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, and antimalarials), we do a morpho-semantic analysis of proprietary drug names marketed in Nigeria. In part, our objectives are to determine how resourceful manufacturers have been in assigning trade names to drugs; to ascertain whether and how trade naming contributes to unfair trade practices and to the potential for adverse drug events; to identify challenges which drug naming practices pose to regulatory authorities and the legal framework within which these authorities operate.

This morpho-semantic study shows manufacturers targeting a core of motifs or brand attributes, which are then encoded (often through blending and clipping) into trade names. It is a reflection of the resourcefulness of some manufacturers that they are able to propose different realisations of this core motif set, and thereby maintain some form of distinctiveness. On the other hand, we also see trade names that smack of perfidy or of an intention to cause deception. Remarkable in this respect is the conversion to generic of what is otherwise a unique name-part. This and some of the otherwise resourceful naming practices are shown, through a combination of orthographic and phonetic measures, to have the potential for causing confusion. The health, commercial and regulatory challenges such confusion raises are discussed.

The study shows the relevance of linguistic scholarship to public health, thus confirming and extending some of our previous work: text analysis and childhood diarrhea (Antia, Omotara, et al 2003), terminology and animal care (Antia, Mohammadou, Tamdjo 2004), multilingualism and health planning (Antia & Fankep 2004), etc.

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REPORTS:

LSP 2005
– New Trends in Specialized Discourse

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Università di Bologna
Italien

Vom 29. August bis 2. September 2005 fand an der Universität Bergamo das 15. Europäische Fachsprachensymposium zum Thema "Neue Trends in der Auseinandersetzung mit dem Fachdiskurs" statt, das vom Bergamasker Forschungszentrum für Fachsprachen (CERLIS) in Zusammenarbeit mit dem Fachsprachenausschuss der AILA organisiert wurde. Auf dem einwöchigen Symposium, das auf eine dreißigjährige Tradition zurückblicken kann, waren mehr als 250 WissenschaftlerInnen aus knapp 40 Ländern vertreten, um ihre neuesten Forschungsergebnisse zu präsentieren, sich über die derzeit in der Fachsprachenforschung verfolgten Ansätze zu informieren und gemeinsame Projekte auf den Weg zu bringen.

Das Symposium bot insgesamt drei Plenarvorträge, gehalten von Christopher Candlin, Françoise Salager-Meyer und Konrad Ehlich, sieben Kolloquien sowie acht verschiedene Sektionen zu zahlreichen Themen, die von methodologischen Fragestellungen über die Untersuchung textlinguistischer und textsorten-spezifischer Merkmale des Fachdiskurses bis hin zu der Entwicklung neuer fachlexikographischer und terminologischer Hilfsmittel reichten und bereits bei der Ankündigung der Tagung einen ersten Eindruck von der Spannbreite des aktuellen Forschungsspektrums in den verschiedenen Bereichen der Fachsprachenforschung vermittelten.

Plenarvorträge

Die Reihe der Plenarvorträge wurde eingeleitet von *Christopher N. Candlin*, der sich in seinem Vortrag *Accounting for Interdiscursivity: Challenges to professional expertise* mit der Bedeutung der Interdiskursivität für die Fachkommunikation und ihre Erforschung beschäftigt und dem es vor allem um die Entwicklung eines methodologischen Ansatzes geht, der der kommunikativen Komplexität der Fachkommunikation gerecht wird. Zu diesem Zweck verbindet Candlin soziolinguistische und pragmalinguistische Fragestellungen und Herangehens-weisen in einer sozialtheoretischen Perspektive miteinander und knüpft dabei

insbesondere an den Foucaultschen Begriff der Diskursordnung an. Von den Ergebnissen seiner Untersuchungen fachsprachlicher Kommunikation in ihrer jeweiligen Verortung am Arbeitsplatz ausgehend bestimmt Candlin die Natur der Fachkompetenz dahingehend, dass sie nicht nur die Ausübung fachbezogener beruflicher Praktiken betreffe, sondern auch den Umgang mit Diskurspraktiken und der sie kennzeichnenden Interdiskursivität, und betont, dass die Erforschung der fachbezogenen Kommunikation in ihrer soziopsychologischen und soziokulturellen Vielschichtigkeit nicht auf einer deskriptiven Ebene haltmachen, sondern auch die Frage nach dem Warum der beschriebenen Zusammenhänge stellen sollte.

Françoise Salager-Meyer legte in ihrem Vortrag *Ciencia, crítica e historia: el caso de España/ Science, criticism and history: the case of Spain* am Beispiel der wissenschaftlichen Streitkultur dar, dass die wissenschaftliche Kommunikation nicht auf den Austausch fachlicher Informationen reduziert werden kann, sondern ebenso wesentlich soziale und dabei kulturspezifische Interaktion ist. Anhand einer diachronisch angelegten Untersuchung spanischer Texte aus den letzten zwei Jahrhunderten zeigte sie auf, dass sich in den rhetorischen Sprachmitteln und -mustern, die in der wissenschaftlichen Diskussion zum Ausdruck der Kritik verwendet werden, die politische Kultur einer Gesellschaft, in diesem Fall Spaniens, niederschlägt und sich die Vormachtstellung des Englischen als Wissenschaftssprache auch in der Übernahme von Diskurs- bzw. Handlungsnormen bemerkbar macht. Des Weiteren befasste sie sich in ihrem Vortrag mit dem Status des Spanischen als internationaler Verkehrsprache, die in den letzten zehn Jahren als Wissenschaftssprache an Bedeutung gewonnen habe, und sprach sich, schon indem sie sich für die weitere Stärkung des Spanischen als wissenschaftliches Medium einsetzte, für eine mehrsprachige Wissenschaftskultur aus.

Konrad Ehlich beleuchtete in seinem Vortrag *Mehrsprachigkeit in der Wissenskommunikation – Illusion oder Notwendigkeit?* hingegen die sprach- und bildungspolitischen Implikationen und Konsequenzen wissenschaftlicher Ein- und Mehrsprachigkeit und setzte sich insbesondere mit der Rolle des Englischen als Lingua franca auseinander, einem Thema, das auch in den Diskussionen im Anschluss an die einzelnen Beiträge und in den Gesprächen am Rande des Symposiums immer wieder zur Sprache kam. Dabei ging er auf den Zusammenhang von Sprache und Denken und die Verankerung der Wissenschaftssprache in der Alltagssprache ein und hob die Bedeutung der an die unterschiedlichen Sprachen geknüpften Erkenntnismöglichkeiten und der durch eine Mehrsprachigkeit gegebene Multiperspektivität für die Fortentwicklung der Wissenschaften hervor. Das Aufgeben der nationalen Wissenschaftssprachen und die damit einhergehende Verarmung der einzelsprachlichen Ausdrucks-möglichkeiten sei aber auch aufgrund der Bedeutung der Sprachteilhabe für die Demokratie sowohl in nationaler als auch internationaler Hinsicht gesellschaftspolitisch bedenklich. Einer monolingualen Wissenschaftskultur gelte es daher durch die bewusste Förderung und Pflege der wissenschaftlichen Mehrsprachigkeit entgegenzusteuern.

Sprachpolitische Akzente wurden auch durch die bewusste mehrsprachige Gestaltung des Symposiums gesetzt. So wurde Wert darauf gelegt, dass neben dem Englischen und dem Italienischen, der Sprache des Gastgeberlandes, auch andere bekanntere europäische Wissenschaftssprachen zum Zuge kamen: Die drei Plenarvorträge wurden von den Vortragenden in ihrer jeweiligen Mutter- bzw. Erstsprache gehalten, ein Teil der Sektionen und Kolloquien wurde auf Deutsch, Französisch oder Spanisch durchgeführt und die TagungsteilnehmerInnen wurden dazu ermutigt, eine dieser weiter verbreiteten Kultursprachen zu verwenden. Während der LSP 2005 wurde dabei immer wieder deutlich, wie durch kleine Hilfestellungen (beispielsweise Transkriptionen oder englische Kurzfassungen der Vorträge, die von den ZuhörerInnen mitverfolgt werden können) die mehrsprachige wissenschaftliche Kommunikation erleichtert und damit auch ermöglicht und gefördert werden kann. Zu dem Stück gelebte Mehrsprachigkeit des Symposiums gehörte auch, dass bei der Diskussion im Anschluss an die nicht-englischsprachigen Beiträge die Sprachwahl im Allgemeinen flexibel ausgehandelt wurde (und somit auch wieder auf das Englische zurückgegriffen werden konnte), um auch hier wieder die Voraussetzungen für eine möglichst breite Teilhabe am Gedankenaustausch zu schaffen.

Kolloquien

Die große Bedeutung des Englischen als Fach- bzw. als Wissenschaftssprache schlug sich darin nieder, dass zahlreiche Beiträge nicht nur auf Englisch bestritten wurden, sondern auch das Englische (als Fachsprache, als fachbezogene Fremd- oder auch Lernersprache und schließlich als fächerübergreifende Wissen-schaftssprache) zum Gegenstand hatten. Dies galt auch für die sieben Kolloquien, von denen sich drei innerhalb eines vorwiegend anglistischen Forschungsrahmens bewegten. Im Allgemeinen wurden jedoch Fragestellungen berührt, die für die Fachsprachenforschung von allgemeinem Interesse sind und dementsprechend auch in den einzelnen Sektionen wieder aufgegriffen wurden.

Ein Gegengewicht wurde hier vor allem durch das Kolloquium *Approaches to Terminological Theories: a Contrastive Study of the State-of-the-Art* geschaffen, das vom International Institut for Terminology Research (IITF) unter der wissenschaftlichen Leitung von Heribert Picht durchgeführt wurde. Gemäß der Zielsetzung des 1989 gegründeten Forschungsinstituts, das es sich zur Aufgabe macht, den Dialog und die Zusammenarbeit zwischen den mit terminologiewissenschaftlichen Fragen befassten WissenschaftlerInnen in den verschiedenen Teilen der Welt zu fördern, stand im Mittelpunkt des Kolloquiums die vergleichende Aufarbeitung der terminologischen Ansätze und Schwerpunkt-setzungen, die in den einzelnen, zum Zweck des Vergleichs nur weiträumig untergliederten Wissenschaftsgemeinschaften verfolgt werden. In Weiterführung bereits vorgelegter Forschungsarbeiten (zu nennen sind hier u.a. die Veröffentlichungen des IITF) wurde insbesondere die unterschiedliche Ausprägung der Merkmale und Themen, die für die Terminologiewissenschaft im Ganzen gesehen konstitutiv bzw. von besonderer Relevanz sind, behandelt (u.a. das

Verhältnis von Theoriebildung und angewandter Forschung, die Bedeutung und die Auswirkung korpuslinguistischer Ansätze auf die neuere Forschung, eventuelle Schulbildungen und die Vereinbarkeit onomasiologischer und semasiologischer Betrachtungsweisen).

Das Kolloquium zum Thema *The role of Language in the Process of European Legal Integration* das vom Forschungsprojekt "Recht und europäische Integration – Hin zu einem gemeinsamen europäischen Rechtsdenken?" der Universität Kopenhagen gefördert wurde, nahm unter der Leitung von Anne Lise Kjær und Jan Engberg die unterschiedlichen Auffassungen zum Thema Mehrsprachigkeit und Schaffung eines gemeinsamen Rechtssystems in der EU zum Ausgangspunkt für die Diskussion und befasste sich mit Themen wie Auslegung mehrsprachiger Texte, interlingualer und interkultureller Diskurs, Eurosprache, internationales Englisch sowie Dynamik von Sprache und Kommunikation. Eingegangen wurde insbesondere auf Frage der Machbarkeit der europäischen Rechtsintegration unter sprachlichen wie rechtlichen Gesichtspunkten und auf die Arbeit an der europäischen Rechtsintegration in internationalen Studiengruppen. Als eine besonders wichtige Voraussetzung für die begriffliche Integration wurde die Akzeptanz der Rechtsintegration und der Wille zu einem für den Begriffswandel offenen Dialog auch außerhalb der rechtlichen Kreise und vor allem unter Beteiligung der Linguisten erachtet.

Hauptanliegen des Kolloquiums zur *Rolle der Komponente 'Fachkompetenz' beim Aufbau fachkommunikativer Kompetenz* unter der wissenschaftlichen Leitung von Marianne Grove Ditlevsen, Jan Engberg, Peter Kastberg und Martin Stegu war eine Diskussion über Status und Zukunft der Komponente 'Fachkompetenz' in Studiengängen mit fachkommunikativer Komponente wie der Ausbildung von Fachübersetzern oder dem Sprachunterricht für Techniker oder Betriebswissenschaftler. Dabei kristallierte sich ein weitgehender Konsens hinsichtlich der Auffassung heraus, dass die Vermittlung einer von fachkommunikativen Belangen getrennten Fachkompetenz im Sinne einer faktenorientierten Wissen-Was-Kompetenz nicht Ziel eines Fachkommunikations-unterrichts sein kann. Eine solche Wissen-Was-Kompetenz sollte allenfalls im Sinne einer Systematik vermittelt werden, die Möglichkeiten der Einordnung von Fakten in Zusammenhänge bietet, darüber hinaus aber im Sinne von fach- oder besser berufsbezogenen Handlungsschemata und Mustern, die das beruflich-fachliche Handeln prägen und es dem Nichtfachmann zugänglich machen. Wichtiger ist hingegen eine Wissen-Wie-Kompetenz, verstanden als eine die Problemlösung ermöglichende Metakompetenz. In der Didaktik sollten über die Übersetzungs- bzw. die Sprachkompetenz hinaus also entsprechend vor allem solche Kompetenzen vermittelt werden.

Das Kolloquium *Conversation Analysis and LSP: Mediated and Medical Contexts* (wissenschaftliche Leitung: Hugo Bowles und Paul Seedhouse) zeigte insbesondere die Potentialitäten auf, die die Konversationsanalyse angesichts der Tatsache, dass ein Großteil der Kommunikation mündlich erfolgt, für die Erforschung der

Fachsprachen einerseits und den fach(sprach)lichen Unterricht andererseits besitzt. Als von Interesse für den fachbezogenen Sprachunterricht können dabei nicht nur die jeweils erforschten Regelmäßigkeiten im Sprachgebrauch gelten, sondern auch der methodologische Ansatz der Konversationsanalyse selbst, der u.a. auf die Klärung des kommunikativen Gehaltes der einzelnen Äußerungen gerichtet ist und somit die Herausbildung einer größeren Sprachbewusstheit bzw. der Entwicklung metasprachlicher Kompetenzen besonders zu fördern scheint.

In dem gemeinsam von Ken Hyland und Marina Bondi geleiteten Kolloquium *Academic Discourse across Disciplines* ging es vorrangig um die unterschiedliche Ausprägung der allgemeinen Wissenschaftssprache in den verschiedenen Fachsprachen und/oder Textsorten. Herausgearbeitet wurden, zumeist mit Hilfe von Korpusuntersuchungen, insbesondere Unterschiede in allgemeinsprachlichen Ausdrucksmitteln und Diskursstrategien, die, wie deutlich wurde, ebenso wie die Fachlexik im engeren Sinn entscheidend zum sprachlichen Abstand zwischen den einzelnen fachbezogenen Varietäten beitragen. Betont wurden in diesem Zusammenhang u.a. die Notwendigkeit, diese Forschungsergebnisse für den L2-Unterricht fruchtbar zu machen.

Einem verwandten Forschungsgegenstand ging das Kolloquium *Semi-Technical Vocabulary Issues, Study Tools and Techniques, and ESP Applications* (wissenschaftliche Leitung: Hajime Terauchi und Gregory Poole) nach. Am Beispiel der Rechtssprache und der Lernsituation japanischer MuttersprachlerInnen im Umgang mit englischen Rechtstexten wurde die Bedeutung der zwischen Allgemein- und Fachsprache angesiedelten Lexik für die Fachkommunikation und daher auch für den Spracherwerb herausgestellt. Zudem wurden Wege und Möglichkeiten des Umgangs mit diesen bislang kaum sprachdidaktisch und lexikographisch aufgearbeiteten Ausdrucksmitteln im Sprachunterricht aufgezeigt.

In dem Kolloquium *Diachronic Perspectives on domain-specific English* (Leitung: Marina Dossena und Irma Taavitsainen) schließlich wurden die Beiträge zu älteren Epochen und/oder mit einer ausdrücklich diachronischen Ausrichtung zusammengefasst. Die vorgestellten Arbeiten beschäftigten sich vorwiegend mit juristischen und medizinischen Texten bzw. Textsorten (besonders stark waren Untersuchungen des *Corpus of Early English Medical Writing* (CEEM) der Universität Helsinki vertreten) und spiegelten allgemein das Interesse an der Verfeinerung empirischer Forschungsmethoden, der Erforschung des Sprachwandels und polyvalenter Strukturen sowie an text-, pragma-, kontakt- und korpuslinguistischen Fragestellungen wider. Zwei Forschungsbeiträge zum Schottischen und Schwedischen wurden ebenfalls in dieses Kolloquium aufgenommen.

Sektionen

Was die Sektionen anbelangt, so zeigte sich auf der LSP 2005 ein unverändert starkes Interesse an der Sprache des Rechts, der Wirtschaft, der Medizin und an der Wissenschaftssprache als solcher, in Bezug auf die u.a. das Erfordernis der

theoretischen Abgrenzung von der Fachsprachentheorie herausgestellt wurde. Darüber hinaus wurde dem Fachdiskurs der Politik und des Tourismus sowie der medienvermittelten Fachkommunikation besondere Aufmerksamkeit geschenkt.

Als nach wie vor aktuell erwies sich bei der Auseinandersetzung mit dem aus Platzgründen hier beispielhaft herausgegriffenen Rechtsdiskurs die Frage, welches in Anbetracht der institutionellen Zwänge, denen der Rechtsdiskurs unterliegt, und angesichts der ein- oder gegenseitigen Beeinflussung von Rechtssystemen im Zuge der Harmonisierung und der europäischen Rechtsintegration die Möglichkeiten der Verbesserung der Rechtssprache sind. Neben der Vagheit als einer der gleichfalls seit langem interessierenden, aber hinsichtlich ihrer Funktionen zu differenzierenden Eigenschaften der Rechtssprache, sind Aspekte des Wandels einer traditionell konservativen Sprache und der sprachlichen und funktionellen Merkmale ihrer Textsorten durch das Internet ins Blickfeld geraten. Vertieft wurden aber auch die Erforschung der verschiedenen juristischen Textsorten in einer über den traditionellen Textbegriff hinausgehenden intertextuellen Perspektive und die Untersuchung der fachsprachlichen Verwendung gemein-sprachlicher Ausdrucksmittel in der Fachkommunikation. Bisherige Auseinander-setzungen mit der gesprochenen Sprache im Gerichtsdiskurs wurden durch den Blick auf die Strategien im Diskurs mit den Nebenakteuren des Prozesses ergänzt.

Bei der Frage nach der Vermittlung von rechts- und rechtssprachbezogenem Wissen ergaben sich Anknüpfungspunkte zu drei Aspekten eines anderen zentralen Themas des Symposiums, der Vermittlung fachlichen Wissens über Medien, im didaktischen Kontext und für Nichtfachleute, das zur Auseinandersetzung mit Möglichkeiten der benutzeradäquaten Wissensrepräsentation, mit Theorien, Modellen und Methoden der Wissensvermittlung, mit den Wechselwirkungen zwischen Fachwissen und fachsprachlichem Wissen und mit der Popularisierung von Wissen führte und hier wieder an das Thema Verständlichkeit anschloss. Mit Bezug auf das Recht wurde einerseits nach der Vermittlung von rechtlichem Wissen über das Internet gefragt und der komplementäre Charakter der Perspektiven, m.a.W. der Beitrag des Rechts zum Verständnis der Rechtssprache und den Beitrag der Rechtssprache zum Verständnis des Rechts, im Kontext der Translatorenausbildung herausgestellt. Allgemein wurde beim Erwerb von Fachwissen der Blick vom Gegenstand des Lernens (Fachwissen) auf die Person des Lerners (Nichtfachmann) gelenkt. Dies zeigte sich besonders deutlich im Kolloquium zur Rolle der Komponente Fachkompetenz beim Aufbau fachkommunikativer Kompetenz, aber auch in der Aufforderung zur Überwindung der Barrieren zwischen Fachausbildung, Fachsprachenausbildung und Sprachausbildung. Hier wurde die Notwendigkeit einer Methodendiskussion sowie die Entwicklung eines Modells der Entwicklung fachkommunikativer Sprachkompetenz und der Grundlegung einer allgemeinen Theorie der Vermittlung von fachlichem Wissen deutlich. Neben der Bedeutung der Wissensvermittlung über die Terminologie wurde die Bedeutung der Phraseologie für den Diskurs nicht nur mit Bezug auf das Recht als besonders wichtig herausgestellt und die Bedeutung deren verstärkter Berücksichtigung bei der Wissensverwaltung betont.

Dank neuer Konzeptionen und neuer Programme (u.a. ITSHEWB, GeneSis, NorNa, Bistro und JUSLEX) konnten einerseits die Möglichkeiten der Extraktion von Wissensbausteinen und Begriffsrelationen und die Möglichkeiten von deren benutzergerechter Verwaltung verbessert, andererseits konnten neue Möglichkeiten des Zugangs zu Fach- und fachsprachlichem Wissen geschaffen werden. Mit Bezug auf die Verwaltung von Terminologie wurde sowohl neuen terminologie-wissenschaftlichen Erkenntnissen als auch den Erfordernissen von Benutzern Rechnung getragen und der Blick auf das Fach um den Blick auf den Fachtext ergänzt bzw. die statische Beschreibung durch die dynamische Verwaltung abgelöst. Neue Programme, die die Möglichkeiten der Analyse von Korpora mit Blick auf die Terminologiearbeit oder bei der Translation verbessern, wurden hier ebenso vorgestellt wie Datenbanken zur Verwaltung begriffs- und textbezogener Einheiten und deren mannigfaltiger Relationen.

Angesichts der Vielfalt an interessanten Forschungsansätzen und Themen, die in den einzelnen Kolloquien und Sektionen vorgestellt wurden, und des erreichten methodologischen Know-How im Bereich der empirischen Forschung darf man gespannt sein auf die aus dem Symposium hervorgehenden Veröffentlichungen und auf die weitere Entwicklung der Fachsprachenforschung. Es sei in diesem Zusammenhang bereits darauf hingewiesen, dass das 16. Europäische Fachsprachen-Symposium zum Thema "Specialised Language in Global Communication" vom 27. bis zum 31. August 2007 in Hamburg stattfinden wird. Zum Gelingen der LSP in Bergamo soll abschließend noch erwähnt werden, dass dazu nicht nur die wissenschaftliche Qualität der Beiträge, sondern auch das schöne Ambiente und die Gastfreundlichkeit der VeranstalterInnen beigetragen haben.

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Sprachenwahl als politische Entscheidung

Ein Erfahrungsbericht aus der Arbeitsgruppe zum Kaufrecht der *Study Group on a European Civil Code*

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1. Einleitung

Seit beinah zehn Jahre arbeite ich in mehrsprachigen juristischen Arbeitsgruppen. Tagtäglich werde ich dort mit der Schnittstelle von Recht und Sprache konfrontiert. An Hand des Beispiels einer dieser Arbeitsgruppen möchte ich eine Beschreibung von den Problemen geben, die bei der Abfassung von juristischen Texten durch ein mehrsprachiges Autorenkollektiv entstehen.

2. Die Utrechter Arbeitsgruppe zum Kaufrecht

Bereits seit einigen Jahren wird von akademischer Seite daran gearbeitet, dem europäischen Privatrecht Form und Gestalt zu geben. Innerhalb dieser verschiedenen Gruppen, die zum besonderen Teil des Schuldrechts arbeiten, beschäftigt sich in Utrecht eine international zusammengesetzte Arbeitsgruppe seit 1999 mit dem Kaufvertragsrecht. Diese Gruppe, die ein Modellgesetz für ein gemeineuropäisches Kaufrecht entwirft, soll hier als Beispiel dienen. Gegen Ende dieses Jahres werden die Arbeiten an diesem Projekt abgeschlossen sein und sollen dann veröffentlicht werden. Die Gruppe ist ein Teil der sogenannten *Study Group on a European Civil Code* (www.sgecc.net). Die *Study Group* ist ihrerseits seit dem Jahre 2005 eingebettet in ein europaweites Netzwerk von Juristen, die von der Europäischen Kommission den Auftrag erhielten einen Entwurf für ein zukünftiges europäisches Vertragsrecht vorzulegen. Informationen zu diesem Netzwerk, welches sich *Joint Network on European Private Law* (CoPECL) nennt, sind zu finden unter www.copecl.org.

3. Study Group on a European Civil Code

Die *Study Group on a European Civil Code* hat zur Zeit etwa 80 Mitglieder aus Wissenschaft, Anwaltschaft und Richterschaft aus mehr als zwanzig verschiedenen

Ländern. Die Arbeitsgruppe gründete sich im Jahr 1997 nach einer Konferenz im niederländischen Scheveningen unter dem Titel „*Towards a European Civil Code*", mit dem Ziel ein europäisches Zivilgesetzbuch zu entwerfen.

Die Vorträge jener historischen Konferenz wurden in einem Buch mit dem Titel der Konferenz „*Towards a European Civil Code*" veröffentlicht. Dieses Buch wurde schnell ein Klassiker, der Eingang gefunden hat in die Lehre und an vielen Universitäten verpflichtete Studienliteratur wurde. Im Jahre 2004 erschien dieses Buch bereits in der dritten, erweiterten und überarbeiteten, Auflage.

Seit 1997 steht die Frage nach einer gemeineuropäischen Kodifikation ununterbrochen zur Diskussion. Das Europäische Parlament rief seit 1989 bereits fünfmal auf, um an den Arbeiten an solch einer Kodifikation zu beginnen. Die Europäische Kommission als Gesetzgeber hat daher 2005 einen Auftrag an verschiedene wissenschaftliche Gruppen gegeben, um einen Entwurf zu präsentieren. Es handelt sich also um ein großangelegtes Projekt des *Joint Network on European Private Law*, in dem das Kaufrecht nur ein Teilaspekt ist.

4. Arbeitssprache und gewählte Terminologie

Das Kaufrecht ist das Thema, welches meine Arbeitsgruppe bearbeitet, im Laufe dieses Jahres veröffentlichen und in kodifizierter Form im Jahre 2007 der Kommission anbieten wird. Im Rahmen der Arbeiten an einem gemeineuropäischen Kaufrechtstext wurden die Mitglieder der Arbeitsgruppe wiederholt mit Sprachproblemen konfrontiert. Bereits kurze Zeit nach der Gründung der Arbeitsgruppe mussten schon die ersten sprachbezogenen Entscheidungen getroffen werden.

Die Arbeitsgruppe bestand zunächst aus einem Niederländer, einer Deutschen, einem Österreicher, einem Griechen und einer Schwedin. Alle Mitglieder waren Juristen und sprachen durch Studium, Muttersprache oder familiäre Bedingungen fließend deutsch. Da man allerdings davon ausging, dass noch weitere Juristen sich der Arbeitsgruppe anschließen würden, und auch die zuständige Forschungsfinanzierungsstelle darauf bedacht war nur Projekte mit englischer oder niederländischer Arbeitssprache zu finanzieren, wurde Englisch als Arbeitssprache gewählt. Die fünf Gründungmitglieder der Arbeitsgruppe arbeiteten sich also in eine ihnen fremde Fachsprache ein.

Im Laufe der Arbeiten erweiterte sich die Arbeitsgruppe um Mitglieder aus Polen, England, Italien und der Schweiz und nun machte es auch tatsächlich Sinn, auf englisch zu arbeiten, da eben nicht mehr ein jeder deutsch sprach.

Schnell entwickelte sich eine eigene interne Arbeitssprache. Diese Arbeitssprache der Utrechter Arbeitsgruppe ist, wie es der britische Kollege Hugh Beale einmal ausdrückte, ein kontinentales Englisch, welches sich durch seine allgemeine Verständlichkeit und nicht durch seine sprachliche Schönheit auszeichnet. Regelmäßig wurden unsere Texte von Muttersprachlern in ein juristisches Englisch

umgearbeitet. Wir achteten dabei darauf, dass dieses Englisch auch von einem Juristen einer anderen Muttersprache gut zu verstehen war. Die Mitglieder der Arbeitsgruppe achten bei jedem entworfenen Gesetzesartikel auf die Rückübersetzbarkeit in die jeweilige Muttersprache und dadurch vor allem auf die Übersetzbarkeit in die verschiedenen Sprachen der Europäischen Union. Hin und wieder führte dieses auch zur Veränderung einer zunächst gewählten Terminologie.

Als gemeinsamer terminologischer Referenzrahmen wurde zu Beginn die englische Übersetzung der Artikel zum Kaufrecht des niederländischen Zivilgesetzbuches (*Burgerlijk Wetboek*) gewählt. Dieses Gesetzbuch war zu der Zeit erst sieben Jahre alt und damit die modernste Kodifikation Europas. Später wurde auch noch die englische Version der *Convention on the International Sale of Goods* (CISG, Wien 1980), die englische Version der Richtlinie 1999/44/EG zum Verbraucherkauf und die *Principles of European Contract Law* (PECL) verwendet.

5. Der terminologische Bezugsrahmen

Wie schon erwähnt, hatten wir bei unseren Arbeiten zum Kaufrecht verschiedene nationale, europäische und internationale Rechtsquellen aus denen wir, sowohl terminologisch als auch inhaltlich gesehen, schöpften. Rechtsvergleichend standen daneben noch die Rechtsordnungen der einzelnen EU-Mitgliedstaaten, da diese aber kaum auf Englisch zugänglich waren, brachten diese keine terminologischen Probleme mit sich. Die vorhandenen Rechtsquellen boten eine Fülle von verschiedenen Begriffen und Konzepten. Um damit einheitlich arbeiten zu können, musste eine gewisse Hierarchie des Bezugsrahmens geschaffen werden.

Es stellte sich also die Frage, welche Rechtsquelle im Gegensatz zu den anderen inhaltlich verbindlicher war für unser Ziel ein europäisches Kaufrecht zu schreiben. Hierbei ist anzumerken, dass die Richtlinie 1999/44/EG zum Verbraucherkauf den schützenswerten europäischen kaufwilligen Bürger vor Augen hat. Die CISG dagegen ist ein internationales Übereinkommen, welches den grenzüberschreitenden Handelskauf regelt, also davon ausgeht, dass zwei gleichstarke Parteien miteinander einen Vertrag abschließen. Die *Principles on European Contract Law* sind auf ihrer Seite ein Regelwerk, welches allgemeine Fragen des europäischen Vertragsrechts behandelt. Die dort ausgedrückten Regeln sind für sowohl den Verbraucher, als auch den Kaufmann bestimmt und sind auch anwendbar bei Transaktionen, in denen ein Bürger einen Vertrag mit einem anderen Bürger abschließt, ohne dass die eine oder andere Partei ein schwächerer schützenswerter Verbraucher gegenüber einem stärkeren Kaufmann ist. Der Nachbar verkauft seinem Nachbarn einen Hund, das wäre ein Beispiel für diesen auch zu regelnden Fall. Das niederländische Gesetzbuch regelte wiederum für die Niederlande sowohl den Verbraucherkauf als auch den Handelskauf und die Kaufrechtsregeln des Gesetzbuches sind auch, wie die *Principles on European Contract Law*, anwendbar für den Kauf und Verkauf zwischen zwei Personen, die weder Verbraucher noch Kaufmann sind.

Unser Kaufrecht sollte inhaltlich auf die *Principles on European Contract Law* aufbauen, daher versuchten wir deren Terminologie soweit dieses möglich war zu folgen und den dort verwendeten Begriffen innerhalb des Kaufrechtsentwurfes keinen neuen Sinngehalt zu geben. Um die Doppelnutzung eines Begriffes zu vermeiden, sei es in den PECL oder in einer anderen Arbeitsgruppe der *Study Group on a European Civil Code*, wurde in solch einem Fall lieber ein anderer Begriff gesucht. So wurde bewusst zum Beispiel der Begriff ‚*consumer goods guarantee'* entworfen, um auf diese Weise einen eigenen Terminus zu schaffen, der nicht zur Verwechslung mit Begriffen der in Hamburg ansässigen Arbeitsgruppe der *Study Group on a European Civil Code* zu den Sicherungsrechten führen kann. Diese Arbeitsgruppe nutzt nämlich auch den Begriff *guarantee*, der hier aber nicht im Kontext einer vom Verkäufer oder Hersteller zugesicherten Eigenschaft und Qualität, sondern in Bezug auf Fragen der Bürgschaft verwendet wird. Um Verwechslungen zu vermeiden und dem Gedanken „ein Begriff für ein Konzept" folgend, wählten wir in Utrecht ein zusammengesetztes Wort, um den Begriff gleich in einen bestimmten Kontext zu platzieren.

Allerdings mussten wir schnell feststellen, dass allgemeine Regeln des Vertragsrecht, wie die *Principles of European Contract Law* uns diese anboten*, nicht genau die Präzision haben und jene Rechtssicherheit schaffen können, die Käufer und Verkäufer von einem europäischen Kaufrecht erwarten. Immer wieder mussten wir uns Fragen stellen, ob wir z.B. dem breiten Konzept der Nichterfüllung der *Principles on European Contract Law* folgen wollten, welches sowohl den Verzug als auch die Falschlieferung umfasste, oder doch lieber vertragsbezogen mit Begriffen der Vertragswidrigkeit oder des Vertragsbruchs umgehen wollten. Außerdem sagten die *Principles on European Contract Law* nichts über den Verkaufsgegenstand, den wiederum die Richtlinie, die CISG und das niederländische Zivilgesetzbuch sehr wohl benannten.

Allerdings konnten je nach Rechtsquelle verschiedene Dinge verkauft werden, die wiederum zum Teil in den verschiedenen Sprachfassungen auch mit unterschiedlichen Benennungen versehen wurden. Ein Blick in die verschiedenen nationalen Zivilgesetzbücher, sei es das deutsche BGB, das österreichische ABGB oder der italienische Codice Civile oder beliebige andere, lässt das Angebot der möglichen Begriffe zur Beschreibung eines Produkts, welches verkauft werden soll, noch größer werden.

Zur Verdeutlichung des Problems werde ich mich nun nur auf die deutsche Sprache beziehen. In den CISG wird für den Handelskauf von Waren gesprochen. Die Richtlinie spricht dagegen für den Verbraucherkauf von Gütern. Das deutsche Bürgerliche Gesetzbuch spricht von Sache, ebenso das österreichische Allgemeine Bürgerliche Gesetzbuch. Allerdings definieren beide Gesetzbücher ihren Sachenbegriff unterschiedlich. Juristische Details werde ich ihnen hier ersparen, aber es ist so, dass der Warenbegriff inhaltlich weder mit dem Güterbegriff noch mit dem Sachenbegriff übereinkommt.

Mit allen Regelungsinstrumenten wird der Kaufvertrag geregelt, aber hinter jedem Verkaufsgegenstand steht eine etwas andere Definition. Nach der einen Rechtsordnung sind auch Software, Wasser, Informationen und Rechte mitumfasst, nach der anderen wiederum nicht. Unterschiedlich werden auch Registergüter, wie Schiffe behandelt. Es sind unzählige kleine Unterschiede.

Mein österreichischer Kollege hatte sofort seine nationale Definition einer Sache vor Augen. So sagt § 285 ABGB: "Alles, was von der Person unterschieden ist, und zum Gebrauche der Menschen dient, wird im rechtlichen Sinne eine Sache genannt." Software und Daten waren also kein juristisches Problem für ihn, insofern es den Sachenbegriff betraf. Das deutsche BGB dagegen definiert eine Sache in § 90 "Sachen im Sinne des Gesetzes sind nur körperliche Gegenstände." Software und Daten fallen nicht unter diese Definition. Auch beim Güterbegriff hatten wir als geschulte Juristen Probleme, da jeder bei Gütern, durch den Terminologiegebrauch der Richtlinie, sofort an den Verbraucherkauf und bei Waren, durch die deutsche Version der CISG, an den Handelskauf dachte. Eine jahrelang dauernde Diskussion nahm so durch die Rechtsvergleichung ihren Anfang und endete mit einer ausführlichen Definition, was genau im Kontext eines europäischen Kaufrechts unter „Waren" zu verstehen ist. Für die deutsche Übersetzung unserer Kaufrechtsregeln übernahm ich nach langem Nachdenken schließlich den Warenbegriff, da dieser am wenigsten definiert war und nicht sofort Assoziationen bei deutschsprachigen Juristen hervorrief.

Das Ergebnis liest sich so:

Artikel 1:104 Grundregeln des europäischen Kaufrechts: Definition von „Waren"

In diesen Grundregeln umfasst der Begriff „Waren":
(a) körperliche bewegliche Waren, einschließlich Schiffe, Seefahrzeuge, Luftkissenfahrzeuge oder Luftfahrzeuge, Weltraumgegenstände, Tiere, Flüssigkeiten und Gase; und
(b) Waren, die zum Zeitpunkt des Vertragsabschlusses noch nicht existieren.

Artikel 1:105 Grundregeln des europäischen Kaufrechts: Anwendung auf andere Vermögenswerte

Diese Grundregeln sind mit entsprechenden Anpassungen anzuwenden auf Kauf- und Tauschverträge über:
(a) Elektrizität;
(b) Informationen und Daten, einschließlich Software und Datenbanken: Wertpapiere, Anteile, Anlagepapiere und übertragbare Handelspapiere; sowie
(c) andere Arten von immateriellem Eigentum, einschließlich Rechte, Forderungen und gewerbliche oder andere geistige Eigentumsrechte, unter Ausschluss von Grundstücksrechten, Gebäuden und anderem unbeweglichem Eigentum.

Zur deutschen Übersetzung der Kaufrechtsartikel ist noch anzumerken, dass diese probiert ein Gleichgewicht zwischen den benutzten Termini der Richtlinie, der deutschen Übersetzung der *Principles on a European Contract Law* und der deutschen Version des UN-Kaufrechts (CISG) wiederzugeben. Als sprachliche Bezugsgrößen wurden diese drei internationalen Rechtsquellen gewählt und eben nicht die deutschsprachigen nationalen Kodifikationen. Der Bezug auf die internationalen Rechtsquellen soll dazu beitragen, dass sich eine europäische juristische deutsche Sprache entwickeln kann, die ohne schon besetzte nationale Begriffskonzepte wachsen muss. Auch wurde immer versucht Begriffe zu gebrauchen, die nahe am Konzept der Regel stehen, und somit auch für den Rechtsvergleicher gut zugänglich sind. Es wurde also bewusst nicht die Terminologie des deutschen oder österreichischen Zivilgesetzbuches übernommen. So wurde z.B. nicht der Mangelbegriff der beiden deutschsprachigen Kodifikationen gewählt, sondern absichtlich der technischere Begriff der Vertragswidrigkeit. Ebenso wurde der Wandlungsbegriff nicht benutzt, sondern der deutlichere Begriff der Vertragsaufhebung. Für einen Ausländer mit juristischer Ausbildung sollen die Begriffe gut zugänglich und in ihrem Kontext leicht erfassbar sein.

6. Stellungnahme

Begriffswahl und deren Übersetzung nahmen viel Zeit in Anspruch. Die Arbeitsgruppe ist sich dennoch sehr wohl bewusst, dass die genommene Entscheidung zugunsten einer europäischen deutschen Sprache, jene Anwender, die an die Terminologie ihres eigenen Landes gewöhnt sind, abschrecken könnte, die Grundregeln des europäischen Kaufrechts überhaupt anzuwenden. Daher kann es sein, dass in der Zukunft auch noch Testübersetzungen angefertigt werden, die mehr der Begrifflichkeit der Landestradition entsprechen. Allerdings ist dann auch wieder zu überlegen, wie sinnvoll das im grenzüberschreitenden Verkehr ist. Es wird schließlich nur eine Partei ihren Sitz in jenem Land haben, dessen Terminologie übernommen worden ist.

Außerdem ist dann noch zu überlegen, welcher Stellenwert den sprachlichen Eigenheiten von Südtirol, Liechtenstein und der deutschen Minderheit in Belgien zukommt. Meiner Ansicht nach liegen hier verborgene Integrationshindernisse, die in der Zukunft noch sensibel bedacht werden müssen.

7. Sprachenwahl als politisch motivierte Wahl

Wie schon kurz erwähnt wurde unsere Arbeit in Utrecht zum großen Teil finanziert von der niederländischen Forschungsgemeinschaft, der NWO. Bei der Projektvergabe wurde bereits abgesprochen, dass über das Projekt Pressemitteilungen verfasst werden sollten. Als Teammanagerin kam mir diese Aufgabe zu. Die Pressemitteilungen wurden bis vor Kurzem in der Regel auf niederländisch, deutsch und englisch veröffentlicht. Ich rief also bei der niederländischen Forschungsgemeinschaft an und fragte, ob ich eine deutsche oder englische Pressemitteilung verfassen solle. Als Antwort erhielt ich, dass ich eine

niederländische Pressemitteilung schreiben müsse, da die Sprache der Forschungsgemeinschaft niederländisch sei. Deutsch sei meine Muttersprache, antwortete ich daraufhin, und außerdem sei englisch unsere Arbeitssprache und daher würde ich gerne in der einen oder der anderen Sprache schreiben wollen. Das half alles nichts, es musste auf Niederländisch sein. Abgelehnt wurde auch mein Angebot die Pressemitteilung in allen drei Sprachen selber zu schreiben. Also schrieb ich auf Niederländisch, um anschließend von einer offiziellen Übersetzungsabteilung auf englisch und deutsch übersetzt zu werden. Da saßen allerdings keine Juristen, und das Ergebnis bedeutete viele Stunden Arbeit für mich, um den juristischen Inhalt in der deutschen und der englischen Version korrekt auszudrücken. Auf niederländisch ist z.B. eine Richtlinie eine *richtlijn*. Diese wurde allerdings in der englischen Version nicht zu einer *directive*, was richtig gewesen wäre, sondern zu einer *guideline*, also einem roten Faden. Solche und ähnliche Ungenauigkeiten musste ich nachträglich aus den Texten entfernen.

Ein weiteres Problem, welches uns bis heute beschäftigt, sind die Minderheitssprachen. In welcher Sprache darf eine Minderheit ihre Gesetze erwarten? Sind nur die Sprachen der Europäischen Gemeinschaft verbindlich, oder auch z.B. das Friesische in den Niederlanden? Hypotheken, standesamtliche Urkunden und ein Testament können in den Niederlanden sehr wohl auch auf Friesisch abgefasst sein.

8. Die Sprache von Montageanleitungen und Garantien

Muss eine Montageanleitung auch in einer Minderheitssprache verfügbar sein? Oder eine Garantie? Diese Fragen beschäftigen uns nun noch. Derzeit haben wir darauf noch keine Antwort finden können.

Lesen Sie daher nun einmal den folgenden Artikel:

Artikel 2:204 Grundregeln des europäischen Kaufrechts: Unsachgemäßer Montage von Verbraucherwaren

Im Falle einer unsachgemäßen Montage bei einem Verbraucherkauf, wird jeder Mangel infolge unsachgemäßer Montage als eine Vertragswidrigkeit der Waren angesehen, wenn:
(a) die Montage der Waren vom Verkäufer oder unter dessen Verantwortung vorgenommen wurde; oder
(b) die Waren zur Montage durch den Verbraucher bestimmt waren und die unsachgemäße Montage auf einen Mangel in der Montageanleitung zurückzuführen ist.

In welcher Sprache soll diese Montageanleitung abgefasst sein?
Was, wenn alle Anbieter in einem bestimmten Gebiet eine andere als die Landessprache sprechen? Denken wir einmal an bestimmte größere Stadtteile in London oder Amsterdam.

Die oben genannte Regelung ist beeinflusst durch die europäische Richtlinie zum Verbraucherkauf. Artikel 2 Absatz (5) der Richtlinie sagt: *"Ein Mangel infolge unsachgemäßer Montage des Verbrauchsgutes wird der Vertragswidrigkeit gleichgestellt, wenn die Montage Bestandteil des Kaufvertrags über das Verbrauchsgut war und vom Verkäufer oder unter dessen Verantwortung vorgenommen wurde. Das gleiche gilt, wenn das zur Montage durch den Verbraucher bestimmte Erzeugnis vom Verbraucher montiert worden ist und die unsachgemäße Montage auf einen Mangel in der Montageanleitung zurückzuführen ist."*

Die Richtlinie hüllt sich bezüglich der Sprache der Montageanleitung in Schweigen. Scheinbar gehen die Verfasser der Richtlinie davon aus, dass Montageanleitungen zu zeichnen sind und keiner Sprache bedürfen. Die Erfahrung vieler Käufer lehrt aber, dass nicht alle Montage- oder Bedienungsanleitungen zu zeichnen sind. Sehr häufig ist auch erklärender Text nötig oder eine Benennung von verschiedenen Unterteilen, um ein Produkt erläutern zu können. Allerdings ist es auch hier wieder die Frage, ob man Regeln 1. pur für die innernationale Anwendung festlegen will, 2. ob man auch seine eigenen Minderheiten mit lesbaren Montageanleitungen versorgen will und 3. ob man auch den Binnenmarkt und den damit verbundenen grenzüberschreitenden Verkehr vor Augen hat.

Ein weiteres Problem ist die Garantiererklärung, also jene Erklärung mit der ein Verkäufer oder Hersteller dem Käufer eine zeitliche Zusicherung der Qualität des Produktes gibt, welche über die gesetzlich vorgesehene Gewährleistungszeit für Mängel hinausgeht:

Artikel 6:103: Garantieerklärung

(1)   Eine Person die eine Verbraucherwarengarantie ausgibt, muss dem Käufer eine Garantiererklärung zur Verfügung stellen, welche:
(a) darlegt, dass die gesetzlichen Rechte des Käufers von der Garantie nicht beeinträchtigt sind.
(b) die Vorteile der Garantie für den Käufer im Verhältnis zu den Regeln der Vertragsmäßigkeit hervorhebt:
(c) alle unerlässlichen Einzelheiten, die notwendig zur Inanspruchnahme der Garantie sind, auflistet, besonders:
- den Namen und die Adresse des Garantiegebers,
- den Namen und die Adresse der Person an die jegliche Berufung bekannt zu geben ist und die Art und Weise in der die Berufung durchzuführen ist;
(d) in einer deutlichen und lesbaren Sprache abgefasst ist; und
(e) in der gleichen Sprache abgefasst ist, in der auch die Waren angeboten wurden;
es sei denn, dass solch eine Erklärung dem Verkäufer bereits zur Verfügung gestellt wurde.
(2) Die Garantiererklärung muss auf Papier oder einem anderen dauerhaften Datenträger festgelegt sein und zur Verfügung und zugänglich für den Käufer sein.

(3) Die Gültigkeit der Garantie ist nicht beeinflusst bei einem Versäumnis, die Absätze (1) und (2) zu erfüllen, und dementsprechend kann der Inhaber der Garantie sich immer noch auf die Garantie berufen und fordern, dass dieser nachgekommen wird.

(4) Wenn die Anforderungen der Absätze (1) und (2) nicht eingehalten werden, so kann der Käufer, ungeachtet jeglicher zur Verfügung stehender Rechte auf Schadenersatz, von dem Garantiegeber fordern, eine Garantiererklärung zur Verfügung zu stellen, die alle Voraussetzungen erfüllt.

(5) Die Partien dürfen von den Voraussetzungen dieses Artikels nicht zum Nachteil des Verbrauchers abweichen.

Auch hier sind noch Fragen offen. Sind an eine Garantiererklärung andere Ansprüche als an eine Montageanleitung zu stellen? Oder sollte man ein kohärentes Sprachenwahlsystem zur Montageanleitung entwickeln?

Oder sollte man doch ein anderes Regime in bezug auf die Sprachenwahl wählen, da es sich bei einer Garantieerklärung um eine freiwillige zusätzliche Leistung des Anbieters handelt?

Diese Regelung zu den Garantien baut auch auf die Richtlinie zum Verbraucherkauf. Allerdings bietet auch hier die Richtlinie keine Sprachenwahl an.

9. Die Sprachenpolitik der Richtlinie zum Verbraucherkauf

Die Richtlinie zum Verbrauchsgüterkauf soll hier nun exemplarisch in Hinsicht auf eine praktikable Sprachenregelung untersucht werden. Beginnen wir also mit der einleitenden Erwägung. So stellt der Unterpunkt 2, dass der Binnenmarkt einen Raum ohne Binnengrenzen umfasst, in dem der freie Verkehr von Waren, Personen, Dienstleistungen und Kapital gewährleistet ist. Das hört sich sehr positiv an, lässt jedoch ganz allgemeine Probleme, wie zum Beispiel die Vielfalt der Sprachen in Europa, fast ganz außer Acht. Ein direkter Hinweis auf die unterschiedlichen Sprachen der Verbraucher ist nicht zu finden.

Bei den Garantien kommt dann der erste und einzige und dazu noch vage Hinweis auf die Sprachen. So sagt Artikel 6 Absatz (4): „*Die Mitgliedstaaten, in denen das Verbrauchsgut in Verkehr gebracht wird, können, soweit dies mit den Vorschriften des Vertrags vereinbar ist, für ihr Gebiet vorschreiben, daß die Garantie in einer oder in mehreren Sprachen abzufassen ist, die der jeweilige Mitgliedstaat unter den Amtssprachen der Gemeinschaft auswählt.*"

Auf regionale Sprachen oder Minderheitssprachen wird hier überhaupt nicht eingegangen, sondern nur auf die Amtssprachen. Verbindlich ist die Regelung auch nicht. Es bleibt dem nationalen Gesetzgeber überlassen, wie er mit der Sprachenfrage in seinem Land umgeht. Der Richtliniengesetzgeber, also die Europäische Kommission, mischt sich in die Frage der Sprachenwahl nicht ein.

10. Aussicht

Aus den zuvor angeführten Beispielen ist ersichtlich, dass eine perfekte Lösung und Antwort auf die Frage nach der Sprachenwahl nicht zu finden ist. Die zunehmende Freizügigkeit der Waren über weit mehr als eine Grenze hinweg, wird es immer komplexer und schwieriger machen eine Lösung zu finden. Jeder Jurist in der Rechtsvergleichung wird daher auch in Zukunft immer und immer wieder mit Sprachproblemen konfrontiert werden.

Ein Rechtsbereich, der besonders dicht beim europäischen Bürger steht ist das Vertragsrecht. Ohne Verträge kann niemand mehr leben. Der Kaufvertrag nimmt im Vertragsrecht eine besondere Stellung ein, da es jener Vertrag ist, den der europäische Bürger in der Regel am häufigsten abschließen wird. Ein europäisches Kaufrecht zu entwerfen bedeutet daher auch, dass dieses Kaufrecht allen Bürgern der Europäischen Union zugänglich sein muss. Zugänglichkeit beginnt mit einem Text in der jeweiligen Muttersprache. Die Muttersprache ist aber eben nicht immer nur eine der anerkannten und zugelassenen EU-Sprachen, sondern kann auch eine Minderheitssprache oder eine regionale Sprache sein.

Gerade der Kaufvertrag, der so nahe am Verbraucher ist, kann sich dem europäischen Sprachenproblem nicht entziehen. Derzeit wurde diesem Punkt noch nicht genug Beachtung geschenkt, obwohl die Problematik sehr deutlich ist. Es ist keineswegs so, dass ein jeder Käufer englisch spricht und liest, und dazu fähig ist eine Bedienungsanleitung, zum Beispiel für einen Radiowecker, auf Englisch zu verstehen.

Oder denken wir an eine Garantie als ein zugesichertes extra Recht, gerade dieses will der Verbraucher natürlich auch verstehen. Wird der gekaufte Koffer wirklich zehn Jahre lang halten und bekomme ich ansonsten Ersatz? Diese und ähnliche Fragen bewegen jeden Verbraucher.

Allerdings ist dieses Problem der Sprachenvielfalt bisher sowohl in den Richtlinien der Europäischen Kommission zum Vertragsrecht als auch in den zahlreichen Dokumenten der Kommission, inklusive den Aktionsplänen, nicht zur Sprache gekommen.

Generelle Fragen begleiten dieses Problem. Will der Verkäufer seine Produkte eigentlich nur an Landsleute verkaufen oder will er den Erwägungen der Richtlinie folgen und den freien Verkehr im Binnenmarkt unterstützen? Die Sprachenwahl des Gesetzgebers kann daher eigentlich als ein deutliches Statement pro oder contra Europa gewertet werden. Stellen wir uns vor, dass Polen nun ein neues Kaufrecht in dem geplanten neuen polnischen Zivilgesetzbuch entwirft, welches vorsieht, dass Garantien neben der polnischen Sprache auch noch in Deutsch und Englisch angeboten werden sollten. So ist das vielleicht sehr freundlich und überdies zeigt es auch eine deutliche Schätzung der westeuropäischen Verbraucher. Allerdings würde man sich dann fragen, ob die eigenen ukrainischen und russischen Minderheiten nicht prozentual häufiger einen Kaufvertrag abschließen als die Touristen?

Die explizite Sprachenwahl ist also ein politisches Statement eines jeden Staates. Die Wahl zeigt deutlich, ob ein Staat seine Minderheiten vor Augen hat oder z.B. den grenzüberschreitenden Warenverkehr. Eine Lösung, die beiden Polen entspräche, dem innerpolitischen als auch dem außenpolitischen, und am besten auch noch ausgewogen, eben diese Aufgabe fordert einen jeden Gesetzgeber in Europa. Es ist fraglich, ob eine paritätische Lösung wirklich möglich ist oder im Endeffekt nur die Regelungsmasse durch neue Regelungen erhöht.

Dennoch darf das Sprachproblem in keiner Weise an den Rand der Diskussion gedrängt werden, denn es ist essentiell für einen zufriedenen EU-Bürger, der voll Vertrauen in den Binnenmarkt dann sicher auch eher bereit ist Neues außerhalb seiner Landesgrenzen zu probieren. Daher sollte die Europäische Kommission in den kommenden Jahren verstärkt eine intensive Sprachenpolitik fördern und diesem Problem nicht durch Schweigen aus dem Weg gehen.

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ABSTRACT

Sprachenwahl als politische Entscheidung

Ein Erfahrungsbericht aus der Arbeitsgruppe zum Kaufrecht der *Study Group on a European Civil Code*

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Law and language interact with each other. Lawyers from the same legal system subsequently understand this terminology. Nevertheless, one term in one and the same language can have a complete different implication in another legal system. So, the transposition of one legal term of one legal system to another legal system already poses problems. Through language a single term can express a whole concept. So the addressee will not only understand the chosen language but will also pick up a message, in the case of a legal discourse a whole concept, which is expressed by a single term.

Legal language differs between countries that seem to have the same tongue. European consumers are in need of a coherent set of rules, which safeguard their rights. So far different Directives, whereby the Directive 1999/44 on consumer sales is a prominent piece of legislation, have protected consumer rights. This Directive has been implemented in the national law of the EU-member States. Most countries have chosen in the work of the transposition of the Directive into their respective civil codes or legislations for a wording different from the Directive and close to their legal language tradition. These differences in language can create incoherence in legal understanding. Drafting legal texts for European use is an endeavor, which needs an own method and many policy decisions in order to grant a high standing quality. European integration cannot proceed without attention being given to linguistic matters.

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This volume is a collection of eleven contributions, which all - one way or the other -discuss the relationship between language and culture, bringing to the fore the non-arbitrariness of the two phenomena and demonstrating at the same time that there is no one-to-one relationship between language and meaning. In spite of wide-ranging differences in topics, theoretical approaches and data, the articles live happily side by side, supplementing each other by comparing languages in terms of different linguistic strata spanning from phonology and graphology via lexico-grammar and syntax to socio-cultural practice and history. The leitmotif of language and culture is present throughout the volume, but becomes very clear in the four contributions concerning language and law, in which the authors successfully take advantage of the role played by intertextuality. All in all, this volume will be of interest to readers working with discourse analysis, including aspects of linguistics as well as history and culture. In what follows I shall comment on each of the contributions:

Jørgen Rischel: Culture and Language in a three-dimensional area.
The article focuses on lexical inventiveness in a low-status ethnic group on mainland South East Asia, where minority languages and cultures are neglected at school leading to cultural superiority of the dominant population. Of particular interest is the code-switching when a speaker belonging to an ethnic group moves from forest life to city life and in the new environment uses a colour scale that is different from the one needed and used in the forest. The implication of this seems to be that identities change when language changes. Another interesting point is

that meaningful interaction can be made even in communities which use a restricted code or use language sparingly.

Michael Herslund and Irene Baron: Language as World View.
This contribution deals with how reality is represented differently in Danish and French. An attempt at describing – rather than explaining – how different languages subdivide the world in different ways. The authors see language as 'our only point of departure and our only tool for structuring the material and conceptual world'. (p. 31). The authors look at motion verbs assuming that these can lexicalize four main semantic components, viz. motion, path, manner and figure and demonstrate that Danish and French verbs vary in their semantic potentials when it comes to motion verbs. Danish has more precise motion verbs than French while French uses more general verbs for motion, which makes it necessary to add external elements such as adverbials or gerondifs, in order to make up for the lack of meaning rendered in the French verb. But the situation is then different when it comes to Danish and French nouns where Danish nouns tend to be underspecified hyperonyms whose most important features are constituted by their FUNCTION unlike in French where nouns tend to have a more precise meaning in their role as co-hyponyms. According to the authors, the determining feature is the physical aspect, or what they refer to as CONFIGURATION, rather than the function in French nouns. They see this as a result of the two languages having different views of the world, one being more concerned with function, which has fewer semantic features and the other one being more concerned with configuration, which involves more semantic features and thus makes the nouns more precise. The verbs and nouns discussed here are not directly related to each other, and the two parts therefore seem to tell each their story. Besides, it would have been interesting to see how vague verbs trigger precise nouns (in French) and how precise verbs trigger underspecified nouns (in Danish).

Andrei Mikhalev: Strata of the linguistic World Picture.
This article lays out a semantic framework for describing the Linguistic World Picture (LWP) in terms of a specific representation of meaning by means of a given language. Based on a discussion of different language strata, viz. phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactical it is suggested that world languages demonstrate both 'universal tendencies' and 'individual peculiarities' and that each stratum contributes to the entire pattern of meaning. The meaning that is located in each stratum gradually becomes less diffuse as we move down the ladder of strata from the phonetic stratum to the lexical stratum where words tend to limit potential meaning, if they are 'actualized'. This shifts the discussion focus from grammar to discourse, and the important point is made that culture determines language typologization to a greater extent at the discourse strata than at the phonetic and morphonological strata. World languages thus demonstrate 'universality of concepts' but 'individualization of categories' along the lines suggested by Herslund and Baron for nouns that are based on function in some languages but on configuration in others.

Vladimir Leitchik: The relations entre culture et langue: Fonctions Communes.

Discussing the relationship between language and culture, this article lists a number of culturally determined functions and language functions and groups them into three sections, viz. culture and language enabling the exchange of information between individuals and society, culture and language determining human behaviour and culture and language as instrumental in safeguarding individualism in society. Language, including signs at different levels of abstraction, is shown to carry cultural knowledge and common to the two areas are a wide variety of communicative functions. On the basis of carefully structured and well presented arguments, the author concludes that while a number of functions manifest themselves differently in different cultures and languages, the vast majority of functions are shared between culture and language.

Michael Herslund: Essence du langage, types linguistiques et systèmes métriques.

The essential point made in this article and exemplified through a comparison of ancient French and 17th century French metrical poetry is that linguistic structure determines expression form. Taking his point of departure in semiotics, assuming that all meaning has an expression plane and a content plane, the author offers examples of V2 languages, in which the verb always occupies the second position in the clause, and SVO languages which are structured with Subject, Verb and Object in a given order. He then demonstrates how changes from ancient French to classical French have affected the rhythmic and prosodic patterns of poetry. While the phrase is reproduced and structured hierarchically in ancient French metrical poetry, metrical poetry written in classical French is different in that it prefers a linear structure. In both cases, not only phonetic systems but also grammatical systems are carried over, thus succinctly reflecting the incarnation of culture in language. A very interesting contribution with an untraditional perspective on language and culture.

Nora Galli de' Paratesi: Diglossia and the spoken/written language rift in Italian.

This article introduces the reader to the history of diglossia. Defining diglossia as language with a prestige function opposed to language with an information function, the author takes the reader through the history of languages with high prestige, viz. Latin and written Italian, to languages with low prestige, viz. oral Italian and English. This development is shown as one of political orchestration - first through Reformation, which aimed at making the word of God accessible to the common man and next through the Ciceronian period when a language was introduced for intellectual exchange. The aim of simplification and accessibility that began with Reformation was, however, taken up by the Royal Society in Britain, which recommended plain prose in English to make science comprehensible to those who did not know Latin. Latin thus created a distance to the people while English was the common man's language. This distinction was upheld in written and oral language. The author reaches the very interesting conclusion that as a consequence of

the history of diglossia, which suggests that 'the written form is normatively 'pure' and the oral one 'wrong' and 'impure', written language is still more formal than oral language in our day.

Iørn Korzen: Hierarchy vs. linearity. Some considerations on the relation between context and text with evidence from Italian and Danish.
In this article, the author narrows the object of analysis from language history to a more detailed comparison of Italian and Danish. On the basis of a corpus of 27 written and 27 oral Italian and 18 written and 18 oral Danish reproductions of two Mr. Bean texts, the author finds that Italian is characterized by hypotaxis (hierarchy) while Danish is characterized by parataxis (linearity). This result, which is supported by previous research, is thoroughly discussed on the background of a text-context model which includes sociological as well as textual parameters and some basic cultural and social differences are highlighted. These suggest that Italian society is generally more elitist than Danish society, which is mirrored even in oral political discussions that tend to be more formalized than similar Danish ones. The author concludes that both written and oral Italian is more formal than Danish, an observation he relates to the Italian diglossic situation, in which informality was not common in written Italian, perhaps due to the absence of a non-dialectal spoken language.

Lita Lundquist: Interpretation of culture and culture of interpretation in law and linguistics.
In an interesting comparison of judicial and linguistic interpretation of meaning, in which is the Danish legal expert and philosopher Alf Ross' ideas on pragmatics are brought into play with pragmatics in the linguistic sense, the author argues that pragmatics is the great divide between the two in that it belongs to culture in judicial methods and to language in linguistics. The problem addressed is that of semantic ambiguity and the need to distinguish between objective fact and subjective meaning. Both disciplines use language for interpretation, but in different ways. While linguistics aims at predicting how meaning is conveyed – be it subjectively or objectively - law is intended to present objective fact. This, however, causes problems because law statutes depend on language for their very existence, and as language has a cultural component, meaning becomes ambiguous and the question consequently arises whether meaning should be interpreted 'on discretion' as is the case in law or by preferred interpretations as suggested by one pragmatist, Levinson. The author characterizes Ross' approach to semantics as utterly pessimistic and points out that linguistic theory has developed much since his day. She mentions functional linguistics as one theory that offers solutions to the problem of meaning ambiguity. However, no specific solution is offered in the conclusion, which puns that 'while Ross' legal method aims at investigating language in laws, the linguist's goal is to discover laws in language'.

Anne Lise Kjær: Convergence of European legal systems: The role of language.
The issue is raised whether it is possible for Europe to develop a common legal language when it does not have a common general language. The author therefore

explores 'under what circumstances it is possible to speak the same language across legal languages' and thus indirectly touches upon cultural difference. Among the problems raised in the article is that legal actors belong to different legal traditions, which makes it difficult to transfer meaning from one system to another. It is argued that due to the unstable nature of legal concepts, which tend to change with the change of legal experience, a dynamic model for legal interpretation is needed. The author advocates a model along the lines of critical discourse analysis, in which the dimensions of social practice and discursive practice shape and are being shaped through the constant negotiation among translators and legal actors about the situated meanings of legal concepts. Thus, the point of view expressed in this article is less pessimistic than that of some legal scholars, who contend that understanding between lawyers is impossible because of the wide variety of European languages and legal systems. Therefore, according to the author, what is needed in Europe to ensure legal integration is not a common legal language, but a common legal discourse. The article is well argued, but one might have expected the problem of translation to receive more attention because of the centrality of this discipline to the problem discussed.

Viktor Smith: Linguistic diversity and the convergence of European legal systems and cultures: Is Legrand's pessimism justified?

The problem of translation is addressed to a larger extent in Viktor Smith's article, in which Legrand's overall pessimistic position on convergence of European systems and cultures is discussed. Legrand holds that 'as long as languages differ – together with the world-views encoded into them – there can be no unified culture and no unified law'. This idea amounts to saying that translation is not possible. To counter this position and following Roman Jakobson, the author argues that language does not need to be an obstacle, but may become one in adverse situations such as when pre-legal understandings of the world differ from one culture to the other. That language is not necessarily an obstacle is shown with reference to the communicative pressure that overrides language differences. If a speaker seriously needs to express something, neologisms are invented and ideas reworded across cultures and languages. The argument is taken further by invoking Louis Hjelmslev's ideas of form and substance which in linguistics are seen as part of a larger 'functional net of dependencies'. The author includes in this net of dependencies the possibility of *acting* in certain ways. It thus becomes possible to consider three elements in a form/substance/function relationship, viz. pre-legal understanding of the world, linguistic means such as grammar and syntax, and technical legal concepts, which amount to a legal meta-language. The author thus argues – successfully - that in addition to the highly flexible tool of language, cultures must share a cognitive basis for the convergence of European legal systems to be possible.

Irène Baron: Diversité linguistique et cultures juridiques: les langues constituent-elles un obstacle à l'intégration européenne?

Pointing once again to the problem of harmonization in legal Europe, the author compares differences or 'décalages' between Danish and French language and Danish and French law. Referring to explorations of verbs and nouns in Danish and

French by Herslund and Baron (same volume), the suggestion is made that Danish is an endocentric language with concrete verbs and concrete verb-derived nouns, while French is an exocentric one with abstract verbs and abstract verb-derived nouns. This leads the author to conclude that reasoning in Danish is based on induction while reasoning in French is based on deduction. Similar explorations of Danish and French law suggest that Danish law is interpreted by way of induction while French judges use deduction as their approach in lawsuits. This seemingly comparable situation of language and law makes the author conclude that there is a co-relation between the two domains, which needs to be considered in European law harmonization efforts in order to prevent miscarriages of justice. The points made in the article are interesting, although not entirely convincing – especially because Danish and French nouns are being compared with a different result in the article by Herslund and Baron. Here it is argued that Danish nouns are more abstract than the French ones without drawing a clear distinction between verb-derived nouns and genuine nouns. This is, however, as minor point in an otherwise well-presented argument.

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PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED:

ANTIKE FACHTEXTE / *ANCIENT TECHNICAL TEXTS*

Dieser Sammelband enthält ausgewählte Beiträge der Tagung „Fachtexte und Fachsprachen in kulturhistorischer Tradition", die vom 3. bis 7. Märtz 2004 and der Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin stattfand. Herausgegeben von / *Edited by*: Thorsten Fögen . Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co. (2005), D-10785 Berlin, Germany. ISBN : 3-11-018122-3

DE LA MESURE DANS LES TERMES

Travaux de la CRTT. Sous la direction de Henri Béjoint et Françoise Maniez. Les articles regroupés dans ce volume sont le résultat du colloque « De la mesure dans les termes », qui s'est tenu à Lyon en septembre 2004. Publié par : Presse Universitaires de Lyon, 2005. 86, rue Pasteur, F-69365 Lyon Cedex 7, France. ISBN 2-7297-0782-4

ODENSE WORKING PAPERS IN LANGUAGE & COMMUNICATION

No.26, February 2005. "Den 9. metaphor: Organisationer som sprog" edited by Thomas Hestbæk 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 1/2006 & 2/2006 22. 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. 18 (2006). *Konferencerapport: "Kan terminologi på norsk bidra til økonomisk lønnsomhed?" NHN, 10. November 2005*. 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)

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CONFERENCE CALENDAR:

- *2006* -

June 8-10 (2006) – Oslo (Norway)

Explicit and Implicit Information in Text. Information Structure Across Languages. The goal of the conference is to present and discuss current research in text interpretation, particularly textual cohesion and coherence across languages. The aim is to bring together researchers interested in systematizing and explaining the variety of means exploited across languages to create cohesion and establish dependencies and discourse hierarchies in text.
Information: E-mail: m.f.krave@ilos.uio.no
Web: www.hf.uio.no/forskningsprosjekter/sprik/english/activities/index.html#CfP

June 12-14 (2006) – Kazimierz Dolny (Poland)

International Conference on "Interpreting and Relevance: Discourse and Translation". The conference aims to provide a venue for linguists and other scholars to explore phenomena of human communication and cognition from the perspective of relevance theory as well as related and competing approaches.
Information: Interpreting for Relevance, Institute of English Studies, Warsaw University, Nowy Swiat 4, 00-497 Warszawa, Poland.
Tel. (+48) 22 625 28 62 Fax (+48) 22 625 29 31
E-mail: m.kisielewska@uw.edu.pl or EwaWalaszewska@aster.pl
Web: http://venus.ci.uw.edu.pl/~ifrc/

June 15-17 (2006) – Göteborg (Sweden)

22nd FIPLV World Congress 2006 & LMS Språkdagar: "Diversity in Language Learning and Teaching". Joint Conference of LMS Sweden (Riksförening för Lärarna I Moderna Språk) and FIPLV (Féderation internationale des professeurs de langues vivantes). FIPLV 75 years! More than 100 lecturers from around the world who will speak in Swedish, English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Russian and Esperanto.
Information:
Web: www.fiplv.org and www.lms-riks.se .

June 15-17 (2006) – Madrid (Spain)

VI Winter Workshop on Economics and Philosophy (2006): "Economics and Language". Can economists contribute to the study of language? Very often philosophers have questioned that instrumental rationality could account for the rational structure underlying our natural languages. Most linguists have simply ignored the economic approach. After the publication of Ariel Rubinstein's *Economics and Language* (CUP, 2000) there seems to be an opportunity to bridge all these gaps.
Information: Arie Rubinstein, Coordinator. E-mail: rariel@post.tau.ac.il
Web: http://www.urrutiaelejalde.org/WinterWorkshop/2006.html

June 14-17 (2006) – Galway (Ireland)

10th International Conference on Language and Law of the International Academy of Linguistic Law: "Language Law and Language Rights: the Challenges of Enactment and Implementation". Topics: • Linguistic rights and legislation • Language rights in the constitutions of the world • Language Planning and Human rights • The politics of languages and rights • Linguistics rights as third generation rights • Multilingualism and linguistic rights - The right to language diversity • Indigenous languages and minorities rights • Linguistic minorities, endangered languages and human rights • Language rights before the courts and the law • The language of law.
Information: Joseph-G. Turi, Secretary-General / Secretaire general, International Academy of Linguistic Law/Academie internationale de droit linguistique, suite J-4 / bureau J-4, 6000, chemin Deacon, Montreal (Quebec) - Canada H3S 2T9.
Tel.: +1 (514) 345-0718 Fax: +1 (514) 345-0860
E-mail: academyturi@attglobal.net Web: www.iall-aidl.org

June 17-20 (2006) – Montreal (Canada)

Joint Conference of AAAL and ACLA/CAAL 2006. The American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL) and the Association Canadienne de Linguistique Appliquée/Canadian Association of Applied Linguistics (ACLA/CAAL) invite you to attend their 2006 joint conference. The annual AAAL conference is known for its in-depth symposia and focused workshops on key issues in applied linguistics; sessions on a wide range of research studies, in progress or completed; its stimulating and often provocative plenaries; and access to the latest publications via the book exhibit.
Information: American Association for Applied Linguistics, 3416 Primm Lane, Birmingham, AL 35216, USA Tel.: +1 (205) 824-7700 Fax: +1 (205) 823-2760
E-mail: aaal@primemanagement.net Web: www.aaal.org/aaal2006/index.htm

June 19-20 (2006) – Oslo (Norway)

11th Annual conference of the European Association for Machine Translation (EAMT). Following on from the success of previous meetings, the EAMT Annual Conference provides a forum for the exchange of ideas concerning all aspects of Machine Translation and computational tools for translators. The purpose of the event is to bring together users, developers, and researchers alike, in order to discuss the latest developments in the field. Contributions are particularly welcome from developers, vendors, and users of MT systems and translation aids, or CAT tools, as well as from researchers and teachers.
Information: E-mail: eamt@emmtee.net Web: http://eamt.emmtee.net/index.php?page=1

June 23-24 (2006) – Nottingham, UK

3rd IVACS International Conference: "Language at the Interface". The aim of the conference is to continue the success of the previous two conferences held at the Universities of Limerick and Belfast in 2002 and 2004 by exploring ways in which studies of language varieties can be of value to those working at the interface of language studies and other academic disciplines or other activities involving language use. Among the possible interfaces are: language teaching; professional communication; translation studies, literature, cross-cultural communication".
Information: Svenja Adolphs (IVACS 2006), School of English Studies, The University of Nottingham, Nottingham NG7 2RD, UK. E-mail: IVACS@nottingham.ac.uk
Web: www.nottingham.ac.uk/english/IVACS/

June 28-30 (2006) – Nantes (France)

IC 2006 - 17e journées francophones d'ingénieries des connaissances. Organisée chaque année depuis 1997, elle se tiendra en 2006 dans le cadre de la Semaine de la connaissance à Nantes (www.sdc2006.org) qui inclura plusieurs manifestations. L'ingénierie des connaissances propose des concepts, méthodes et techniques permettant de modéliser, de formaliser, d'acquérir des connaissances dans les organisations dans un but d'opérationnalisation, de structuration ou de gestion au sens large. L'ingénierie des connaissances trouve ses champs d'application dans les domaines où l'on veut modéliser les connaissances, les processus cognitifs, les processus de coopération et les savoir-faire d'un métier.
Information: E-mail : ic2006@utt.fr   Web : http://tech-web-n2.utt.fr/ic2006/

July 2-5 (2006) – Le Mans (France)

8e Congrès international ALA: «Plurilinguisme et conscience linguistique: quelles articulations?» / "Plurilingualism and Linguistic Awareness: Discussing the Connections". Les contributions attendues pour le congrès devraient, sous des angles les plus divers, traiter de l'articulation entre les objets et processus dont ces concepts cherchent à rendre compte et la « conscience langagière », dans ses divers aspects. La communication relative au congrès s'effectuera à la fois en anglais et en français.
Information: E-mail: ala.edilic@univ-lemans.fr   Web: http://ala-edilic.univ-lemans.fr

July 5-7 (2006) – Le Mans (France)

1er Congrès international EDiLiC : « L'éveil aux langues : un outil pour le développement du plurilinguisme » / "Plurilingualism and Linguistic Awareness: Discussing the Connections". Depuis les travaux des pionniers des années quatre-vingt en Grande-Bretagne, l'éveil aux langues a fait son chemin, se développant progressivement dans divers pays d'Europe sous l'impulsion d'initiatives coordonnées entre équipes de diverses nationalités, puis dans d'autres pays et régions du monde. Le thème choisi invite à faire part des expériences réalisées dans les contextes les plus divers, en reliant ces expériences à la perspective du développement du plurilinguisme, conçu à la fois comme construction de compétences plurilingues et éducation au plurilinguisme.
Information: E-mail: ala.edilic@univ-lemans.fr   Web: http://ala-edilic.univ-lemans.fr

July 5-8 (2006) – Brisbane (Australia)

ALAA 2006 - Annual Conference of the Applied Linguistics Association of Australia: "Language and Languages: Global and Local Tensions". Topics: applied linguistics, including language teaching, language policy and planning, and computer-based language instruction.
Information: E-mail: alaa2006@uq.edu.au
Web: www.uq.edu.au/slccs/AppliedLing/alaa06/ or www.linq2006.une.edu.au

July 6 (2006) - Brisbane (Australia)

AUSTRALEX 2006 - Australasian Association for Lexicography: "Dictionaries: Uses and Users". Topics will include: dictionaries as the voice of authority; dictionaries to support specialized subjects; the use of dictionaries within language pedagogy; lexicography in the Pacific region; research on dictionary users.
Information: Adam Smith, Australex Secretary. E-mail: adam.smith@ling.mq.edu.au
Web: www.linq2006.une.edu.au   or www.australex.org/a06.htm

July 10-14 (2006) – Vienna (Austria)

International Terminology Summer School 2006: "Terminology Management: Theory, Practice and Applications". This course aims at participants with little experience in terminology theory, management and skills in TMS. Seminar will be held in English.
Information: Anja Drame (TermNet branch office Cologne)
Tel.: +49 (0) 171 4352 475 Fax: +49 (0) 221 8275 3615 E-mail: adrame @ termnet.org
Web: http://www.iim.fh-koeln.de/tss2006

July 17-23 (2006) – Sydney, Australia

Coling – ACL 2006. Coling/ACL2006 is the joint conference of the International Committee on Computational Linguistics and the Association for Computational Linguistics. This is only the third time in their 40+ year histories that the two peak international conferences on language technology, natural language processing and computational linguistics have been combined; it's also the first time the events have been held in the southern hemisphere.
Information: Nicoletta Calzolari. E-mail : glottolo@ilc.cnr.it
Web: www.acl2006.mq.edu.au

July 23-29 (2006) – Durban, South Africa

Session on Law & Language at the 2006 ISA Conference. This session will present papers that employ discourse analytic methods in researching legal settings. These can be informed by any theoretical perspective in sociology, anthropology, law and society studies or sociolinguistics. The aim is to present empirical work, but also review methodological debates in this field, for example, between critical discourse analysis, ethnography and conversation analysis in understanding legal hearings.
Information: E-mail: max.travers@utas.edu.au
Web: www.paultenhave.nl/ISA2006.html or www.ucm.es/info/isa/congress2006

July 23-29 (2006) – Durban, South Africa

Session on Sociolinguistics at the 2006 ISA Conference. Among session topics:
• Language policies, education and national identity • Language, work, technology
• Language and politics in a globalizing world • General sociolinguistics.
Information: Programme Co-ordinator, Robert Herbert, Youngstown State University, 1 University Plaza, Youngstown OH 44555, USA. Fax: 1-330-9417169
E-mail: rkherbert@ysu.edu
Web: www.paultenhave.nl/ISA-RC25.htm or www.ucm.es/info/isa/congress2006

August 10-12 (2006) – Joensuu (Finland)

9th Nordic Conference on Bilingualism. The conference offers presentations and invited lectures in any area of bilingualism such as the acquisition of two languages, bilingual education, bilingual language processing, translation and interpretation, and language contact phenomena.
Information: 9NCB, Jussi Niemi, Linguistics, University of Joensuu, P.O. Box 111, FI-80101 Joensuu, Finland. Tel +358-13-251 4306 (office) Fax +358-13-2514211
E-mail: 9NCB@joensuu.fi
Web: http://cc.joensuu.fi/linguistics/9NCB

August 21-22 (2006) – Turku (Finland).

Symposium on "Structure and Context". The symposium concentrates on the interaction of linguistic structures and context and offers linguists a possibility to discuss the topic from various angles and learn from each other's views.
Information: E-mail: context-organizers@ling.helsinki.fi
Web: www.ling.helsinki.fi/sky/tapahtumat/context/context.shtml

August 24-26 (2006) – Bolzano (Italy)

Multilingualism across Europe: findings, needs, best practices. The linguistic diversity in Europe is a source of richness that is highly valued not only as an element of identification. This conference on multilingualism in Europe provides a forum for researchers from the fields of linguistics, language teaching and language policy for discussion and exchange of findings and outlooks.
Information: EURAC research, Viale Druso 1, I-39100 Bozen/Bolzano – Italy.
Tel. +39 0471 055 055 Fax +39 0471 055 059
E-mail: info@eurac.edu
Web: www.eurac.edu/Org/LanguageLaw/Multilingualism/Projects/tag06_1.profil.htm

September 6-8 (2006) – Mannheim (Germany)

41st Linguistic Colloqium: "The Order of Standard and the Differentiation of Discourses". Topics: Technical Language(s)- Differentiation in Technical Terminology • Norm and Standardization in Media Texts • Political Metaphor • Methods in Linguistic Discourse Analysis following Foucault • Models of Descriptions of Meaning in Linguistics • Language Acquisition and Migration • Perceptual Dialectology.
Information: E-mail: 41.lingkoll@uni-mannheim.de
Web: www.phil.uni-mannheim.de/lingkoll06

September 6-9 (2006) – Torino (Italy)

12th EURALEX International Congress. The congress will bring together professional lexicographers, publishers, researchers, scholars, and others interested in dictionaries of all types. Topics: • Lexicography for Specialised Languages - Terminology and Terminography • Computational Lexicography and Lexicology • The Dictionary-Making Process • Reports on Lexicographical and Lexicological Projects • Bilingual Lexicography • Dialect dictionaries and linguistic atlases • Dictionary Use • Phraseology and Collocation • Lexicological Issues of Lexicographical Relevance • Historical and Scholarly Lexicography and Etymology.
Information: E-mail: euralex2006@unito.it   Web: www.euralex2006.unito.it

September 7-12 (2006) – Sardinia (Italy)

7th International Conference of The Science of Aphasia (SoA): "Neurocognition of Language: Innovative aspects". 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. These are small conferences, with a maximum of 100 participants, that ensure direct interaction between the participants. Themes: • Technical innovations for studying brain and language • Lexicon models and lexical retrieval • Morphosyntax and its impairments.
Information: Jubin Abutalebi, e-mail: abutalebi.jubin@hsr.it or Frank Burchert, e-mail: burchert@ling.uni-potsdam.de   Web: www.soa-online.com

September 8-9 (2006) – Bath (UK)

The Bath Big Forty: Interpreting & Translation Symposium. The MA in Interpreting and Translating in the Department of European Studies and Modern Languages at the University of Bath celebrates its fortieth anniversary in 2006. Topics: • Translation in the modern world – IT/dubbing/publication • Practice and theory in Interpreting • Assessment of translation • Pedagogical issues in translation • Professional-pedagogical interface • Interpreting workshop.
Information: Valerie Pelatt, Department of European Studies & Modern Languages, University of Bath, Bath BA2 7AY, England, UK. Tel: +44 (0) 1225 383826
E-mail: mlsvip@bath.ac.uk Web: www.bath.ac.uk/esml/conferences/bbfits/

September 11-12 (2006) – Lisbon (Portugal)

1st Portuguese Translation Conference – contrapor2006: "Specialised Translation: An Engine for Development". Topics: • Translation theory and practice • Science and technology • Social and human sciences • Terminology and communication • Translation tools • Standardisation in the language industry • Localisation and internationalisation • Translation Deontology.
Information: E-mail: contrapor2006@atelp.org Web: www.atelp.org/conferencia-en.htm

September 13-15 (2006) – Stellenbosch (South Africa)

International Conference on Multilingualism and the Media. The aim of this conference is to bring the crucial importance of multilingualism in the South African society to the attention of the general public as well as all role players, and everyone concerned in government, the public service and especially the media. Sub-themes: • The concept of and implementation of multilingualism • The economics of multilingualism • The electronic media and multilingualism • Technology and multilingualism • The printed media and multilingualism • Media, education and training, and media literacy.
Information: E-mail: conference@linguamedia.org.za Fax: ++27-(0)21-887 2710
Web : www.linguamedia.org.za

September 14-16 (2006) – Zaragoza (Spain)

5th International Conference of the European Association of Languages for Specific Purposes - AELFE: "Academic and Professional Communication in the 21th Century: Genres and Rhetoric in the Construction of Disciplinary Knowledge".
Themes: • Discourse studies • Terminology and lexicology • Translation • Application of information and communication technologies • Didactics and language acquisition • Cognitive linguistics and LSP.
Information: Claus Peter Neumann: cpneuman@unizar.es
Web:www.unizar.es/aelfe2006

September 14-16 (2006) – Barcelona (Spain)

2nd IAFL European Conference on Forensic Linguistics: "Language and the Law".
Themes: • Legal Languages • Legal Discourse • Language minorities and the legal system • Law on language • Forensic linguistic expertise.
Information: Institut Universitari de Lingüística Aplicada (IULA), Universitat Pompeu Fabra, La Rambla 30-32, E-08002 Barcelona (Spain).
E-mail: iulaforensic@upf.edu
Web: http://www.iula.upf.es/agenda/iafl_bcn_06/iafl01uk.htm

September 21-23 (2006) – Warsaw (Poland)

GlobE2006: "Communicating across Age Groups: Age, Language, and Society".
What is the power of age? How is age linguistically constructed, maintained and
challenged across discourses, institutions, cultures and times? The conference will deal
with various perspectives on language, including: sociolinguistics, discourse analysis,
discourse semantics, text linguistics, pragmatics, historical linguistics, corpus linguistics,
contrastive linguistics, intercultural communication, multilingualism, gender studies,
translation, cognitive linguistics, neurolinguistics, language acquisition.
Information: Web : http://globe.ils.uw.edu.pl

September 21-23 (2006) – Münster (Germany)

37. Jahrestagung der GAL: Globalisierung. Gesellschaft für Angewandte Linguistik /
German Association for Applied Linguistics (GAL). Die diesjährige Tagung findet unter
dem Thema "Globalisierung" statt. Der darunter zu verstehende mehrdimensionale
Prozess der Zunahme nationenübergreifender wirtschaftlicher, kultureller und sozialer
Beziehungen stellt nicht nur für Wirtschaftswissenschaftler und Soziologen, sondern auch
für Linguisten eine Quelle neuer Forschungsbereiche und -perspektiven dar.
Information: Prof.Dr. Ulrich Ammon, Universität Duisburg-Essen, GAL-Geschäftsstelle,
Institut für Germanistik, D-47057 Duisburg, Germany.
Tel.: 0203/37 92 39 3 Fax: 0203/37 92 49 0   E-mail: geschaeftsstelle@gal-ev.de
Web: http://deuserv.uni-muenster.de/gal-2006

September 21-23 (2006) – Vercelli (Italy)

**40th International Congress on Linguistics and Technological Models of Research
(SLI 2006).** Since many decades linguistic theoreticians have taken large advantage of the
research models proposed by technological advances in different fields. The objective of
this conference is to bring into light and discuss the impact of recent technological tools
on the main research trends. Themes: • computation as scientific paradigm • computers
and technologies as tools for the processing of linguistic data • new tools for data
collection and analysis • linguistics and innovative applications.
Information: E-mail: sli2006@lett.unipmn.it
Web: www.lett.unipmn.it/sli2006

September 26-28 (2006) – Regensburg (Germany)

International Conference on Anglicisms in Europe. The conference Anglizismen in
Europa / Anglicisms in Europe at Regensburg University wishes to make an intercultural
and interdisciplinary contribution to this complex and topical theme. Its aim is to bring out
common ground as well as the special qualities of various European languages and
cultures, and to examine their mutual influence. Subtopics: • Attitudes towards the influx
of anglicisms ('Language Policy') • The use of anglicisms in certain fields of discourse
('Languages for Specific Purposes') • Anglicisms in dictionaries ('Lexicography and
Corpus Linguistics').
Information: AiE2006, Prof. Dr. Roswitha Fischer, Universität Regensburg,
Universitätsstr. 31, D- 93040 Regensburg, Germany.
Tel.: +49-941-943-3473   Fax: +49-941-943-1991
E-mail: AiE2006@sprachlit.uni-regensburg.de
Web: www.uni-regensburg.de/Fakultaeten/phil_Fak_IV/Anglistik/aie/index_eng.html

October 5-7 (2006) – Münich (Germany)

2nd International Conference of the German Cognitive Linguistics Association. The aim of the conference is to promote interest in Cognitive Linguistics in Germany and abroad and to provide a forum for the presentation and discussion of current research. Topics: • Categorization including prototype theory and conceptual hierarchies • Figurative language including the theory of conceptual metaphor and metonymy • Frame semantics, scenarios, scripts, cognitive and cultural models • Conceptual-blending theory • Cognitive Grammar • Cognitive language typology • Cognitive-linguistic approaches to discourse • Cognitive-linguistic approaches to word-formation .
Information: E-mail: DGKL-Konferenz@anglistik.uni-muenchen.de
Web: http://www.kognitive-sprachforschung.lmu.de/event/events.html

October 18-20 (2006) – Las Palmas de Gran Canaria International (Spain)

International Conference on Translation and Interpreting at the Crossroads of Intercultural Communication. This Conference aims to explore the following themes: • The Translator and Interpreter Profession: Local, National, and International Market • Translation Theory and Instruction • Interpreting Theory and Instruction • Researching Topics on Translation and Interpreting: Culture and Translation; Specialized Translation: Text Genres and Types; Interpreting • Translation and Teaching Languages for Specific Purposes • Translation and Teaching Spanish as a Foreign Language
Information: E-mail: congresotraduccion06@ulpgc.es
Web: www.gi.ulpgc.es/tlcsc/congreso/principal.html

October 19-21 (2006) – Winterthur (Switzerland)

Isbn Congress 2006: Aspects of Language Mediation: Contributions from Applied Linguistics to the Dialogue between Science and Society / Aspekte der Sprach-vermittlungsforschung. Organised by Zürcher Hochschule Winterthur (ZHW) .Language mediation research examines how language competencies are transferred. Contributions from Applied Linguistics can only be effective if the transfer between science and society is guaranteed.
Information: Fabienne Tissot, Zürcher Hochschule Winterthur, Institut für Sprache in Beruf und Bildung, Theaterstrasse 15c, Postfach 805, CH-8401 Winterthur, Switzerland. Tel. +41 (0)52 260 62 09   Fax +41 (0)52 269 62 09   E-Mail: isbb-info@zhwin.ch
Web: www.isbb.zhwin.ch/kongress_06/index.php

October 25-27 (2006) – Berlin (Germany)

The 6th International Conference and Exhibition on Language Transfer in Audiovisual Media. "Language & the Media: Free Access – Priceless Rights?" The 6th International Languages and the Media Conference and Exhibition will examine the various perspectives of translation for worldwide and local distribution and its impact on audiences, literacy and accessibility. It will take a bird's eye view of new opportunities for viewers and new tools for translators and language providers. It will examine the issues of free access and priceless rights.
Information: ICWE GmbH - Languages & The Media, Leibnizstrasse 32, D - 10625 Berlin, Germany. Tel: +49 - 30 - 327 61 40 Fax: +49 - 30 - 324 98 33
E-mail: info@languages-media.com
Web: www.languages-media.com/lang_media_2006/conference.php

November 6-9 (2006) - Montevideo (Uruguay)

X Simposio Iberoamericano de Terminología – RITerm 2006: "Terminología, conocimientos, sociedad y poder". Compatibilizar los aspectos más técnicos y las aplicaciones tecnológicas con el reconocimiento de la trascendencia social y política de la terminología es la demostración del nivel de responsabilidad que cada uno de nosotros tenemos por nuestras respectivas lenguas y países, y al mismo tiempo, una muestra del rigor del análisis, de nuestro anclaje en los datos reales y de nuestra discriminación de situaciones y soluciones en busca de la mejor opción en cuanto a adecuación y eficiencia.
Information: E-mail: ritermuruguay@adinet.com.uy
Web: http://www.riterm.net/xsimposio/marcos.htm

November 9-10 (2006) – Eskilstuna (Sweden)

ASLA 2006: "Mångfald och språk för en hållbar samhällsutveckling". Ett gemensamt tema blir hur vi kan skapa en samhälleligt god, hållbar utveckling, där språkens roll speciellt uppmärksammas. Vi välkomnar bidrag inom forskningsområden med koppling till språk, som berör tillämpade delar av: • Förskola, grundskola och gymnasieutbildning • Vuxenundervisning • Modersmålen och svenska som andraspråk • De nationella minoriteterna och minoritetsspråken • Främmande språk.
Information: E-mail: Jarmo.Lainio@mdh.se
Web: www.nordiska.su.se/asla

November 10-11 (2006) – Prague (Czech Republic)

EXPOLINGUA Praha 2006. 16th International Fair for Languages, Cultures, and Education. EXPOLINGUA Praha presents a rich, varied programme of workshops and lectures. Main themes of Expolingua Praha 2006 will be: • Mini Language Courses • Language Tests • Studying and Learning Abroad • European Union Programme • Translation and Interpreting • CALL Computer Assisted Language Learning.
Information: ICWE GmbH, EXPOLINGUA Praha, Att. Janica Ciglianova, P.O.BOX 51
130 11 Praha 3, Czech Republic. Tel. +420 222 782 651   Fax: +420 222 782 651
E-mail: praha@expolingua.com
Web: www.expolingua.cz

November 16-17 (2006) – Antwerp (Belgium)

International Conference on Terminology: "Terminology and Society: The impact of Terminology on everyday life". Topics: • the importance of / best practices in terminology management, knowledge management & multilingual document production for such important society areas as business & services, industry, government, administration, health & human care, security, etc. • best practices for / projects of national terminology associations representing smaller languages and / or new EU member states whose objective it is to promote their own language as the language for specialised terminology; issues relating to language policy in this area • best practices in terminology teaching and training • uniformity and standardisation across languages of the terminology of translation and interpreting.
Information: Prof. Dr. Frieda Steurs (Chair of the Local Organising Committee), Departement Vertaler-Tolk, Lessius Hogeschool, Sint-Andriesstraat 2, B-2000 Antwerp, Belgium.
Tel: + 32 3 206 04 91 Fax: + 32 3 206 04 99 E-mail: Frieda.Steurs@lessius-ho.be
Web: www.nlterm.org/antwerpen2006.htm

November 16-17 (2006) – Kensington (UK)

Translating and the Computer 28 - Conference and Exhibition. This conference focuses on the user's perspective of how computers/software is used in translation. The conference series attracts a wide audience which includes translators, business managers, researchers and language experts. Topics: • use of MT systems • CAT tools including TM and various translation aids • controlled languages and their use in MT • speech translation • terminology • localisation • multilingual document management/workflow • case studies of technology-based solutions • the Internet and translation aids/services • Application of XML tools and XML standards • Project Management • quality assurance tools • workflow systems • resources for translation including corpora .
Information: Nicole Adamides, Conference Organiser, Aslib, The Holywell Centre, 1 Phipp Street, London EC2A 4PS.
Tel: +44(0) 20 7613 3031   Fax: +44 (0) 20 7613 5080   E-mail: tc28@aslib.com
Web: www.aslib.com/conferences

November 17-18 (2006) – Brussels (Belgium)

XXXI Annual Conference of the International Association Language and Business. "**Language and the Business World: Dynamic Strategies, Dynamic Synergy".** The subject of the 31st annual colloquium and conference of the International Association Language and Business addresses the close link between language and the business world bearing in mind that the knowledge of foreign languages is an extremely important and even indispensable instrument for trade beyond national borders. It cannot be denied that knowledge of foreign languages plays a significant role in multinational corporations and simply cannot be ignored in commercial organisations of all sizes. It is not necessarily restricted only to major concerns but also to medium, small and even minuscule companies which export their products. Very often, these companies are unaware how important it can be to have some knowledge of foreign languages and how much this can contribute towards conveying the image of the company and its products to the market – or how the lack of such knowlegde can harm that image.
Information: Manfred SCHMITZ, General Secretary of IALB, Intertext Fremdsprachendienst e.G., Greifswalder Straße 5, D-10405 Berlin, Germany.
Tel.: +49-30-42 101 777   Fax: +49-30-42 101 702 E-mail: manfred.schmitz@intertext.de
Web: www.ialb.net

November 17-19 (2006) – Manchester (UK)

Translation and Conflict II. The conference aims to respond to increased interest in the important role played by translators and interpreters in situations of violent, armed conflict; in shaping perceptions of events and cultures in the run up to such conflict; and in dealing with its aftermath. Themes: • Armed conflict: the nature and extent of interpreter and translator involvement on the ground • Mediating in the aftermath of conflict: translating and interpreting for asylum seekers and refugees • Trainers and trainees: integrating the ethical dimension in translator and interpreter training • Mediating multi-modal representations of conflict • Translating and interpreting for Human Rights organizations • Translating and interpreting in the process of conflict resolution • Activist communities of interpreters and translators • Personal vs. professional ethics.
Information: Ms Gabriele Ashcroft, School of Languages, Linguistics and Cultures, The University of Manchester, Humanities, Oxford Road, Manchester M13 9PL (UK).
E-mail: gabriele.ashcroft@manchester.ac.uk
Web: www.esri.salford.ac.uk/seminars/forthcoming/translation_conflictII

November 17-19 (2006) – Berlin (Germany)

EXPOLINGUA Berlin 2006. 19th International Fair for Languages and Cultures: "Languages Advance Mobility". Themes: In cooperation with EUROCALL Germany and the FMF, the Association for Foreign Languages EXPOLINGUA Berlin 2006 presents a rich, varied programme of workshops and lectures. Main themes of Expolingua 2006 will be: • CALL Computer Assisted Language Learning • Mini language courses • Language tests • Studying and learning abroad • Foreign language professions.
Information: Project manager: Silke Lieber, ICWE GmbH EXPOLINGUA Berlin, Leibnizstrasse 32, D-10625 Berlin, Germany.
Tel: + 49 30 327 614-0 Fax: + 49 30 324 98 33
E-mail: info@expolingua.com
Web: www.expolingua.com/eng/index2.htm

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

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