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Traduzione e terminologia

A cura di Elena Errico e Laura Santini

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Il numero monografico[1] che presentiamo raccoglie alcuni contributi incentrati sulle interrelazioni tra traduzione e terminologia partendo dalla prospettiva della prassi traduttiva scritta e orale. Come segnala CABRÉ (2004), la traduzione e la terminologia (qui intesa più che altro nel suo aspetto applicativo di processo e prodotto) sono due discipline con diversi punti in comune, quali la base linguistica, la finalità comunicativa, l'interdisciplinarietà, un riconoscimento accademico relativamente recente e uno sviluppo nel quale la prassi ha preceduto la formulazione teorica. Occorre sottolineare che la traduzione ha svolto e svolge un ruolo rilevante nello sviluppo della terminologia, come disciplina e come prassi terminografica, costituendo assieme alla scrittura multilingue uno strumento essenziale nella proiezione del lavoro terminologico in una dimensione multilingue, fattore che ha contribuito a un rilevante arricchimento lessicale delle lingue d'Europa (PRANDI e ROSSI 2017). Tuttavia, dal punto di vista metodologico, la terminologia può e anzi deve spesso prescindere dalla traduzione, dal momento che si prefigge di raccogliere unità terminologiche originali a partire dagli usi effettivi che ne fanno gli specialisti (CABRÉ 2000). Le traduzioni in genere non rispondono a questo criterio, dato che normalmente non sono prodotte direttamente da specialisti in situazioni naturali di comunicazione e dunque non sono considerate fonti affidabili per il lavoro terminografico (CABRÉ 2004; 2005). Viceversa, la traduzione, nella sua modalità specializzata, ha necessità della terminologia: i traduttori specializzati e gli interpreti sono utenti abituali delle risorse terminografiche, perché la terminologia è il principale (anche se non l'unico) veicolo delle conoscenze specialistiche rappresentate e comunicate dal testo.

La competenza terminologica del traduttore/interprete non si limita peraltro all'acquisizione di un elenco di termini e della lista dei relativi traducenti, ma costituisce un sostegno indispensabile nella strutturazione delle conoscenze semi-specialistiche comunicate dal testo (CABRÉ 2005), e dunque incide sulla sottocompetenza extralinguistica, individuata da PACTE (2011) come uno dei componenti della competenza traduttiva. In genere, quanto più vincolante sarà il testo, minore il grado di libertà del traduttore/interprete e maggiore il peso del lavoro di ricerca terminologica sulla qualità della traduzione[2]. La ricerca terminologica, tuttavia, è così integrata all'interno del processo traduttivo che spesso sfugge all'attenzione dei committenti, non pienamente consapevoli dei vantaggi qualitativi ed economici di una gestione terminologica rigorosa (BOWKER 2015).

La terminologia orientata alla traduzione presenta caratteristiche diverse dalla terminologia *tout-court*, riconducibili essenzialmente ai vincoli imposti dalla prassi traduttiva come attività professionale. Il traduttore specializzato, infatti, oltre a garantire standard di qualità elevati, deve mantenere una produttività adeguata e fra l'altro la pressione in questo senso è sempre crescente. Ciò comporta che tenda a compilare repertori terminigrafici ad hoc, più ridotti e strettamente funzionali al dominio e al tema (o addirittura alla singola commissione) di cui si sta occupando, a scapito della sistematicità e del rigore che costituiscono invece capisaldi nella terminografia. Le schede terminografiche compilate con queste modalità spesso si limitano a contenere un glossario bilingue, mentre gli altri campi sono considerati opzionali. Inoltre, per quanto riguarda la selezione delle unità terminologiche, i repertori compilati dai traduttori, oltre a contenere elementi classificabili come termini, possono aggiungere lemmi che per qualche motivo sono ricorrenti ma privi di contenuto specializzato, stringhe di parole frequenti, ecc. oppure semplicemente elementi lunghi da trascrivere che possono essere facilmente incollati nel testo (BOWKER 2015). Nel caso degli interpreti, questa tendenza all'economicità è ancora maggiore perché il repertorio deve essere consultato durante lo svolgimento dell'incarico, in condizioni di urgenza di comunicare. Dunque la selezione dei termini non sarà né sistematica né esaustiva della struttura concettuale del dominio in questione, ma sarà ridotta ai termini che ad esempio l'interprete teme di non ricordare, trova particolarmente difficili, ecc.

Un altro aspetto da considerare è l'impatto della tecnologia sul lavoro terminografico del traduttore, in particolare l'utilizzo su larga scala di bitesti (per es. corpora paralleli online o siti bilingui) e delle memorie di traduzione (TM) anche per ricerche terminografiche. Senza dubbio questo è uno degli elementi che distinguono la gestione terminologica orientata alla (o a una) traduzione da un approccio più sistematico. In particolare le TM, database di testi precedentemente tradotti e segmentati in genere a livello di frase, secondo una prospettiva puramente terminologica presentano due limiti: le fonti sono meno rigorosamente controllate (spesso il traduttore riceve la TM dal committente senza conoscerne la provenienza né i criteri di compilazione, ecc.) e gli equivalenti nelle lingue di arrivo non provengono per definizione da testi originariamente prodotti nella lingua/cultura di arrivo. Ciò aumenta il rischio che la terminologia così prodotta si allontani da quella effettivamente utilizzata e si pongano seri problemi di correttezza e adeguatezza (BOWKER 2015). Da quanto detto emerge dunque come la gestione terminologica abituale per i traduttori diverga sensibilmente dai canoni tradizionali della terminologia, per rispondere a necessità di ordine strettamente pratico/operativo ed è in quest'ottica che a nostro avviso va studiata.

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Affrontando questioni trasversali a terminologia, fraseologia, LSP, traduzione e interpretazione, i sette contributi che costituiscono questo numero entrano nelle singolarità di alcuni domini specialistici da prospettive molto diverse per approcci e metodologie adottate. I primi tre contributi si muovono all’interno del discorso giuridico-legale, i successivi due si focalizzano sul linguaggio specialistico e la traduzione della terminologia dell’aviazione civile dell'accoppiata linguistica inglese-cinese, quindi rispetto all’ambito disciplinare della medicina si analizza la microlingua della cardiologia e, da ultimo, si riflette su terminologia o metalinguaggio nell’ambito della Teoria della Traduzione. Mantenendo sempre un fermo equilibrio tra approcci teorici e spunti di riflessione legati alla pratica, i contributi fanno ricorso alla linguistica dei corpora, alla lessicografia, agli studi sulla fraseologia, la semantica e la linguistica cognitiva chiamando a raccolta studiosi di vari ambiti culturali in un prolifico scambio interlinguistico che oltre all’inglese e alla produzione accademica anglofona tiene conto degli studi presentati in altre lingue europee (dallo spagnolo all’italiano, dal francese al tedesco e portoghese) e nell’ambito della produzione asiatica, allargando così anche dal punto di vista linguistico e culturale la prospettiva offerta da questa raccolta.

PERUZZO e MAGRIS a partire da una stretta collaborazione tra linguisti e giuristi in una prospettiva interdisciplinare tra terminologia, traduzione e ambito specialistico, dettagliano i passaggi di un progetto mirato alla creazione di una risorsa terminografica multilingue di natura giuridica. Ispirato a TERMit (1996) dell’Università degli Studi di Trieste, il progetto TERMitLEX illustrato nelle sue articolazioni diventa spunto per una riflessione su come ripensare la struttura stessa della banca dati e su come modificarla a partire dai desiderata della nuova generazione di specialisti dell’ambito disciplinare così come di traduttori e interpreti. Oltre l'ovvia necessità di aggiornamento della banca dati pre-esistente, tra le alterazioni sostanziali: la creazione di nuovi campi (per es. "Legal system" and "Legal framework") in funzione delle asimmetrie esistenti tra gli ordinamenti giuridici; la rivisitazione di alcuni campi essenziali, per esempio Definizioni e Sinonimi attraverso la linguistica dei corpora e includendo elementi di fraseologia; l’abbandono di precedenti modelli di riferimento per la raccolta e archiviazione di nuovi dati in favore di una maggiore dinamicità – ad per esempio l’inclusione del doppio contesto normativo (nazionale e sovranazionale); il confronto con necessità e criticità poste dalle evoluzioni normative e dall’emergere di nuove tematiche legali, tra cui i diritti dei migranti e le varie forme di discriminazione. Ad arricchire il contributo, in appendice un estratto terminologico trilingue (Italiano, Tedesco, Spagnolo) da TERMitLEX curato da CERICOLA (2017-18).

Muovendo da una riflessione teorica sostanziosa e a carattere interlinguistico, PONTRANDOLFO affronta la fraseologia nei linguaggi specialistici (LSP): dapprima ripensandone una definizione in un ragionato confronto tra quelle prodotte da lessicologi e terminologi di vari ambiti culturali, quindi ricontestualizzandone la rilevanza accanto al chiaro predominio ricoperto in LSP dalla terminologia. Se il lessico specialistico tende spesso ad essere eletto come elemento caratterizzante, non di meno la fraseologia altrettanto tipica del discorso specialistico, ponendosi a cavallo tra lessico e sintassi, contribuisce a consolidare i corretti rimandi intertestuali, a rivolgersi a una precisa comunità di lettori e a rispondere alle relative aspettative. Ristabilitane la funzione centrale e avendo presentato le aree di sovrapposizione tra fraseologia e terminologia, PONTRANDOLFO si sofferma sull’efficacia delle tecniche traduttive proposte da CORPAS PASTOR (2003) e calibrate appositamente sulla fraseologia.

Sempre all’interno del dominio giuridico-legale, il contributo di PAGANO analizza un'esperienza nell'ambito della didattica dell'interpretazione di tribunale. La sottocompetenza terminologica, come emerge dallo studio, interagisce costantemente con la competenza nelle due lingue e con la competenza strategica (i procedimenti e i metodi utilizzati nell'atto traduttivo) [3]. Si ipotizza di conseguenza una possibile progressione didattica nell'addestramento alle competenze, secondo la quale la terminologia sia attivata o comunque efficace, solo se siano già consolidate le altre due competenze.

Spostandosi su altro dominio, il contributo di LIU porta l’attenzione sulla costituzione della terminologia dell'aviazione civile in cinese a partire dal modello dell'inglese (lingua franca del dominio), processo nel quale la traduzione ha svolto un ruolo determinante. Commentando una serie di esempi a diversi livelli di analisi, HUI conclude che nella terminologia dell'aviazione civile l'influenza dell'inglese sul cinese ha giocato un ruolo chiave e che la terminologia del cinese è stata notevolmente arricchita dal contatto. Ancora all’interno dell'aviazione civile, WU, ZHU e GAO propongono uno studio di caso sulla traduzione dall'inglese al cinese di 10 paragrafi del Qantas Flight 32 Occurrence Investigation Report, relativo al guasto non controllato a uno dei suoi quattro motori verificatosi in un volo Qantas 32 da Londra a Sydney nel 2010. Sulla base del modello Frame-Based proposto da FABER (2015), gli autori commentano le diverse fasi di ricerca terminologica condotte nell'ambito del processo traduttivo svolto con l'ausilio di corpora e di risorse bilingui e monolingui, individuandone alcune difficoltà traduttive.

Portandosi su un dominio specialistico ampio come la lingua della medicina, DI NUNZIO centra il suo studio sulla micro-lingua della cardiologia in un approccio comparativo-contrastivo tra la lingua italiana e la lingua tedesca. Costituito un corpus in lingua tedesca, su un manuale di cardiologia e linee guida nazionali per la diagnosi e la terapia di patologie cardiache, il contributo offre un’analisi sia quantitativa (con il software *AntConc*) che qualitativa. Quest’ultima permette una riflessione sulla morfologia dei termini e sul processo di rideterminazione semantica. Dai risultati dello studio si evince una forte vitalità e vivacità della formazione di termini in lingua tedesca soprattutto di composti determinativi e copulativi, mentre dal punto di vista semantico viene confermato come i confini tra lingua comune e lingua speciale e quelli tra microlingue non siano mai netti. Un fenomeno probabilmente imputabile alla natura stessa di questo dominio che TEN HACKEN (2008) individua come prototipico di *applied sciences* in cui convive il cosiddetto *specialised vocabulary* accanto al concetto di termine in senso stretto, ovvero un lessico specialistico più tipico di quelle aree in cui conta soprattutto esperienza e osservazione empirica e aree in cui domina l'impiego di termini definiti secondo precise condizioni sufficienti e necessarie che ne delimitano i confini semantici.

Una diversa prospettiva di riflessione viene offerta da SANTINI che analizza l'impiego di *shift* e *markedness* nei Translation Studies. Utilizzate ora come semplici lemmi ora come unità terminologiche, le due unità lessicali sono comunque caratterizzate da notevole polisemia e soggette ad ambiguità d'uso, elemento tipico in particolare delle terminologie delle discipline sociali e umanistiche, in particolare le meno formalizzate e le più interdisciplinari. Questo fattore di notevole variabilità richiama la teoria comunicativa della terminologia, che sottolinea proprio la natura *situata* della disciplina e la conseguente necessità di adottare un approccio socio-pragmatico dove si attribuisca alla variazione un ruolo significativo e si focalizzi l'attenzione su unità terminologiche effettivamente in uso [4]. In base a questa impostazione, la normalizzazione terminologica non può ignorare che nella realtà esistono polisemia, sinonimia e ambiguità, derivanti da fattori contestuali molteplici (la variazione diatopica, le varianti commerciali, la variazione diacronica, ecc.). Nel caso illustrato da SANTINI, un asse di variazione verticale fondamentale è costituito dalle diverse culture disciplinari che partecipano alla riflessione traduttologica. In conclusione, da un lato, un certo grado di polisemia può rappresentare uno stimolo interno al dibattito in ambito teorico e pratico che favorisce il raffronto tra approcci, metodologie e teorie sulla traduzione. Tuttavia, specie nel caso di dizionari, enciclopedie e manuali in dotazione nei corsi di traduzione e nei percorsi formativi professionalizzanti, un utilizzo che amplifichi la polisemia, in particolare dei due vocaboli in questione, e non miri a ricondurre a precise classificazioni, procedure, tecniche di analisi, strategie traduttive e ai diversi autori e ai loro approcci metodologi, rischia di scoraggiarne l'apprendimento e sminuirne il valore all'interno del metalinguaggio del dominio e, soprattutto, tra le fila di futuri traduttori e traduttrici.

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Note

↑ 1 Il contributo è frutto della riflessione congiunta delle autrici. Tuttavia ERRICO si è occupata della stesura del § 1 e SANTINI del § 2.

↑ 2 In una ricerca etnografica condotta su un campione di traduttori specializzati in Canada, circa il 40% dei problemi traduttivi segnalati era legato a difficoltà terminologiche (DÉSILETS, MELANÇON, PATENAUDE e BRUNETTE 2009).

↑ 3 Per il modello delle competenze traduttive, cfr. PACTE (2011).

↑ 4 Cfr. ad esempio CABRÉ 2005 e TEMMERMAN 2000.

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TERMitLEX: a legal terminology knowledge base for translators, interpreters and beyond

Katia PERUZZO, Marella MAGRIS

Table

Abstract

La prima banca dati terminologica dell'Università degli Studi di Trieste, TERMit, risale al 1996 e si configura come un insieme di raccolte terminografiche riguardanti i più svariati ambiti specialistici. Il presente articolo illustra un progetto condotto da un gruppo di linguisti e giuristi del Dipartimento di Scienze giuridiche, del Linguaggio, dell'Interpretazione e della Traduzione dello stesso Ateneo, il cui scopo è lo sviluppo di una nuova banca dati terminologica ispirata a TERMit ma volta a contenere esclusivamente termini di natura giuridica. Il progetto consiste in tre fasi: i) revisione del modello di scheda terminografica TERMit; ii) aggiornamento, sia in ordine al contenuto che alla struttura, delle raccolte terminografiche esistenti e inserimento di nuove schede o raccolte; e iii) diffusione delle informazioni pubblicate nelle raccolte terminografiche. L'articolo offre una panoramica del progetto e illustra in maniera dettagliata come le esigenze dei giuristi, intesi come possibili utenti di una tale risorsa, possano influire sulla struttura di una banca dati terminologica.

The first terminology database of the University of Trieste – TERMit – dates back to 1996 and contains collections belonging to all sorts of specialised domains. This paper illustrates a project conducted by a team of linguists and lawyers at the Department of Legal, Language, Interpreting and Translation Studies. The aim of the project was to take TERMit more than a step forward, by developing a new terminological knowledge base, devoted exclusively to legal terminology. The project consisted in i) revising of TERMit's template; ii) updating the existing terminological collections; and iii) disseminating of terminological data. The aim of our paper is to give a general overview of the project and to illustrate more in detail how the lawyers' needs can influence the structure of a terminology database.

1. TERMit and IUSLIT: the origins of TERMitLEX

More than two decades ago, a team of researchers of the Advanced School of Modern Languages for Interpreters and Translators in Trieste developed TERMit (MAGRIS 2002), a database built for the storage of multilingual terminological data. The idea for this database stemmed from the experience gathered over the years with bi- and multilingual terminological collections produced (in paper format) by students as their final research projects, and from the desire to make this body of data available to the general public, in particular to other translators and interpreters, via the Internet. [2] Ever since TERMit's creation, students could engage on topics of their own choice. For this reason, the database currently contains around 400 collections, which belong not only to a wide array of domains, ranging from medicine to law, from architecture to sports, etc., but also to more specific subdomains that reflect the students’ most varied interests and passions.

In 2012, the Advanced School was converted into the Section of Studies in Modern Languages for Interpreters and Translators (SSLMIT) of the newly founded Department of Legal, Language, Interpreting and Translation Studies (IUSLIT). While maintaining its main research interests in the theory and practice of translation and interpreting in general, the SSLMIT now co-exists with the Section of Legal Studies. This new academic setting has led to a remarkable interaction between linguists and lawyers in the two Sections, which has resulted in the launch of shared academic projects receiving European, national or local funding and dealing mainly with legal translation [3] and legal interpreting. [4]

A third important "common ground" is legal terminology. This topic is of great interest in linguistics, [5] but it has not failed to attract attention in legal scholarship as well. [6] Therefore, it comes as no surprise that it has been chosen as a research topic to be investigated by a joint team of IUSLIT translation studies scholars and law scholars within a project funded by the University of Trieste. [7] The aim of the project was to develop TERMitLEX, a new terminological knowledge base (TKB) intended as a repository of terminological records related to the legal domain only.

The inspiration for this new resource derived from the TERMit project, with two main reasons underpinning the decision to create a separate TKB. The first one lay in the complexity and multidimensionality of legal terminology (MAGRIS 2004, PERUZZO 2014, SANDRINI 2014, WIESMANN 2004), which come to the fore especially when the legal terminology to be examined and recorded is not only multilingual but also embedded in different legal systems, as is the case with the research on legal terminology carried out at the IUSLIT. The second reason was the co-existence of different professional profiles "under the same roof" in IUSLIT, i.e. linguists and lawyers. Although these profiles may seem worlds apart, there is growing evidence that the gap is narrowing. Suffice it to mention the expanding role of lawyer-linguists in a globalised world, both in the public sector of international law [8] and in the private sector. These professionals, who are usually trained in both law and language, are key in mediating between legal professionals and linguists (usually translators) when performing revision tasks to ensure accuracy and equivalence, especially in international organisations such as the European Union. However, their relevance is increasingly apparent in the private international and transnational law as well, where «[c]ompanies comprised of lawyer-linguists spring up to work for corporations that need their services in the many international business transactions completed every day» (HARGITT 2013: 444). In the private sector, lawyer-linguists may prove particularly helpful «in case of issues based on conceptual and language differences» as well as «in the drafting of international agreements affecting private law, such as bilateral investment treaties and regional agreements» (HARGITT 2013: 444). The existence of professional profiles other than legal translators and interpreters who may be interested in terminological repositories thus suggested the possibility to test the usefulness of such a resource on a different type of possible end users, i.e. law students and legal practitioners. Once lawyers in the broadest sense of the word were identified as the potential end users of the new TKB, an immediate question arose as to whether the terminological record template used in TERMit, which was originally designed to suit translators' and interpreters' needs, and the type of data usually contained in it, could also fulfil future lawyers' needs and expectations. For these reasons, the needs assessment described in Section 2.1 below was performed.

2. TERMitLEX: the project stages

The project can be divided into three stages, all of which were interconnected. The first stage consisted in the revision of the TERMit template by taking into account the needs of future lawyers together with those of translators and interpreters. The second stage required the update of existing collections and the addition of new records (or even full collections) dealing with cutting-edge legal topics, such as immigration and "third generation rights". The third stage implies the dissemination of the TKB by means of the creation of a new website to host it. This last stage is not going to be discussed in this article.

2.1 Understanding future lawyers' terminological needs

The aim of the needs assessment conducted in this project was to clarify the expectations of future lawyers with regard to terminological resources available online. This needs assessment was carried out by means of questionnaires to be completed by students attending the 5-year Degree Programme in Law at the IUSLIT.[9] More specifically, two groups of final-year students were selected and asked to participate on a voluntary basis, namely students reading either Legal English or Criminal Enforcement Law as their elective modules. The structure of the questionnaire and the results obtained through it are discussed in detail elsewhere (PERUZZO 2018b: 60-77), but the key points are summarised here for convenience.

As regards the structure, the questionnaire included five sections: the first allowed respondents to provide profile data and self-assess their knowledge of English;[10] the second focused on the knowledge and use of both traditional (paper) and electronic (online) linguistic resources, such as dictionaries and encyclopaedias; the third contained a practical task to be performed on a simple legal text dealing with the concept of probation in the UK; the fourth and fifth consisted in the observation and evaluation of a terminological record on the concept of "probation" in IATE[11] and TERMit respectively.[12]

A result of great concern for the research team as trainers of future professionals is the lack of knowledge of the features, bases and possible uses of different linguistic and terminological resources. Strikingly enough, some students did not distinguish between a dictionary and a glossary. However, «[t]he use of language is crucial to any legal system» (ENDICOTT 2002/2016), let alone because «[l]awmakers characteristically use language to make law, and law must provide for the authoritative resolution of disputes over the effects of that use of language» (ENDICOTT 2002/2016). In an increasingly globalised world, legal practitioners are constantly faced with the challenges posed by interacting legal and linguistic systems. Therefore, it is the authors' opinion that law students probably need more linguistic training, above all in terms of knowledge of foreign languages, but also as regards the availability of linguistic resources.

As far as terminological records are concerned, the respondents were asked to express their preferences with regard to the structure and content of IATE and TERMit records based on their observation and their personal experience with dictionaries and other linguistic resources. As regards the fields and the content in both IATE and TERMit, respondents praised the presence of definitions and contexts. From the research team's perspective, the students' highlighting of the context as a very useful field came as a surprise, since an initial assumption was that contexts are more relevant to language experts than lawyers. However, a closer look at the context provided in TERMit's record gives a hint as to the reason for this result: the context accompanying the term "probation" can be considered a «knowledge-rich context» (MEYER 2001: 280), since it provides additional conceptual information compared to the definition and can thus be considered an integration. The same can be said about the TERMit's field named "Note", which is generally used to add encyclopaedic information that does not fit the analytical definition per *genus et differentiae* widely used in terminography. In relation to this aspect, it must be noted that the questionnaire allowed to identify a difference between the professional profiles involved in the project. Indeed, what is generally considered additional or encyclopaedic information by terminologists or language experts may not be deemed so by (future) professionals in the field of law. For instance, lawyers may be interested in knowing more on the historical origin and development of a legal concept, because «[l]egal concepts – within a particular legal system – are the result of the stratification of different meanings which have been developed over the course of time» (POZZO 2015: 74). Or they may wish to find out more on the classification of such a concept within a certain subfield in different legal systems. Therefore, it should not be surprising that respondents also acknowledged the usefulness of the so-called "Equivalence" field, which is present in TERMit but absent from IATE and other legal TKBs such as *bistro*.[13] This field is used to illustrate the conceptual differences and similarities between the legal system(s) expressed in Italian[14] and one or more legal systems expressed in another language. Terminologists therefore need to adopt an interdisciplinary approach including comparative legal analysis,[15] which is essential to provide a comprehensive documentation of the possible differences and similarities between legal systems. The final aim of this descriptive approach is to offer as much information as possible to enable the end users of the TKB to make informed decisions during a translation or drafting process.

However, despite the inclusion of this type of information in the record, the students' comments revealed the need for a more structured organisation of the fields to contain legal data, such as a field listing the references to the sources of law providing for a certain legal institution or the official bodies responsible for the law enforcement in a specific legal subfield.

2.2 Updating and creating terminological collections

The second stage of the project consisted in updating existing collections containing legal terminology and populating the TKB with new records or even new collections,[16] especially dealing with either topical legal issues, such as stepchild adoption in the Italian legal system, or topics related to the current political, economic and social situation of Europe, such as immigration. In the same vein as the questionnaires used to identify future lawyers’ terminological needs, the practical problems encountered in updating existing collections and adding new records constituted the starting point for reconsidering some basic choices concerning both the terminological working method and the template structure and, eventually, for discussing them with our law experts.

The first consideration to be made in this regard is the need to take into account the diachronic evolution of (legal) terminology. The very need to update existing collections indicates that terminology – and its underlying conceptual systems – evolve over time. This affects TKBs in two ways. Firstly, it influences the content to be recorded in terminological records. Contrary to the principles of the General Theory of Terminology, which postulated the recording of synchronic data only, in legal TKBs diachronic data are considered essential to understand how a concept and the conceptual system have evolved and what the consequences for the terms used are.[17] Therefore, diachronic evolution represents a challenge because it requires the constant update of the content. However, in the authors’ opinion updating a terminological record does not mean discarding all the information that has become obsolete. In fact, this information may be useful to understand the evolution of the concept and of the relevant legal framework, thus giving the users of the TKB the opportunity to increase their knowledge. It can also help translators working on texts not concerning the present situation. It follows that the ideal scenario would be having access to a TKB that contains both synchronic and diachronic data. This leads to the second way in which terminological evolution over time affects TKBs, namely the need to "restructure" the terminological records in existing TKBs. This could mean not only that the organisation of the information requires reconsideration, but also that the original design of the terminological template must be reviewed and possibly modified to host diachronic data. The latter case is further discussed in Section 3, while the former is exemplified here through a brief illustration of the research team’s experience in updating and integrating an existing collection.

Before doing so, it must be pointed out that, in former TERMit collections dealing with the legal domain, when the multi-layered dimension of legal systems in Europe, i.e. the co-existence of EU and national law in the same legal space, needed to be considered, the approach introduced in comparative law by SACCO (1991: 27) was adopted. According to this approach, a genotype (the “core” of a legal concept) must be distinguished from its phenotypes (the actual manifestations of the genotype in a specific law system, which may lead to differences among legal systems) [18]. Following this line, in TERMit the EU and the national levels were usually combined in one single record, which was intended to group all the possible phenotypes of a genotype (and the relative terms). Given the complexity of the legal domain, however, due attention was paid to describing the differences, which involved, among other things, specifying further details in text fields such as "Note", "Synonyms" and "Equivalence" and providing different legal definitions in relation to the supranational and the national level, as shown in the following extract from a record in a bilingual (Italian and English) collection on restorative justice (VITULANO 2013-14), where each definition refers to a different legal framework, as can be inferred from the sources.

en **restorative justice**

Definition 1 Approach to problem solving that, in its various forms, involves the victim, the offender, their social networks, justice agencies and the community. It is based on the fundamental principle that criminal behaviour not only violates the law, but also injures victims and the community. Restorative justice refers to a process for resolving crime by focusing on redressing the harm done to the victims, holding offenders accountable for their actions and, often also, engaging the community in the resolution of that conflict. Participation of the parties is an essential part of the process that emphasizes relationship building, reconciliation and the development of agreements around a desired outcome between victims and offenders.

Source cf. UNODC 2006: 6

Definition 2 Process whereby parties with a stake in a specific offence collectively resolve how to deal with the aftermath of the offence and its implications for the future.

Source Marshall 1999: 5

Definition 3 Any process whereby the victim and the offender are enabled, if they freely consent, to participate actively in the resolution of matters arising from the criminal offence through the help of an impartial third party.

Source Directive 2012/29/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council: Article 2(d)

To show how the research team intervened on existing terminological records, a bilingual collection on non-marital relationships dating back to the late 1990s (LAMPIS 1996-97) has been chosen as an example. The topic of non-marital relationships has come to the fore again in recent times in Italy: after long political debates, in 2016 a law was passed which regulates this type of relationships for the first time in this country. Therefore, new records (ZUDÈ 2015-16) concerning some key Italian and Dutch terms embedded in the Italian, Dutch and Belgian national legal systems as well as in the European Union system were added to the collection, some of which are discussed here.

At the beginning of the updating phase, the intention was to follow the genotype-phenotype approach outlined above. However, the interaction with legal scholars led the team to reconsider and abandon it, at least for the key terms, given the challenges posed by the topic and its terminology. The Italian and Dutch terms used in the relevant EU Regulation[19] are *unione registrata* and *geregistreerd partnerschap* and correspond to the English term “registered partnership”, which is defined as follows: «the regime governing the shared life of two people which is provided for in law, the registration of which is mandatory under that law and which fulfils the legal formalities required by that law for its creation» (Article 3(1)(a)). The Dutch term *geregistreerd partnerschap* is also the official term pertaining to the legal system of the Netherlands, whereas *wettelijke samenwoning* is the official Belgian term. The Dutch terms, although defined in a slightly different way in the national laws of the Netherlands and Belgium, would still have fitted the relationship between genotype and phenotype. The Italian terms *unione civile* and *convivenza di fatto*, however, added further complexity to the picture. Indeed, while the former is a new form of legally recognized relationship which can be chosen by homosexual couples only, the latter is open to both homosexual and heterosexual couples but is only "minimally" regulated by the law. These intralingual and intrasystemic differences, which are far from negligible, would have excessively strained the genotype-phenotype relation with *unione registrata*. Moreover, they would also make it impossible to establish a synonymic relation between the Italian national terms. On the contrary, when compared to the Dutch national terms, both terms can be considered as a kind of "closest equivalent", each for different legal aspects. Therefore, while the original terminological collection contained one bilingual record developed on the basis of the genotype-phenotype relation, the updating phase required the conceptual area in question to be structured differently and split into three separate records: one for the EU level (*unione registrata – geregistreerd partnerschap*) and two for the national level (*unione civile – geregistreerd partnerschap*, *wettelijke samenwoning*; *convivenza di fatto – geregistreerd partnerschap*, *wettelijke samenwoning*). Each of these records then contains an "Equivalence" field, where the conceptual similarity is accurately described and the differences are pointed out, as in the following example:

Equivalence it-nl La "convivenza di fatto", introdotta appositamente per garantire alle coppie, sia etero- che omosessuali, che non possano o non vogliano contrarre né matrimonio né unione civile il riconoscimento agli occhi della legge del loro status di conviventi e la tutela dei diritti e degli effetti giuridici derivanti da tale status, si può accostare, per corrispondenza funzionale e analogia con gli effetti giuridici depotenziati rispetto a quelli derivanti dal matrimonio, all’istituto olandese della "geregistreerd partnerschap" (lett. "partnership registrata") e a quello belga della "wettelijke samenwoning" (lett. "coabitazione legale"), a cui risulta più affine. In mancanza di un istituto olandese o belga rivolto esclusivamente alle coppie same-sex, a causa della politica della gender-neutrality (che in Italia viene adottata nel caso della "convivenza di fatto"), l’"unione civile" italiana viene anch’essa associata ai suddetti termini olandesi. Si precisa, inoltre, che la denominazione olandese attiene anche al diritto comunitario, ambito in cui acquisisce una definizione diversa; al riguardo, si veda la scheda *unione registrata — geregistreerd partnerschap*.

3. Innovations in TERMitLEX

The identification of future lawyers’ terminological needs through questionnaires and the cooperation between different professional profiles within IUSLIT on the updating and integration of existing terminological collections have led to a series of innovations to the terminological record template used by SSLMIT students. [20]

The most evident innovation that affects the template structure is the introduction of two new fields, i.e. "Legal system" and "Legal framework". The former is generally followed by the name of a country (e.g. Italy, Belgium, the Netherlands) or of an international or supranational organisation with legislative powers (e.g. EU, Council of Europe, UN). This field, which will help to immediately identify the scope of application of official terms, was missing in the original TERMit template and now adds to the existing "Regional label" field, which signals diatopic variants.

3.1 The "Legal framework" field

The second field which was added to the TERMitLEX template is "Legal framework", which is meant to contain a concise description of the legal background of a concept. To illustrate this field, an example belonging to the updated collection on non-marital relationships is provided below, where "Legal framework" contains the main legal sources relevant to the term *unione registrata*. This information is particularly relevant, since it highlights the fact that this legal notion is of European concern and may be a useful starting point for both translators and law professionals in need of further details.

Legal framework I principali riferimenti normativi rilevanti per il presente termine sono: la Proposta di Regolamento del Consiglio del 3 marzo 2016, n. 0060, relativo alla competenza, alla legge applicabile, al riconoscimento e all’esecuzione delle decisioni in materia di effetti patrimoniali delle unioni registrate e il Regolamento del Consiglio dell’Unione Europea del 24 giugno 2016, n. 1104, che attua la cooperazione rafforzata nel settore della competenza, della legge applicabile, del riconoscimento e dell’esecuzione delle decisioni in materia di effetti patrimoniali delle unioni registrate.

Another example comes from a multilingual collection (Italian, English, Spanish and French) on the European market abuse regulation (PANENA 2017-18), more specifically from the record dedicated to *insider dealing*. Here the national and European legal sources are presented in chronological order and the influence of EU acts on domestic legislation is highlighted. In this regard, it is interesting to notice that the recent Brexit may have a significant impact on the relationship between EU and UK legislation. Therefore, major updates to terminological records dealing with UK legal notions may be required, including the separation of records devoted to EU-English terms from those containing UK-English terms.

Legal framework Insider dealing has been considered a criminal offence since 1985 and was set out in Part V of the Criminal Justice Act 1993. The Insider Dealing (Securities and Regulated Markets) (Amendment) Order 2002 is the latest statutory instrument amendment coming into force before the Directive 2003/6/EC. Since 2008, the Financial Services Authority (now Financial Conduct Authority, or FCA) has made greater use of its powers, especially against insider dealing. The Regulation (EU) 596/2014 came into effect on 3rd July 2016, amending the definition of insider dealing to make it compatible with the European regulation, through the S. I. 2016/680.

The "Legal framework" field in TERMitLEX represents an innovation compared not only to TERMit, but also to other existing TKBs, such as IATE or *bistro*. This field was introduced specifically to summarise the legal knowledge which is considered essential to have a more detailed understanding of the legal notion analysed, such as its historical origin and its main sources of law, as well as any further legal aspect which is not an essential part of the definition, but could prove useful to both law professionals and legal translators. In other words, this field is meant to contain information that would otherwise be scattered across other fields [21] or even not provided at all. [22]

3.2 Existing fields

This collaborative project also allowed the research team to point out which existing fields required greater attention, given the importance accorded to them by both language experts and (future) lawyers. Among these, the "Synonyms" and the "Equivalence" fields are doubtless considered as crucial.

The identification and illustration of possible synonymy relations within a single language on the one hand and of equivalence relations when comparing two or more languages on the other are fundamental for translators and interpreters, since they need terminological data as accurate as possible to provide a high-quality product or service. But information on synonymy and equivalence may prove particularly useful also to lawyers, who may consult a legal TKB for a variety of reasons. For instance, their level of foreign language proficiency may not be high enough to enable them to read through complex legal texts, or they may be involved in legal drafting in a language other than their mother tongue or even in translation activities, where detailed terminological data may be of help. For these reasons, in TERMit and TERMitLEX "Synonymy" and "Equivalence" are meant to have a practical purpose, i.e. to facilitate the translator’s, the interpreter’s or the lawyer’s work by saving time, reducing the necessary effort to find the information required in the decision-making process, and presenting the information in a clear and precise but at the same time concise manner. In other words, these two fields are compiled after a generally time-consuming comparative law activity, most of the time carried out with the support of field experts, and after consulting a wide range of sources, increasingly by means of corpus linguistics methods, in order to guarantee the accuracy and reliability of the information provided. The resulting fields then contain summaries of these research activities, which may sometimes be very detailed and fine-grained. As shown through the example on non-marital relationships discussed in Section 2.2, the attention devoted to synonymy and equivalence relations in TERMitLEX and the ongoing and unforeseeable evolution of law may determine a change in the overall methodological approach adopted to manage the terminology in a TKB.

Another aspect that emerged clearly is that lawyers tend to give absolute priority to authentic definitions found in official legal texts, while language experts, who do not usually have the same legal knowledge or mindset as lawyers, may prefer unofficial but more explicative definitions. An example taken from a bilingual collection (Italian-German) on the law of inheritance (ORLANDI 2016-17) shows an attempt to meet these differences in terms of end-users' needs. The entry *prelegato* contains two definitions. The first is very close to the definition provided by the Italian Civil Code [23] and explicitly mentions the source (i.e. art. 661), taking it for granted that the user knows that this legal provision is contained in the Civil Code. The second definition, though assuming a certain degree of legal knowledge (for instance, the end user must know what *legato* refers to), provides additional information – both conceptual and terminological – compared to the first one.

Definition 1 Disposizione particolare, legato a favore di uno dei coeredi ed a carico di tutta l'eredità, ossia a carico di tutti i coeredi onerati (art. 661).

Source cfr. Balloriani/De Rosa/Mezzanotte 2012: 794

Definition 2 Legato gravante a carico di tutta l'eredità, nel quale il beneficiario sia uno dei coeredi. Costui, pertanto, cumula le due qualità di coerede (onerato) e di legatario.

Source del Giudice 2001^: 813

Therefore, a fundamental aspect to bear in mind when first designing a terminological record template and then when compiling it is how to strike a balance between language experts' and lawyers' needs.

4. Concluding remarks and future work

The innovations just described lead to a final general remark. A paramount decision to be taken at the outset of any terminological project concerns the assessment of the intended end users of the TKB and their needs. In this specific case, end users are professionals belonging to two communities, i.e. linguists and lawyers, who are interested in the same domain, law, but have different information needs. The main challenge for the research team in this case was to design a terminological record template that is well structured, clear and user-friendly, able to contain information relevant to both professional communities, without at the same time giving rise to an information overload.

The TERMitLEX template was obtained by combining, on the one hand, the expertise in terminology and translation studies of the linguists in the research team and their experience as professional translators and, on the other, the expertise in the legal field and in multinational law of the team's law scholars. The template was also designed to take into account the needs and expectations expressed by the law students who took part in the needs assessment. Given that law students and professional lawyers may very likely differ with reference to needs and expectations but that no evidence has been collected in this regard so far, a future research direction is to shift the focus from students to professional lawyers, such as lawyers conducting cross-border activities, lawyer-linguists working in the public and in the private sector, legal scholars publishing in different languages. The aim of this future study will be to investigate the professionals' interest in and actual use of terminological repositories, in order to further adapt these resources to foster their use or increase their usefulness in daily practice.

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Appendix

Example of trilingual (Italian, German, and Spanish) TERMitLEX terminological record extracted from CERICOLA 2017-18.

mandato *Morphosyntax* ***m.*** *Usage label* ***main term*** *Style label* ***official***

Source → ***Sentenza 12848/2006***

Lexica Attestato in → ***Del Giudice 2014***: 791

Phraseology esecuzione, estinzione, adempimento, revoca del mandato; stipulare, revocare, eccedere, conferire, eseguire un mandato

Definition Contratto col quale una parte si obbliga a compiere uno o più atti giuridici per conto dell'altra.

Source → *c.c.*: art. 1703

Legal framework Con il contratto di mandato una parte (→ ***mandatario***) si obbliga a compiere uno o più atti giuridici per conto dell'altra (→ ***mandante***) (artt. 1703 ss. → *c.c.*). Si tratta di un contratto consensuale, bilaterale, ad effetti obbligatori e di natura personale. Pertanto il mandato non va confuso con la → ***procura***, che è un atto unilaterale con il quale il dominus negotii conferisce il potere di agire in suo nome e per suo conto e assume gli effetti derivanti dal contratto concluso dal rappresentante con terzi. Mentre nella procura il rappresentante ha la facoltà di esercitare il potere conferitogli, nel mandato il mandatario ha l'obbligo di eseguire il mandato con l'ordinaria diligenza e rendere conto del suo operato al mandante (artt. 1710 c.c.). La procura e il mandato si incontrano nel caso di → ***mandato con rappresentanza***, se il mandatario agisce in nome e per conto del mandatario spendendone il nome; si ha invece → ***mandato senza rappresentanza*** quando il mandatario agisce in nome proprio acquistando diritti e obblighi derivanti dal negozio concluso con terzi per incarico del mandante, al quale poi dovrà trasferire i diritti acquistati (v. → ***rappresentanza indiretta***). Inoltre il mandato si presume oneroso (art. 1709 c.c.) e, dunque, che sia dovuto un compenso a favore del mandatario; sta al mandante dimostrare che il mandato era stato pattuito come gratuito (cfr. → ***Torrente & Schlesinger 2017***: 584-5).

Context Ferma la distinzione tra → ***procura*** e mandato – risolvendosi, la prima, nel conferimento ad un terzo del potere di compiere un atto giuridico in nome di un altro soggetto e, il secondo, in un contratto in forza del quale una parte si obbliga a compiere uno o più atti giuridici nell'interesse de un'altra – il → ***mandato con rappresentanza*** a vendere beni immobili non è soggetto all'onere della forma scritta stabilito, ai sensi del combinato disposto degli artt. 1392 e 1350, n. 1, c.c. per l'atto di procura, atteso che gli effetti del contratto si riproducono in capo al rappresentato in forza del solo rapporto di rappresentanza, mentre il mandato spiega i suoi effetti nel rapporto tra rappresentante e → ***rappresentato***.

Source → ***Sentenza 12848/2006***

Concept field fonti e modificazioni della rappresentanza

Related words→ ***rapporto di gestione*** *Type of relation* **super.**

Related words → ***procura*** *Type of relation* **ant.**

Related words mandato con rappresentanza, mandato senza rappresentanza, mandato generale, mandato speciale, mandato oneroso, mandato gratuito, mandato in rem propriam, mandato collettivo; commissione, contratto di spedizione *Type of relation* **sub.**

Related words rappresentante, → ***rappresentato***, → ***mandatario***, → ***mandante***, → ***rappresentanza indiretta***, presunzione di onerosità, obbligo di rendiconto, diligenza *Type of relation* **general**

Equivalence it-de Tra i due termini è possibile stabilire una equivalenza relativa. Una differenza sostanziale si rileva nell'onerosità del contratto, in quanto l'ordinamento italiano presume che il mandato sia oneroso (art. 1709 c.c.), anche se le parti possono accordarsi per la gratuità del mandato, mentre il BGB stabilisce che il mandatario, accettando il contratto di mandato, si obbliga a compiere un atto a titolo non oneroso (unentgeltlich, § 662 BGB); qualora l'Auftrag preveda un compenso, rientrerebbe nella tipologia del Geschäftsbesorgungsvertrag (contratto di gestione d’affari). Inoltre, a differenza dell’ordinamento italiano, nelle cause di estinzione dell’Auftrag non è contemplata la morte o incapacità sopravvenuta dell’Auftraggeber: «Der Auftrag erlischt im Zweifel nicht durch den Tod oder den Eintritt der Geschäftsunfähigkeit des Auftraggebers», § 672 → ***BGB***.

Equivalence it-es Tra i due termini è possibile stabilire un’equivalenza relativa, poiché i due ordinamenti descrivono l’onerosità o la gratuità del contratto di mandato con una diversa prospettiva: l’ordinamento italiano presuppone che il mandato sia oneroso, salvo patto contrario (presunzione di onerosità, art. 1709 → *c.c.*), mentre il Código Civil stabilisce che «a falta de pacto en contrario, el mandato se supone gratuito» (art. 1711 → ***CC***).

Spanish **mandato** *Morphosyntax* ***m.*** *Usage label* ***main term*** *Style label* ***official***

Source → ***Sentencia 11/2018***

Lexica Encontrado en → ***DEJ***: 1048

Phraseology aceptación, ejecución, realización, revocación, extinción del mandato; el mandato vincula, obliga alguien a hacer algo; ejecutar, cumplir, revocar, aceptar un mandato

Definition Contrato por el que se obliga una persona a prestar algún servicio o hacer alguna cosa, por cuenta o encargo de otra.

Source cfr. → ***CC***: art. 1709

Legal framework A pesar de que el Código Civil confunde a menudo mandato y representación, la doctrina moderna distingue con nitidez estos negocios. Sus diferencias se encuentran primero en el origen del mandato, que nace de un contrato y por lo tanto requiere la aceptación del → ***mandatario***, mientras que el → ***apoderamiento*** es un negocio unilateral y no es necesaria aceptación. Además, el poder puede nacer a consecuencia de contratos distintos del mandato (contrato de sociedad, de arrendamiento de obras y servicios, entre otros). En segundo lugar, el mandato es una relación obligatoria entre → ***mandante*** y mandatario, mientras del apoderamiento deriva una facultad y no una obligación para el → ***apoderado***. Por último, el mandato produce efectos entre mandatario y mandante, mientras que el apoderamiento tiene efectos en la relación exterior entre terceros y representado excluyendo el representante. Entonces mandato y apoderamiento son básicamente independientes, pero pueden encontrarse juntos a menudo en caso de mandato unido a representación (cfr. → ***O'Callaghan Muñoz & Fernández González 2017*** : 257).

Context Esta doctrina, plasmada recientemente en la sentencia citada por la parte recurrente de 24 de octubre de 2008, Rc. 1030/2003, ratificada por la de 13 de febrero de 2014, Rc. 200/2012 , interpreta el artículo 1738 del Código Civil en el sentido de exigir para su aplicación la concurrencia de dos condiciones: en primer lugar, que el tercero con el que contrata el → ***mandatario*** haya actuado de buena fe, o sea que desconociera la anterior → ***extinción*** del mandato, condición que se da en el supuesto que enjuiciamos; y en segundo lugar, que dicho mandatario, en el momento de hacer uso del poder, ignorara la muerte del → ***mandante*** o la concurrencia de cualquier otra de las causas que hacen cesar el mandato, condición esta que no concurre en el presente supuesto en el que el mandatario usó el poder cuando le había sido debidamente notificada su → ***revocación***.

Source → ***Sentencia 11/2018***

Concept field fuentes y modificaciones del poder de representación

Related words → ***relación de gestión*** *Type of relation* **super.**

Related words → ***apoderamiento*** *Type of relation* **ant.**

Related words mandato general, mandato especial, → ***mandato con representación***, → ***mandato sin representación***, mandato tácito, mandato expreso*Type of relation* **sub.**

Related words → ***mandatario***, → ***mandante***, → ***representación indirecta***, → ***apoderado***, → ***poderdante***, → ***contemplatio domini***, → ***poder de representación*** *Type of relation* **general**

German **Auftrag** *Morphosyntax* ***m.*** *Usage label* ***main term*** *Style label* ***official***

Source → ***BGB***: § 663

Lexica Belegt in → ***Köbler 1999***: 32

Phraseology im Namen oder Auftrag jmds. handeln; einen Auftrag erteilen, erlöschen, annehmen, widerrufen, kündigen; Annahme, Erlöschen, Ausführung, Widerruf, Fortbestand, Erteilung des Auftrags; der Auftrag erlischt, verpflichtet jmnd. etwas zu tun

Definition Nach dem Gesetz liegt ein Auftrag, verstanden als Vertragsverhältnis, nur vor, wenn der Beauftragte sich gegenüber dem Auftraggeber verträglich verpflichtet, für diesen unentgeltlich von Seiten des Auftraggebers ein Geschäft zu besorgen.

Source → ***Palandt 2001***: 817

Legal framework Der Auftrag ist gemäß § 662 BGB ein Vertrag, durch den sich eine Partei (der → ***Beauftragte***) verpflichtet, für die andere Partei (→ ***Auftraggeber***) ein Geschäft unentgeltlich zu besorgen. Den Auftraggeber hat keine Pflicht gegen den Beauftragten, sodass der Auftrag als ein einseitiger verpflichtender Vertrag betrachtet wird. Erhält dagegen der Auftragnehmer ein Entgelt, so handelt es um keinen Auftrag, sondern um einen Geschäftsbesorgungsvertrag (§ 675 BGB) (vgl. → ***Deutsches Rechts-Lexikon 2001***: 377). Aus dem → ***BGB*** (§§ 662 ff.) kann der Auftrag zu indirekter Stellvertretung führen: Der Vertreter ist bei diesem Fall Partner des Dritten und dich muss er das aus dem Geschäft Erlangte an seinem Vertretenen herausgeben (§ 667 → ***BGB***). Umgekehrt kann er vom Auftraggeber Ersatz verlangen. Außerdem nicht selten enthält ein Auftrag auch die Erteilung einer → ***Vollmacht***, wobei dagegen eine direkte Stellvertretung entsteht. Dennoch gilt die Vollmacht wegen des Abstraktionsprinzips immer vom Auftrag als unabhängig (vgl. → ***Petersen & Medicus 2016***: 385).

*Context*Wer zur Besorgung gewisser Geschäfte öffentlich bestellt ist oder sich öffentlich erboten hat, ist, wenn er einen auf solche Geschäfte gerichteten Auftrag nicht annimmt, verpflichtet, die Ablehnung dem → ***Auftraggeber*** unverzüglich anzuzeigen. Das Gleiche gilt, wenn sich jemand dem Auftraggeber gegenüber zur Besorgung gewisser Geschäfte erboten hat.

Source → ***BGB***: § 663

Concept field Quellen und Änderungen der Vertretungsmacht

Related words → ***Grundverhältnis*** *Type of relation* **super.**

Related words → ***Vollmacht***, Geschäftsführung ohne Auftrag *Type of relation* **ant.**

Related words Dienst- bzw. Arbeitsvertrag, Geschäftsbesorgungsvertrag *Type of relation* **coord.**

Related words Mandat, Zahlungsauftrag, Kreditauftrag *Type of relation* **sub.**

Related words → ***Beauftragte***, → ***Auftraggeber***, Auftragsbestätigung, Ablehnung, Geschäftsbesorgung, → ***unmittelbare Stellvertretung***, → ***Bevollmächtigte***, → ***Vollmachtgeber***, → ***Vertretungsmacht*** *Type of relation* **general**

Note Das Mandat das Verhältnis des Rechtsanwalts zur Partei, seinem Auftraggeber (dem Mandanten). Der Rechtsanwalt ist verpflichtet, ausschließlich die Interessen seines Mandanten zu vertreten, und kann bei Zuwiderhandlung zur Rechenschaft gezogen werden (vgl. → ***Deutsches Rechts-Lexikon 2001***: 2792).

Note

↑ 1 This paper is the result of collaborative efforts by the two authors. As regards the organisation and the actual drafting of the paper, Marella Magris, who is in charge of the TERMit and TERMitLEX projects, wrote Section 1, Katia Peruzzo, who was responsible for the analysis of lawyers' terminological needs, wrote Sections 2 and 3. The Concluding remark and future work section was written jointly.

↑ 2 The web portal TERMit is no longer available.

↑ 3 See, for instance, *QUALETRA – Quality in Legal Translation*, *http://www.eulita.eu/qualetra*.

↑ 4 See, for instance, *AVIDICUS 3 - Assessment of Video-Mediated Interpreting in Criminal and Civil Justice – Assessing the Implementation*, *http://wp.videoconference-interpreting.net./*

↑ 5 The literature on legal terminology in linguistics is vast and it is beyond the scope of this paper to provide a detailed review. However, it is worth recalling here some of the most prominent scholars who have dealt with it: BORJA ALBI & GARCÍA-IZQUIERDO (2016), BAJČIĆ (2010, 2017), BIEL (2008), CHIOCCHETTI & RALLI (2007), KERREMANS, TEMMERMAN & TUMMERS (2003), NIELSEN (2016), PRIETO RAMOS (2014), PRIETO RAMOS & GUZMÁN (2018), SANDRINI (1996b, 1999), ŠARČEVIĆ (1985, 1997) and TEMMERMAN (2018).

↑ 6 See, for instance, the works by LEMMENS (2011), MATTILA (2006, 2012) and SACCO (1992, 2000).

↑ 7 *FRA 2015 «Sviluppo di una base di conoscenza terminologica multilingue in ambito giuridico» (Development of a multilingual legal terminological knowledge base)*, Department of Legal, Language, Interpreting and Translation Studies, University of Trieste, coordinator: Marella Magris; in-house team members: Luca Ballerini, Maria Cristina Barbieri, Mitja Gialuz, Dolores Ross, Federica Scarpa; external team members: Vincenzo Inzerillo, Katia Peruzzo.

↑ 8 For a brief overview of the role of lawyer-linguists in the European Union institutions, see ROBERTSON (2010).

↑ 9 The questionnaire was compiled in May 2016 and April 2017 by a total of 66 students.

↑ 10 Among the array of foreign languages covered by the new TKB (i.e. Italian, English, German, French, Spanish, Dutch and Croatian), English was considered the best available option to make students reflect on their knowledge of linguistic resources and terminological needs, given its diffusion.

↑ 11 IATE (Interactive Terminology for Europe), available at https://iate.europa.eu/home.

↑ 12 For a detailed illustration of the practical task and of the evaluation of the terminological records, see PERUZZO (2018b, 2019).

↑ 13 *bistro* is the information system for legal terminology in Italian, German and Ladin developed at the Institute for Applied Linguistics of Eurac Research. Available at http://bistro.eurac.edu/it/.

↑ 14 Ever since the creation of TERMit, Italian has been a compulsory language in the terminological collections produced as final research projects by BA students in Applied Interlinguistic Communication and MA students in Translation and Interpreting at the University of Trieste.

↑ 15 The close relationship between comparative law, legal terminology and legal translation has been highlighted by various scholars. See, for instance, ENGBERG (2013), GALDIA (2003), GEEROMS (2002), JOPEK-BOSIACKA (2013), SANDRINI (1996a) and SIMONNÆS (2013).

↑ 16 The SSLMIT presently holds 55 legal terminology collections, for a total of around 2700 records, and some new collections are underway.

↑ 17 See, for instance, the studies by PERUZZO (2017, 2018a) and PICTON (2011, 2014).

↑ 18 For a more detailed discussion on the application of the genotype-phenotype distinction to a multilingual legal TKB, see PERUZZO (2014).

↑ 19 The main EU source of law in this field is "Council Regulation (EU) 2016/1104 of 24 June 2016 implementing enhanced cooperation in the area of jurisdiction, applicable law and the recognition and enforcement of decisions in matters of the property consequences of registered partnerships", *OJ L 183*, 08/07/2016, pp. 30-56.

↑ 20 An example of a TERMitLEX record is provided in the appendix.

↑ 21 For instance, in TERMit, information on relevant sources of law could be inserted in the "Note" field which, however, was not dedicated to legal aspects in particular. The same occurs in IATE, where references to relevant legislation are stated in the "Note" field.

↑ 22 For instance, in *bistro* no sources of law are provided other than those serving as sources of definitions and contexts.

↑ 23 The relevant legal provision reads as follows: «Art. 661. (Prelegato). Il legato a favore di uno dei coeredi e a carico di tutta l’eredità si considera come legato per l’intero ammontare.»

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Traduzione e terminologia

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Fraseología y traducción en el discurso de especialidad

Fraseología y traducción en el discurso de especialidad

Gianluca PONTRANDOLFO

Table

Abstract

Il presente articolo prende in esame il ruolo della fraseologia nei linguaggi specialistici (LSP) da un punto di vista sia teorico che pratico. Tre gli obiettivi principali: 1) riflettere sulla nozione di unità fraseologiche specialistiche relativamente alla loro classificazione e definizione; 2) specificare la differenza tra terminologia e fraseologia specialistica in traduzione; 3) identificare una selezione di tecniche traduttive per fraseologia specialistica in relazione ad alcuni esempi di traduzione contestualizzata con l'obiettivo di illustrare il ruolo chiave della fraseologia nell'ambito della traduzione specialistica.

The aim of the present paper is to analyse the role played by phraseology in LSP, both from a theoretical and a practical point of view. The objectives are threefold: 1) to reflect upon the notion of specialised phraseological unit in terms of classification and definitory limits; 2) to clarify the relationship between terminology and specialised phraseology, as well as between specialised phraseology and translation; 3) to identify a selection of techniques to translate LSP phraseology applied to examples of translation (con)texts with the final aim of outlining the importance of phraseology in specialised translation.

El presente artículo se propone estudiar el papel de la fraseología en los discursos de especialidad, tanto desde el punto de vista teórico como práctico. Los objetivos del trabajo son tres: 1) reflexionar acerca del concepto de unidad fraseológica especializada (UFE) en términos de problemas clasificatorios y límites definitorios; 2) aclarar la relación entre terminología y fraseología especializada y entre fraseología especializada y traducción; 3) identificar las principales técnicas para su traducción en los géneros discursivos especializados, proponer ejemplos (con)textuales de traducción en algunos ámbitos de especialidad y esbozar algunas consideraciones finales acerca de la relevancia de la fraseología para la traducción especializada.

1. Introducción

La fraseología es uno de los componentes que articulan el discurso de especialidad concebido en este estudio, en línea con la definición proporcionada por PARODI, como un «conjunto de textos que desarrollan tópicos prototípicos de un área determinada del conocimiento científico y tecnológico y se ajustan a convenciones particulares de índole lingüística, funcional y situacional» (2005: 69).

Los discursos de especialidad están compuestos por distintos géneros discursivos, cada uno con sus características en los diferentes campos del saber y estos géneros reflejan la tradición discursiva de una comunidad concreta de especialistas. Como ya se señalaba en PONTRANDOLFO (2016: 15-169) a partir de algunas consideraciones de corte literario, el género se configura como orden estilístico unitario del discurso. Se trata de una constelación de rasgos formales y estructuras, copresentes y sistemáticamente interconectados los unos con los otros, que desempeñan la función de cuadro orientativo convencional para las finalidades de creación y recepción de un determinado discurso (BAUMAN 2002: 127-128). En concreto, el género es un estilo discursivo concebido con vistas a la producción y recepción de un tipo particular de texto. La producción e interpretación de un texto pasa a través de la relación intertextual con los textos precedentes, de manera que se evoca toda una serie de expectativas relativas al desarrollo del discurso. Estas expectativas constituyen el marco de referencia necesario para el proceso de textualización, o sea, la actividad mediante la cual se atribuyen al texto determinadas actividades: coherencia, cohesión interna, posibilidad de descontextualización y recontextualización, etc. (BAUMAN 2002: 128). Y la fraseología es uno de los factores que contribuyen a crear ese horizonte de expectativas en el destinatario del texto y, se puede añadir, en el «lector modelo» (ECO 1993) de una traducción.

Los ejemplos (I)-(V) son fragmentos extraídos de géneros discursivos especializados, a saber, un consentimiento informado (ámbito médico), una sentencia penal (ámbito jurídico), un informe de coyuntura (ámbito económico), un folleto (ámbito turístico) y un programa de partido (ámbito político).

(I) [2]

En condiciones normales, las células madre se localizan en la médula ósea, pero se las puede movilizar hacia la sangre circulante (periférica) mediante la administración de unos fármacos denominados *factores de crecimiento hematopoyético*.

(II) [3]

La Audiencia de instancia dictó el siguiente pronunciamiento: FALLAMOS: Que debemos condenar y condenamos a Pedro Miguel como responsable en concepto de autor de un delito contra la salud pública, en la modalidad de tráfico de drogas de acusada nocividad, precedentemente definido, concurriendo la agravante de reincidencia, a la pena de 6 AÑOS y 1 DÍA de prisión, con inhabilitación durante ese período para el ejercicio del derecho de sufragio pasivo y multa de 48.174,44 euros y al pago de las costas procesales, declarando, además, el comiso de la heroína intervenida, a la que deberá darse el destino legalmente previsto.

(III) [4]

El patrón de crecimiento se mantiene equilibrado, con aportaciones positivas al avance del PIB tanto de la demanda nacional como de la demanda externa neta. La demanda nacional se consolida como principal motor del crecimiento, aportando en el primer trimestre de 2018 2,8 pp al avance interanual del PIB, cuatro décimas menos que en el trimestre anterior, y la demanda externa neta 0,2 puntos, frente a la contribución ligeramente negativa (-0,1 puntos porcentuales) del último trimestre del pasado año.

(IV) [5]

A unos 200 metros de esta iglesia, y a la izquierda, llegamos a la estrecha calle de San Agustín donde se encuentra el Palacio de Buenavista, sede del Museo Picasso Málaga. Se trata de un edificio con decoración renacentista del siglo XVI, con artesanados mudéjares y una hermosa torre-mirador, que ha sido ampliado con otras edificaciones para albergar los fondos del Museo Picasso Málaga. Inaugurado en 2003, este museo expone 233 obras del artista malagueño entre pinturas, dibujos, esculturas, grabados y cerámicas que forman parte de la colección permanente, junto a interesantes exposiciones temporales.

(V) [6]

El Partido Socialista ofrecerá a las fuerzas políticas del Congreso y con el objeto de evitar el bloqueo, un paquete de pactos de Estado que incluirá, al menos, los siguientes: a) Acuerdo de defensa de la democracia española, de la Constitución y de la integridad territorial para asegurar una respuesta unitaria frente a cualquier tentativa unilateral de ruptura del orden constitucional; b) Acuerdo por un nuevo Pacto de Toledo, que garantice, mediante su blindaje en la Constitución, la sostenibilidad y suficiencia del sistema público de pensiones, actualizándolas conforme al IPC real y aumentando la cuantía de las pensiones mínimas y no contributivas; […]

Pues bien, los ejemplos (I)-(V) muestran muy claramente la presencia de tecnicismos específicos (unidades terminológicas) de cada ámbito de especialidad:

- (I) Medicina: células madre, médula ósea, sangre circulante (periférica),

factores de crecimiento hematopoyético;
- (II) Derecho: Audiencia, delito contra la salud pública, tráfico de drogas, agravante, reincidencia, pena, prisión, inhabilitación, multa, costa procesal;
- (III) Economía: crecimiento, PIB, demanda nacional, demanda externa neta, avance interanual;
- (IV) Turismo: iglesia, Palacio, Museo, torre-mirador, obras, pinturas, dibujos, esculturas, grabados y cerámicas, colección permanente, exposiciones temporales;
- (V) Política: fuerzas políticas, Congreso, pactos de Estado, Acuerdo, democracia española, Constitución, integridad territorial, orden constitucional, sistema público de pensiones, IPC real, pensiones mínimas y no contributivas.

Estos términos (simples y compuestos) tienen carácter medular, puesto que remiten a conceptos típicos de la disciplina que, si no se entienden, dificultan la tarea de comprensión e interpretación de los temas tratados. Sin embargo, los ejemplos muestran claramente cómo alrededor de estas unidades especializadas orbitan una serie de elementos léxicos, a medio camino entre terminología y sintaxis, como:

- (I) localizar o movilizar las células madre, administración de fármacos;
- (II) dictar el pronunciamiento, debemos condenar y condenamos, concurrir la agravante, pago de las costas procesales, legalmente previsto;
- (III) patrón (de crecimiento) equilibrado, avance del PIB, consolidarse (la demanda), aportar X pp al avance, contribución negativa (III);
- (IV) decoración renacentista, artesanados mudéjares, albergar los fondos del museo, inaugurar un museo, exponer un museo las obras;
- (V) evitar el bloqueo, paquete de pactos, asegurar una respuesta unitaria, tentativa unilateral, ruptura del orden constitucional, garantizar (un acuerdo) la sostenibilidad y suficiencia, actualizar (las pensiones) conforme al IPC real.

Estos elementos confieren cierto estilo a los textos especializados, que se caracterizan por tanto por la abundante presencia de estos patrones fraseológicos cuya frecuencia es un rasgo caracterizador del discurso de especialidad tanto como las unidades terminológicas.

En efecto, la terminología no es el único elemento que permite identificar un texto de especialidad, si bien es sin duda el elemento lingüístico más llamativo, puesto que, como señala CORTELAZZO (1994: 9), en el caso de la morfosintaxis se trata de elementos recurrentes estadísticamente significativos, pero no exclusivos.

Si los términos son imprescindibles para entender el tema del texto, la fraseología especializada se emplea principalmente por razones estilísticas, puesto que muchas veces puede sustituirse por otras expresiones sinonímicas (si bien hay que considerar la diferencia entre variante y alternativa, cf. § 3). No obstante, la fraseología, más que la terminología, crea ese horizonte de expectativas en el destinatario del texto y por tanto es uno de los elementos que es imprescindible considerar a la hora de traducir un texto especializado.

A lo largo de este artículo se subraya el papel clave desempeñado por la fraseología en los discursos de especialidad. Tras definir brevemente el concepto de unidad fraseológica especializada (UFE) (§ 2), se propone una reflexión teórica sobre las diferencias entre fraseología general y fraseología especializada (§ 2.1) y entre fraseología especializada y terminología (§ 2.2), haciendo hincapié en los límites clasificatorios (§ 2.3). Posteriormente se considera la relación entre fraseología especializada y traducción (§ 3) y se analizan algunas técnicas para la traducción de las unidades fraseológicas especializadas con ejemplos extraídos de distintos lenguajes de especialidad (§ 3.1). Se concluye el trabajo con algunas consideraciones finales (§ 4).

2. Fraseología especializada

La fraseología ha sido analizada ampliamente en el marco de la lengua general (cf. PONTRANDOLFO 2013a: 67-87); sin embargo, su estudio en el ámbito de las lenguas de especialidad es relativamente reciente (cf., entre otros, AGUADO DE CEA 2007, MÉNDEZ CENDÓN 2008). [7]

El análisis de la fraseología especializada refleja las mismas inestabilidades denominativas de la fraseología general, a las que hay que añadir una multiplicidad de enfoques de clasificación y delimitación (AGUADO DE CEA 2007: 56) (cf. Tabla 1).

Autores	Denominación
PICHT 1987; KJÆR 1990; PAVEL 1993a	*LSP phraseology*
PICHT 1990	*LSP phrase*
KJÆR1990	*LSP phraseme*
BERGENHOLTZ y TARP 1994	*multi-word terminological phrase*
MEYER y MACKINTOSH 1996	*terminological phraseme*
KJÆR1990; THOMAS 1993; CABRÉ 1999	*terminological phrase*
L'HOMME 2000	*SLC (specialized lexical combinations)*
PALUMBO 2001; MUSACCHIO y PALUMBO 2008	*technical phrase*
PICHT 1991; MONTERO MARTÍNEZ 2002	(*LSP phraseology*) *fraseología LSP*
LORENTE 2002	*fraseología especializada*
CABRÉ, ESTOPÁ y LORENTE 1996; AGUADO DE CEA 2007	*unidad fraseológica especializada* (UFE)

Tabla 1 – Etiquetas definitorias de la fraseología especializada

Definir qué es una unidad fraseológica especializada (UFE) no es una tarea sencilla, debido a la variedad de definiciones que se encuentran en la literatura consultada [8] (cf. Tabla 2).

Autor	Definición de UFE
SERIANNI (1985: 270)	particolari espressioni stereotipiche, non necessarie, a rigore, alle esigenze della denotatività scientifica, ma preferite per la loro connotazione tecnica.
PICHT (1987: 149)	[...] le *phraséologisme* serait une expression formée d'une suite d'élements linguistiques dont l'elément principal serait un terme. Les éléments constitutifs de cette séquence subiraient une modification sémantique.
KJÆR(1990: 4)	[in the theory of terminology] phraseology denotes the environment of terms. […] *Terminological phrases* are lexical units the nucleus of which is a term; [in the theory of lexicology] *phrasemes* or *phraseological units* are defined as multi-word lexical units or fixed multi-word expressions.
PAVEL (1993b: 10)	Par *phraséologie LS*, nous entendons la combinatoire syntagmatique des unités terminologiques (UT) prises comme noyaux de coocurrences usuelles ou privilegiées dans les textes d'une spécialité.
ROBERTS (1993: 63)	*Phraseology* includes all habitual word combinations which do not belong to a specific grammatical category. It therefore covers the vast majority of what I term "fixed expressions" […] and collocations (phrases which are only more or less fixed in a given language), both grammatical and lexical.
GOUADEC (1997: 167)	Un *phraséologisme* est une chaine de caractères, autre qu'une designation, formant bloc spécifique, soit en vertu de sa spécialisation, soit en vertu de son iteration/repetition.
L'HOMME (2000: 89)	*Specialized lexical combinations* (also called *collocations* – using a designation borrowed from general lexicography – or *phraseologisms*) [are] word combinations [that] comprise two lexemes bound to one another: constraints related to conventions established within a given subject field makes lexeme 1 prefer the company of lexeme 2 rather than that of other lexemes.
LORENTE (2002)	La fraseología especializada es el conjunto de unidades fraseológicas de contenido especializado de una lengua. Las *unidades fraseológicas especializadas* son unidades de conocimiento especializado, que se corresponden con estructuras sintagmáticas u oracionales, no lexicalizadas, pero que presentan una cierta tendencia al estereotipo o un cierto grado de fijación, y que contienen como mínimo un término.
AGUADO DE CEA (2007: 54)	Unidades fraseológicas que están formadas por estructuras léxicas sintagmáticas con un valor especializado, generalmente lexicalizadas, que constan, al menos, de un término base acompañado de un verbo o de un elemento deverbal.

Tabla 2 – Definiciones de UFE

BEVILACQUA (2004: 25-26) detecta tres tendencias en las definiciones de las UFE. Una primera tendencia, de orientación lexicológica y lexicográfica, define la unidad como *colocación*, es decir, como unidad resultante de la combinación de dos unidades léxicas, una de las cuales es el núcleo y la otra el colocado. La mayoría de los autores que adopta dicha definición (p. ej. L'HOMME 2000, AGUADO DE CEA 2007) sigue patrones morfosintácticos ya establecidos (p. ej., los de HAUSMANN 1989, de BENSON, BENSON e ILSON 1986). Una segunda tendencia, de orientación marcadamente terminológica, define la UFE como combinación sintagmática cuyo núcleo terminológico es un término o unidad terminológica (UT). Desde esta perspectiva, en la que la fraseología especializada se percibe como una extensión de la terminología (AGUADO DE CEA 2007: 56), se identifican los "contextos" de los términos con la finalidad principal de representarlos en productos terminográficos. Los autores partidarios de este enfoque (p. ej. PICHT 1987, PAVEL 1993b) reconocen que estas unidades tienen distintos grados de fijación y, de manera general, llegan a identificar algunas categorías típicas (p. ej., sintagmas nominales, verbales, adjetivales y preposicionales). Una tercera tendencia, de orientación traductológica, considera como unidades fraseológicas especializadas no solo los sintagmas, sino también y principalmente aquellas unidades que denominan "expresiones estereotipadas" u oraciones propias de un dominio discursivo. Los estudiosos que adoptan este enfoque (p. ej. ROBERTS 1993, GOUADEC 1997) están interesados en identificar las unidades "útiles" para la producción de textos especializados (traducción o redacción técnica).

2.1 Fraseología general vs. fraseología especializada

Antes de analizar las características de las unidades fraseológicas especializadas y su relación con las unidades terminológicas, cabe operar una distinción fundamental entre fraseología general (*LGP phraseology*) y fraseología especializada (*LSP phraseology* [9]) (KJÆR1990, L'HOMME 2000, LORENTE 2002). Esta distinción ya está implícita en las escuelas lingüísticas; la terminología se ha concentrado casi exclusivamente en la fraseología especializada, mientras que la lexicología en la fraseología general. En esta perspectiva, KJÆR(1990: 5-6) distingue entre:

- fraseología terminológica (*term phraseology*), es decir, la disciplina que estudia la combinabilidad de los términos (LSP);

- fraseología léxica (*lexico-phraseology*) como disciplina que estudia las combinaciones léxicas en el lenguaje general (LGP);
- fraseología especializada (*LSP phraseology*) como conjunto de combinaciones fraseológicas en las lenguas de especialidad (LSP).

L'HOMME (2000: 90), para marcar la diferencia entre las dos áreas, emplea el término "colocación" (*collocation*) para referirse a combinaciones de la lengua general (LGP) y "combinación léxica" especializada (*specialized lexical combination* o *SLC*) para indicar las combinaciones especializadas (LSP).

Las diferencias entre estos dos tipos de combinaciones se refieren a cinco aspectos (L'HOMME 2000: 90):

1. la naturaleza convencional de las combinaciones: en el caso de las combinaciones léxicas especializadas son las convenciones del género discursivo los factores que determinan la coocurrencia (frente a las colocaciones de LGP);
2. la estructura sintáctica de las combinaciones: en el caso de las colocaciones de la lengua general, L'HOMME menciona las tipologías de BENSON, BENSON e ILSON (1986), mientras que para las combinaciones léxicas especializadas identifica tres combinaciones: a) sustantivo (término) + verbo; b) sustantivo (término) + adjetivo; c) sustantivo (término) + sustantivo (término);
3. la composicionalidad o no composicionalidad de las combinaciones: las colocaciones están a medio camino entre las expresiones idiomáticas y las combinaciones libres, mientras que en las combinaciones léxicas especializadas el significado del núcleo (*keyword*, en la terminología de L'HOMME), es decir, del término es estable (los coocurrentes tienden a variar según el término);
4. la tendencia de las *keywords* (bases) a unirse a series de unidades léxicas: analizando la distribución de las combinaciones especializadas, algunos autores han evidenciado que algunos coocurrentes tienden a combinarse con una sola base terminológica, mientras que otros se combinan con una pluralidad de bases, pertenecientes a distintas clases o series semánticamente homogéneas;
5. la generalización de las relaciones semánticas entre los componentes: siguiendo la teoría de las funciones léxicas de MEL'ČUK (1998), la mayoría de las relaciones semánticas entre los componentes de una colocación (LGP) se

puede generalizar, puesto que muchas colocaciones presentan el mismo tipo de relación semántica. Las combinaciones léxicas especializadas, en cambio, no siempre permiten una generalización sistemática de las relaciones semánticas.

Comparando las combinaciones de la lengua general con las de la lengua de especialidad, [10] la estudiosa llega a la conclusión de que las colocaciones se pueden definir en términos de *restricted lexical co-occurrence*, mientras que las combinaciones léxicas especializadas como *free lexical co-occurrence* (L'HOMME 2000: 106).

LORENTE (2002), aun identificando las evidentes diferencias entre fraseología general y fraseología especializada, [11] reconoce que los procesos cognitivos que motivan las unidades y las estructuras lingüísticas que las reciben no son distintos.

Uno de los aspectos diferenciales entre las dos tipologías de unidades es, sin duda, la presencia de una unidad terminológica, lo que permite comparar la fraseología con la terminología.

2.2 Fraseología especializada vs. terminología

Establecer la frontera entre fraseología y terminología conlleva ciertas dificultades. [12] Son muchos los trabajos que, desde distintos planteamientos teóricos, se han centrado en la estrecha relación entre las dos áreas. Entre otros, se señalan los estudios de PICHT (1987), DRASKAU (1988), ROBERTS (1993), TALEB (1993), LAINÉ (1993), PAVEL (1993b), MEYER y MACKINTOSH (1996), CABRÉ, ESTOPÁ y LORENTE (1996), GOUADEC (1997), TABARES PLACENCIA y PÉREZ VIGARAY (2007).

Las afinidades entre las dos áreas son evidentes: tanto los “frasemas” de la primera, como los “términos” de la segunda, coinciden en su carácter denominativo, es decir, en su valor referencial y constituyen los nodos a partir de los que se estructura el conocimiento de un campo de especialidad (AGUADO DE CEA 2007: 54).

Por esta razón, la mayoría de los autores coincide en situar, en el discurso especializado, ambas áreas en un *continuum* discursivo (PICHT 1991: 96, CABRÉ 1993: 186). Estudiando los aspectos fraseológicos de la terminología, CABRÉ (1993: 186) precisa que las relaciones sintagmáticas entre los términos se polarizan en dos grupos: por una parte, las combinaciones que forman verdaderos términos y, por otra, las formaciones completamente libres. La fraseología del discurso especializado incluiría las unidades comprendidas entre los dos polos:

> [...] una serie de construcciones que se pueden considerar a medio camino entre los términos sintagmáticos propiamente dichos y las combinaciones totalmente libres. Son combinaciones que, por un lado, aparecen con frecuencia muy alta en el discurso de especialidad (lo que las aproxima a los sintagmas terminológicos), pero, por otro lado, no parece que correspondan a conceptos estables de un campo de especialidad, sino más bien a expresiones discursivas frecuentes en estos campos. En este caso específico hablamos de fraseología (CABRÉ 1993: 186).

Siguiendo a AGUADO DE CEA, la fraseología especializada ocupa el área entre el término y la frase (2007: 56), aunque los límites definitorios de *unidad terminológica* (UT) y *unidad fraseológica* (UF) son bastante borrosos, puesto que la primera formaría parte del estudio fraseológico.

Siguiendo a CABRÉ, ESTOPÁ y LORENTE (1996), LORENTE (2002) y BEVILACQUA (2004) es posible operar una distinción entre UT y UF a partir de dos criterios, es decir, sintácticos y semánticos.

Con respecto al parámetro sintáctico, la UT es principalmente una categoría nominal, mientras que la UFE incluye distintas categorías (verbales, adjetivales, preposicionales, etc.). En cuanto al criterio semántico, la UT se define como una unidad léxica de carácter denominativo y referencial, mientras que la UFE es de carácter más relacional (véase al respecto la definición de *tecnicismo collaterale* de SERIANNI 1985 en la Tabla 2). Para algunos autores, como BLAIS (1993), la UT se refiere a un concepto (véase también KJÆR 1990: 12), mientras que la UFE resulta de la combinación de conceptos o nociones. Para otros, como BEVILACQUA (2004), se definen por el tipo de discurso en que ocurre (p. ej., en el caso del discurso jurídico-ambiental, muchos fraseologismos especializados están determinados por las especificidades de este discurso: *poder reglamentador*, *fuerza de la autoridad*, *atribución de poderes*, etc.).

Ahora bien, siguiendo a BEVILACQUA (2004: 28) es posible distinguir entre:

- *UT*: unidad de estructura léxica o sintáctica de carácter denominativo-conceptual, dotada de capacidad de referencia y que denomina un nodo de la estructura conceptual de un ámbito [...] (CABRÉ 2001: 23);

- *UFE*: unidad de significación especializada sintagmática, que está formada por un núcleo terminológico (UT simple o sintagmática) y por un núcleo eventivo (verbo, nombre deverbal o participio derivado del verbo), que representan las actividades y procesos específicos de un ámbito. Depende de un área temática, posee un determinado grado de fijación interna y tiene una frecuencia relevante en los textos de un ámbito especializado.

El paso siguiente es, evidentemente, enumerar los criterios para identificar una UFE. Una de las categorizaciones más citadas en la literatura es la de AGUADO DE CEA (2007: 57-58) (cf. GALLEGO HERNÁNDEZ 2013: 219-220) que enumera los criterios más aceptados para la delimitación de una UFE desde una perspectiva más global: a) son estructuras sintagmáticas con un término o una unidad terminológica en la UFE; b) incluyen un verbo o un elemento deverbal; c) tienen un alto grado de fijación, aunque a veces permiten la inserción de otros elementos, como un cuantificador o un pronombre; d) muestran regularidad compositiva; e) admiten la conmutación de sus elementos, aunque hay ciertos grados. Así se observa que el sentido especializado de un verbo está determinado por un conjunto limitado de nombres; f) mantienen un significado específico dentro de un dominio, por lo que adquieren una estabilidad semántica; g) son de uso frecuente dentro de un dominio o un subdominio de especialidad.

La autora admite los límites de estos criterios y reconoce que una complicación adicional es establecer una distinción entre UFE y UT: no siempre resulta fácil percibir un compuesto como un término o una unidad fraseológica porque el uso de unidades léxicas de uso frecuente en un ámbito profesional en la lengua general impide su reconocimiento fácil como unidad terminológica o fraseológica.

2.3 Clasificar la fraseología especializada

En general, muchos trabajos teóricos sobre fraseología en los discursos de especialidad reconocen el papel clave de la fraseología especializada, aunque falta una clasificación sistemática y unívoca (cf. MUSACCHIO y PALUMBO 2008: 72). Los autores se centran más en las características y rasgos definitorios de una UFE (cf. AGUADO DE CEA 2007: 57-58), pero no llegan a deslindar tipologías concretas, quizás porque dependen del tipo de género discursivo examinado y no se puedan generalizar. Sin embargo, el análisis de distintos enfoques sobre la fraseología en los textos especializados ha puesto de manifiesto la existencia de dos tendencias principales.

En primer lugar, cada autor tiende a ajustar las clases fraseológicas a las finalidades de su estudio. TERCEDOR SÁNCHEZ (1999), por ejemplo, propone un modelo de análisis que se plasma enteramente en el subdominio oncológico, objeto de estudio de su tesis doctoral (cf. MONTERO MARTÍNEZ 2002: 146-150). Otro ejemplo es el caso de PONTRANDOLFO (2013a, 2016) que clasifica las unidades fraseológicas jurídicas a partir de las características estructurales y discursivas de las sentencias penales inglesas, españolas e italianas.

Una segunda tendencia atribuye una importancia central a las *colocaciones*. Según distintos autores, el lenguaje especializado participa mucho menos de las unidades fraseológicas fijas que la lengua general, es decir, las locuciones y frases hechas son el tipo de unidades fraseológicas menos presentes en el lenguaje especializado; por otro lado, son las colocaciones el tipo de unidades fraseológicas más relevantes en los textos especializados (TERCEDOR SÁNCHEZ 1999). Las colocaciones representan, de hecho, la clase fraseológica más estudiada en absoluto en la fraseología especializada [13] (cf. PONTRANDOLFO 2013a). En muchos casos, los autores siguen utilizando las clasificaciones tradicionales – es decir, de la lengua general – también en el análisis de las colocaciones especializadas (MUSACCHIO 2002: 143-146 basada en HAUSMANN 1989, MUSACCHIO y PALUMBO 2008: 72). En otros, adaptan las categorías sintácticas colocacionales a las exigencias de los lenguajes de especialidad. Basta con pensar en el ya mencionado estudio de L'HOMME (2000) en donde la autora identifica cinco categorías de BENSON, BENSON e ILSON (1986) para las colocaciones de la lengua general (fraseología LGP) y tres para la fraseología LSP, a saber, SUST +V, SUST + ADJ., SUST + SUST (categorías adoptadas en estudios como el de SFAR 2011).

Entre las clasificaciones tradicionales que nacen en el marco de la lengua general pero se adaptan a los estudios sobre los discursos de especialidad – sobre todo en el ámbito hispánico – se señala la de CORPAS PASTOR (1996), cuyas esferas fraseológicas (colocaciones, locuciones, enunciados fraseológicos) siguen representando un modelo de referencia también para los lenguajes de especialidad (véase, entre otros, el análisis fraseológico de TOLEDO BÁEZ y MARTÍNEZ LORENTE

2018 basado en el corpus médico *Cordiabicom*).

3. Fraseología y traducción especializada

La relevancia de la fraseología para la traducción especializada es indudable: el dominio de las unidades fraseológicas especializadas es el factor que confiere naturalidad al discurso científico (cf. AGUADO DE CEA 2007: 53) y por ello, resulta de gran relevancia tanto para traductores (véase HATIM y MASON 1997: 190, GOUADEC 2007: 23), redactores técnicos, mediadores lingüísticos y periodistas especializados, así como para los hablantes de una segunda lengua que se acerquen a un campo de especialidad (véase MEUNIER y GRANGER 2008).

Además, el uso correcto de la fraseología especializada contribuye a mejorar la calidad del texto meta (cf. LEIVA ROJO 2018) y el ajuste al repertorio recurrente del género discursivo. Para ilustrar las restricciones de forma impuestas por el género, GAMERO PÉREZ (2001: 54) sugiere acudir a la distinción realizada por GÖPFERICH (1995) entre los conceptos de alternativa y variante: la alternativa es una forma de expresión no acuñada como convención, pero gramatical y estilísticamente correcta; la variante es, dentro de una convención, la gama (reducida) de posibilidades aceptadas (véase también GAROFALO 2009: 72). Dominar la riqueza de medios de expresión fraseológica, reconocer una variante de una alternativa conlleva un esfuerzo notable por parte del traductor especializado (PONTRANDOLFO 2016: 168).

3.1 Técnicas para la traducción de la fraseología en los discursos de especialidad

A partir de las técnicas identificadas por CORPAS PASTOR (2003: 273-310), es posible identificar seis procedimientos que se pueden emplear a la hora de traducir fraseología (tanto general, UF, como especializada, UFE) en los discursos de especialidad (cf. PONTRANDOLFO 2016: 160-166):

1. UFE → UFE
2. UFE → no UFE
3. no UFE → UFE
4. UFE → UFE diferente/similar

5. UFE → Calco
6. UFE → Ø

Cada técnica generará distintos grados de equivalencia fraseológica (cf. CORPAS PASTOR 2003: 281-283) que el traductor especializado tendrá que evaluar en el proceso de traducción.

En línea general, en traducción especializada la técnica (1), denominada *equivalénce* en CORPAS PASTOR (2003: 283-284), suele ser el procedimiento de elección, [14] puesto que permite al traductor imitar el comportamiento fraseológico del texto origen; dicho de otra forma, cuando el traductor especializado tiene a su disposición una UFE paralela en el texto meta, puede utilizarla para que su texto se ajuste al repertorio discursivo del género en la lengua de llegada.

Sin embargo, todas las técnicas se pueden combinar según las estrategias de traducción adoptadas por el traductor y conforme a las expectativas del género discursivo.

La técnica (2) consiste en una paráfrasis (traducción mediante unidad léxica simple) que CORPAS PASTOR (2003: 294-295) denomina *modulación*. Con la técnica (3) se traduce una expresión no fraseológica con una fraseológica llevando a cabo una especie de compensación (2003: 297). La técnica (4) prevé un cambio de categoría gramatical, es decir, el uso de una UF diferente o similar en cuanto al significado y/o a la forma (*transposición* en CORPAS PASTOR 2003: 293). El procedimiento (5) consiste en calcar la UF del texto origen, lo cual puede generar errores de traducción (como en el ejemplo (II)). Por último, la técnica (6) consiste en omitir o eliminar la UF del texto origen por distintas razones (p. ej. la UF no es imprescindible en el texto meta).

A continuación, se presentan algunos ejemplos de uso de estas técnicas en referencia a los extractos mencionados en § 1. [15]

(I)

En condiciones normales, las células madre se localizan [*colocación: SUST + V: las células madre se localizan*] en la médula ósea, pero se las puede movilizar hacia [*colocación: V + SUST (CD): movilizar las células madre* hacia *X*] la sangre circulante (periférica) mediante la administración de unos fármacos [locución nominal: SUST + prep + SUST] denominados *factores de crecimiento hematopoyético*.	In condizioni normali, le cellule staminali si trovano [**(2) UFE → no UFE**] nel midollo osseo, ma è possibile stimolarne la migrazione [(4) **UFE → UFE diferente/similar**: colocación: V + locución nominal: SUST + prep + SUST: stimolare la migrazione delle cellule staminali] nel sangue circolante (periferico) mediante la somministrazione di farmaci [**(1) UFE → UFE**: locución nominal: SUST + prep + SUST] specifici denominati *fattori di crescita emopoietici*.

El ejemplo (I) muestra cómo la colocación especializada “localizarse las células” se puede traducir en italiano simplemente con el verbo “trovarsi” (técnica (2)), efectivamente utilizado en muchos textos paralelos sobre trasplante de médula ósea, [16] mientras que la colocación “movilizar las células” encuentra su equivalente paralelo en el verbo metafórico “migrar” (en el ejemplo traducido mediante un cambio de unidad fraseológica, es decir, colocación > locución nominal). También se señala el procedimiento clásico en estos textos de especialidad, o sea, la técnica (1): “administración de fármacos” traducido con “somministrazione di farmaci”.

(II)

Se trata de un edificio con decoración renacentista del siglo XVI, con artesanados mudéjares y una hermosa torre-mirador, que ha sido ampliado con otras edificaciones para albergar los fondos [*colocación: V + SUST (CD): albergar los fondos*] del Museo Picasso Málaga. Inaugurado en 2003, este museo expone 233 obras del artista malagueño entre pinturas, dibujos, esculturas, grabados y cerámicas que forman parte [*locución verbal: formar parte*] de la colección permanente, junto a interesantes exposiciones temporales.	Si tratta di un edificio con decorazioni rinascimentali del secolo XVI, mudéjar a cassettoni e una splendida torre-belvedere, che è stato ampliato con altre costruzioni per albergare le opere [**(5) UFE → Calco** *colocación: V + SUST (CD): albergare le opere*] del Museo Picasso Malaga. Inaugurato nel 2003, il museo espone più di 233 opere dell'artista tra pitture, disegni, sculture, dipinti e ceramiche che formano parte [**(5) UF → Calco ***] della collezione permanente, assieme ad interessanti esposizioni temporanee.[17]

Si en el primer caso el calco de la colocación “albergar los fondos” no produce errores de sentido ni de estilo puesto que “albergare” se usa también en italiano en sentido figurado, [18] en el segundo caso la locución verbal “formare parte” es un claro calco sintáctico del texto origen, lo cual genera un error de traducción, dado que en italiano la locución verbal paralela es “fare parte”.

(III)

La Audiencia de instancia dictó el siguiente pronunciamiento [*colocación V + SUST (CD) dictar el pronunciamiento*]: FALLAMOS: Que debemos condenar y condenamos [*doblete léxico*] a Pedro Miguel como responsable en concepto de [*locución preposicional*] autor de un delito contra la salud pública, en la modalidad de tráfico de drogas de acusada nocividad [colocación: ADJ + SUST] […]	Il dispositivo della sentenza emessa dal tribunale **[(4) UFE →UFE diferente/similar]** competente (*Audiencia Provincial*) era il seguente: P.Q.M. **[(1) UFE → UFE]** condanna **[(6) UFE → Ø]** Pedro Miguel come **[(2) UFE> no UF)]** responsabile di un delitto contro la salute pubblica […]che integra la fattispecie **[(3) no UFE → UFE]** del traffico di sostanze stupefacenti altamente nocive **[(4) UF →UF similar**: colocación ADV+ADJ]

También en este último ejemplo (III) se encuentran distintas técnicas: la sustitución de la colocación “dictar el pronunciamiento” por la locución nominal (terminológica) “dispositivo della sentenza” seguida por la colocación SUST + ADJ “sentenza emessa” (técnica (4)); el empleo del equivalente funcional de "FALLAMOS": P.Q.M. (técnica (1)); la eliminación del doblete “que debemos condenar y condenamos” (técnica (6)); la eliminación de la locución preposicional “en concepto de”, sustituida por “come” (técnica (2); el uso de una colocación especializada (“integrare la fattispecie”) en una situación de ausencia de UF en el texto origen (“en la modalidad de”); el cambio de categoría colocacional final: “acusada nocividad” (ADJ + SUST) vs. “altamente nocive” (ADV + ADJ).

Los ejemplos presentados no tienen ninguna pretensión de exhaustividad y solo se mencionan como tres breves casos prácticos de uso de las técnicas anteriormente mencionadas; demuestran cómo el traductor puede combinar distintas técnicas para traducir la fraseología y que dominar esta competencia requiere un esfuerzo constante de frecuentación de textos paralelos y de convenciones discursivas en los géneros de especialidad de la lengua meta.

4. Conclusiones

La fraseología especializada es uno de los elementos que más activamente contribuye a la construcción del discurso especializado. Como ya se señalaba en PONTRANDOLFO (2016: 15), las unidades terminológicas estructuran el espacio del conocimiento de un lenguaje de especialidad (y son, por tanto, esenciales para la disciplina), mientras que las unidades fraseológicas especializadas estructuran las relaciones conceptuales típicas del sector. Desde esta perspectiva, la fraseología actúa como anillo de conexión entre el término y el texto (ARNTZ 1993: 576) y su relevancia para la traducción es indudable.

El estudio ha contribuido a demostrar que en los discursos de especialidad, fraseología y terminología están estrechamente relacionadas, puesto que en muchas ocasiones las unidades fraseológicas se desarrollan alrededor de unidades terminológicas, generalmente núcleos de las primeras. Sin embargo, hay unidades fraseológicas que se pueden considerar especializadas porque se usan mucho en el discurso y género de especialidad, aunque no se construyen alrededor de unidades terminológicas. Basta con pensar en el papel de las locuciones preposicionales en el lenguaje jurídico (cf. PONTRANDOLFO 2013b): muchas de estas unidades no tienen núcleos terminológicos (p. ej. “en concepto de”, “con arreglo a”, “sin perjuicio de”, etc.) pero su uso está marcado como típico de un discurso de especialidad (en este caso, jurídico). Por esta razón a lo largo del artículo se ha empleado y preferido el uso del término “fraseología especializada” (cf. § 2.1) porque hace hincapié en un conjunto de combinaciones fraseológicas empleadas con frecuencia en las lenguas de especialidad y no subordinadas obligatoriamente a la existencia de una unidad terminológica.

El dominio de la competencia fraseológica por parte del traductor representa uno de los retos y escollos fundamentales de su tarea (cf., entre otros, LADMIRAL 2013: 11, MOGORRÓN HUERTA 2013: 84, SEVILLA MUÑOZ 2013: 179-180), ya que de su precisión en la elección de las unidades fraseológicas especializadas dependerá, en última instancia, el ajuste al repertorio recurrente del género discursivo que está traduciendo y ese “sabor” a texto especializado que cada traductor debería darle a su traducción. El uso de los fraseologismos especializados contribuye a generar ese horizonte de expectativas mencionado en § 1 en el destinatario del texto meta y, para lograr ese horizonte, el traductor tiene a su disposición una amplia gama de técnicas (cf. § 3.1).

Como ya se señalaba en PONTRANDOLFO (2016: 147-148), si para resolver un problema terminológico, los traductores pueden consultar diccionarios especializados o bancos de datos multilingües y encontrar soluciones satisfactorias muchas veces prefabricadas, en cambio, para encontrar la equivalencia parcial o total de unidades fraseológicas especializadas, tendrán que recurrir en la mayoría de los casos a la consulta de textos paralelos con vistas a obtener unidades correspondientes, tanto a nivel funcional como estilístico, en la lengua meta del proceso de traducción (PONTRANDOLFO 2016: 147-148). A raíz de la escasez de material lexicográfico de corte fraseológico disponible para los discursos de especialidad, los corpus se están revelando una herramienta cada vez más útil para desarrollar esa competencia fraseológica y su compilación y explotación seguirá intensificándose en los próximos años tanto en los estudios sobre traducción especializada como en la práctica profesional de la traducción.

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Note

↑ 1 Este artículo forma parte del proyecto de investigación I+D+i en el marco del Programa Operativo FEDER Andalucía 2014-2020 y con el código B-HUM177-UGR18.

↑ 2 https://www.fcarreras.org/es/consentimiento-informado-impreso-de-registro_1195100.pdf (31/10/19).

↑ 3 ES_TS_951_2007 (COSPE, Pontrandolfo 2016: 77-85).

↑ 4
https://www.hacienda.gob.es/CDI/estabilidad%20presupuestaria/situaci%C3%B3neconomia20
(31/10/19),

↑ 5 http://www.malagaturismo.com/es/paginas/malaga-en-2-dias/405 (31/10/19).

↑ 6 https://www.psoe.es/media-content/2019/10/PLAN-PARA-AVANZAR-Y-VENCER-EL-BLOQUEO1.pdf(31/10/19).

↑ 7 En 1990, KJÆR escribía: «[…] to my knowledge, until now, no other works have been published which focus especially on LSP phraseology. It is clear, however, that this situation is about to change» (1990: 18).

↑ 8 La bibliografía consultada en este trabajo se basa principalmente en la literatura en lengua española, inglesa e italiana.

↑ 9 KJÆR(1990: 6) señala que algunos autores (p. ej. PICHT 1987) utilizan el término *LSP phraseology* en otra acepción, es decir, para designar la disciplina lingüística que estudia la fraseología especializada (*LSP phraseology* en la acepción de la autora).

↑ 10 Para una síntesis de las diferencias entre *collocations* y *specialized lexical combinations* véase la Tabla 6 en L'HOMME (2000: 104-105).

↑ 11 LORENTE (2002) subraya los aspectos diferenciales entre las unidades fraseológicas de la lengua general y las unidades fraseológicas especializadas:

UF de la LG: 1) Son combinaciones de palabras de la LG; 2) Las UF aportan connotación, expresividad; 3) Significado general, relacionado con el conocimiento del mundo y con la experiencia; 4) Aparición frecuente en el lenguaje oral, o en expresiones literarias que intentan reflejarlo; 5) Identificación con una comunidad lingüística, cultural, religiosa, o con un grupo social.

UFE: 1) Son combinaciones de términos (UT); 2) Tendencia mayor a la denotación; 3) Significado especializado, relacionado con unos conocimientos reglados y aprehendidos voluntariamente; 4) Localización prioritaria en textos escritos, ya que la oralidad no suele ser analizada en ámbitos especializados; 5) Identificación con una temática, con una comunidad académica, con una escuela o con un grupo profesional (argot).

↑ 12 Cf., por ejemplo, los casos de *terminologización*, es decir, los casos en los que las frases se convierten en términos (véanse GLÄSER 1994/1995: 58). PAVEL (1993) subraya el papel que la fraseología desempeña como “terminology-in-the-making”, reconociendo que la aparición de nuevos términos también se produce mediante la fijación de estructuras sintagmáticas, es decir, de frases o grupos de palabras que se tratan como unidades léxicas (MONTERO MARTÍNEZ 2002: 144).

↑ 13 «The more [sic] usual name for the area chiefly studied under the heading of term phraseology is *collocation*» (KJÆR 1990: 6).

↑ 14 Cf. también ROBERTS (1998: 76): «an equivalent TL phraseological unit, if one exists, would be the preferred means of translation».

↑ 15 Con la excepción del ejemplo (II), las traducciones al italiano de los ejemplos (I) y (III) son del autor del artículo.

↑ 16 Cf. entre otros:
http://www.admosardegna.it/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=12&Itemid=105
(31/10/2019).

↑ 17 Traducción al italiano disponible en:
http://www.malagaturismo.com/it/pages/malaga-in-2-giorni/405 (31/10/2019).

↑ 18 https://dizionario.internazionale.it/parola/albergare (31/10/2019).

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Traduzione e terminologia

Alice PAGANO

Terminologia e interpretazione di tribunale: un’esperienza didattica spagnolo-italiano

Terminologia e interpretazione di tribunale: un’esperienza didattica spagnolo-italiano

Alice PAGANO

Table

Abstract

Il presente contributo illustra un’esperienza di progettazione ed erogazione di un modulo di interpretazione giuridica italiano-spagnolo all’interno del corso magistrale in Traduzione e Interpretariato (LM94), il cui sviluppo è stato proposto nell’ambito del Progetto di Innovazione Didattica attuato presso il Dipartimento di Lingue e Culture Moderne (DLCM) dell’Università degli Studi di Genova. Il corso ha proposto uno studio specifico della terminologia giuridico-istituzionale, incontri ad hoc con esperti del settore e, infine, esercitazioni di interpretazione all'interno di procedimenti civili e penali simulati, per i quali ci siamo avvalsi del contributo di un giurista, intervenuto nella stesura delle tracce e nelle drammatizzazioni in aula. Inoltre, è stato predisposto un monitoraggio da parte di pedagogisti al fine di osservare, potenziare e valutare le modalità di Innovazione Didattica proposte e l'efficacia dello strumento della simulazione (role-play). Dato lo spiccato interesse per la stretta interrelazione fra processo traduttivo e terminologia, abbiamo fatto alcune osservazioni generali relative al ruolo della competenza terminologica e lessicale nella riuscita delle rese da studenti/tesse. Obiettivo dell'articolo è presentare il caso di studio derivante dalla nostra esperienza di Innovazione Didattica esponendone la fase di pianificazione e la metodologia utilizzata per la preparazione delle simulazioni in aula, fino all'esame di profitto previsto a conclusione del corso. Verranno inoltre analizzate potenzialità, ostacoli e strategie riscontrati e utilizzati da studenti/tesse per offrire nuovi spunti di ricerca e azione sulla linea dell'innovazione didattica e per la didattica dell'interpretazione in aula.

This paper aims to present a court interpreting module in Spanish and Italian as part of the two-year Master's degree in Translation and Interpreting (LM94) in the Department of Modern Languages and Cultures at the University of Genoa. This module has been conceived as part of the Innovative Teaching Project promoted by the University. It provides legal-institutional terminology study, dedicated classes with experts in the field and simulations of interpreting situations in court. To design such simulations, we collaborated with a legal expert who also participated in the dramatization of the different court situations in class. Furthermore, the activity development has been monitored and followed up by psychologists and pedagogists in order to check, boost and evaluate the innovative role-play method used in the simulations. Starting from the deep interest in the interrelation between translation and terminology, we observed the role of terminology competence and lexical competence in the students' performances. This paper describes the design and implementation of our didactic experience focusing on its planning phase, its methodology, and the preparation of pedagogical materials and interpreting simulations in class, including the final exam of the module. The study will also assess the strengths, obstacles and strategies that students were confronted with, offering food for thought on the line of Innovative Teaching Projects and on tools aimed at teaching interpreting.

1. Introduzione

In Italia risale al 1993 l’istituzione del ruolo dell’interprete giuridico, finalizzata alla partecipazione cosciente dell’indagato o dell’imputato al procedimento e al processo civile e penale (RUDVIN e SPINZI 2015). Nel 2010 viene adottata la «Direttiva europea sul diritto alla traduzione e all’interpretazione nei procedimenti penali» (Direttiva 2010/64/UE del Parlamento Europeo e del Consiglio). Fino ad allora non era previsto dalle norme che un imputato o un indagato non italofono ricevesse un’adeguata assistenza linguistica in ambito legale. Spesso affidata a parenti e amici, conoscenti o connazionali dell’imputato con una comprensione non sempre ottimale dell'italiano (RUDVIN e TOMASSINI 2011), la traduzione in ambito giuridico non era regolamentata da alcuno standard. L’adozione della Direttiva europea del 2010 riconosce all’imputato il diritto di farsi assistere gratuitamente da un interprete qualificato per l’incarico, qualora la sua conoscenza linguistica non sia considerata sufficiente. L’autorità giudiziaria stessa è chiamata ad accertare che l’imputato conosca la lingua utilizzata nel procedimento – sapere scrivere, leggere, parlare, ascoltare una lingua e a quale livello (RUDVIN e SPINZI 2015) – e a procedere con il reclutamento di un interprete che consenta la comunicazione fra le parti, senza che alcuna di esse si trovi in situazione di svantaggio.

L’inserimento di un modulo di interpretazione giuridica italiano-spagnolo per il primo semestre dell’anno accademico 2019/2020 all’interno dell’insegnamento di Lingua e Traduzione Spagnola II del Corso di Laurea Magistrale in Traduzione e Interpretariato (LM94) dell’Università di Genova intendeva approfondire una delle aree di specializzazione dell’interprete di conferenza. Obiettivo del presente articolo è duplice: da un lato, lasciare traccia di un primo approccio all’esperienza di innovazione nella didattica; d’altra parte creare un’ipotesi di modello da poter replicare in altri corsi. In particolare, oltre a quello didattico, l’obiettivo è stato osservare le strategie interpretative utilizzate da studenti/tesse in un contesto altamente specializzato come quello del discorso giuridico in un *setting* di tribunale. La nostra domanda di ricerca si concentra sull’analisi delle strategie messe in campo da studenti/tesse per sopperire a problemi terminologici.

In fase di pianificazione del modulo è stata prevista in classe una prima fase di approfondimento terminologico del discorso e del *setting* di tribunale; a seguire, nelle simulazioni proposte, sono stati inseriti sia termini specifici previamente studiati e analizzati in classe, sia lessico generale della lingua spagnola e italiana per verificare la padronanza di vocabolario di livello C1/C2 secondo il Quadro Comune Europeo di Riferimento per le Lingue (QCER). Con questi presupposti, abbiamo concentrato lo studio sul ruolo della preparazione terminologica nella risoluzione di problemi traduttivi durante la simulazione rispetto alla preparazione linguistica generale.

2. Terminologia e discorso giuridico

In termini generali, il linguaggio specialistico viene definito come «a linguistic code that differs from the general language and consists of specific rules and units» (PÖLLABAUER 2017). Più in particolare, il linguaggio specialistico del discorso giuridico di nostro interesse può presentare alcune peculiarità lessicali (termini tecnici) e morfosintattiche (utilizzo di costrutti complessi). Come sottolineato da RUDVIN e SPINZI (2015), per l'italiano è interessante notare che alcuni termini del discorso giuridico sono specifici del campo ("indulto" o "fidejussione"), e pertanto hanno un significato univoco dettato dall’ambito di utilizzo stesso, mentre altri termini di uso più generale assumono un significato specializzato solo se utilizzati in questo determinato ambito ("attore", "fatto", "compromesso"). Questi termini possono costituire una reale difficoltà se si tratta di dover trasporre concetti complessi o nuovi da una lingua all’altra perché possono differire enormemente o non coincidere affatto, come osserva VALERO-GARCÉS: «[s]ome of the difficulties found can be the lack of resources to transfer new, unknown concepts that are in the expert’s language or the non-existence of equivalent terms for such concepts in the target language» (VALERO-GARCÉS 2005: 77).

Per delineare le peculiarità del discorso giuridico italiano come linguaggio specialistico, fra le caratteristiche più salienti troviamo l'uso dell’imperfetto narrativo ("la Corte riteneva", "il caso si costituiva"), la nominalizzazione e il passaggio da una frase a un sintagma nominale corrispondente o la sostantivazione dell’infinito ("il disporre", "l’avverarsi"), la subordinazione di secondo e terzo grado, la presenza di latinismi (*ad diem*, *ab initio*, ecc.), l'uso di sigle, abbreviazioni e acronimi ("art." per "articolo", "co." per "comma", "c.p.c." per "codice di procedura civile", "c.p.p." per "codice di procedura penale", "T.A.R." per "Tribunale Amministrativo Regionale" e così via), costrutti impersonali o passivizzanti (fenomeno di enclisi del -si con l’infinito retto da verbo modale "dovere", "potere" e "volere" , p. es. "le norme possono attuarsi", "deve procedersi"; uso aggettivale in funzione di subordinata relativa, specie per aggettivi in -ivo e -bile ("giustificativo", "riconducibile"), uso del gerundio o del participio, presente o passato, a sostituzione di una subordinata esplicita ("decorrente", "vigente", "assunto", "notificato") (RUDVIN e SPINZI 2015; COLONNA DAHLMAN 2006).

In larga misura analogamente all'italiano, fra le caratteristiche salienti del discorso giuridico in spagnolo si annovera un abbondante uso di lessico di origini latine ("fideicomiso" da *fides e commissus*; "usufructo" da *ususfructus*; "sancionar" da *sancio*; "delito" da *delictum*; "injuria" da *iniuria*), l'uso di latinismi (*de facto*, *de iure*, ecc.), l'uso del presente atemporale, la tendenza alla nominalizzazione (*proceder a la admisión* per *admitir* e sostantivazione con i suffissi -miento, -idad, -ción), la costruzione di predicati intransitivi con nominalizzazione (*procede realizar una declaración*), l'ampio impiego della subordinazione, l'uso di forme pronominali impersonali con *se* e la forma passiva (*se desprende, se considera, fue admitido*) e di forme impersonali espresse con il participio e il gerundio, l'uso di sigle ("FJ" per "*Fundamento Jurídico*", "RDLeg" per "*Real Decreto Legislativo*", "CC" per "*código civil*", "ATS" per "*Auto del Tribunal Supremo*", ecc.) (TOMÁS RÍOS 2005; *Diccionario del español jurídico* [1]).

Nella traduzione scritta e orale la terminologia è uno strumento di cui servirsi all’interno di un contesto comunicativo specializzato, che ne determina l’uso a seconda della variazione pragmatico-discorsiva. Per le simulazioni, è importante identificare all’interno del *setting* di tribunale le diverse situazioni comunicative in funzione dei diversi attori coinvolti (interrogatorio, comunicazione fra avvocato e imputato; processo, comunicazione fra P.M., avvocato/i, eventuali testimoni e imputato e così via).

Dal punto di vista pragmatico-discorsivo, alle tre situazioni comunicative dove viene utilizzato il linguaggio specialistico proposte da NISKA, vale a dire comunicazione esperto-esperto; esperto-inesperto; inesperto-inesperto (NISKA 2002), VALERO-GARCÉS (2005) aggiunge la situazione esperto-semiesperto. La situazione comunicativa del discorso giuridico è spesso riconducibile a quella di esperto-inesperto, laddove vediamo la parte dell'esperto rappresentata dalle figure dei giuristi (giudici, avvocati, pubblici ufficiali, funzionari, P.M. e altri) e quella dell'inesperto (profano della materia) riconducibile all'indagato/imputato o ai testi, spesso impreparati sulla specificità del significato dei termini utilizzati in aula e privi di cultura giuridica. Nel caso, poi, della necessità di traduzione degli interventi fra le parti da una lingua all'altra, la comunicazione avverrà coinvolgendo tre parti: esperto-semiesperto-inesperto, dove il ruolo del semiesperto viene ricoperto dall'interprete giuridico. L'interprete viene identificato come tale poiché si presume che non abbia la stessa padronanza di linguaggio specialistico che hanno gli operatori ed esperti del campo giuridico-legale; tant'è vero che è necessaria da parte degli interpreti un'intensa attività preparatoria e di documentazione sulla terminologia richiesta dai singoli casi (RODRÍGUEZ e SCHNELL 2009).

3. La documentazione tematica e terminologica per l'interprete di tribunale

Purtroppo il ruolo dell'interprete non viene sempre adeguatamente riconosciuto e rispettato come figura professionale nel contesto giuridico, anche a causa della sovrapposizione di numerosi bilingui, privi di qualunque preparazione formale, che si prestano per lo svolgimento del lavoro e che rendendo così ancora più complesso il riconoscimento ufficiale delle qualifiche professionali (HALE 2004, VALERO-GARCÉS 2005). La figura dell'interprete di tribunale è chiamata a garantire un servizio in cui la precisione della traduzione è fondamentale, dato il calibro delle conseguenze che possono dipenderne (PÖLLABAUER 2017). Da qui, l'importanza della formazione dell'interprete/traduttore, specie in contesti istituzionali e altamente formali, con specificità terminologiche, etiche e deontologiche.

Come illustrato da EDWARDS già ai primordi della formalizzazione della professione dell’interprete giuridico, la prima fase della formazione di un interprete è quella, appunto, linguistica, volta all’acquisizione del livello di bilinguismo che permetta di operare da e verso una L2 oltre alla propria madrelingua: «[t]he creators of the federal certification exam for Spanish court interpreting say that one needs at least 14 years of schooling in English to understand the English used in court» (EDWARDS 1995: 4). Sulla stessa linea, data la specificità e la complessità del discorso giuridico nelle varie lingue – pur variando a seconda della combinazione – una formazione linguistica completa e mirata che garantisca i livelli di qualità e accuratezza richiesti risulta difficilmente raggiungibile con un periodo di studio inferiore ai 12-14 anni. La seconda fase della formazione dell’aspirante interprete è quella dell’apprendimento e della pratica della professione: «[i]nterpreting is itself a skill that must be developed in addition to a person’s existing high-level skills in two languages» (ROY 2006: 2).

Una volta completate le fasi formali di formazione, l’interprete è chiamato di volta in volta a una preparazione *ad hoc* per il lavoro commissionato. La preparazione dell’interprete avviene attraverso diverse fasi (ORTEGO ANTÓN 2016: 109), la prima delle quali la preparazione tematica e, la seconda, la preparazione linguistica e terminologica. Quest’ultima si concentra sulla ricerca più approfondita di sinonimi, iperonimi, acronimi, abbreviazioni e fraseologia di possibile utilizzo nell'ambito disciplinare e tematico in questione. L’interprete di tribunale può, in fase di preparazione, servirsi di tutti gli strumenti che forniscono una facile e rapida consultazione della terminologia specifica, nonché eventuali modifiche o aggiornamenti dei relativi glossari (RODRÍGUEZ e SCHNELL 2009: 27, FANTINUOLI 2017: 29-31), ma anche documentandosi attraverso testi paralleli di diritto e aggiornando la base di dati a disposizione con la consultazione di fonti istituzionali ufficiali. Tuttavia, essendo la consecutiva con presa di note la tipologia di interpretazione maggiormente utilizzata nel contesto giuridico (RUDVIN e TOMASSINI 2011: 78), la gestione della terminologia con estrazione da base di dati o *computer-assisted* (automatica da glossari sul computer o direttamente da Internet) *in loco* risulta impossibile da effettuare. Inoltre, non è quasi mai possibile essere informati dell'oggetto del procedimento nel quale si verrà chiamati a interpretare e, data l’eterogeneità di situazioni in cui l’interprete di tribunale opera, è necessaria un’approfondita preparazione terminologica e fraseologica. Da ultimo, ma non per importanza, uno dei requisiti richiesti per il profilo professionale dell’interprete di tribunale, come stabilito da AITI (Associazione Italiana Traduttori e Interpreti), è la conoscenza avanzata della lingua e della cultura straniera, almeno al livello C1 del Quadro Comune Europeo di Riferimento per le Lingue (QCER), oltre alla perfetta padronanza della propria lingua madre. Il livello C1 viene identificato come livello di efficacia, di cui si riportano le specificità richieste di seguito.

> […] lo studente si esprime in modo scorrevole e spontaneo, senza un eccessivo sforzo per cercare le parole. Usa la lingua in modo flessibile ed efficace per scopi sociali, accademici e professionali […] mostrando di sapere controllare le strutture discorsive, i connettivi e i meccanismi di coesione (CONSIGLIO D’EUROPA 2001, NOVELLO 2009: 33).

Oltre alla padronanza specifica di quanto dettagliato sopra, è richiesta la competenza passiva almeno nelle principali varietà diatopiche delle due lingue di lavoro. Gli stranieri che partecipano a vario titolo ai procedimenti giudiziari, infatti, hanno le provenienze più svariate e parlano spesso con accenti locali molto marcati, soprattutto nel caso di soggetti con scarsa scolarizzazione, e il loro dialetto tende a essere molto variabile (TRUDGILL 2004).

Infine, l’interprete è tenuto a conoscere l’*iter* del procedimento civile e penale del paese nel quale opera e le caratteristiche extralinguistiche e pragmatiche della situazione comunicativa. Fra queste, solo per citare alcuni esempi, vi è il rispetto dei turni di parola che sanciscono il ruolo specifico di tutti gli attori presenti in tribunale o il vincolo ad intervenire fuori dai turni in udienza solo se espressamente concesso dal giudice previa richiesta esplicita; o ancora, la propensione a tradurre usando la prima persona anziché la terza per questioni di rapidità (la ripetizione a ogni turno di parola dell’introduzione indiretta "dice che", "sostiene che", "ha dichiarato di" dilaterebbe infatti considerevolmente i tempi di parola, già estesi a causa dell’intervento traduttivo), e di scorrevolezza del flusso discorsivo, minimizzando l’idea della presenza di un filtro e favorendo quindi una comunicazione diretta fra le parti e non creando confusione sulla persona che interloquisce nei vari momenti (SANDRELLI 2011).

4. Un caso di studio di innovazione didattica

applicata all’interpretazione di tribunale

La proposta attuata presso il Dipartimento di Lingue e Culture Moderne dell’Università di Genova è nata da un progetto di Innovazione Didattica varato a livello di Ateneo che ha incentivato e finanziato la sperimentazione di nuove metodologie. Nell’ottica di introdurre proposte innovative, appunto, e incentrare la didattica su un’esperienza più coinvolgente e consapevole, il progetto promuove nuove linee e metodologie didattiche come per esempio attività laboratoriali, esperienze di apprendimento attraverso il gioco e il *role-play*, l’autovalutazione e il confronto con gli altri studenti (valutazione fra pari).

Al fine di monitorare e valutare le modalità di Innovazione Didattica proposte e il raggiungimento degli obiettivi formativi previsti, durante il corso sono intervenuti alcuni metodologi (psicologi e pedagogisti). La metodologia impiegata rispecchia l’impostazione altamente professionalizzante del Corso di Laurea LM94 che, per questa ragione, pone particolare enfasi sull'esposizione degli studenti a situazioni di lavoro realistiche. Oltre ai pedagogisti è anche intervenuto un giurista, che ha contribuito alle simulazioni nella fase preparatoria e di drammatizzazione, nella parte di operatore giudiziario (avvocato o giudice). Ciò ha permesso a studenti/tesse di confrontarsi in prima persona con chi poteva offrire loro un approfondimento dettagliato sulla preparazione e la conoscenza tematica dell’ambito giuridico.

Il secondo anno della laurea specialistica è stato scelto per ragioni di livello linguistico. Stabilito un livello meta della lingua straniera al C1/C2 del QCER (Quadro Comune Europeo di Riferimento per le Lingue) come dettagliato in precedenza, abbiamo considerato il secondo anno del corso magistrale il corso più adatto per lavorare con studenti/tesse che raggiungevano effettivamente il livello richiesto, e altri/e che possedevano un livello di padronanza dello spagnolo lievemente inferiore.

Il modulo del corso si è svolto durante un semestre con lezioni frontali di due ore ciascuna, per un totale di 30 ore. Le lezioni sono state pianificate e organizzate previamente, prevedendo una prima fase di ripasso terminologico e una seconda fase di applicazione pratica tramite le simulazioni, come descritto a seguire.

5. Programmazione del corso e metodologia

La prima fase del corso è stata dedicata alla familiarizzazione con alcuni contenuti disciplinari del discorso giuridico per i quali è intervenuto un avvocato. Quest'ultimo ha tracciato un quadro generale delle caratteristiche e della struttura del processo sia civile che penale in Italia. Inoltre, durante i vari incontri, ha specificato il ruolo dell'interprete nella giurisdizione civile e penale, approfondendo alcuni concetti specifici del campo: con l'obiettivo di dissipare i principali dubbi su questioni pratiche dell'ambiente di tribunale, ha dettagliato l'*iter* per il reclutamento degli interpreti e ha illustrato le dinamiche dei turni di parola degli interlocutori e di intervento degli interpreti in aula. L'avvocato ha inoltre partecipato alla preparazione e alla drammatizzazione di alcune simulazioni. Le lezioni erano frontali e interattive, vale a dire impostate sullo scambio di domande e curiosità da parte degli studenti, con presentazione di situazioni e avvenimenti realmente avvenuti in aula giudiziaria, per fornire loro esempi pratici.

La seconda fase del corso è stata dedicata alla preparazione terminologica degli studenti. Prima di ogni lezione veniva comunicato un macro-argomento sul quale documentarsi (la situazione, in particolare il tema e i partecipanti) e a partire dal quale provare a estrarre la terminologia specifica di riferimento. Talvolta veniva proposto un testo tematicamente affine da tradurre a vista in modo autonomo e che veniva poi nuovamente tradotto a vista e commentato in classe. Altre volte, infine, è stato consegnato agli studenti un breve *abstract* di presentazione della situazione della simulazione successiva precisando alcuni termini chiave: ad esempio quelli presenti in una situazione di interrogatorio a un imputato di furto con scasso erano *robo con escalo*, per cui è stato necessario precisare la differenza tra *hurto* e *robo*. In alternativa, per le simulazioni più complesse, sono stati forniti previamente i capitoli di prova delle situazioni che sarebbero state proposte. Sebbene consapevoli che in quest'ultimo caso venisse meno il principio di autenticità delle simulazioni stesse, dato che l'interprete spesso non dispone di queste informazioni dettagliate in anticipo, abbiamo deciso di procedere in questo modo per ragioni pedagogiche. Come osservano NIEMANTS e CIRILLO (2017: 12), infatti, nonostante gli studenti debbano essere preparati per la complessità dell’interpretazione nel mondo reale, nell’ambiente classe e durante la fase di apprendimento risulta più che mai utile riproporre situazioni sì reali, ma comunque rispettando una progressione di difficoltà. A questo proposito NIEMANTS e CIRILLO precisano:

> […] scripted role-plays (SRP) are a valuable teaching tool, especially if framed by a briefing and a debriefing phase, which ground the activity in its simulated interpreting context, and performed at an early stage of the learning path, where learners need to familiarize themselves with the linguistic, cultural and interactional dilemmas that can emerge from teachers’ research and practice, and which can be carefully dosed and monitored according to the learners’ level of expertise (NIEMANTS e CIRILLO 2017: 12).

La documentazione tematica e terminologica veniva condotta dapprima autonomamente come ricerca a casa. Successivamente, in classe, veniva chiesto a studenti/tesse criteri e logiche di ricerca per l’individuazione dei termini e da quali fonti di documentazione questi fossero stati tratti. Inoltre, venivano svolti esercizi di anticipazione dei possibili contenuti attraverso un brainstorming collettivo, al fine di individuare con chiarezza che cosa aspettarsi dalla simulazione.

La terza fase, infine, è stata dedicata alle simulazioni. Venivano inscenate delle drammatizzazioni a partire da situazioni diverse; uno studente alla volta veniva chiamato a impersonare l’interprete e a tradurre, mentre i due docenti assumevano rispettivamente il ruolo dell’indagato/imputato e dell’operatore giudiziario, recitando uno in L1, l’altro in L2. Dapprima sono state proposte simulazioni con comunicazione con due interlocutori e con partecipazione del mediatore/interprete (avvocato-interprete-indagato/imputato; funzionario-interprete-immigrato/richiedente asilo). Nella parte conclusiva del modulo, anche il giurista ha preso parte alle drammatizzazioni interpretando i ruoli di giudice, avvocato dell’accusa o della difesa, e creando situazioni comunicative più complesse dal punto di vista dei turni di parola, dal momento che potevano intervenire fino a tre interlocutori oltre l’interprete.

Le simulazioni derivano da situazioni realmente avvenute in tribunale proposte dal giurista, debitamente modificate in conformità con le norme di rispetto della privacy. Altre simulazioni sono state invece ideate e adattate dai docenti. Tutte le simulazioni sono state registrate previo consenso firmato da studenti/tesse frequentanti. L'esame di profitto è consistito in una simulazione con massimo due interlocutori (i docenti, uno di L1 e uno di L2) oltre all’interprete. Al fine di riproporre quanto più fedelmente una situazione potenzialmente reale in aula di tribunale, studenti/tesse sono stati/e valutati/e in situazioni di carattere giuridico con terminologia vista in classe in precedenza, con aggiunta di lessico di uso comune in entrambe le lingue ("panchina", "cornice", "cassetto", ecc.). A partire da questi elementi si intendeva verificare se la competenza comunicativa, e in particolare lessicale, fosse sufficiente per produrre una descrizione informativa e fluida di situazioni complesse che non necessariamente comportavano difficoltà terminologiche (si trattava infatti della descrizione di una colluttazione e dei movimenti di un ladro all’interno di un appartamento). Si intendeva inoltre individuare la capacità di applicazione di strategie interpretative per superare eventuali problemi traduttivi (prevalentemente lacune lessicali).

6. Problemi e strategie identificati dagli studenti a livello terminologico

Per "problema" nel processo traduttivo si intende, seguendo la definizione proposta da HURTADO ALBIR, «difficulties (linguistic, extralinguistic, etc.) of an objective nature which the translator can encounter when carrying out a translation task» (HURTADO ALBIR 2017). Per definire la risoluzione del problema traduttivo con cui il traduttore e l’interprete si confrontano nello svolgimento del loro lavoro, il gruppo PACTE ha proposto un modello di competenza traduttiva (Translation Competence, TC). La prima versione del modello di TC individuava sei sottocompetenze, correlate fra loro e proposte, come a seguire, in ordine gerarchico: competenza comunicativa bilingue; competenza extralinguistica; competenza strumentale-professionale; competenza psicofisiologica; competenza di riformulazione; competenza strategica (HURTADO ALBIR 2017). Queste competenze vengono utilizzate per la risoluzione dei problemi traduttivi stessi e delle difficoltà riscontrate. Nell’identificazione e nella ricerca di una soluzione ai problemi traduttivi, il gruppo PACTE identifica inoltre diverse difficoltà traduttive e le suddivide in cinque gruppi (PACTE 2011), fra cui le difficoltà linguistiche (lessicali o morfosintattiche) e le difficoltà extralinguistiche. Nel caso delle difficoltà di tipo linguistico, è significativa la distinzione fra difficoltà di comprensione (carenze nella conoscenza della lingua di partenza) e di riformulazione (carenza nell'uso della lingua di arrivo). In entrambi i casi, quando si incontrano terminologia specifica e termini tecnici, sia in L1 che in L2,

> reference is made to a linguistic difficulty of reformulation of terminology since this is a special case linked to extralinguistic knowledge. Examples: "I've never heard this word before" (linguistic comprehension); "I didn't know how to say it in X" (linguistic reformulation); "Difficulty in finding the exact term" (linguistic reformulation of terminology) (PACTE 2011).

Da qui, la suddivisione più specifica delle difficoltà linguistiche in difficoltà di comprensione; difficoltà di riformulazione; difficoltà di riformulazione di terminologia. Nel confrontarsi con un problema traduttivo di tipo linguistico, l'interprete può ricorrere a numerose strategie fra cui, solo per citarne alcune: utilizzo di espressioni di riempimento, condensazione e fusione di frasi, generalizzazione, esplicitazione del termine ambiguo e trasformazioni morfosintattiche (MORELLI 2010).

Durante il processo traduttivo delle simulazioni da noi proposte sono state numerose le difficoltà e i problemi riscontrati da studenti/tesse specie a livello linguistico, con risultati diversi. Per riportare degli esempi, proponiamo parte dei copioni creati *ad hoc* per le simulazioni dei due appelli dell'esame di profitto previsto dal modulo, entrambi con la stessa struttura: massimo due interlocutori oltre all'interprete/mediatore, in situazioni di interrogatorio in aula di tribunale di un imputato da parte dell'accusa. Nel caso del primo appello, l'imputato era accusato di furto con scasso e violazione di domicilio, nel secondo caso l'accusa a suo carico era invece di aggressione e violenza aggravata, con detenzione abusiva di armi. Variando la dinamica del reato, variava quindi una parte del lessico, ma non della terminologia: è anche grazie a questa proposta che si mette in luce come lo/a studente con una competenza linguistica lessicale più forte in spagnolo (S1) sia quello che ha ottenuto un risultato (e un voto) più soddisfacente nella prova, facendo ricorso ad alcune delle strategie sopracitate (omissione, generalizzazione, esplicitazione, condensazione), mentre lo studente 2 (S2), sulla stessa terminologia, ha riscontrato difficoltà di tipo lessicale, non individuando i traducenti di parole prive di specificità alcuna e di uso comune. [2]

(1)

IT: Secondo il *verbale* della testimonianza della mia assistita // rilasciato quella stessa sera del 27 marzo 2019 // e *messo agli atti* presso il comando dei Carabinieri…

S1: El testigo confirmó aquella misma noche del 27 de marzo de 2019 / con un testimonio publicado por los Carabinieri / que…

S2: Según el acta / del testimonio que dejó mi cliente el mismo día 27 de marzo de 2019 // y el acta que fue también confirmado ante los Carabinieri…

Nell'esempio (1) si nota come S1 ricorra alla strategia dapprima di omissione e riformulazione (in mancanza immediata del traducente spagnolo del termine "verbale", lo omette, riformulandone parzialmente il significato con l'espressione *el testigo confirmó*) e, posteriormente, di condensazione (la frase in spagnolo risulta più breve e non rispetta la struttura proposta dall'italiano "secondo…", ma viene completamente cambiata, pur non inficiandone il senso generale). S2, al contrario, traduce correttamente il termine "verbale" con lo spagnolo *acta*, a dimostrazione di una buona preparazione terminologica dell'ambito giuridico, ma produce una resa più debole dal punto di vista grammaticale, lessicale e della scorrevolezza (omissione del momento della giornata che veniva precisato essere «sera»; ripetizione di *y el acta* senza un motivo giustificato, elemento che appesantisce la frase).

(2)

IT: Secondo l'articolo 372 // comma quarto // del *Codice di Procedura Penale*, […].

S1: Conforme al artículo 372 // párrafo 4 […].

S2: Según el artículo 372 // apartado 4 // del Código de Enjuiciamiento Penal, […].

(3)

IT: Lei è uscita a mani vuote dall'abitazione // non ha frugato in nessun *cassetto* // non si è neppure allontanata dalla finestra da cui aveva fatto irruzione.

S1: Usted salió sin nada en las manos // o sea // ni siquiera abrió un cajón / y ni siquiera se alejó de la ventana de la que había entrado en la casa.

S2: Usted se fue sin robar nada // ni siquiera intentó abrir los armarios // los muebles / y ni siquiera se alejó del sitio en que se encontraba.

Vediamo insieme gli esempi (2) e (3) sopra riportati. Nel primo caso, S1 ricorre alla strategia di omissione in mancanza immediata del traducente spagnolo di «Codice di Procedura Penale», con una lacuna quindi nel riportare parte del contenuto del TP, ma senza influenzare negativamente il significato o la comprensibilità dell'intervento dell'avvocato; S2, nuovamente, dimostra una buona preparazione terminologica proponendo invece il traducente «Código de Enjuiciamiento Penal». Tuttavia, come si evince dall'esempio (3) poco dopo, S2 dimostra anche di riscontrare difficoltà nel reperimento del traducente spagnolo della parola «cassetto», scegliendo di ricorrere a iperonimi e generalizzazioni (*armarios*, *muebles*) e modificando, però, il contenuto del TP.

(4)

ES: Yo sí, la empujé // pero cuando salimos / fue ella la que me amenazó con una *navaja*.

S1: È vero che l'ho spinta / ma quando siamo uscite dal locale / è lei che mi ha minacciata con un'arma bianca // un coltello.

S2: Io sì l'ho spinta / ma quando ci siamo spostate fuori dal locale // mi ha minacciato // con // con un'accetta.

Come da esempio (4), S1 in mancanza del traducente italiano di *navaja* ricorre dapprima alla generalizzazione, comunque coerente, proponendo «arma bianca» e traducendo poi con «coltello», dimostrandosi più strategico. S2, invece, non attua nessun tipo di strategia per aggirare l'ostacolo lessicale, con un risultante scostamento di significato rispetto al testo di partenza.

(5)

IT: È esatto dire che l'incontro è avvenuto casualmente // su una delle *panchine* del parco?

S1: ¿Es cierto que Ustedes se encontraron / pero sin quedar // sin tener una cita // sentadas en uno de los bancos en el parque?

S2: ¿Es cierto decir que su primer encuentro ocurrió por casualidad, // en // en una de /// de las mesas / que están en el parque?

Come riportato nell'esempio (5), S2 pare riscontrare difficoltà nel reperimento del traducente spagnolo della parola "panchina" (*banco*), però anziché ometterlo, opta di tradurlo con *mesa* (tavolo/tavolino), portando l'imputata, nella continuazione della simulazione, a dichiarare che non era esatto quanto affermato, poiché l'incontro in questione non era avvenuto a un tavolino. A questo punto, S2 prova a ricorrere alla strategia di esplicitazione («las mesas donde se pueden sentar en el parque // con las sillas//»), esplicitando tuttavia il termine *mesa* e non "panchina", come da TP. S1, pur non riuscendo a tradurre "casualmente" (*por casualidad*), ottiene un risultato migliore nella resa, riformulando e senza inficiare il significato originale («pero sin quedar»).

Di seguito viene fornito un ulteriore esempio a dimostrazione della difficoltà da parte di S2 del reperimento di lessico di uso comune nella lingua spagnola, durante la resa.

(6)

IT: Quel giorno ha individuato Lei // in piedi // con una *cornice* in mano.

S1: Aquel día / vio a Usted // de pie // con un marco en las manos.

S2: Aquel día / ha visto Usted // de pie // con // aquella parte de las fotos // de la que // con /// aquella parte de las fotos que sirve para tener la foto dentro.

Come si evince dall’esempio (6), il problema traduttivo è per S2 il mancato reperimento del traducente spagnolo per la parola "cornice" (*marco*). Nel tentativo di esplicitare questa parola, incorre però in numerose e lunghe esitazioni e pause, risultando in una resa molto verbosa e senza, fra le altre cose, terminare di tradurre la frase (manca «en las manos») e incorrendo nell’ulteriore errore di creare un calco italiano-spagnolo con il verbo *tener*. In S2 si riscontrano, inoltre, molte carenze grammaticali, tra cui confusione sull’utilizzo dei tempi verbali (uso del *pretérito perfecto* «ha visto» al posto del *pretérito indefinido* «vio») e mancanza della marca dell’accusativo di persona spagnolo *a* («ha visto Usted»).

Osservazioni conclusive

La tendenza evidenziata nei frammenti delle prove finali qui presentati è stata che S1, che aveva peraltro già dimostrato a lezione di potere contare su una preparazione linguistica più solida e di saper gestire meglio la comunicazione, pur riscontrando talvolta lacune terminologiche, è stato in grado di attuare strategie di esplicitazione, omissione, riformulazione e o condensazione in modo flessibile e adeguato per compensare i problemi traduttivi riscontrati. S2, invece, talvolta ha tradotto senza difficoltà termini ed espressioni specializzati come "verbale", "testimonianza", "mettere agli atti", "codice di procedura penale" o "comma", ma non sempre è stata in grado di superare problemi di lessico non specialistico, anche verso la propria lingua madre. È a partire da queste prime osservazioni che è nata la nostra riflessione sul rapporto tra terminologia, lessico e traduzione nell’ambito dell’interpretazione giuridica.

Se, dunque, la preparazione terminologica è essenziale nella traduzione del discorso specializzato, tuttavia interagisce costantemente con altre componenti della competenza traduttiva. In questo caso di studio (in un contesto di apprendimento, nel quale non era ancora richiesta una qualità di resa professionale) la conoscenza terminologica non è risultata l’elemento determinante per la riuscita della comunicazione e, più in generale, per il superamento dell’esame di profitto del corso. Lo studente con una competenza linguistica relativamente più solida (S1) è riuscito a compensare carenze terminologiche e lessicali grazie all'attuazione di strategie. Ciò sembra confermare l'idea di una gerarchia di competenze, la prima delle quali, come suggerisce PACTE (2001) è la competenza bilingue, ma anche la competenza strategica, in grado di compensare in parte carenze terminologiche. Nel caso di (S2), invece, la solida preparazione terminologica non compensa la debolezza linguistica e strategica. Naturalmente non è possibile in alcun modo trarre generalizzazioni, tuttavia l'esperienza del corso suggerisce l'opportunità di approfondire il ruolo della sottocompetenza terminologica all'interno della competenza traduttiva orale e la sua interazione con gli altri componenti della stessa.

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Note

↑ 1 REAL ACADEMIA ESPAÑOLA, *Diccionario del español jurídico*, *https://dej.rae.es/* (ultima consultazione 20/05/2020).

↑ 2 Negli esempi forniti di seguito, viene indicato con "S1" lo studente che più facilmente e più spesso è riuscito a ricorrere a strategie efficaci per compensare problemi traduttivi e terminologici. Viene indicato con "S2" lo studente che, pur con buona preparazione terminologica specifica, ha riscontrato notevoli difficoltà nel reperimento di parole di uso comune in entrambe le lingue, inficiando in tal modo la sua resa.

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The Interplay between Terminology and Translation: Taking Terminology Translation in the Field of Civil Aviation from English into Chinese as an Example

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Hui LIU

Table

Abstract

Since English has firmly and irreversibly established itself as the first language of world communication, it is commonly referred to as a lingua franca and exerts a profound influence on other languages. It is even so for civil aviation (CA) which is a fast-developing and interdisciplinary field. Based on linguistic analyses of terms in the field of CA as well as analyses concerning linguistic and trans-linguistic factors for the translation of CA terms from English into Chinese, the author concludes that in the field of CA, the influence English exerts on Chinese is extensive and that Chinese has been enriched during its contact with English.

Grazie al suo consolidamento come lingua dominante nella comunicazione internazionale, l'inglese viene spesso definito lingua franca ed esercita una profonda influenza su altre lingue. È quanto accade nella terminologia dell'aviazione civile, un ambito interdisciplinare in rapido sviluppo. Sulla base di un'analisi di termini dell'aviazione civile, che prende in considerazione fattori linguistici e interlinguistici della traduzione dall'inglese in cinese, l'autrice conclude che nel campo dell'aviazione civile l'inglese esercita una profonda influenza sulla terminologia cinese e ha contribuito ad arricchirla.

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1. Introduction

According to CABRÉ (2005), terminology and translation studies are two emerging disciplines that differ from each other in focus and aim. However, they also share similarities and are in many aspects complementary. For instance, translation and terminology are both highly context-dependent (FAINI 2018). Terminology resources assist translators in the structuring of specialized knowledge in a certain domain, which is part of translation competence. Translation has also played a significant role in developing terminology as a discipline and as a practice since it has contributed significantly to enrich the lexicons of many languages (PRANDI & ROSSI 2017). This paper analyzes the extent to which English has influenced Chinese by comparing and contrasting Civil Aviation (CA) terms in English with their respective Chinese translations.

2. Previous research

2.1 Studies on the interplay between terminology and translation

Although there is no entry for "terminology translation" in the *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies* (BAKER 2004), it seems to be widely accepted that there is a close relation between terminology and translation. This is because «firstly, translators are major users of terminology, in the sense of the technical or special terms or expressions used in a given discipline, profession or activity. Secondly, terminology as a method of collecting, grouping together and structuring sets of terms peculiar to given subject areas, was developed and practiced largely by translators» (ROBERTS 1985: 343). Following ROBERTS, there are a large number of academic works addressing the connection between terminology and translation (HARTMANN & JAMES 1998, CABRÉ 1999, BAKER 2004, FABER 2009, BOWKER 2015, WEI 2018), which focus either on the benefits terminology brings to translation or vice versa.

In the context of the Chinese language, however, most terminology scholars and researchers treat terminology as lexicology. This may be partly attributed to the historical research of neologisms which were introduced in the 19th century and to the work China undertook for the standardization of terms during the first few years of the 20th century (WEN 2011). As a result, translation strategies and methods for terms are highly popular research topics in China (see, e.g. LIU 2000, FAN 2001, JIANG 2005, WANG 2019). Other related studies focus on the terminological competence of translators (WANG 2011, HAO & ZHANG 2015), and on the relation between terminology management and translation management (WANG & WANG 2019).

Every field, be it in social or natural sciences, is loaded with preconceptions, and terminology in the Chinese context is no exception. Much debate among science historians to determine which factors were liable for the absence of China during the invention of modern science, has taken place over the past few decades (ALLETON 2001). Although the Chinese language has not been considered a determining factor according to influential authors such as Joseph NEEDHAM (1970), a widely spread opinion is that the Chinese language and writing system hindered the integration of foreign words into Chinese. For instance, LOW (1995) holds that contact with modern science in China was mediated by the Japanese language. Although such a claim fails to take social and political factors into account, it undoubtedly proves the importance of terms for translation and the development of a society.

2.2 Studies on the translation of Civil Aviation (CA) terminology

The first linguistic contribution to the translation of terms from foreign languages into Chinese was made by GAO & LIU (1958), proposing four formal relations between the source word in a foreign language and the Chinese counterpart, i.e. imitation of sounds, translation based on meaning, transposition of the pattern and hybrids. However, academic work on CA terminology and translation only started in China in 2004, as several journal articles dealt with how translation should tackle CA terms. Related studies later include CA dictionaries (ZHOU 2010), the relationship between CA development and terminology translation (CHEN & ZHOU 2013) and the teaching of CA terminology (ZHU 2016). Additionally, there are CA textbooks and historical aviation works that address CA terminology and related translation issues. Topics concerning the translation of CA terms outside China include language features of CA (MODERN 2013: 227-242), problems caused by language and communication (CUTTING 2011, HOWARD 2008), and standards promulgated by ICAO (MODERN & HALLECK 2009).

Besides the official efforts made towards the translation of CA terms, several government units and organizations in China have compiled glossaries in the form of pamphlets and distributed them on a small scale - e.g. *Terms in Aeronautical Science and Technology* issued by China National Committee for Terms in Sciences and Technologies - CNCTST in 2004. However, they have not yet gained comprehensive coverage and authoritativeness.

Yet, with air traffic rapidly expanding worldwide, CA has become increasingly relevant to other fields, including chemistry, physics, geography, astronomy, computer science and communications. Terminology in CA is also influenced by the concepts and terms in these fields. As a result, terms in CA display a cross-domain nature, requiring frequent updating and undoubtedly increasing the difficulty of translation and related studies. It is not only difficult for *Terms in Aeronautical Science and Technology* (2004) issued by CNCTST to include all the terminology in CA, but also hard for researchers to find references for terms in CA on a wider Chinese-speaking world (e.g. in Taiwan).

3. English as a lingua franca for Civil Aviation

Civil aviation is one of the two major categories of flying, representing all non-military aviation, both private and commercial. It is a fast-developing field and its language requires extreme precision.

English has been used widely as a lingua franca in CA for several decades (FARRIS 2016: 54). The status of English as a lingua franca has been officialized since the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) published and introduced *The Manual on the Implementation of ICAO Language Proficiency Requirements* (LPRs) for aviation personnel in 2004. As a specialized agency of the United Nations (UN), ICAO was established in 1944 when 52 nations signed the *Convention on International Civil Aviation* (also known as *Chicago Convention*) on Dec. 7th that year. Aiming to ensure the safety of domestic and international air traffic, ICAO has developed a series of international Standards and Recommended Practices (SARPs) for national aviation authorities in member states, to use and share when they are creating compatible rules and regulations of their own. At present, ICAO has 193 member states and China is one of them.

ICAO SARPs recommend that English should be «made available for international radiotelephony communications» (ICAO 2010) and «where the ground and the crew do not share the same native language» (FARRIS 2016: 54). As a result, English has become the main language in CA and exerts a profound influence on other languages. All ICAO member states, including China, have to harmonize their regulations with those of ICAO, which also means that they need to translate and standardize their terminology based on the English version.

4. The development of CA in China

When considering the timeline of CA development in China, it was not until 1930 that China Airlines was founded, although the Air Affairs Office had been established under the then Ministry of Transport in 1919. In 1931, another representative Chinese airline company, Eurasia Airlines, was established. In November 1949, China established the Civil Aviation Administration under the supervision of the Military Commission. Five years later, the State Council took charge of the Civil Aviation Administration and the Civil Aviation Administration of China (CAAC) is now under the supervision of the Ministry of Transport. Nowadays, the CAAC regulates flight safety as well as the ground safety of CA, and formulates industry development strategy including mid- and long-term plans for CA in China. Following China's Reform and Opening-Up period, more aircraft models and safety standards were introduced, propelling China's CA industry. Today, China is already a CA power as it is the world's second-largest aviation economy and is predicted to become the largest one in 2030 (BOEING 2018).

However, CA is still a very new field in China that only gained popularity and significance after the country aligned with ICAO and subsequently adhered to related regulations in 1983. Since it became a member state of ICAO, China has been trying hard to harmonize its regulations and laws with those of ICAO and prepare its version of these documents. As a result, the first task China had to fulfill to harmonize its regulations and laws with those of ICAO was to translate and standardize the relevant terminology, this is also because «the various uses of civil aviation data such as analyses related to safety, security and the efficiency of civil aviation and its environmental impact as well as forecasting and planning, require a suitable classification and a clear definition of civil aviation activities» (ICAO 2009).

In November 2001, the Group of Discipline Inspection, or Bureau of Supervision Stationed, of CAAC and the Bureau of Aviation Security of CAAC issued the *Civil Aviation Glossary*. Although this document incorporates the translation of several ICAO terms, it is mainly a translation of the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA)'s ORDER 1000.15A *FAA Glossary* [1], which brings together the terminology and definitions most commonly used by the FAA at work.

Another important work concerning CA terms and their translations in China is *Terms in Aeronautical Science and Technology* (2004) published by China National Committee for Terms in Sciences and Technologies (CNCTSC), an organization authorized by the State Council of China to examine and publish scientific and technological terms on behalf of the country. The work started as early as 1993, when the National Natural Science Terminology Committee (former name of CNCTSC) established the Aviation Branch Committee made up of CA practitioners and a research team from the Department of Personnel, Science, Technology and Education of CAAC. Completing the revision in 1996, experts held discussions concerning aviation terminology by the Aviation Branch Committee of CNCTST. Finally, the work was approved by the CNCTST in 2002 and published in 2004.

5. Features of terms in the field of CA

A very brief overview of the features of terms in the field of CA is provided in this section. English and Chinese examples are given in small capitals and italics respectively, with a symbol ”>””/””

5.1 CA terms: homonyms and synonyms

Homonymous terms abound in the field of CA, for instance, the term ”abandon” has two meanings, 1) to bail out or eject out of an aircraft and let it crash and 2) to talk away or leave an aircraft on the ground in an emergency as when it is on fire (KUMAR, REMER & MARSHALL 2002: 11); the term ”aberration” has three meanings: 1) a condition in an optical system in which the images are imperfect or improperly located; 2) geometrical inaccuracies introduced by optical, IR (infrared), or similar electromagnetic systems in which radiation is processed by mirrors and 3) the displacement of the apparent directions of the stars resulting from the motion of the observer (KUMAR, REMER & MARSHALL 2002: 11).

Additionally, synonyms, i.e. the phenomenon of more than one term to designate a single concept, are present in a lot of CA terms in both English and Chinese, which follows CABR□’s statement (1999: 109). 设计者/设计师>designer and destruction test/rapture test>破坏试验 are two examples.

5.2 CA terms: morphosyntactic aspects

Nouns and verbs are predominant in CA terms and most nouns and verbs are polylexical units. In addition, there are a small number of terms made up of a single word, which are either simple terms or complex terms formed by processes such as compounding, affixation, clipping and conversion.

The most frequent affixes for terms in the field of CA are agentive suffixes -er and gerund suffixes -ing. Due to the pragmatic requirements of terminology, i.e. the need for concision of a terminological unit (MILIĆ 2015), there are also a great many clippings, of which the majority are acronyms and initialisms. Acronyms include names of related organizations and authorities, e.g. ICAO (International Civil Aviation Organization), IATA (International Air Transport Association) and FAA (Federal Aviation Administration). Examples for initialisms include BUEC, i.e. backup emergency communications, and SFCIN, i.e. specific fuel consumption installed.

Polylexical units, or sometimes called multi-word terms (BABI□ 1990: 36), phrasal lexemes (LIPKA 2002: 79), or terminological phrases (LEDREW 1997: 31), differ from other terms in that they consist of more than one word and may include collocations (e.g. access taxiway>进入滑行道), syntagms (e.g. active runway>现用跑道), clauses (e.g. request further climb>请求进一步上升) as well as full sentences (e.g. liquids may only be carried within separate containers, each of which with a volume no greater than 100ml>液体物品只可装入独立容器内，每个容器容积不超过100毫升。), especially when it comes to official signals. Due to the language differences, i.e. Chinese is a non-inflectional language while English is an inflectional one, these terms, or polylexical units, share similarity merely through polylexicality, as the constituent words are governed by language-specific morphosyntax.

6. Translating terminology in CA from English into Chinese

6.1 Linguistic factors

6.1.1 The syllable and imitation of sounds

As modern Chinese does not have many consonant clusters, it is rather difficult to translate CA terms via unmodified phonetic borrowing just like what happened in Japan during its first opening to the West. A small number of CA terms that fall into this category of translation, i.e. imitation of sounds or transliteration, can be mainly divided into two categories: new unit of measurement (e.g. hertz> 赫兹, Joule>焦耳, gauss>高斯 and volt>伏特) and new material, and discoveries or inventions (e.g. Freon>氟利昂 and skydrol>斯开德劳尔).

6.1.2 Morphology and word-formation

Because the Chinese language is syllabic and without inflections, for nouns that constitute the majority of the new terms in CA, the most productive pattern for translation is compounding them as coordinate (e.g. ablation rate>烧灼速度 and airline network>航线网), and determinative (e.g. ejection seat>弹射座椅 and airport terminal>机场候机室/候机楼). Of these two constructions, determinative is more productive or common, as the determining elements precede the determined ones.

6.1.3 Written and spoken forms

Contrary to the idea of domination of the written language, when technical procedures and scientific results are being communicated, the spoken language as the carrier of hypotheses and demonstrations is equally important, if not more important, than the written language, let alone that even a silent reading implies phonetization (ALLETON 2001). Additionally, many neologisms that were created based on phonetics were coined by professionals engaging in commercial and technical activities rather than translators or language experts. As a result, their usage is unsystematic.

Secondly, phonetic similarity is not always an advantage for internationalization, especially for those who are not speaking the source language. Since Chinese has four tones, similar pronunciation with only tone differences can be represented by multiple characters with diverse meanings (e.g. mā-妈, i.e. mother, má-麻, i.e. hemp, mǎ-马, i.e. horse and mà-骂, i.e. curse). Even if a speaker is familiar with the source language, a potential risk leading to misinterpretation might occur.

Thirdly, the formal relationship between the word in English and the new word coined in Chinese is sometimes valid only for a short time. For instance, when " laser", which refers to a device that emits light through a process of optical amplification based on the stimulated emission of electromagnetic radiation, was first translated into Chinese, the translation was 鐳射, that is, a transliteration of the pronunciation, instead of the now more commonly used and accepted word 激光. The latter translation is better than the former because 光 is the translation of the word " light" (the central " player" of laser), while 鐳 is the Chinese translation of the radioactive element " radium", which has nothing to do with laser.

6.2 Trans-linguistic factors

6.2.1 English as the source language and the impact of translation on Chinese vocabulary

As mentioned earlier in this paper, English is the lingua franca as well as a source language for CA, although admittedly outstanding Chinese intellectuals' translations of English words also played a decisive role in the creation and introduction of new words in Chinese, especially during the 19th century. However, when modern chemistry laid its foundations in the late 18th century, terms that were made up of entirely new words with specific rules were created in both

English and French by following the basic principles of this new science (GUYTON 1787), rather than by borrowing terms from either one of these two languages. Besides, the determining-determined structure of Chinese terms tends to suggest a foreign origin, as found by researchers such as WANG (1980) and MASINI (1993: 121-127) among others. Based on this hypothesis, MASINI concludes that changes in the Chinese language, especially those in a scientific and technical context, result from the input of western concepts.

6.2.2 Social and historical factors

In Chinese, there is a preference for the translation of foreign words, including terms, rather than using phonetic transpositions. Such a method was employed as early as in the Xuanzang period (600-664) and is based on the language differences and the difficulties of Chinese.

Additionally, throughout Chinese translation history, the relationship between Chinese and foreign translators has been another important factor. For instance, English-speaking missionaries, primarily those in the Tongwenguan (a government school teaching Western languages) and the Shanghai Arsenal (ALLETON 2001), played a central role in the latter half of the 19th century. Even in the Tongwenguan institution, the only one financed by Chinese, translation projects were under the control of professors who had other nationalities. As a result, they dominated the translation work and translations became "western enterprises with Chinese assistance" (ALLETON 2001) instead of international collaboration and achievements. From around 1900, the Chinese began to take full responsibility for their terminologies. From then on, terminologies and their translations were more based on the usage of the Chinese language.

7. Some problems in translating CA terms from English into Chinese

In addition to the factors mentioned in the previous sections, attention should be paid to certain issues encountered in the process of translating CA terms from English into Chinese.

Firstly, inconsistency resulting from the use of CA terms in various English-speaking countries (e.g. 复飞>waive off in British English and go round in American English), industries, disciplines (e.g. integrity>完整性 in mathematics and computer science; integrity>完好性/完善性 in aeronautics and navigation), and professionals (e.g. engine>发动机/引擎) will lead to different translations of the same term. For example, the phenomenon of polysemy and multi-translations for the same term are still common, which reflects the dynamic characteristics of term translations. Besides, as language and technology keep developing, people's understanding of terms will deepen.

Secondly, when the People's Republic of China introduced former Soviet aircrafts and aviation technology in the 1950s, China also adopted Russian translations of many CA terms. For instance, the Chinese term 航向台, that is, the landing system, instrument is translated from Russian rather than from English, i.e. localizer. Therefore, in actual usage, CA terminology in China is also affected by Russian, a factor that should also be taken into account when conducting CA terminology translations and the standardization of Chinese CA terms.

Thirdly, some of the already existing terms were used inconsistently, especially in large Chinese-speaking areas. Until the late 1940s, the same vocabulary was used in China and Taiwan in basic aerodynamics, aeronautical meteorology, and aeromedicine. However, in the 1950s, mainland China gradually adopted some of the translations from Russian. In general, CA terms used in a broader Chinese-speaking area differ in three aspects: 1) terms used in the mainland are mainly based on the words used in Mandarin, whereas different idioms and words are used in Taiwan as there are more southerners; 2) mainland China conducted text reform in the 1950s. As a result, simplified Chinese characters are used, some words have been abandoned, some homonyms were wiped out, and new differences were created; 3) terms used in Hong Kong are greatly influenced by Cantonese. And terms used in Macao are both influenced by Cantonese and Portuguese (SHENG & OU 1992).

Finally, abbreviations in CA are another interesting topic. Sometimes terms and abbreviations can be kept as they are, i.e. by using the so-called zero translation method. The international nature of CA enables both English and Chinese professionals in the industry to understand a large number of English terms. Therefore, zero translation method of CA terms is not a temporary method or expedient measure, nor is it limited to abbreviations and measurement units. It also includes a variety of instrument display options, information on the panels, lights, valves, and warnings.

8. Conclusion

WÜSTER proposed in 1975 that «special attention» should be attached to «the future three aspects of the interface between General Theory of Terminology and Translation Studies», namely, «the didactic, the practical and the theoretical aspects» (BÜHLER 1982: 426). Moreover, a successful and effective terminology translation will lead to positive communication and dissemination of the field and culture in particular.

Widely used as a lingua franca in CA, English has been exerting huge impact on other languages including Chinese. On the one hand, it is easily perceived that the influence of English is enormous, at least as far as the vocabulary of CA is concerned. On the other hand, due to the language variations between English and Chinese, the effect English has on Chinese syntax may not be directly felt, and is rather limited to the lexical, morphological and phonological levels. At the same time, the Chinese language and its vitality further enriched during the contact with the English language.

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Note

↑ 1 Although FAA ORDER 1000.15A *FAA Glossary* was issued on December 1st, 1975, and cancelled on October 1st, 1990, it is still widely accepted as an influential document in professional circles. Its translation, *Civil Aviation Glossary,* published by CAAC is used by practitioners of the CA profession in China.

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Traduzione e terminologia

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Framing the Concepts in Specialized Texts: a Cognitive Approach to Terms in Qantas 32 Investigation Report and Their Translations

Framing the Concepts in Specialized Texts: a Cognitive Approach to Terms in Qantas 32 Investigation Report and Their Translations

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Table

摘要

术语在现代科技体系中占据着越来越重要的地位，而译者的术语能力也是一项基本素质要求。过去十年，术语学正经历认知方向的转变。法贝尔(2005)以认知语言学为基础提出框架术语学，强调“概念网”的建立。英语是国际民航的通用语言。随着全球民航业的发展，培养非英语母语译者的民航术语能力至关重要。通过节选澳航32号航班事故调查报告进行汉译，依托框架型术语学，从概念网建立、术语单元组合、图像确认三方面，结合实例探讨其对专门用语翻译的指导意义以及对译者术语能力培养的影响。

关键词

民航术语；术语翻译；框架术语学；术语能力

Abstract

Terminology plays a vital role in modern science and technology. Likewise, terminological competence is an essential requirement for all translation professionals. Based on the cognitive linguistics approach, FABER, MÁRQUEZ & VEGA (2005) developed a frame-based terminology model, highlighting the importance of establishing a conceptual network. English is the *de facto* language for international civil aviation. It proves a crucial challenge to non-native speakers of English to improve their terminological competence for translation in this domain. To develop terminological competence in translation, we translated 10 sections of the *Qantas Flight 32 Occurrence Investigation Report* from English to Chinese. Drawing from FABER, MÁRQUEZ & VEGA's model, we explored the make–up of terminological competence in specialized translation from three parts, i.e. establishing a conceptual network, collocating terminological units and verifying them using images.

La terminologia svolge un ruolo centrale nella scienza e tecnologia del mondo contemporaneo. Analogamente, la competenza terminologica è un requisito essenziale per tutti i traduttori professionisti. Sfruttando un approccio legato alla linguistica cognitiva, FABER, MÁRQUEZ & VEGA (2005) hanno sviluppato un modello terminologico basato sul concetto di *frame* nel quale è centrale la determinazione di una rete concettuale. L'inglese è di fatto la lingua dell'aviazione civile internazionale e dunque i parlanti non madrelingua sono posti di fronte alla sfida di migliorare le proprie competenze terminologiche per tradurre in questo specifico settore. Nel contributo proponiamo uno studio di caso relativo alla traduzione di 10 sezioni del *Qantas Flight 32 Occurrence Investigation Report* dall'inglese al cinese. Sulla base del modello di FABER, MÁRQUEZ & VEGA, esploriamo i tre elementi che contribuiscono alla costruzione della competenza terminologica: la costruzione di una rete concettuale, l'ubicazione delle unità terminologiche all'interno di essa e la verifica per immagini.

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1. Introduction

One of the major concerns for Terminology lies in the description of concepts. In the past two decades, the cognitive aspect of lexical units and their impact have gained more attention. Similarly to Linguistics, Terminology has also been affected by the cognitive shift, which has led both disciplines to focus increasingly on the conceptual network underlying language (FABER 2012: 286). It is not an accident that such theories have gradually merged with Translation Studies.

Officially mandated by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), English is «the de facto language for international civil aviation» (ALDERSON 2011: 387). As a comprehensive but specialized subset of English, aviation English includes “plain” language used for radiotelephony communications when phraseologies do not suffice. Not restricted to controller and pilot communications, aviation English also includes the use of English for various aspects of aviation. For example, the language used by maintenance technicians, dispatchers, or managers and officials within the industry.

To provide language services for this domain, translators should be fully aware of the terminological units and the specialized knowledge representation. For instance, the common word "taxi" can become a term in an airport environment, denoting the movement of an aircraft on the ground at very low speed. According to regulations of radiotelephony communication, *H* is pronounced as *hotel* [həʊˈtel] for clarity. In this sense, “taxi to hotel” should be translated into “滑行至H点”(slowly move to H point) instead of “打的去旅馆”(taking a cab to the hotel). Therefore, terminological competence is essential for civil aviation English translators to ensure accuracy and proficiency in their jobs.

Air travel in China was once only for the privileged few; it is currently one of the most important markets within the aviation industry. A 2018 government report stated that a total of 46 airports would be developed within the following five years. New intercontinental routes opened by Chinese carriers in 2006 increased the amount only by six units, but from 2014 to 2017 the number rose to more than 50 (NUNLIST 2017). Compared with such rapid market development, however, the existing body of studies on aviation English is still scarce.

Considering the studies on civil aviation terminology, ZHOU (2010) sought to achieve the standardization and unification of civil aviation terminology; ZHU & WANG (2013) discussed the translation of ICAO terms; HUANG & LI (2017) proposed two translation techniques for civil aviation terms, i.e. zero-translation and literal translation, both meant to retain the original word formation and meaning, with the occasional application of back translation for accuracy. However, these studies mainly focused on terminology management or specific translation strategies, giving translation professionals little guidance on how to improve terminological competence. Hence the importance of the current research.

2. Terminology and terminological competence in translation

2.1 Terminology and its development

The study of Terminology [1] focuses on a system of terms used to name things in a particular discipline. Its function is to identify the specific relationship between the term and the concept. A term or a specialized language unit can be distinguished from a general language word by its single-meaning relationship with the specialized concept that it designates, and by the stability of the relationship between form and content in texts dealing with this concept (PAVEL & NOLET 2001: 19). However, this is an extremely idealized vision of specialized communication. The variation stems from parameters of specialized communication, such as the knowledge and professionalism of the speakers, text function, etc. The same concept can often be designated by more than one term, and the same linguistic form can be used to refer to more than one concept. Furthermore, terms may behave differently in texts, depending on their conceptual focus. This is a problem that translators inevitably have to deal with. Instead of focusing merely on one-to-one correspondence, new studies treat terms as integral parts of texts and integrate terminology into a wider social, communicative, and linguistic context. Relevant proposals in this area are Socio-cognitive Terminology (TEMMERMAN 1997, 2000, 2006) and Frame-based Terminology (FABER, MÁRQUEZ & VEGA 2005, FABER *et al.* 2006, FABER, LEÓN ARAÚZ, VELASCO & REIMERINK 2007).

Frame-based Terminology provides the theoretical foundation for this project. The notion of *frame* in Frame Semantics can be traced back to case frames. It is said that if one wishes to understand the semantic structure of a verb, it is necessary to understand the properties of the entire scene that it activates. A *frame* has been more broadly defined as any system of concepts related in such a way that one concept evokes the entire system. In this sense, it bears an obvious affinity with terminology, which is also based on such conceptual organization. However, despite the fact that Frame Semantics has been usefully applied to lexicology and syntax, it has not been systematically applied to Terminology.

Frame-based Terminology is a very recent cognitive approach to Terminology, which shares many of the premises already identified in the Communicative Theory of Terminology (CTT) and Socio-cognitive Terminology approaches. It is a new approach to specialized language that focuses on: (1) conceptual organization; (2) the multidimensional nature of specialized knowledge units; and (3) the extraction of semantic and syntactic information through the use of multilingual corpora (FABER 2012: 29). Previously, FABER, MÁRQUEZ & VEGA (2005) had argued for a frame-based organization of specialized fields in which a dynamic, process-oriented frame provided the conceptual underpinnings for the location of sub-hierarchies of concepts within a specialized domain event. Coupled with an elaborated definition template, FABER, MÁRQUEZ & VEGA's frame-based organization allows for a more adequate representation of specialized fields as well as supplying a better way of linking terms to concepts.

2.2 Terminological competence in translation

As CABRÉ (2000, 2010) points out, Translation Studies and Terminology are two relatively young disciplines which differ in terms of focus and aim but share complementary elements. From a Translation Studies perspective, terminology is considered a tool to solve particular problems. Terminology resources play a paramount role in the specialized translation process, providing equivalence sources and assisting translators in the structuring of semi-specialized knowledge, which is part of translation competence. On the other hand, translation has played a significant role in developing Terminology as a discipline and as a practice. It has greatly enriched the lexis of European languages (PRANDI & ROSSI 2017). As a result, the relationship between Terminology and Translation is asymmetric since terminology has no intrinsic need to recur to translation. In contrast, Translation must use terminology as a means to «achieve the inter-linguistic transfer of specialized knowledge units» (VELÁSQUEZ 2002: 444).

In order to translate a specialized language text, translators must go beyond correspondences at the level of individual terms and establish cross-linguistic references to entire knowledge structures; only then can they achieve «the level of understanding necessary to create an equivalent text in the target language» (FABER 2012: 13). This also involves the ability to accurately apply this knowledge to specialized linguistic representations in one or various languages. In this sense, terminological competence can be viewed as a module of translation competence, since

> it would comprise the storage of specialized knowledge in memory, automatisms pertaining to terminological access, creativity related to term formation, as well as the translator's ability to solve problems of knowledge acquisition during the translation process, all of which directly affect the creation and establishment of links between conceptual and linguistic representations (FABER 2003: 97).

In a later work, MARTÍNEZ & FABER reiterate that terminological competence in translation does not refer to the acquisition of a list of terms, but rather to the ability of the translator to «acquire the knowledge represented by these terms» (2009: 92).

In spite of the significant body of international scholarship on Terminology available so far, little attention has been paid to this discipline in China, especially when it comes to the translator's terminological competence. LIANG (2010) described terminological competence as being made up of five sub-competences: knowledge acquisition, term management, term application, expertise in a domain, and socio-cognitive ability. These five sub-competences, as proposed by LIANG, improve terminological competence, therefore achieving the ultimate goal of terminology teaching. WANG (2011) carried out a componential analysis of translation-oriented terminological competence and created a network model of its seven sub-competences, i.e. the ability of understanding, literature research, management, application, knowledge acquisition, tool use, and language use. LENG, WANG & LIANG (2013) emphasized the significance of the terminology curriculum for Master of Translation and Interpreting (MTI). ZHU,GAO, WU & WANG (2019) discussed the development of terminological competence in aeronautic communication and the inspirations for teaching from the perspective of curriculum design. Unlike such research works focusing on the description of terminological competence and on terminology teaching, this study intends to explore the terminological competence in specialized translation to address the following questions:

1. How can Frame-based Terminology help to understand the terms in specialized texts?
2. How can terminological competence be developed to ensure the quality of translation in the domain of civil aviation?

3. Project description

On 4th November 2010, an Airbus A380 aircraft, the world's largest passenger aircraft, departed from Changi Airport, Singapore. Operated as Qantas flight 32, it was a long-haul journey from Heathrow to Sydney. The plane received several warnings following an explosion just four minutes after taking off — in the second leg of the journey. Upon inspection, the accident was determined to be the result of an uncontained engine failure in the No. 2 Rolls-Royce Trent 900 engine. A turbine disk fell apart, damaging the nacelle, wing, fuel system, landing gear, and flight control system, subsequently leading to a fire in the left wing fuel tank. Due to mounting failures, the aircraft became unsafe to fly. After a two-hour ordeal, the crew struggled to land on the same runway they had taken off from, finally coming to full stop with only 150 meters to spare. The accident resulted in the grounding of the Qantas A380 fleet and inspections/engine replacements on some Rolls-Royce powered A380s. No deaths or injuries were reported thanks to the flight and cabin crew who managed the scenario as a competent team in accordance with standard operating procedures and practices.

The Australian Transport Safety Bureau (ATSB) released the final *Aviation Occurrence Investigation Report* in 2013, covering factual information, analysis of the causes, safety actions, etc. This report plays an important role in extending the knowledge base relating to the hazards from uncontained engine rotor failure (UERF) events and highlights the need to incorporate this knowledge into flight safety improvements. At the suggestion of her supervisor, the translator [2] chose the first chapter from this report (about 10,000 words) and translated it into Chinese. The first chapter is a comprehensive introduction to the occurrence and an overview of the main factors that caused the problem. As an MTI candidate, the translator had not received systematic training in civil aviation. Hence, the translation needs were twofold: one in the interlingual sense of transferring from English into Chinese, and the other in the intralingual sense of switching to a specialized register.

After selecting the source text, the translator spent two months completing the translation and then cross-checking it with a classmate and her supervisor. Furthermore, she collected a large number of bilingual civil aviation terminology items and texts from her supervisor, the school library (Nanjing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics) and from other sources, such as the *Civil Aviation Glossary* published by Accounting Center of China Aviation (ACCA), an English-Chinese civil aviation dictionary published by Boeing Commercial Airplane Group, and the *Dictionary of Aeronautical Terms* [3].

4. The application

4.1 Establishing a conceptual network

FABER (2012) believes the best way to study specialized knowledge units is by studying their behavior in texts. Since the general function of specialized language texts is the transmission of knowledge, such texts tend to conform to templates in order to facilitate understanding. Additionally, these texts are generally characterized by greater repetition of terms, phrases, sentences and even full paragraphs. Scientific and technical texts are usually lexically dense and rich in terminology because of the quantity of specialized language units in them, and they are also distinctive in their syntactic structures. Understanding a terminology-rich text requires knowledge of the domain, the concepts within it, the propositional relations within the text, as well as the conceptual relations between words within the domain. This is the first step towards creating an acceptable target language text.

4.1.1 Acquisition of specialized concepts

Frame-based Technology is based on deriving the conceptual system of the domain by means of an integrated top-down and bottom-up approach. The bottom-up approach consists of extracting information from a corpus of texts in various languages, specifically related to the domain. The top-down approach includes the information provided by specialized dictionaries and other reference material, complemented by the help of experts in the field (FABER 2012: 29).

One basic premise of this approach is that the description of specialized domains is based on the events that generally take place and can be represented accordingly (GRINEV & KLEPALCHENKO 1999). Each knowledge area thus has its own event template. Accordingly, generic categories are configured in a domain event or action-environment interface (BARSALOU 2003: 513, FABER, MÁRQUEZ & VEGA 2005), which provides a frame for the organization of more specific concepts. The specific concepts within each category are organized in a network where they are linked by both vertical (hierarchical) and horizontal (non-hierarchical) relations.

FABER *et al.* first brought up the model of Environmental Engineering Event which was later named Environmental Event (EE) (LEÓN ARAÚZ, MAGAÑA & FABER 2009, REIMERINK & FABER 2009, REIMERINK, LEÓN ARAÚZ & FABER 2010) as a conceptual portion of the frame-based multilingual knowledge resource on the environment, EcoLexicon (REIMERINK & FABER 2011, FABER, LEÓN ARAÚZ & REIMERINK 2016).

As indicated in a series of papers, i.e. FABER (2009, 2011), REIMERINK and FABER (2009), SAN MARTÍN *et al.* (2017)argue that an EE is a dynamic process initiated by an agent (either natural or human), that affects a specific kind of patient (an environmental entity), and produces a result in a geographical area. EE as a whole consists of a general level of EVENT and a basic level with central categories such as AGENT, PROCESS, and PATIENT as well as peripheral categories including INSTRUMENT and DESCRIPTION as illustrated in Figure 1.

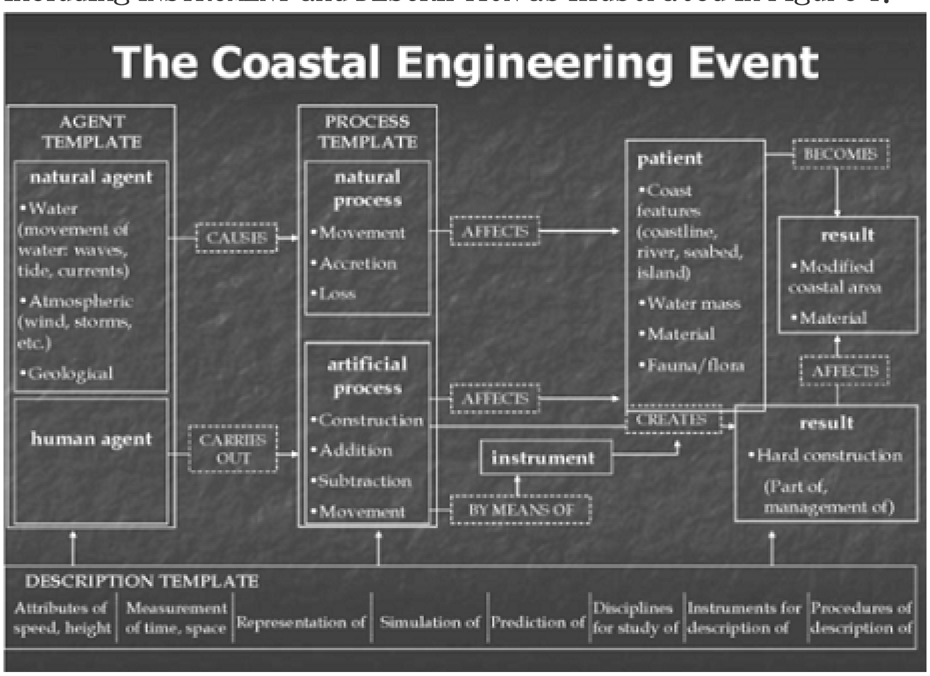

Figure 1 Coastal Engineering Event by FABER (2009)

Accordingly, each sub-domain within the event is characterized by a template with a prototypical set of conceptual relations. This logically places emphasis on terminological definitions, which are regarded as mini-knowledge representations or frames. Such definitions are not entered in a cut-and-paste fashion from other resources. Rather, they result from comparing data through corpus analysis. This is evident in the following description of engine failure. According to FABER's EE event, we have made a template about the Uncontained Engine Failure Event as in Figure 2.

A turbine engine failure occurs when a turbine engine unexpectedly stops producing power due to a malfunction other than fuel exhaustion. Engine failures may be described either as contained or uncontained. A contained engine failure is one in which components might separate inside the engine, but either remain within the engine cases or exit the engine through the tailpipe. An uncontained engine event occurs when an engine failure results in fragments of rotating engine parts, penetrating and exiting through the engine case. Uncontained turbine engine disk failures within an aircraft engine present a direct hazard to an airplane and its passengers, because high-energy disk fragments can penetrate the cabin or fuel tanks, damage flight control surfaces, set fire to flammable fluid or sever hydraulic lines.

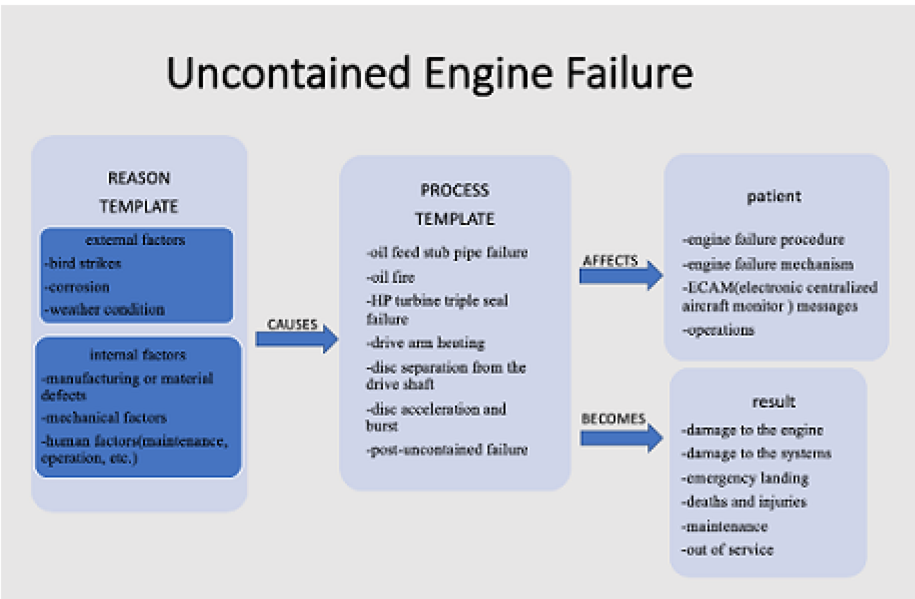

Figure 2 Uncontained Engine Failure Event

Engine failures can be caused by mechanical problems in the engine itself, such as damage to portions of the turbine or oil leaks, as well as damage outside the engine such as fuel pump problems or fuel contamination. A turbine engine failure can also be caused by entirely external factors, such as volcanic ash, bird strikes or weather events such as icing conditions. These risks can sometimes be negated through the use of supplementary ignition or anti-icing systems.

The study of corpus data, i.e. concordances from specialized language texts, offers several attributes relative to engine failure as a process, as well as its relations to other entities in the same domain. These attributes will constitute its definition, map out its conceptual relations, link it to other concepts, and provide information about its combinatory potential in one or various languages. By analyzing concordances, the following information about engine failure, i.e. uncontained engine failure, comes to light:

Engine failure occurred during the flight:

1. in-flight uncontained engine failure overhead Batam Island

Engine failure happened at turbine rotor, a part of the engine turbine:

2. minimization of hazards resulting from an uncontained engine rotor failure (UERF)
3. initial inspection revealed that the No. 2 engine sustained an uncontained failure in the turbine region and that debris from the engine damaged the airframe and systems.

Engine failure is a sequence:

4. engine failure sequence

Engine failure can cause direct or indirect damages/implications:

5. which affected other systems not directly impacted by the engine failure
6. the debris from the engine failure directly damaged a number of systems
7. …as a direct result of the damage from the engine failure.
8. ECAM following the engine failure
9. …understand the effect of engine failure on the aircraft and its systems.

There is a specific procedure/mechanism referring to engine failure:

10. a damage assessment as part of the engine failure procedure suggested that…
11. They then elected to continue the engine failure procedure, which included initiating a process of fuel transfer.
12. …to determine a sequence of events and understand the engine failure mechanism.

This basic information about engine failure is activated in the context with more specific terms that appear as hyponyms of engine failure in the corpus. These complex nominal forms have their own syntax. A full list of such terms is given below (Table 1).

Table 1: Complex nominal forms

Term	verb	Subject	Reason
engine failure procedure	AFFECT	procedure	engine failure
engine failure mechanism	AFFECT	mechanism	engine failure
engine failure sequence	AFFECT	sequence	engine failure
Term	**verb**	**Process**	**Location/Type**
engine rotor failure	OCCUR	engine failure	rotor
uncontained engine failure	OCCUR	engine failure	uncontained

These propositional representations can be activated in different ways, depending on the language involved and its rules for term formation. According to GOLDBERG (1995: 5), the basic clause types of a language form an interrelated network, with semantic structures paired with particular forms in as general a way as possible. This is extremely useful in the analysis of syntax in specialized language texts, and in the specification of definitional templates.

The organization of information encoded in definitions can be structured according to its perceptual salience as well as its relationship to information configurations in the definitions of other related concepts within the same category (FABER, LÓPEZ RODRÍGUEZ & TERCEDOR SÁNCHEZ 2001, FABER 2002). This echoes what MARTIN (1998) argued about frames, as definition models, that offer more consistent, flexible, and complete representations.

4.1.2 Characterizing terms

In 4.1.1, the use of FABER’s bottom-up approach was mentioned, whereas in this section, the top-down approach in terminology translation will be discussed. As FABER argues, a domain sometimes refers to the knowledge area itself and sometimes to the categories of concepts within the specialized field.

Document 9835 (*Manual on the Implementation of Language Proficiency Requirements* issued by ICAO) offers an inventory of events and related domains which characterize the routine and non-routine work of civil aviation staff. The inventory consists of three parts: (1) events, domains, and sub-domains in aerodrome control, e.g. air-misses, approach delay; (2) events and domains linked to en-route air traffic control, e.g. aircraft breakdown, special flights, weather, and MET (meteorology) problems; and (3) other domains such as ground services and airfield facilities. Once the conceptual network has been established, the translator extracts and classifies the terms in the conceptual network and organizes them in the following table (Table 2):

Table 2: Characterizing terms

Airfield facilities terms	**Aerodrome control terms**
oil feed pipe	ECAM
counterbore	flight crew
turbine disk	message
HP/IP bearing chamber	approach

Through the establishment of the conceptual network, the translator developed the necessary background knowledge and classified the main terms. As a descriptive interpretation of the concept, the conceptual network provides a macroscopic understanding of the translation project by relating the concepts and sub-concepts. The terms in Table 2 provides some examples. During the translation process, if an unfamiliar specialized concept arises, the translator can quickly locate it in the conceptual network and determine its relationships with existing concepts. In turn, this helps to establish an appropriate equivalence. In this case, the translator can also compile their own glossary to integrate the existing civil aviation term base.

4.2 Collocating terminological units

Frames also fall within cognitive linguistics approaches; they are a type of cognitive structuring device based on experience that provide the background knowledge and motivation for the existence of words in a language as well as the way those words are used in discourse (FABER 2012: 28). Frames have the advantage of making explicit both the potential semantic and the syntactic behavior of specialized language units. This includes a description of conceptual relations as well as a term combinatorial potential.

As mentioned before, the term *engine failure* can form a different conceptual unit matching with different verbs, such as *engine failure procedure suggested* and *engine failure directly damaged*. Engine failure in both units has the same meaning. However, each context helps the translator identify the proper equivalence of the same term in different units. The following is an example:

> The ATSB found that the misalignment of the counterbores was the result of movement within the HP/IP bearing support assembly during manufacture…
>
> 澳大利亚运输安全局发现，埋头孔在高压中压承力框架组件中发生位移导致轴心差。
>
> That section of pipe contained an area of reduced wall thickness, which resulted from the misalignment of a counterbore machined into the end of the stub pipe during manufacture.
>
> 由于在制造期间短管末端埋头孔未对准轴心，造成该段管道部分管壁较薄。

In general English, *misalignment* means incorrect arrangement or position of something in relation to something else (*Oxford English Dictionary* [4], *sub voce*). However, the conceptual unit here is the *misalignment of the counterbores/a counterbore*. The counterbore in the oil feed stub pipe became misaligned with the axis of the pipe due to movements within the hub structure during the manufacturing process. After the oil feed stub pipe was fitted to the hub, the oil feed stub pipe counterbore was machined using the inner hub counterbore as the reference datum to position the counterbore. Because the inner hub counterbore was misaligned with the axis of the stub pipe, the oil feed stub pipe counterbore was also affected and as a result misaligned with the axis of the stub pipe.

Misalignment is a noun and stems from the verb *to misalign*. It describes a process, an action through nominalization. The action itself, however, can also be expressed as a definition of a term. The use of *misalignments of counterbores* in the above passage appear to share the same meaning. In fact, they match with different verbs and as arguments of different verb types, they have different functions. In the first sentence, *misalignment* occurs with *was* (i.e. "be" as copula) and is a noun playing the subject function and matching with the verb complement; in the second sentence, *misalignment* occurs with *machined*, a transitive verb, and contributes to express an action as an instrument subject. So, for the first *misalignment of the counterbores*, the translator chooses 轴心差 (zhouxincha, the misalignment between the counterbore and the axis). For the second one, she translates it into 未对准(weiduizhun, misalign).

4.3 Verifying by images

Another important aspect of Frame-based Terminology is the reliance on images in the form of specialized concepts. For instance, Frame-based Terminology advocates for a multimodal conceptual description in which the context is combined with visual information for a better understanding of complex and dynamic concept systems. In this way, Frame-based Terminology provides a thorough account of the information necessary to fully describe a term.

Traditionally, images have been classified according to their morphology in categories of photographs, drawings, animations, videos, diagrams, charts, graphics, schemes, views, etc. (DARIAN 2001, MONTERDE 2002). However, a more useful way of categorizing images is in terms of their most salient functions (ANGLIN, VAEZ & CUNNINGHAM 2004) or in terms of their relationship with the real-world entity that they represent. Based on that, FABER divides images into three criteria of iconicity, abstraction, and dynamism as ways of referring to specific attributes of specialized concepts. Iconic images resemble the real-world object represented through the abstraction of conceptual attributes in the illustration. Images may have different degrees of resemblance to the object that they represent. Abstraction in an illustration is a matter of degree and refers to the cognitive effort required for the recognition and representation of the concept thus represented (LEVIE & LENTZ 1982, PARK & HOPKINS 1993, RIEBER 1994). Dynamism refers to the representation of movement (i.e. video and animation, as well as images showing different stages of a superordinate process). Dynamic images can be more effective when some complex processes have to be explained. Therefore, illustrations should be chosen provided that they focus on the semantic features activated in the linguistic description of the concept. Their level of iconicity, abstraction, and/or dynamism should be the combination that best portrays the attributes of the concept and the semantic relations they activate (FABER, LEÓN ARAÚZ, VELASCO & REIMERINK 2007: 63). In this respect, few (if any) images are purely iconic, abstract, or dynamic.

These features can be combined to generate eight possible image profiles. As shown in Table 3, the eight possible profiles of graphical information are classifiedaccording to the presence or absence of three main criteria (FABER 2012: 278).

Table 3: Typology of graphical information

TYPE	DESCRIPTION		
	Iconicity	Abstraction	Dynamism
A	√	√	√
B	√	√	×
C	√	×	×
D	×	×	×
E	×	√	√
F	×	×	√
G	√	×	√
H	×	√	×

In this translation project, the source text has 15 figures. These figures play an important role in the understanding of concepts as well as in seeking translation equivalents. For some abstract unfamiliar specialized concepts, images provide highly informative visual cues. The following is an example of how the translator verified the meaning of *holding* by an image:

> Example 1: The flight crew contacted ATC and advised that they would need about 30 minutes to process the ECAM messages and associated procedures, and requested an appropriate holding position in order for that to occur. ATC initially cleared the flight crew to conduct a holding pattern to the east of Singapore. Following further discussion amongst the flight crew, ATC was advised that a holding area within 30 NM (56 km) of Changi Airport was required. ATC acknowledged that requirement and directed the aircraft to a different area to the east of the airport and provided heading information to maintain the aircraft in an approximately 20 NM (37 km) long racetrack holding pattern at 7,400 ft.

> 飞行机组联系空中交通管制并说明他们需要大约30分钟处理电子中央监控信息、执行相关程序，请求空中交通管制提供合适的等待位置。空中交通管制初步批准飞行机组可进入新加坡东部某处等待航线。经飞行机组进一步讨论后，他们告知空中交通管制等待空域需位于樟宜机场30海里(56公里)范围内。空中交通管制明确这一请求，并指引飞机进入另外一个位于机场以东的区域，并提供航向信息确保飞机位于一个长约20海里(37公里)、高

7400英尺的等待航线。

After reading the text, the translator can determine the meaning of *holding* in this context as *waiting*. However, there are three different units: *holding position*, *holding area*, and *holding pattern* which can be challenging for the translator since *position* can be regarded as a point, when associated to *area* as a range, and when collocating with *pattern* as a shape. Thus, the first need is to identify the differences and similarities concerning *holding* in the three conceptual units before accurately representing them in the target language.

Figure 3: holding pattern (source: Google)

Taken from the source text, the above figure shows the flight route of Qantas 32. On the right hand side of the figure, a yellow arrow points to the position of the *holding pattern*, while the red lines indicate the dynamic motion of the *holding pattern* and its tracking scope (which is exactly the *holding area*, i.e., *holding position*). According to FABER's typology of graphical information, Figure 3 belongs to type G, which explicitly shows the dynamism of the specific concept of *holding pattern* to the reader. With the help of this figure, the translator is able to grasp the meaning by using context-specific information and relying on singular concept units. Thanks to such procedures, Frame-based Terminology offers a full account of the information necessary to understand a term.

Example 2 below is a different typology of graph selected in the source text, representing the meaning of *wall thickness*:

Example 2: That section of pipe contained an area of reduced wall thickness, which resulted from the misalignment of a counterbore machined into the end of the stub pipe during manufacture. A detailed engineering analysis found that the stresses generated in the oil feed stub pipe were sensitive to the wall thickness, which in turn had a significant effect on the pipe’s fatigue life.

由于在制造期间短管末端埋头孔未对准轴心，造成该段管道部分管壁较薄。一份详细工程分析表明，供
反过来又对管道疲劳寿命产生显著影响。

Wall thickness is a term in the field of mechanical manufacturing. In this case, it refers to the dimension between the counterbore and outer surface of the oil feed pipe in the airplane engine. The whole paragraph of the source text attempts to explain the impact of *misalignment* to the *wall thickness*, which is a crucial part of this investigative report. Since the translator does not have enough knowledge about aircraft engine manufacturing, painstaking efforts are required to understand such abstract concept and describe it in the target language.

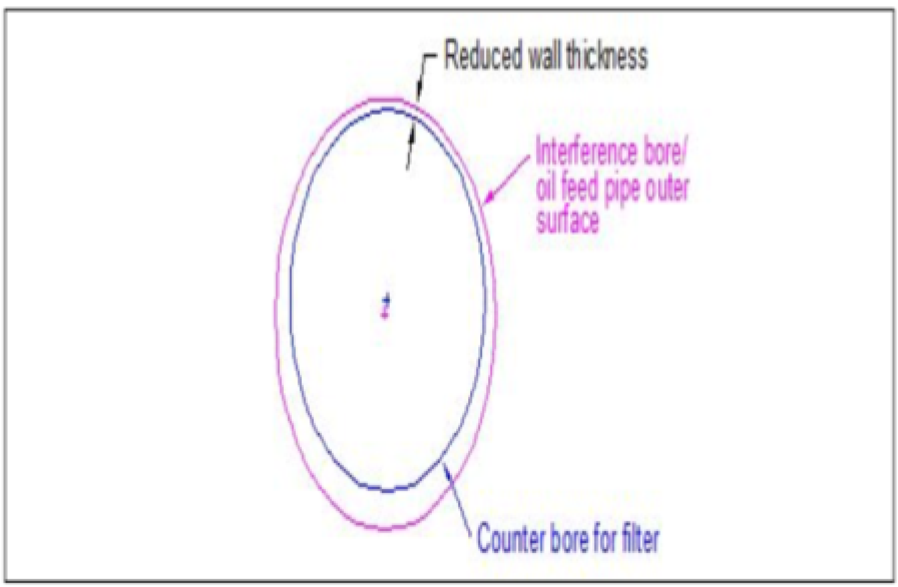

Figure 4: wall thickness

Figure 4 is also selected from the source text. It is a cross-section diagram of the oil feed pipe that was found with cracks. As indicated by the Figure, the blue circle represents the counterbore for the filter while the pink circle represents the interference bore/oil feed pipe outer surface. The blue and pink circles separately show the position of each center axis. According to FABER (2012), this figure is an example of type B. In this figure, we can clearly observe how the *misalignment* causes reduced *wall thickness*. The command of this concept resulting from the image paves the way for the translator to understand what follows, such as the cracks in the pipe, the leak of fuel, the explosion of the engine, and eventually, the main reason for the event.

5. Conclusion

Terminology is not only a matter of term entries that try to represent pieces of objective reality. The representation of a specialized field should be more than a list or a configuration of objects linguistically translated into either simple or compound nominal forms. It is necessary to situate concepts in a setting and place them within the context framework of dynamic processes that «define and describe the principal event in the specialized field in question» (FABER, MÁRQUEZ & VEGA 2005: 127). Frame-based Terminology is a new approach to specialized language that focuses on semantic analysis and the meaning of terminological units. The data extracted from multilingual corpora and dictionaries provide the basis for conceptual maps which reflect the place of specialized knowledge units in large knowledge configurations. Concept systems are organized on the basis of definitional templates and situated representations for specialized knowledge concepts. Before flying, student pilots will practice in the flight training simulator to test themselves in a dynamic environment and be confronted with the actual feel of flying operation. Likewise, Frame-based Terminology provides translators with a dynamic context that allows them to fully understand what the terms stand for and their application in context.

This paper has examined the translation of civil aviation terms from English to Chinese under the framework of Frame-based Terminology. It takes a cognitive linguistics approach to develop terminological competence for this domain. The approach is derived from previous studies on Terminology and specialized translation. Likewise, the content is based on a need identified by the first author during a translation experience as an MTI student in China. From establishing a conceptual network, collocating terminological units and verifying them through images, the translator has developed skills and abilities in learning new terms, their use in different strings of text and has organized them in a more precise and systematic way. This is the first time that Frame-based Terminology has been applied to the translation of civil aviation terms. The top-down and bottom-up approaches resulted in this theory becoming a source of insight and inspiration for understanding terms and Language for Specific Purpose (LSP) learning. It is our hope that the study will illuminate how to overcome the challenges within specialized translation, and the complexity of transforming language learners into domain experts.

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Note

↑ 1 We follow the conventional use of upper case for the theory of Terminology and lower case for terminology as the inventory of terms.

↑ 2 The translator (also the first author) downloaded the full text (about 130,000 words in total) from the official website http://www.atsb.gov.au/publications/investigation_reports.

↑ 3 Additionally, for support, the translator relied on online resources, such as http://www.minhangcidian.com/, http://shuyu.cnki.net/, and Google.

↑ 4 *Oxford English Dictionary, online version,* https://www.oed.com/ (last accessed 16/05/2020).

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Traduzione e terminologia

Anastasia DI NUNZIO

La terminologia medica: l’esempio della cardiologia. Un confronto fra tedesco e italiano

La terminologia medica: l’esempio della cardiologia. Un confronto fra tedesco e italiano

Anastasia DI NUNZIO

Table

Abstract

Oggetto del presente contributo è un’analisi della lingua medica in quanto lingua speciale e, in particolare, della lingua della cardiologia attraverso uno studio comparativo-contrastivo tra la lingua italiana e la lingua tedesca. Particolare attenzione è stata rivolta alla lingua tedesca attraverso la costruzione di un corpus costituito da un manuale di cardiologia e da diverse linee guida nazionali per la diagnosi e la terapia di patologie cardiache e analizzato in primis da un punto di vista quantitativo attraverso il software AntConc e poi da un punto di vista qualitativo. In merito a quest’ultimo aspetto verranno presentate le peculiarità emerse in relazione alla morfologia dei termini e al processo della rideterminazione semantica.

The present paper aims at analysing the medical language as LSP and, in particular, the language of cardiology by comparing and contrasting Italian and German. The author focuses on a German corpus consisting of a cardiology handbook and various national guidelines for the diagnosis and therapy of cardiovascular diseases. The corpus is analysed both from a quantitative and a qualitative point of view. The quantitative analysis is processed via AntConc. The morphology of terms will be discussed and commented upon as well as the process of resemantisation.

1. Le lingue speciali e la lingua medica

La lingua comune e le lingue speciali sono legate tra loro da un rapporto profondo e bidirezionale (CORTELAZZO 1994: 24) caratterizzato da un continuo scambio lessicale:

> unsere Sprache kann man ansehen als eine alte Stadt: Ein Gewinkel von Gässchen und Plätzen, alten und neuen Häusern, und Häusern mit Zubauten aus verschiedenen Zeiten; und dies umgeben von einer Menge neuer Vororte mit geraden und regelmäßigen Straßen und mit einförmigen Häusern (WITTGENSTEIN 2001: PU18).

L’osservazione di Wittgenstein è alla base della riflessione di questo lavoro: secondo il filosofo, come all’interno di una città non esiste una vera e propria separazione netta tra il centro (la lingua comune) e la periferia (le lingue speciali), allo stesso modo non esiste un vero confine tra la lingua comune e la lingua speciale. Le parole della quotidianità entrano a far parte della lingua speciale e il continuo progresso della scienza e della tecnica, come pure il loro ingresso nella vita di tutti i giorni, fanno sì che termini specialistici penetrino incessantemente nella lingua comune (CORTELAZZO 1994: 24-25).

L’obiettivo di questo lavoro è analizzare le soluzioni morfologiche, sintattiche e testuali (SERIANNI 2003: 82) di una lingua speciale, in questo caso la lingua della cardiologia, e di come le due lingue interagiscano tra loro. A tale scopo si ritiene necessario, prima di procedere alla presentazione del corpus e delle osservazioni emerse, richiamare brevemente alcuni dei tratti distintivi di una lingua speciale come la lingua medica, focalizzando l'attenzione a livello stilistico, morfosintattico e terminologico.

Una delle prime caratteristiche di un testo settoriale è la forte presenza di sostantivi tanto che, come fa notare CORTELAZZO (1994: 17), «il tratto sintattico più rilevante delle lingue speciali, e in particolar modo delle lingue tecnico-scientifiche, è il depotenziamento del ruolo del verbo e il corrispondente potenziamento del ruolo del nome». I sostantivi costituiscono il 44% delle forme grammaticali nei testi specialistici, mentre nella lingua comune questa percentuale si attesta al 28%. Se insieme ai sostantivi si prendono in considerazione anche gli aggettivi si raggiunge addirittura il 60% (SAGER, DUNGWORTH e MCDONALD 1980: 234).

Altra caratteristica comune a tutti i testi specialistici è la tendenza alla forte nominalizzazione e i testi della lingua medica non fanno eccezione: risultano infatti percorsi nella loro estensione dalla cosiddetta "condensazione sintattica", che permette l'eliminazione del rapporto di coordinazione e subordinazione «dando luogo alla semplice giustapposizione di sostantivi privi di legami preposizionali e determinando strutture formalmente uguali ma semanticamente molto diverse» (PUATO 2008: 33). La preferenza per lo stile nominale è da attribuire anche al fatto che il testo deve essere caratterizzato dalla massima oggettività e astrazione: questo è reso possibile solo dalla nominalizzazione perché essa è in grado di collocare il messaggio su un piano generale.

A livello morfosintattico, si può notare un numero maggiore di costruzioni passive e impersonali rispetto a quelle attive: la percentuale delle prime si attesta al 27% circa in questo genere testuale, contro il 2-3% della prosa letteraria (PUATO 2008: 39); questi dati sono tuttavia relativi poiché variano chiaramente da lingua a lingua: nel caso del tedesco, ad esempio, si riscontra un maggiore uso del passivo rispetto all'italiano; ma se si mettono a confronto un testo inglese e uno tedesco, il primo prevarrà nettamente sul secondo. Per quanto riguarda il tedesco, le forme passive hanno una percentuale del 12% nei testi specialistici rispetto al 2% nei testi della lingua comune (FLUCK 1996: 73).

Infine è da rilevare nella lingua medica l'uso frequente di anglicismi: essendo la lingua inglese ritenuta la lingua di comunicazione della comunità scientifica internazionale che permette a tutti gli studiosi non anglofoni di immettere le loro pubblicazioni nel circuito scientifico internazionale, il ricorso a termini inglesi è piuttosto ovvio. Inoltre, questo ruolo primario della lingua inglese nella letteratura scientifica è da ricondurre anche al ruolo d'avanguardia che riveste la ricerca medica statunitense. La lingua tedesca è abbastanza permeabile alla penetrazione di anglicismi, e anche l'italiano sembra assorbirli con molta facilità.

2. Tecnicismi specifici e collaterali

Esiste un tratto comune a tutte le lingue speciali, ma che nei testi medici spicca notevolmente rispetto agli altri ed è la presenza di tecnicismi. Questi, in quanto termini che rispecchiano le nozioni proprie di ciascuna disciplina, rendono viva la distinzione tra la lingua comune e una lingua speciale.

I tecnicismi si classificano in tecnicismi specifici (in seguito TS) e tecnicismi collaterali (in seguito TC). I primi rientrano nel «lessico caratteristico, in parte esclusivo e impenetrabile per i profani, che indica concetti, nozioni, strumenti tipici di quel particolare settore» (SERIANNI 2003: 81) e sono caratterizzati da un alto tasso di univocità; gli altri, invece, sono «termini ugualmente caratteristici di un certo ambito settoriale che però non sono legati a effettive esigenze comunicative, bensì all'opportunità di adoperare un registro più elevato, distinto dal linguaggio comune» (SERIANNI 2003: 82). La differenza fondamentale tra i due tipi di tecnicismi è che i TS sono indispensabili alle esigenze terminologiche di una determinata lingua speciale, mentre i TC potrebbero essere sostituiti, senza per questo perdere in esattezza. A tal proposito, particolarmente degna di nota è la metafora proposta da SERIANNI (2005: 128):

> [s]i potrebbe dire che, rispetto ai tecnicismi specifici, i TC svolgono una funzione simile a quella che, in anatomia, il tessuto connettivo svolge rispetto ai singoli organi: funzione di riempimento degli interstizi tra organo e organo, ma anche di sostegno, di protezione, di veicolo di nutrimento.

La metafora di Serianni permette di capire anche che la lingua medica, così come ogni altra lingua speciale, non può basarsi solo su termini altamente specialistici, ma deve essere costruita anche su una rete di termini meno tecnici.

Un'ulteriore differenza che intercorre tra le due categorie di tecnicismi è che il TS è contrassegnato da una tendenziale stabilità, mentre il TC è legato a esigenze di registro stilistico e presenta dunque un certo margine di oscillazione. In lingua tedesca si registra una caratteristica che interessa in parte anche la lingua italiana: una particolare forma di influenza dal greco e dal latino che ha portato alla creazione di calchi, principalmente di tipo morfologico, in cui sono presenti elementi lessicali di origine germanica.

Il tedesco fornisce per molti termini due coniazioni, una di chiara origine dotta e l'altra basata su elementi lessicali di origine germanica. Ciò è accaduto perché nelle lingue germaniche i termini dotti risultano poco trasparenti. A tal proposito PUATO (2012: 133) rileva che «per un parlante tedesco, infatti, la terminologia di derivazione classica risulta scarsamente trasparente e pertanto nel tempo si è sentita la necessità di operare una volgarizzazione del lessico scientifico, anche per agevolare la comunicazione tra esperto e profano». È nato così una sorta di “bilinguismo specialistico” che potrebbe essere meglio definito come una «diglossia tecnica» (PUATO 2012: 133), che vede una preferenza per i termini dotti di origine greca e latina tra gli specialisti (e dunque nella lingua medica) e per i termini germanici nella lingua comune.

Di seguito alcuni esempi che illustrano questo fenomeno:

Termine di origine greca o latina	Termine alternativo di origine germanica	Traducente italiano
Apoptose	Zelltod	apoptosi
Dermatitis	Hautentzündung	dermatite
Hypertonie	Bluthochdruck	ipertonia
Ischämie	Blutleere	ischemia
Myokard	Herzmuskel	miocardio

In italiano si registra un'assenza parziale di questo registro medio e la lingua medica risulta quindi più "oscura" e contribuisce alla distanza che si genera molto spesso tra il medico e il paziente.

Vi sono, inoltre, diversi esempi di prestiti dal latino che in lingua tedesca non sono stati adattati:

tedesco	italiano
Adventitia	avventizia
Carotis	carotide
Cava inferior	vena cava inferiore
Glossopharyngeus	glossofaringeo
Interstitium	interstizio
Macula densa	macula densa
Media	tonaca media
Mesangium	mesangio
Pericarditisconstriktiva	pericardite costrittiva

3. Le caratteristiche del corpus

Ai fini del presente lavoro è stato creato un corpus ad hoc costituito dal testo *Handbuch Kardiologie 2017* edito da Springer Medizin e da una serie di linee guida nazionali per la diagnosi e la terapia di diverse patologie cardiache, pubblicate a cura della *Deutsche Gesellschaftfür Kardiologie* tra il 2006 e il 2017 e adottate in Germania in seguito alle indicazioni della *European Society of Cardiology* (per un elenco puntuale delle linee guida si rimanda alla bibliografia).

Il corpus è composto da 369.809 parole e può essere descritto sulla base dei criteri proposti da ADAMZIK (1998) per analizzare le dimensioni dei linguaggi settoriali:

> als Dimensionen dürften dabei mindestens die folgenden Faktoren in Rechnung gestellt werden: Inhaltsdimension im Sinne des Ausmaßes, in dem Experten beteiligt sind; funktionale Dimension; situative Dimension; am Wichtigsten ist dabei zweifellos die Inhaltsdimension, die jedoch auch

> besondere Probleme aufwirft, da man bekanntlich im Prinzip über jeden Gegenstand auch in der „Gemeinsprache“ kommunizieren kann (ADAMZIK 1998: 184).

Tenendo conto delle caratteristiche illustrate sopra, si possono individuare nel corpus selezionato per questo lavoro le seguenti dimensioni:

1. *Inhaltsdimension*: patologie, terapie e dati clinici relativi alla cardiologia.
2. *Dimension der Kommunikatoren im Sinne des Ausmaßes, in dem Experten beteiligt sind*: destinatari del manuale e delle linee guida sono gli esperti e i professionisti del settore, così come lo sono gli emittenti; si può quindi parlare di una comunicazione da esperti a esperti.
3. *Funktionale Dimension*: lo scopo dei testi è di tipo informativo perché gli autori informano la comunità scientifica germanofona in merito ai più recenti studi in materia di cardiologia.
4. *Situative Dimension*: la tipologia testuale che compone il corpus è, da un lato, quella del manuale scientifico, in «una situazione scritta, quindi non interattiva, in cui gli emittenti informano i destinatari sul referente» (MESSINA 2010: 7), dall’altro, quella delle linee guida, ovvero raccomandazioni per il comportamento clinico rivolte a professionisti.

Dal punto di vista quantitativo il corpus è stato analizzato attraverso il software *AntConc*, una «freeware, multi-platform application» (ANTHONY 2005: 729) ampiamente utilizzata sia in linguistica sia nella linguistica dei corpora (INKPEN *et al.* 2016: 148).

La successiva analisi qualitativa ha riguardato diversi aspetti, tuttavia in questo contributo si è deciso di concentrarsi solo sul lessico di cui verranno messi in evidenza due aspetti: il processo di formazione delle parole e il fenomeno della rideterminazione semantica.

4. I termini: derivati e composti

CORTELAZZO (2011) osserva che «la forma più produttiva di creazione di termini e di altri elementi del lessico scientifico è costituita dalle neoformazioni per derivazione o per composizione»; la lingua di questo corpus sembra confermare tale tendenza. Dai termini estratti, infatti, emerge che il 20% dei termini è formato per derivazione, ovvero attraverso la combinazione di un elemento libero e un prefisso o un suffisso, e che il 62% dei termini è rappresentato dai composti, vale a dire due elementi liberi combinati insieme.

Meccanismo vitale e vivace nella formazione delle parole della medicina, sia nella lingua italiana sia in quella tedesca, è la composizione attraverso termini di origine greca o latina (PUATO 2008: 69, GUALDO e TELVE 2011: 287-288) caratterizzata dall'ampia varietà nella combinazione delle singole parti. Il modello a cui si guarda è quello del greco antico, ma anche delle componenti latine perché forniscono maggiore stabilità semantica e una maggiore elasticità di composizione e scomposizione:

> [n]umerosi in quasi tutti i LSP, naturalmente con le debite differenze, i composti neoclassici sono particolarmente apprezzati perché la facilità delle operazioni di montaggio e smontaggio dei componenti e la relativa stabilità formale sembrano riflettere al meglio «l'immagine di una razionalità denominativa» (DARDANO 2005: 205) che è sempre stato uno degli obiettivi primari delle nomenclature scientifiche (GUALDO e TELVE 2011: 102).

In merito alla composizione, soprattutto se la si considera come sistema di arricchimento lessicale, si registra un comportamento molto diverso tra la lingua italiana e la lingua tedesca. L'italiano ha una capacità limitata di creare composti e, qualora fosse necessario ricorrervi, preferirebbe composti di origine greco-latina poiché è una lingua che lavora maggiormente sulla derivazione; in tedesco, invece, si assiste alla fusione di due o addirittura più lessemi in un unico termine. Va ricordato, del resto, che uno dei tratti linguistici peculiari della lingua tedesca è proprio la composizione.

Analizzando il processo della composizione, è importante distinguere in primis i composti occasionali e i composti usuali. Come sottolinea DI MEOLA (2004: 69):

> [t]utti i composti hanno iniziato la loro vita come composti occasionali. La grande maggioranza di questi occasionalismi viene coniata sulla necessità del momento, per poi scomparire immediatamente. Alcuni composti però diventano usuali: entrano stabilmente nell'uso e non vengono più percepiti come una giustapposizione di parole autonome.

È possibile, inoltre, classificare i composti in determinativi e copulativi. I primi sono caratterizzati da una gerarchia tra i due elementi che li costituiscono: l'elemento principale, detto "testa" o "determinato", esprime il significato fondamentale, mentre l'elemento secondario, detto "modificatore" o "determinante", specifica attraverso informazioni supplementari il significato espresso dalla testa. In tedesco l'ordine degli elementi che costituiscono il composto è modificatore + testa, dove quest'ultima rappresenta «l'elemento grammaticalmente portante» (DI MEOLA 2004: 70) poiché ne determina il genere e il numero; in italiano l'ordine dei due elementi è invertito.

La relazione gerarchica che caratterizza, a livello semantico, i composti determinativi non è presente nei composti copulativi dove l'ordine degli elementi non è fisso, sebbene in alcuni sia diventato ormai convenzionale.

Infine, è possibile classificare i composti sulla base della loro tipologia categoriale:

> [i] composti nominali hanno come testa un sostantivo/nome (N), i composti verbali un verbo (V), i composti aggettivali un aggettivo (A) e, infine, i composti avverbiali un avverbio (AV). Il tipo più frequente è dato dai composti nominali, meno diffusi quelli verbali e aggettivali, rari quelli avverbiali (DI MEOLA 2004: 71).

Quando ci si trova di fronte a una traduzione dal tedesco all'italiano di questi composti, una delle strategie più seguite è l'applicazione del modello N + A, ovvero un'aggettivazione italiana del modificatore nominale tedesco (ROSS 2004: 117). Questo metodo traduttivo è preferito alla grammaticalizzazione del rapporto testa/modificatore sottoforma di N + prep + N e alla giustapposizione (PUATO 2008: 72).

Di seguito alcuni esempi che riguardano entrambe le casistiche:

tedesco	italiano
Bindegewebe	tessuto connettivo
Funktionsreserven	riserve funzionali
Gefäßsystem	sistema vascolare
Herzfrequenz	frequenza cardiaca
Herzhypertrophie	ipertrofia cardiaca
Herzinsuffizienz	insufficienza cardiaca
Herzwand	parete cardiaca
Lungenfunktion	funzione polmonare
Myokardhypertrophie	ipertrofia miocardica
Myokardinsuffizienz	insufficienza miocardica
Niereninsuffizienz	insufficienza renale
Skelettmuskulatur	muscolatura scheletrica
Wandspannung	tensione parietale
Zellmembran	membrana cellulare
Zellwand	parete cellulare

tedesco	italiano
Myokardinfarkt	infarto del miocardio
alveoläre Hämosiderose	emosiderosi degli alveoli
Gerinnungssystem	sistema della coagulazione
Kraftentwicklung	formazione di energia
Myokardhypertrophie	ipertrofia del miocardio

Come detto in precedenza, oltre che attraverso la composizione, le parole possono formarsi attraverso il processo della derivazione, caratterizzata dalla presenza di affissi (prefissi e suffissi); a seconda del processo, si parlerà di prefissazione e suffissazione.

Nella lingua medica prefissi e suffissi ricorrono molto frequentemente: in particolare questi ultimi spesso indicano un determinato tipo di processo patologico a carico dell'organo o del tessuto che è indicato dalla radice. Ogni suffisso è dotato di un significato semanticamente preciso.

I tre suffissi per eccellenza della lingua medica sono –ite (per indicare quasi sempre un processo infiammatorio), –osi (per un processo regressivo-degenerativo) e –oma (suffisso tipico delle neoplasie). In tedesco, a questi suffissi corrispondono –*itis*, *–ose* e *–om*. A tal proposito, possono essere utili i seguenti esempi:

- dermat**ite** (*Dermatitis*): malattia della pelle caratterizzata dalla presenza di un processo infiammatorio acuto o cronico che ha sede nel derma; [1]
- scler**osi** (*Sklerose*): termine impiegato in patologia per indicare l'aumento di consistenza di un organo, o di una struttura anatomica, dovuto ad un abnorme aumento della quota di tessuto connettivo in essa presente; [2]
- sarc**oma** (*Sarkom*): tumore maligno originato da tessuti non epiteliali di

derivazione mesodermica. [3]

Altri suffissi frequenti sono, in tedesco, *-in*, *-ie*, *-ase*. Si vedano i seguenti esempio:

tedesco	italiano
Derma**titis**	derma**tite**
Pericard**itis**	pericard**ite**
Fibr**ose**	fibr**osi**
Myx**om**	mix**oma**
Bradykin**in**	bradichin**ina**
Endothel**in**	endotel**ina**
Eklamps**ie**	eclamps**ia**
Phosphodiester**ase**	fosfodiester**asi**
Thrombox**an**	tromboss**ano**

In merito ai prefissi, la maggior parte dei quali di origine greca, il tedesco e l’italiano condividono numerosi casi di equivalenza totale sul piano del significato con minime differenze ortografiche: si tratta di ipo-/hypo- (sotto), mega- (grande), poli-/poly- (molto), retro- (indietro), sin-/syn- (con).

La grande presenza di una componente classica, come emerge dagli esempi riportati sopra, in numerose terminologie scientifiche può essere ricondotta

> […] da una parte a motivi di carattere storico, avendo molte scienze la loro origine nel mondo antico, ma ancor di più a motivi linguistici, dato che i processi di formazione delle parole delle lingue classiche risultano particolarmente idonei a soddisfare i bisogni di descrittività, concisione e chiarezza caratteristici del lessico specialistico (PUATO 2012: 132).

Ci sono anche esempi di non corrispondenza tra le due lingue: nel caso di *intra*- ed *endo*-, ad esempio, entrambi indicano “all’interno, dentro”, ma se *intramuskulär* si traduce con *intramuscolare*, *intravenös* corrisponde invece a *endovenoso*.

tedesco	**italiano**
antidiuretisch	**anti**diuretico
antimitotisch	**anti**mitotico
Dialyse	**dia**lisi
Dysfunktion	**dis**funzione
Hypertrophie	**iper**trofia
Hyperventilation	**iper**ventilazione
Hypoxämie	**ipo**ssemia
Insuffizienz	**in**sufficienza
paraventrikulär	**para**ventricolare
Perfusion	**per**fusione
Perikardium	**peri**cardio

Nella lingua medica ricorrono spesso anche composti con confissi tipici quali vaso-

, emo- (hämo-), immuno-, beta- (β-):

tedesco	italiano
Vasopressin	**vaso**pressina
Vasopeptidase	**vaso**peptidasi
vasokonstrigierend	**vaso**costrittore
hämodynamisch	**emo**dinamico
hämorragisch	**emo**rragico
hämodynamik	**emo**dinamica
Immunsystem	sistema **immun**itario
immunologisch	**immuno**logico
Betamimetika	**beta**-mimetici
β-adrenergerRezeptoren	recettori **β**-adrenergici
β-Adrenorezeptoren	**β**-adreno recettori

Di seguito vengono presentati alcuni derivati e alcuni composti identificati nel corpus, nei quali sono immediatamente visibili le caratteristiche della formazione delle parole illustrate in precedenza, come ad esempio l'uso di prefissi quali *a-* (a indicare una mancanza) *intra-* ed *endo-* (a indicare "all'interno, dentro"), *dys-* (a indicare un'alterazione della normalità), *de-* (a indicare un'assenza), *extra-* ("all'esterno"), *hypo-* ("al di sotto"), *sub-* ("sotto"), *trans-* ("attraverso") e l'uso di suffissi come *-om* (suffisso tipico delle neoplasie), *-ose* (per processi regressivo-degenerativo), *itis* (per processi infiammatori) (STEGER 2016: 63-73). Nelle parole composte si potrà notare, invece, la distinzione fra composti nominali, verbali e aggettivali e la relazione gerarchica che intercorre fra l'elemento principale, detto "testa", e l'elemento secondario, detto "modificatore" (DI MEOLA 2004: 70-71).

Derivati	Composti
Antiaggregation	Aortendissektion
antiarrhytmisch	Aortenklappe
Aortenstenose	Bauchaortenaneurysma
Asystolie	Blutdruckmessung
Bradykardie	Blutzucker
bioabsorbierbar	Differenzialdiagnose
Defibrillation	Ejektionsfraktion
Dehydratation	Herzerkrankung
Dysfunktion	Herzfrequenz
Dyspnoe	Herzinfarktrisiko
endokardial	Herzinsuffizienztherapie
Endokarditis	Herzkammer
extrakardial	Klappeninsuffizienz
extrazellulär	Lungenerkrankung
Fibrose	Mitralklappe
Glaukom	Myokardinfarkt
Glukose	Pumpfunktion
hämodynamisch	Zielfrequenz

5. La rideterminazione semantica

Nella lingua settoriale non è raro trovare parole o espressioni appartenenti alla lingua comune, ma che nella lingua settoriale hanno assunto un significato specifico (DUBUC 1992: 26). Si tratta del fenomeno della rideterminazione semantica (CORTELAZZO 1994, APRILE 2005, BERTACCINI, LECCI e BONO 2008): «si usano parole che sono già della lingua comune ma le si specializza attraverso una rideterminazione semantica, cioè attraverso l'acquisizione di un nuovo significato, proprio di quel settore» (APRILE 2005: 52). La parola rideterminata semanticamente diventa così un termine specialistico che può appartenere anche a diversi settori ma «in ciascun settore avrà il suo significato specifico, senza che siano possibili ambiguità o confusioni da parte di chi recepisce la parola» (APRILE 2005: 53).

Questo fenomeno è denominato anche *terminologizzazione*, a indicare proprio «il processo per cui una parola o un'espressione di uso generale o comune viene trasformato in un termine che designa un concetto particolare in un linguaggio speciale» (BERTACCINI, LECCI e BONO 2008: 49).

Di seguito sono presentate alcune delle parole estratte dal corpus che hanno subìto il fenomeno della rideterminazione semantica a dimostrazione che «nelle scienze una parola o un’espressione della lingua comune o di un’altra lingua speciale può essere utilizzata come punto di partenza per la creazione di un termine che designa un nuovo concetto in una determinata disciplina o un suo sottosettore (MUSACCHIO 2004: 220).

Bypass	
dominio di provenienza	idraulica, elettrotecnica
definizione generale in tedesco[4]	UmführungeinerStrömung
definizione generale in italiano	conduttura secondaria nella quale si devia, mediante valvole, la corrente fluida quando si voglia momentaneamente impedire che questa percorra la conduttura principale nel tratto tra i due punti nei quali è inserito il by-pass stesso.
definizione in medicina (DE)	Überbrückung des krankhaft veränderten Abschnittes eines Blutgefäßes durch Einpflanzung eines Ersatzstückes
definizione in medicina (IT)	derivazione del sangue nella macchina per la circolazione extracorporea, durante interventi su cuore aperto
esempio di contesto nel corpus	In Einzelfällen kann bei einem sehr hohen Risiko für einen **Bypass**-Verschluss die Gabe von OAK oder die kombinierte Gabe von OAK und ASS erwogen werden.

Bulbus (bulbo)	
dominio di provenienza	botanica
definizione generale in tedesco	Zwiebel, Pflanzenknolle
definizione generale in italiano	germoglio sotterraneo di forma globosa più o meno ovata
definizione in medicina (DE)	zwiebelförmiges, rundliches Organ
definizione in medicina (IT)	nome di formazioni diverse, somiglianti, per la forma, a un bulbo vegetale
esempio di contesto nel corpus	Es gibt leider keine prädiktive P-Welle! Man muss im Aorten**bulbus** nachsehen.

Pumpe (pompa)	
dominio di provenienza	meccanica
definizione generale in tedesco	Vorrichtung, Gerät zum An- oder Absaugen von Flüssigkeiten oder Gasen
definizione generale in italiano	macchina operatrice destinata a sollevare o comunque a spostare liquidi o aeriformi
definizione in medicina (DE)	Herz
definizione in medicina (IT)	pompa cardiaca come sinonimo di cuore: muscolo che agisce come una pompa per il sangue
esempio di contesto nel corpus	Hier wird daher empfohlen, auf den Einsatz von Calcium Sensitizing Medikamente wie z. B. Levosimendan zu setzen (10) ggf. eine intra-aortale Gegenpulsations**pumpe**, Impella oder ein ECMO Verfahren frühzeitig zu nutzen.

Kammer (camera)	
dominio di provenienza	architettura
definizione generale in tedesco	kleiner Raum in einer Wohnung
definizione generale in italiano	qualunque ambiente interno di un edificio per abitazione, che non abbia, per particolarità di forma, dimensioni e impianti, una destinazione speciale
definizione in medicina (DE)	abgeteilter Hohlraum in bestimmten Organen
definizione in medicina (IT)	cavità anatomica piccola e ben delimitata
esempio di contesto nel corpus	Eine Überinterpretation des EKGs, wie die Annahme eines funktionellen Schenkelblocks bei tatsächlicher **Kammer**tachykardie oder die falsche Formel einer „stabilen Hämodynamik bei geringen Symptomen und breiter QRS-Tachykardie = supraventrikuläre Tachykardie mit Schenkelblock" sind hier meist der Ausgangspunkt.

Schrittmacher (gen: battistrada, spec: pacemaker)	
dominio di provenienza	ippica
definizione generale in tedesco	Pferd, das die Pace macht
definizione generale in italiano	cavallo che, durante l'allenamento o durante la corsa, precede gli altri e ne regola l'andatura
definizione in medicina (DE)	kleines elektrisches Gerät, das das Herz wieder gleichmäßig schnell schlagen lässt
definizione in medicina (IT)	stimolatore cardiaco (sigla PM) costituito da un oscillatore pulsante alimentato a batterie il quale, mediante un elettrodo impiantato nelle cavità atriali o ventricolari, o in entrambe, mira, con l'emissione di efficaci impulsi elettrici, a mantenere regolare e costante la contrazione cardiaca
esempio di contesto nel corpus	AV-Blockierungen sind meist reversibel (nach 1–2 Wochen) und benötigen keinen permanenten Schrittmacher

Vorhof (atrio)	
dominio di provenienza	architettura, urbanistica
definizione generale in tedesco	vor einem Gebäude gelegener Hof
definizione generale in italiano	ingresso monumentale in un palazzo o in una villa; anche la sala d'ingresso di una villa signorile o di un albergo, il locale di entrata o di sosta di edifici pubblici
definizione in medicina (DE)	durch die Herzklappe mit der Herzkammer verbundener Teil des Herzens, in den das Blut zuerst einfließt
definizione in medicina (IT)	cavità del cuore dei vertebrati in cui giunge il sangue refluo delle vene
esempio di contesto nel corpus	Hierbei wird über einen transseptalen Zugang wird ein steuerbarer Katheter in den linken **Vorhof** eingebracht und mit 11 bis 16 Schrauben ein halbgeschlossenes Dacron-Band auf dem posterioren Mitralklappenring fixiert.

Alla luce del paragone formulato da WITTGENSTEIN (2001: PU18) che vede la lingua come una città, quanto sopra dimostra che non solo vi è uno scambio continuo tra lingua comune e lingua speciale, ma anche che il confine tra le diverse microlingue è chiaramente molto sottile, soprattutto in virtù del fatto che uno dei tratti peculiari della lingua medica, come del resto delle altre lingue speciali, è la sua infrasettorialità: sussiste, infatti, un continuo scambio reciproco di tecnicismi specifici da una lingua speciale all'altra e dalla lingua comune a una lingua speciale. La lingua della cardiologia non fa eccezione.

6. Conclusione

Attraverso la creazione di un corpus in lingua tedesca è stato possibile effettuare un'analisi quantitativa (supportata da software) e successivamente un'analisi qualitativa dei termini che appartengono al sottodominio della cardiologia e così verificare come tale microlingua condivida con la lingua medica tutte le caratteristiche che contraddistinguono questa lingua speciale, quali ad esempio la tendenza a una forte nominalizzazione, la florida ricchezza terminologica, il frequente ricorso ad anglicismi, la maggiore presenza di costruzioni passive e impersonali rispetto a quelle attive e, nel caso della lingua tedesca, l'esistenza della cosiddetta "diglossia tecnica".

All'interno del lavoro si è scelto di focalizzare l'attenzione su due aspetti principali: da un lato la morfologia dei termini, soprattutto dei tecnicismi specifici, dall’altro il fenomeno della rideterminazione semantica intesa sia come passaggio di una parola dalla lingua comune alla lingua specialistica, sia come passaggio tra due diversi settori specialistici.

Per quanto riguarda il primo aspetto, sono emerse la vitalità e la vivacità della composizione come meccanismo di formazione delle parole nella lingua tedesca ed è stata messa in rilievo la classificazione tra composti determinativi e copulativi. L’attenzione si è poi spostata sul processo della derivazione, presentando alcuni termini presenti nel corpus ed evidenziandone prefissi e suffissi. In merito al secondo aspetto, invece, sono stati riportati alcuni esempi di parole che hanno subìto una rideterminazione semantica a dimostrazione che non solo il confine tra lingua comune e lingua speciale, ma anche quello tra microlingue, non è sempre netto e determinato.

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Note

↑ 1 *http://www.corriere.it/salute/dizionario/dermatite/index.shtml* (31/10/2019).

↑ 2 *http://www.corriere.it/salute/dizionario/sclerosi/index.shtml* (31/10/2019).

↑ 3 *http://www.corriere.it/salute/dizionario/sarcoma/index.shtml* (31/10/2019).

↑ 4 Tutte le definizioni qui presentate sono tratte dal dizionario online *Duden* *https://www.duden.de/* (per la lingua tedesca) e dal dizionario online *Treccani* *http://www.treccani.it/* (per la lingua italiana) (16/05/2020).

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«Shifts» and «Markedness»: Words or Terms? Terminology and Metalanguage Issues in Translation Studies Dictionaries, Encyclopedia, Handbooks and Coursebooks

«Shifts» and «Markedness»: Words or Terms? Terminology and Metalanguage Issues in Translation Studies Dictionaries, Encyclopedia, Handbooks and Coursebooks

Laura SANTINI

Table

Abstract [1]

Prendendo le mosse dal volume The Metalanguage of Translation (2009) di GAMBIER & van DOORSLAER, questo studio propone una riflessione sulla terminologia in uso negli studi teorici sulla traduzione a partire da due vocaboli chiave tra quelli tecnici in uso, ovvero shift e markedness, ripercorrendone l'affermarsi e il modo in cui sono (o meno) utilizzati e sono (o meno) presenti in una selezione di enciclopedie, dizionari, libri di testo e manuali di larga diffusione. L'intenzione è portare in primo piano e quindi all'attenzione - tra gli altri di chi guida e di chi frequenta corsi universitari sulla traduzione - sia la loro polisemia che può fungere da stimolo per analisi e confronti, sia come il loro significato specifico, spesso anche molto distante all'interno di precisi approcci, possa se non coerentemente presentato trasformarsi in un impedimento a cogliere l'articolazione di alcune teorie traduttive. La valenza polisemica di questi termini, attestatasi storicamente all'interno di specifici approcci, si affianca in dizionari, manuali e enciclopedie a un utilizzo parzialmente incoerente che vede predominare il senso più comune o generico delle due parole chiave. Tale uso può essere sviante ma anche sfavorire una visione articolata dei due vocaboli in materiali considerati punto di riferimento per orientarsi tra metodologie, approcci teorici e strategie o modelli traduttivi.

Drawing on GAMBIER & van DOORSLAER's The Metalanguage of Translation (2009), this paper offers a reflection on translation terminology while tracing a review of two keywords, i.e. shift and markedness, and investigates whether they feature or not and how they are (not) used in a range of encyclopaedias, dictionaries, coursebooks, and handbooks. By tracking down how the two terms were introduced into Translation Studies and how they have been deployed and variously conceptualised, the aim of this essay is to increase awareness - among translation lecturers and trainees, in particular - of their polysemy that may be a source of inspiration for further discussion. However, polysemy also brings to the fore how their different and somewhat inconsistent use within reference Translation Studies materials may discourage learners from grasping their complexity and master them as theory-specific tools.

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1. The conundrum of translation terminology

Translation terminology is still a slippery slope at best and a real conundrum at worst. Among the many scholars commenting on this issue, Mary SNELL-HORNBY firmly argues: «[i]f it is the purpose of "technical" (here in the sense of "subject-specific”) terms to be clear and unambiguous, we can truthfully say that much of the terminology of Translation Studies has not fulfilled its aim» (2009: 127-128).

There is more than one reason why translation terminology is still wobbly, as James S. HOLMES (1972/2000) was extensively already discussing in 1972, but two main ones may be considered as crucial: the first is related to the parent disciplines Translation Studies branched from, i.e. Linguistics, Linguistic Philosophy, and/or Comparative Literature but also «more remote disciplines as information theory, logic, and mathematics, each of them carrying [...] paradigms, quasi-paradigms, models, and methodologies» (HOLMES 1972/2000: 173). The second one is possibly even more subtly relevant and urgent in contemporary theory work on translation as it deals with «the specific role played by language and languages in Translation Studies» (SNELL-HORNBY 2009: 124). Despite the independent status the discipline has gained across time, a number of «evergreens of scholarly dispute» (SNELL-HORNBY 2009: 124), for instance on the term equivalence, have not come to a definite solution or stabilised the term. The result has generated an increased «risk of non-communication» (SNELL-HORNBY 2009: 124): firstly, because terminology is used uniquely to discuss complex language issues within specific language and culture communities or pairs of them; secondly, because a number of terms have become polysemous by being appropriated by various approaches on top of being borrowings from various branches of Linguistics, thus increasing chaos.

In the introduction to the *Dictionary of Translation Studies* (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 1997/2014), confirms the first issue by pointing to the «multi-faceted nature» of Translation Studies and «the different branches of the discipline» that have made it difficult to clearly define its specific metalanguage once and for all. As a matter of fact, to compile their dictionary, SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE distinguish between «“native” terminology» (2014: iv), born within the field, in this case Translation Studies, and those terms «coined in linguistics» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: iv) and elsewhere, for instance, those borrowed from «completely different areas» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: vii); a third category, the largest, is the one by which terms are created from «quite simply “normal” English words which are being used in a new, technical sense» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: vii). The distinction between native and non-native terms informs their selection of entries and should also explain or entail omissions. Unfortunately, though, it does not prevent the volume from a number of repetitions, for instance within related entries, which increase the level of redundancy and scarcely encourage further investigation.

Few years earlier, in 2009, GAMBIER & van DOORSLAER had edited *The Metalanguage of Translation*, a collection of contributions dealing with both the fragmented nature of the discipline – as for schools, cultures, turns, and approaches – and the lack of consilience in the field (CHESTERMAN 2005, 2007). In that collection, offering a brief review on translation metalanguage, Leona van VAERENBERGH (2009) stressed the agreement among scholars and researchers (DELISLE, LEE-JAHNKE & CORMIER 1999, SALEVSKY 1994) on the proliferation of terms and their often unclear and overlapping conceptualisation. If polysemy and synonymy are to be understood as «a sign of research progress and dynamism», to quote van VAERENBERGH (2009: 46), they may be regarded both as an issue and as an opportunity. Polysemy is typically undesirable in language used for specific purposes and even more so when considered from a pedagogical perspective, and yet it is widely acknowledged as common especially in the humanities. However, as translation terminology has become core in many translation course syllabi and university programs, students should be offered clearer information on the various theory-specific sense(s) and be encouraged to acquire and use it appropriately and consistently, as claimed by many introductions to reference and course volumes.

Within a rich and long term discussion in Translation Studies that has not yet led to any convincing closure for many words and terms, as well as in the wake of van VAERENBERGH’s work (2009), this paper aims to contribute to the debate by bringing forward the case of two terms, i.e. *shift* and *markedness*[1] (including *marked/unmarked*) which are still inconsistently treated in various reference books. As they are often not offered accurate definition, they can be variously construed, increasing their semantic ambiguity and discouraging their use. A survey of both terms is carried out in order to assess consistent or inconsistent use within reference Translation Studies materials, such as dictionaries, encyclopedias and coursebooks. Offering a preliminary critical overview of the occurrences and use or misuse of these two terms, the paper examines the following reference books and the way the two terms feature in them: SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE’s *Dictionary of Translation Studies* (1997/2014), BAKER’s *The Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies*

(1998), DELISLE, LEE-JAHNKE, CORMIER, *Terminologie de la Traduction: Translation Terminology* (1999), and GAMBIER & van DOORSLAER *The Handbook of Translation Studies, 2* (2011), MALMKJÆR & WINDLE *The Oxford Handbook of Translation Studies* (2011). Since terminology is an issue discussed also relative to courses, the analysis extends into four widely adopted translation coursebooks, i.e. BASSNETT's *Translation Studies* (1980/2002); *In Other Words* by Mona BAKER (1992/2011), *Language to Language* by Christopher TAYLOR (1998/2007), and *Introducing Translation Studies* by Jeremy MUNDAY (2001/2016).

2. "Shifts" and "markedness": words or terms?

A minority of terms belong to the native terminology type, SHUTTLEWORTH argues and they «derive from a number of sources» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: vii), that is, some rely on «what one might call "standard terminological morphemes"»; other terms combine «recognisable roots to create a semantically transparent compound (such as *minimax*, *polysystem* and *translatology*)» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: vii). Unfortunately most terms come from common English words. In general English, *shift* as a noun means «a change in position or direction» (*Cambridge Dictionary* [2], *sub voce*) and is thus a case in point; *markedness*, on the contrary, is a specific word that does not typically feature in general English, but is not a native term either, rather it is a borrowing, having been coined within phonology as early as in the 1930s.

The origins and trajectory of the term *shift* can be traced at the convergence of two disciplines, i.e. Linguistics and Translation Studies, gradually gaining currency in the latter as a term though a polysemous and unstable one. However, the origin of *markedness*, its evolution within a very specific branch of Linguistics and its absence both in SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE's *Dictionary* (2014) and BAKER's *Encyclopedia* (1998) have led to the perusal of some other references, as it remains controversial whether the word has indeed turned into a term in Translation Studies or whether it is still just treated as a borrowing and thus subjected to frequent redefinition.

3. "Shifts", "shifts of expression" as entry in

dictionaries and encyclopedias

As a general English word, *shift* is both a verb and a noun. The latter most frequently features as a compound, such as «day/night/back/graveyard shift» to refer to «a group of workers who do a job for a period of time [...] or the period of time itself», (*Cambridge Dictionary, sub voce*) [3].

In Translation Studies, *shift* acquires a specific meaning also as a compound, becoming a term in the 60s, when linguist J. C. CATFORD, in his *A Linguistic Theory of Translation* (1965) provides his own definition of the term. As MUNDAY (2016) sums up, following the Firthian and Hallidayan linguistic model, «which analyses language as communication, operating functionally in context and on a range of different levels (e.g. phonology, graphology, grammar, lexis) and ranks (sentence, clause, group, word, morpheme, etc.)» (MUNDAY 2016: 95), CATFORD introduces his systemic functional approach by way of his two main types of *shifts,* namely «category shifts» (CATFORD 1965: 73) and «level shifts» (CATFORD 1965: 73), that is, «departure from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL» (CATFORD 1965: 73). The former, «category shifts» (CATFORD 1965: 73), to which the Scottish scholar devotes most of his attention, is further divided into four subcategories, i.e. «structural shifts, class shifts, unit or rank shifts, and intra-system shifts» (CATFORD 1965: 76) and occurs when «a unit at one rank in one language is rendered in the other language by a unit at another rank, or when there are differences of structure, class, or terms in systems between an ST and a TT item» (MALMKJÆR & WINDLE 2011: 45). The latter, «level shifts», refers to changes occuring between the levels of grammar and lexis – e.g. something expressed by grammar in the SL may be expressed by lexis in the TL.

As Kirsten MALMKJÆR (2009) states in «Linguistics and Translation» in the *Handbook of Translation Studies* (Vol. 2), CATFORD has never been very popular in the Translation Studies community, as he is the «most regularly vilified proponent of a linguistic approach to translation» (MALMKJÆR 2009: 62). This becomes particularly interesting when reading SHUTTLEWORTH M. & COWIE M.'s rationale behind their selection criteria, in which they insist on the alien nature of some terms drawn from Linguistics, a discipline with

> «many differing methodologies, some of which have been imported wholesale from other areas of academic study, and not all of which, unfortunately, have been entirely germane to the study of translation. This is perhaps particularly true of certain approaches adopted from various branches of linguistics» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: vi).

That a large number of entries in translation terminology seems to come from various branches of Linguistics is a fact, but what does not seem appropriate, according to the author, is that there are terms which are not relevant to translation. Obviously, *shift* must be an exception and considered «germane» enough, as it is abundantly listed in several entries of the dictionary (it features 115 times all in all) and in many of its compound variants as well, that is, «category shift, class shift, intra-system shift, level shift, structure shift, negative shift*, unit shift» [4]. It is worth noting that all the compounds refer back to CATFORD's theory and his classification which eventually accounts for an unfortunate number of repetitions within each separate entry. There is but one exception in SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE's, that is, «negative shift», a term coined by the Slovak founder of the theory of literary translation, Anton POPOVIČ, to label «an incorrect translational solution (or mistranslation) caused by a misunderstanding on the part of the translator» (POPOVIČ 1976). SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE list «negative shift» as an independent entry and expectedly discuss it within POPOVIČ's definition of «shift of expression», that is, all «that appears as new with respect to the original, or fails to appear where it might have been expected» (POPOVIČ 1970: 79).

In SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE's *Dictionary*, it is the plural form, i.e. «shifts», and «shift of expression» – again common in general English as well – that features as one single entry offering a definition of the term and a list of its compounds; the polysemy of the term is treated mostly relative to CATFORD and POPOVIČ, while other scholars, such as Kitty M. van LEUVEN-ZWART (1989, 1990) and Gideon TOURY (1978/1995/2000) are only briefly mentioned – LEUVEN-ZWART as the one who investigated the precise nature and distribution of phenomena that result from «the translator's personal stylistic preferences or from the translational policy or norms» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: 153); while TOURY (1978/1995/2000) as the one who developed his own notion «distinguishing two varieties, the obligatory (e.g. linguistically motivated) and the non-obligatory (e.g. motivated by literary or cultural considerations)» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: 153). Yet, the very first time the plural form «shifts» occurs capitalised in the *Dictionary* is expectedly within another entry, i.e. «accuracy», (fifth from the beginning) and it is somewhat associated with a quote by POPOVIČ, while CATFORD is not even mentioned, let alone other scholars. Surprisingly, POPOVIČ, whose «scholarly activities were the outcome of literary translations in the 1950s» (BILOVESKÝ & DJOVČOŠ 2016: 199) is not mentioned to list his own distinguishing categories, devised around *shift*, such as «constitutive shifts», «individual shifts», «retardation shifts», «thematic shifts», «generic shifts», and «rhythmic shifts». All these compounds cannot be retrieved anywhere in the *Dictionary*. Eventually, out of the 115 times the word *shift* is repeated – as singular and plural and as a single or multiword – unfortunately not all occurrences are terms.

As a matter of fact, *shift* is also used as a synonym of change, e.g. in a quotation by SNELL-HORNBY that is included in the entry labeled «Intertemporal Translation (or Cross-temporal Translation)» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: 86-87), «shift in value and significance as [the] world itself changes and develops» (SNELL-HORNBY 2009: 87); or used in one of its senses as a general word, i.e. «a job for a period of time», as for instance in «the task interpreters tend to work in 20-30 minute shifts» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: 155). Besides, not all compounds are marked or signalled as terms in small capitals[5]. For instance, Dutch scholar van LEUWEN-ZWART's «microstructural shift» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: 11) and «macrostructural shift» (LEUWEN-ZWART 1989, 1990) as well as TOURY's (1989, 1990) «obligatory shifts» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: 6) and «optional shifts» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: 6) are not in small capitals as expected in the dictionary. It is this sort of inconsistency in signalling terms that makes some of them puzzling beyond their polysemy. In addition, some omissions often make it difficult to fully recognise new compounds or approach-specific variants and their validity as such within Translation Studies.

Turning the attention to DELISLE, LEE-JAHNKE & CORMIER's *Terminology of Translation* (1999), the status of *shift* as a term in Translation Studies is completely jeopardized: the word, either singular or plural and/or as a compound, is not listed at all and features only once in the whole text, in its most common sense meaning "change".

In *The Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies* (1998), BAKER has a generous and original thematic entry for «shifts of translation» (BAKER 1998: 226-231) and explicitly calls it a term: «[t]he term shifts is used in the literature to refer to changes which occur or may occur in the process of translating. [...] the notion of shift belongs to the domain of linguistic performance, as opposed to that of theories of competence» (BAKER 1998: 226). After a conceptual introduction, the entry «shifts of translation» that sees it «as a performance» (BAKER 1998: 227) is organised in two main sections: «[s]hifts and invariance» (BAKER 1998: 227-229) and «Definition and classification of shifts in product-oriented descriptions» (BAKER 1998: 229-230). BAKER does not introduce the term historically – CATFORD is only mentioned in the second section. Rather, she provides an overview of the term, distinguishing between «the domain of linguistic performance» and that of the «theories of competence». According to BAKER, «shifts in translation» should be understood, as «performance, therefore ought to be concerned with the dynamics of culture rather than the static contrastive description of languages and cultures» (BAKER 1998: 226-231). The first reference is to Gideon TOURY but soon van LEUVEN-ZWART's theory is quoted as well, giving the impression that the many omissions (in terms of the various approach-specific compounds) are meant to be retrieved through BAKER's thorough analysis on the lexical item both at a diachronic and synchronic level. In *The Routledge Encyclopedia* index (BAKER 1998), the word *shift* is listed as plural and associated to about twenty other words whose corresponding page numbers all point to the same section mentioned above [6]. BAKER is strongly supportive of the relevance of the term as she argues «the concept of shift is especially relevant to the applied branches of Translation Studies: translation didactics and criticism» (BAKER 1998: 227). Yet, if searched by looking up names of scholars, *shifts* as a plural word occurs once next to POPOVIČ but neither as a compound nor associated to other words – in spite of the fact that «generic shift» is presented in bold characters as a specific term used by POPOVIČ to speak of «changes at the level of macrostylistics [that] cause the translation to fit a literary genre different from that of the original» (BAKER 1998: 230). As for CATFORD, the word is also listed alongside the linguist's name but as one single entry, redirecting to one page only, while no further mention is there in particular of

CATFORD’s compounds, i.e. «level shifts»and «category shifts», as one might have expected. Further lack of harmony arises when it comes to TOURY. Next to the Israeli translation scholar’s name in the index, *shift* features in a phrase, namely «shifts and adequate translation» which is not to be found as such in any of the various entries provided earlier when listing the word (see full list in footnote 3). Besides, when BAKER discusses TOURY’s «» (in bold in the *Encyclopedia*), *shift* is not highlighted or signalled in any way as a term either as plural or singular, even though a definition of *shifts* is in fact provided and reads as follows: «The degree of correspondence taken as invariance within this method is adequacy at the textemic level, and shifts are defined as deviations from adequacy» (BAKER 1998: 230). Next to van LEUWEN-ZWART name, in BAKER’s index, *shift* is no longer mentioned, though the scholar’s name, as above said, is quoted in the entry BAKER devotes to the concept as a whole. Similarly to SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE’s *Dictionary*, BAKER’s choices relative to *shift* as a term do not fully encourage direct access to its specific meaning either within a particular theory or approach. Thus, despite opening up many threads to acknowledge the term polysemy and quoting several scholars who conceptualised the word as term, BAKER never offers any actual orientation tool on how scholars tend to appropriate and redefine the term to the extent that a lack of congruence eventually arises.

Expectedly, it is around CATFORD and his functional systemic approach to translation that revolves MALMKJÆR’s «Linguistic Approaches to Translation», the fourth chapter in *The Oxford Handbook of Translation Studies* (2011). The focus is also on HALVERSON's cognitive linguistic approach that is applied to specific translational phenomena such as «translation universals» (2003) and «translation shifts» (2007). Indeed, chapter 6 opens on «Translation Universals» – an idea first raised by Gideon TOURY in the 1970s - and then moves to BLUM-KULKA’s research work «Shifts of cohesion and coherence in translation» (1986/2004) that identifies «explicitation shifts» and «implicitation shifts», where she comes to the conclusion that «a translation will be more explicitly cohesive than its source text». Out of the 67 entries in *The Oxford Handbook of Translation Studies*, the word *shift* extensively features in some frequent compounds, typical of formal English, that cannot be considered terms, such as «cultural shift», «shifting boundaries», or it is to be found in linguistics multiword terms, such as «shift in register», «semantic shift», and «tense-shifting». The more general sense of the word, both as noun and verb, is also frequent and in some cases even inappropriately so, for instance alongside a scholar such as CATFORD, in chapter 7, «The Translator as Cross-Cultural Mediator»: «Catford was anticipating a major shift in thinking about translation that came to fruition with the advent of Translation Studies in the 1970s» (BASSNETT 2011: 68-76). Given the importance the word has as a term for the Scottish scholar in particular, but also in the handbook itself – as testified by the many entries in the index - its use as a general word should probably be avoided as it may become misleading and unnecessarily baffling for readers. There is one more technical use of *shift* by Francis R. JONES in his «The Translation of Poetry» (2011: 172-180), in which a brand new compound is coined, «adaptive shift» (JONES 2011: 176) that is presented in inverted commas and retrievable via the index. Tackling the creative aspect of translating poetry, JONES defines novelty «as any departure from ST [source text] structures» and «adaptive shift» as what «may be seen as creative: transferring rhymes to other words than those which bear the rhyme in the ST, for example» (JONES 2011: 176). According to JONES, semantic novelty is «undertaken reluctantly if at all», while «adaptive shift» is «undertaken as a matter of course» (2011: 176) and in this sense it does not seem to be that far from CATFORD's «category and level shifts».

The first to use the word *shift* out of the 30 occurrences in the *Handbook of Translation Studies*, Vol. 2 (GAMBIER & van DOORSLAER: 2011), is Cristina MARINETTI in «Cultural Approaches» (2011: 26-30). The word, however, is not meant as a term: it is used three more times as a synonym for "turn"; or in its general sense as "change", e.g. «a more general shift in epistemological stance» and «[b]y shifting the focus» (MARINETTI 2011: 26) or «a theoretical and methodological shift in Translation Studies» (MARINETTI 2011: 27). Other scholars in this handbook opt for *shift* both as a noun and a verb in its general sense, e.g. Dilek DIZDAR in his «Deconstruction» (2011: 31-36), and Outi PALOPOSKI in «Domestication and foreignization» (2011: 40-42). However, it is MALMKJÆR who clearly addresses the word as term and presents it, once again, within CATFORD's theory in her «Linguistics and translation» (MALMKJÆR 2011: 61-68), discussing the Scottish linguist's classification, «level shift» (shifts of sound, lexicon, grammar, text in the Hallidayan system) and «category shift» (shifts of structure, class, unit, or system). All other contributors use the word as a general one not as a term, thus continuing to contribute to the opacity of the word role within Translation Studies, e.g. Dirk DELABASTITA (2011: 71), James ST. ANDRÉ (2011: 85), Paul BANDIA (2011: 111), Carol O'SULLIVAN (2011: 124), Cecilia WADENSJÖ (2011: 143).

4. "Shifts", "shifts of expression" in coursebooks and manuals

Reference materials especially designed for class work and independent learning typically introduce and organise terminology through two main distinct text types: one is a more extensive though condensed in-context form, that is, a description in one of the chapters or sections of the main body of the manual, in which terms are highlighted in some way or other – e.g. using special font types, such as bold, italics or small capitals. The second most common text type, meant for quicker reference, is a glossary where concise definitions can be retrieved, sometimes along with page numbers. Another paratext that may be exploited is the index that can (but not always does) list all the terms featured in the textbook. In some cases, even footnotes may be considered useful means to present further information or insights – consistency of use leads to including such footnotes in the index, but again this is not a standard practice.

In Susan BASSNETT's coursebook, *Translation Studies* (1980/2002), *shift* is only listed in the index as «shifts of expression» (2002: 85, 86, 90-91, 115). The word also features as a term in two footnotes summing up POPOVIČ's five types of *shift* – «constitutive shift», «generic shift», «individual shift», «negative shift», and «topical shift» (BASSNETT 2002: 138 f.11, 143 f.13). Entries of the word can be recorded elsewhere in the book both as singular or plural, noun (shift, shifts) or verb (shifted, shifting), mostly as a general word though, rather than as a term, meaning "change" – e.g. «there was also a shift in the status of the translator», (BASSNETT 2002: 12) or figuratively pointing to a turn/change in direction – see for instance «Shelley appears to shift from translating works admired for their ideas to translating works admired for their literary graces», (BASSNETT 2002: 69). When searching for CATFORD, a number of pages are listed in the index, but the most recurrent term associated with the Scottish linguist is «untranslatability» while his two classifications – «category shifts» and «level shifts» – are neither introduced nor discussed. If LEUVEN-ZWART is not listed in the index at all, TOURY comes up only when the polysystem approach is explored (BASSNETT 2002: 6-8). Eventually, Anton POPOVIČ is the only scholar whom the term *shift* is actually associated with, for the compound «shifts of expression» featuring three times (BASSNETT 2002: 85, 86, 90-1) in chapter 3, «Specific Problems of Literary Translation».

Despite the space BAKER devotes to *shift* in *The Routledge Encyclopedia* (1998) she edited, in her coursebook *In Other Words* (1992/2011), the word is less consistently used as a term. In most occurrences, *shift* is meant in its ordinary sense and only occasionally it can be identified as a technical more specific word. A tendency can be noticed to opt for *shift* as a quasi-technical compound or as a multiword applied to linguistic concepts and to translation as process, e.g. «a shift to passive», «the shift in information structure could have been avoided», «shift in style» – though it is not a specific linguistic term in any of these strings. Longer sentences also apply the same strategy, for instance the following: «Every time this happens it introduces a subtle (or major) *shift* away from the lexical chains and associations of the source text. Significant *shifts* do occur, even in non-literary text. They include, for instance, cases where the source text uses a play on idiom to create a lexical chain or a number of separate chains [...]» (1992/2018: 214, emphasis added). Approaching the keyword search from a different perspective, namely looking for scholars who charged the word with technical reference, there are discrepancies to be noticed in who is quoted, how often, and whether this is kept both in the first and second edition of BAKER's coursebook. Take for example the second edition (2018): CATFORD is quoted once but not to introduce his *shift* classification and terms, rather to exploit his research in Anthropological Linguistics and to describe grammar non-equivalence among different languages: «[s]ome languages have rather elaborate person systems. Catford (1965) explains that Bahasa Indonesia has a nine-term pronoun system where English has only seven», (1992/2018: 105) – the same sentence is retrievable from the 1992 edition. In the first edition, the Scottish linguist's name features more often, as from the index, but taking a closer look to the chapters his name features more often in, the reason is simple: because it is twice indicated in «Suggestions for further reading», pointing to «Translation shifts» that is chapter 12 in CATFORD's famous book *A Linguistic Theory of Translation*

(1965). Not listed in the «Subject index», *shift* is not even within the entries on coherence in spite of the fact that scholar Shoshana BLUM-KULKA, who investigated shifts of cohesion and coherence in translation, is largely quoted both in the first and second edition. As for her «shift in coherence» (1986/2000), it is only briefly touched upon once, in the following passage:

> If the source text makes use of two or more meanings of an item and the translation fails, for whatever reason, to convey any of those meanings, whole layers of meaning will be lost, resulting in what BLUM-KULKA (1986/2000) refers to as a "shift in coherence" (BAKER 2018: 263, same entry in 1992 edition: 253).

Even less room is gained by other scholars who promoted a technical use of the word among whom POPOVIČ, TOURY – only one entry in the second edition (none in the first), that is, a footnote about the notion of norm (BAKER 2018: 50, f. 17). There is no reference to LEUVEN-ZWART.

Shift is not within the extensive glossary of key words and expressions in Christopher TAYLOR's coursebook *Language to Language. A Practical and Theoretical Guide for Italian/English Translators*. Neither is it to be found as one of the many highlighted terms, i.e. «printed in bold type when they first appear in the text» (TAYLOR 2007: 4), nor in any of the chapters in which the book is organised, not even in the one labelled «Linguistics and translation», in which HALLIDAY is extensively quoted and to whom a subsection "Theme in Halliday" is devoted. Scholars such as CATFORD, POPOVIČ, TOURY, LEUVEN-ZWART and BLUM-KULKA are nowhere to be found and their works are not in the bibliography either. In spite of this lack of prominence, the word *shift* is frequently used throughout the book especially as a verb and in a semi-technical meaning when it comes to describing linguistic aspects of translation procedures at a grammar or syntax level, e.g. «consciously shifting the information focus to the father in the syntactic change» (TAYLOR 1998: 8); or in «the meaning of an individual unit may alter as it shifts from being, say, an isolated word to being part of a group» (TAYLOR 1998: 69); but also in «verb in passive voice to shift information focus» (TAYLOR 1998: 70); and in «the job of translators is to shift elements of legal Linguistics across foreign languages» (TAYLOR 1998: 126); and once again in «by shifting the adjective pair to the end of the clause, the translator can put the information focus» (TAYLOR 1998: 314). As these extracts show, some of CATFORD's lesson has been clearly absorbed, as TAYLOR relies consistently on «level shifts» and «category shifts» without offering a full description or, for that matter, discussion of the Scottish scholar's approach. Reference to VINAY & DARBELNET (1995/2004) should also not be ruled out as the word *shift* was not used in describing the linguistic changes within the seven procedures of their direct and oblique translation strategies, but that approach might still be considered as a precedent (MUNDAY 2016: 88). The result is that the word *shift*, often used as verb, is perceived as connotated but is on the one hand deprived of its technical identity and scarcely adopted in a nominalisation structure that would typically bring forth semantic density; on the other hand, it is mainly offered as an action, reducing its formal strength and contributing to making its status within Translation Studies not polysemous but simply uncertain.

Finally, in MUNDAY (2016) *shift* is both in the contents and in the index. In the former, two of the subsections of chapter four «Studying translation product and process» feature the word: the first is devoted to the Scottish linguist and his theory: «Catford and translation "shifts"»; the second one is more generic, «Option, markedness and stylistic shifts in translation» (MUNDAY 2016: viii). Surprisingly, in the index there is only one independent entry for *shift* that is «shifts in translation», but this compound does not seem to be used as a specific concept within a specific approach or theory at first; rather, it redirects to a somewhat general idea as «shifts in translation style» (MUNDAY 2016: 37) and as an emerging concept in a new theory branch: «The question of stylistic shifts in translation has received greater attention in more recent translation theory» (MUNDAY 2016: 98). The scholars MUNDAY (2016) cites are Giuliana SCHIAVI (1996), who borrows from narratology, and Theo HERMANS (1996). Both investigate linguistic choices to determine the intervention of the translator and their relationship to the ST author, relying on collecting data from TT to evaluate the style and intentions of the translator. Another compound, highlighted as a term and associated to *shift*, that MUNDAY discusses is «translational stylistics» (MUNDAY 2016: 98) that is linked to Kirsten MALMKJÆR (2003), who coined the term, and shares a similar perspective to that adopted by SCHIAVI and HERMANS. A corpus-based approach is also mentioned, one that is concerned with identifying the linguistic fingerprint of the translator «in a comparison between ST and TT choices against large representative collections of electronic texts in the SL and TL» (MUNDAY 2016: 98-99). Among the scholars operating in this direction, MUNDAY (2016) provides details on Mona BAKER's study (2000) of the lemma SAY and mentions works on literary translations from Spanish, Portuguese and Arabic against the British National Corpus used as a control corpus. Scrolling the index further, while looking for specific scholars and *shift* as a technical concept, there is no association that can be found next to CATFORD, POPOVIČ, TOURY, LEUVEN-ZWART, or BLUM-KULKA; they are all listed but no specific reference page offered for their theory-specific conceptualisation of *shift*. It is praiseworthy the effort MUNDAY puts into collecting and reorganising theories, methodologies and approaches from a diachronic perspective and by comparing and contrasting them to finally produce a critical reading that isolates strengths and weaknesses. However, as far as the idea of showing readers the way is concerned, judging from the paratexts so far taken into account – i.e. contents and index – it seems to be lost or less of a priority. Eventually, one of the explicit aims MUNDAY claims to pursue in the introduction is also jeopardised: «[t]he aim is to enable the readers to develop their understanding of the issues and associated technical language (metalanguage), and to begin to apply the models themselves» (MUNDAY 2016: 1-2). Take for example POPOVIČ: there is one single entry in the index that takes the reader at page 100 where the Czech scholar is quickly referred to in a section labelled «Explorations: Definitions of style», namely a sort of *further reading* instead of a proper discussion of his theory. In addition, there are no further insights on POPOVIČ's use of the word *shift* as the term in focus is *style*. Somewhat more interesting is maybe the case of BLUM-KULKA whose seminal work «Shifts of Cohesion and Coherence in Translation» (1986/2000) is quoted, but when it comes to describing her perspective, the word *shift* is handled ambiguously, as in the following sentence: «changes in cohesion in translation may bring about functional shifts in texts» – the word change occurs where one would expect *shift* and the compound *functional shifts* comes across as a technical wording of a concept that is not introduced [7] (emphasis added).

MUNDAY's interest in the term *shift* within Translation Studies cannot be a matter of contention, as in 1998 in the essay he authored, «A Computer-assisted Approach to the Analysis of Translation Shifts» (1998: 542-556), right at the beginning, he declares that the concept he starts from is that of «translation shifts, which has been used in the past (notably by van LEUVEN-ZWART 1989, 1990) as a way of getting to grips with the small changes ("shifts") that build up cumulatively over a whole text as a result of the choices taken by or imposed on the translator» (MUNDAY 1998: 542). Two whole sections of this article by MUNDAY are devoted to *shift*, a word that is used 65 times in this same paper. The first section provides a historical overview that starts from CATFORD and his focus on syntactic and semantic shifts (1965), then moves into POPOVIČ (1970: 85) whose conceptualisation of *shift* is «a way of bringing to light "the general system of the translation" along the lines of Toury's later *norms* concept» (MUNDAY 1998: 543). LEUVEN-ZWART is then referred to as the one who offered the «most detailed model of shift analysis» (MUNDAY 1998: 543) in her doctoral thesis in Dutch, later translated in English and published in a shorter version in *Target* (1989, 1990); the Dutch scholar is the one who identifies as relevant «microstructural shifts (semantic, stylistic and pragmatic, modulation, modification and mutation) between the ST and the TT» (MUNDAY 1998: 543) (comparative model) and some macrostructural ones based on HALLIDAY’s three functions of language, i.e. interpersonal, ideational and textual, «and discourse concepts taken from Leech and Short (1981)» (MUNDAY 1998: 543) (descriptive model). LEUVEN-ZWART's method and findings – i.e. translation strategy is TT-oriented – bring her close to what TOURY (1978/1995/2000) calls the «norm of acceptability», that is, his recipe for what he calls «shift analysis» that he describes as follows:

> the identification of shifts is part of the discovery procedures only, i.e. a step towards the formulation of explanatory hypotheses. The latter, in turn, necessitated the establishment of the overall CONCEPT OF TRANSLATION underlying whatever corpus one sets out to investigate (TOURY 1995: 85).

Thus «translation shift» is «a means of getting at the norms which govern the translation process» (MUNDAY 1998: 545). MUNDAY’s second section is a complete assessment and description of corpus analysis and its tools to show how some of them – namely basic word statistics, type-token ratio, frequency lists, and KWIC concordance – constitute a series of «potentially powerful tools to help analyze translation shifts» (MUNDAY 1998: 548). This further material by MUNDAY clearly strengthens the point about *shift* as a term in Translation Studies, rather than a general word, while at the same time confirms a scarce consistency in its use and a tendency to exploit its polysemy.

5. "Markedness", "marked/unmarked": origin of the term(s)

It was Nikolai Sergeyevich TRUBETZKOY (1890-1938), in his «La phonologie actuelle» (1933), the first to introduce the theory of *markedness* or *merkmaltragend* , marker-carrier within the study of the language as sound(s). Originally, *markedness* was a term in Linguistics that referred to:

> the phoneme as a bundle of distinctive features, which can be positively or negatively specified ("marked") for a certain value. If two phonemes are distinguished by one single feature, it can be assumed that one member of the pair is unmarked for the given feature while the other is marked (GAETA 2017).

Borrowing the concepts from TRUBETZKOY (1933), Roman JAKOBSON (1959, 1962, 1971) adapted the notion into the binary opposition *marked/unmarked* and «applied it to oppositions of lexical and grammatical meaning such as those between male and female animal names and between perfective and imperfective aspect in Russian» (HASPELMATH 2006: 28-29). The polysemic nature acquired by the term *markedness* and *marked/unmarked*, variously conceived in different branches of Linguistics, is devoted full attention by Edwin L. BATTISTELLA in two different volumes: the first, *Markedness: The Evaluative Superstructure of Language* (1990) and a few years later in *The Logic of Markedness* (1996). In his first book, BATTISTELLA is mainly concerned with investigating markedness values in semantics and phonology and does not deal with markedness as a borrowing that has gained currency in Translation Studies. However, the scholar contextualises the complexity of the term within languages arguing that

> in addition to being contingent on the facts of particular languages,

> markedness values are also contextualized within a language. Values are not fixed, but rather are relative: cultural and linguistic structure acts as a context within which categories are evaluated, occasioning local reversals of general markedness values (BATTISTELLA 1990: 24).

In his second book, BATTISTELLA tackles the concept from the perspective of grammar (mainly generative grammar) and semantics as he simultaneously «aims at uncovering the historical parallels and divergences in the way markedness has been developed by Jakobson, Chomsky, and their respective followers» and «the ultimate goal is to discern whether there is a common core to Jakobson's and Chomsky's view of markedness» (BATTISTELLA 1996: 4).

Ten years after BATTISTELLA's second book, in a thorough if critical approach, HASPELMATH deals with the term and its historical origins in his «Against markedness (and what to replace it with)» (2006). He distinguishes twelve senses and isolates six main roles the term can play within the scope of various branches of linguistics, from phonology to morphology, from lexis and grammar to syntactic patterns. The twelve senses are organised in four main classes, i.e. markedness as complexity, markedness as difficulty, markedness as abnormality, markedness as a multidimensional correlation (HASPELMATH 2006: 26). His conclusion, as anticipated by the title, is that the term is superfluous because of its polysemy and its many overlappings with more transparent common words, such as «uncommon/common, abnormal/normal, unusual/usual, unexpected/expected» (HASPELMATH 2006: 63). According to the scholar, the binary oppositions and/or asymmetries the term accounts for are better served by other less ambiguous terms or should be motivated by authors willing to use it.

Among other scholars, Fred R. ECKMAN, who has extensively written on the term since the 1980s[8] and has also discussed it with reference to L2 acquisition, provides a widely quoted definition that contextualises the term and retains most of its core features:

> The idea behind this concept was that binary oppositions between certain linguistic representations (e.g. voiced and voiceless obstruents, nasalized and oral vowels, open and closed syllables) were not taken to be simply polar opposites. Rather, one member of the opposition was assumed to be

> privileged in that it had a wider distribution, both within a given language and across languages. Imposing a markedness value on this opposition was one way of characterizing this special status: the member of the opposition that was more widely distributed than the other was designated as unmarked, indicating that it was, in some definable way, simpler, more basic and more natural than the other member of the opposition, which was in turn defined as the marked member (ECKMAN 2008: 96).

A quick addition to this definition should include that what is *marked* is very often considered more complex, less natural, and less frequent. However, the sense that has acquired more currency in Translation Studies seems to be related to what is perceived as standard as opposed to anything non-standard and therefore is more or less frequent mainly at syntax level, but also at word and phrase levels, for example, *marked collocations* are often under scrutiny – see MARCO (2013), «Tracing marked collocations in translated and non-translated literary language». However, «markedness as rarity in texts» can be traced back to both TRUBETZKOY (1933) and JAKOBSON (1959, 1962, 1971), but it is more specifically conceived as such by GREENBERG (1966) who:

> emphasized the importance of frequency for markedness asymmetries, and he was the first to assign it an explanatory role in this context. Text frequency/rarity has sometimes been taken as the basis for definitions of markedness, although for some reason many linguists seem to prefer vaguer terms like "typical", "normal", "usual" to the precise term "frequent" (HASPELMATH 2006: 33).

In the selection of reference books in Translation Studies this study is investigating, there are a number which bear no trace of the term *markedness* and its variants *marked/unmarked*. For instance neither SHUTTLEWORTH M. & COWIE M.'s *Dictionary* nor BAKER's *Encyclopedia* (1998) treat *marked/unmarked* or *markedness*, for that matter, as a term, that would mean listing them as separate entries in their index – the word is used in BAKER in a non-specific sense, both as adjective, meaning "significant", or as verb, meaning "characterised by" or "made distinct by".

Similarly, out of the 13 entries of either *marked/unmarked*, in *The Oxford Handbook of Translation Studies* (2011), the words are used generically and *markedness* is nowhere to be spotted. In his «The Translation of Poetry», Francis R. JONES (2011: 113-121) applies the term *marked* in a very specific way to describe the use of non-standard geolects by poets:

> Source poets may deliberately use "marked" language varieties: language that, relative to the standard variety, is distinctively archaic or modern, informal or formal, regional, specific to poetry or typical of other genres, or simply idiosyncratic. Alternatively, language varieties that might have seemed unmarked to the poet may appear nonstandard to most modern readers (JONES 2011: 116).

Often *marked* is just a synonym for other words, such as "signalled", "indicated as", "labelled as" – see for instance in the following extract: «words with a high pitch or which are marked *fortissimo*» (BOSSEAUX 2011: 125). Gillian LATHEY uses the word while discussing the translation of children books, meaning "unexpected/untypical", «[i]n two marked instances of extratextual intervention by a translator and an editor» (2011: 135). The unstable quality of the word sense(s) can be noticed in two more sentences by LATHEY in which he uses it as an adjective: first meaning "significantly" in «a new understanding of children's abilities to distinguish between different registers has resulted in a marked increase in the representation of slang»; and then it is used meaning "strong" or "considerate" in «the globalization of the children's book market and of children's culture generally is having a marked effect on translation» (LATHEY 2011: 140).

No specific entry can be found in DELISLE, LEE-JAHNKE & CORMIER's volume on translation terminology (1999) for the word as term, but there are generic instances, mainly pointing to "characterised", "signalled", "highlighted" or their opposites. For example in the following sentence: «[t]he French use of the pronoun *tu* to express familiarity between two people (as opposed to formal *vous*), could correspond in English to the use of a first name or nickname, or be marked by familiar syntactic phrases (ex.: I'm, you're)» (DELISLE, LEE-JAHNKE & CORMIER 1999: 126); and in «[a]ny unmarked current convention that is observed in a linguistic community and that constitutes the most probable formulation of a in a given communication » (DELISLE, LEE-JAHNKE & CORMIER 1999: 164). In DELISLE, LEE-JAHNKE & CORMIER (1999), though, *marker(s)* is to be found in a pseudo-technical meaning, that is, pointing to various linguistic, syntactic, rhetoric, narrative devices that signal or make visible the author, e.g. «[t]he apparent author may be an image consciously or unconsciously created by the true author, possibly as indicated by various markers in the text» (DELISLE, LEE-JAHNKE & CORMIER 1999: 120); or in «[s]ome grammatical and syntactical markers, such as double negatives (ex.: and don't nobody sneeze!), non-standard forms (ex.: it ain't me)» (DELISLE, LEE-JAHNKE & CORMIER 1999: 172).

Should this lack of focus on the term in reference books be taken as evidence of *marked/unmarked* and *markedness* as not being terms? or not being very well established in Translation Studies? Quite the opposite, as it turns out when coursebooks are taken into account – as discussed in the next section.

6. "Markedness", "marked/unmarked" in coursebooks and manuals

In coursebooks, on the one hand, *markedness* does not feature as a term in BASSNETT (2002) in whatsoever form - there are just a couple of occurrences of the lexeme as phrasal verb, i.e. *marked out* and as fixed phrase *marked the start of*. On the other hand, it is richly represented in the index of BAKER's *In Other Words* (2011) and as one of the terms in bold within various of the book sections. Notwithstanding, BAKER's glossary has no specific entry. A deficiency that is counterbalanced by BAKER's index presenting several compounds, such as *marked information structure*

; *marked rheme*; *marked thematic structure*; *marked theme*; *marked/unmarked*; and *collocational markedness* – this last compound also features in the Contents as a subsection of chapter 3. Such irregularities in the paratexts confirm the potential of the term as well as its instability and the scarce accuracy it is handled with - as it shifts from one area of Linguistics (word and phrase level) to the next, e.g. sentence and discourse level. For instance, in BAKER (2011), it is mainly exploited to discuss syntax and thematic structure as a device to create emphasis, increase expressiveness, and/or to shift the sentence focus thus highlighting a pragmatic meaning that needs to be inferred beyond literal sense.

As it operates at phonetic, collocation, word order and other grammar levels, *markedness* is construed to address or point to any form that is away from standard, complex or atypical as opposed to expected, more simple or natural ones, but it is often also associated with structures that are more formal or very colloquial in spite of the requirement of a specific context. In one of its first occurrences in BAKER (2011), *markedness* is *collocational markedness* and is «an unusual combination of words, one that challenges our expectations as hearers or readers» (BAKER 2011: 55). This first entry is somewhat enriched by an endnote reminding that «markedness is an important concept in language study», extensively discussed in theoretical linguistics by LYONS (1977). The role of the endnote gains importance when BAKER uses *unmarked* yet in a new sense that triggers the need for a new definition: «Unmarked here means that it is the form normally used unless the speaker specifically wishes to highlight the distinction» (BAKER 2011: 129, note 6). The scholar is clearly aware of the term failure to hold, to remain specific to one sense; even when its meaning may be reduced to «markedness as complexity» or «markedness as abnormality» – to borrow from HASPELMATH (2006) – there is always the need to (re)define what aspect/structure/linguistic chunk is under scrutiny or pointed at as *marked* and relative to what standard the comparison is meant to be understood. If not explicitly so, in the way she uses the term, BAKER (2011) shows – contrary to what HASPELMATH (2006: 27) argues – that she is well aware of the term polysemy and that it is up to the speaker to isolate the linguistic area and the specific sense out of the various ones the term can convey.

For instance, when gender as a grammar category is tackled and feminine and masculine nouns for professions are compared and contrasted in various languages and cultures, *marked/unmarked* point to those languages in which using feminine and/or masculine is perceived as standard or non-standard: wherever feminine and masculine nouns for professions are expected, listeners/readers perceive them and their propositional meaning (no connotation or implicature intended); on the other hand, those languages in which feminine/masculine nouns for professions fall into the category of expressive meaning, that is to say, they are unusual/abnormal, connotations and implicatures arise and listeners/readers are faced with an unexpected sense that requires disambiguation, as it is more complex and potentially ambiguous. Such *markedness* identifies not only a specific distinction in grammars that share the same category, but points to distinct linguistic habits that impact on meaning and eventually on the message. Asymmetries of this sort take us back to CAIRN (1986) and *markedness* considered as either within perception or production: the process of translation stems from perception but then requires an act of choice to convey as much as possible from ST to turn it into production in order to shape a TT. An equally inspiring area of investigation arises if *markedness* is understood, following COMRIE (1986), as what is expected and therefore natural in language, as opposed to what is unexpected therefore more complex in language. In Translation Studies, having to deal with language pairs, COMRIE's point is noteworthy as what may be perceived as expected in one language and culture may result unexpected and controversial in a target culture and language, despite formal correspondence. What is expected typically differs in different cultures. Therefore, once *markedness* has been detected in a source text, the translator is required to evaluate what sort of *markedness* they are dealing with and how and when it is best to convey it in the TT or compensate for it through some procedure/strategy or other.

BAKER also tackles the issue of the «unmarked masculine form *he* in English» (2011: 100) to discuss some more gender-balanced, popular forms that can be considered alternatives, e.g. «*s/he, he or she* and *him or her*» (BAKER 2011: 100 – in italics in the original). In spite of the fact that they may be perceived as acceptable, they partly convey a connotative meaning that is, they are non-standard or marked forms, say, perceived as complex in some communicative context or text with a highly specific linguistic function. As a matter of fact, gender is one of those grammar categories that typically triggers more complex translation strategies and procedures due not merely to language restrictions and formal requirements, but also to the main linguistic function of a text. To illustrate the translation problems arising from gender distinctions requirements and or connotations in SL and TL, BAKER (2011) offers another example and relies on the word *marked* to discuss the translation of a promotional text – originally meant to address both male and female buyers. By moving the ST information into a target culture with more strict stereotypical gender roles, a grammar category intervenes in the meaning, potentially altering the final message and distorting the function of the TT, by including too large an audience rather than addressing a more specific, culturally accurate, group.

Later on in the book, when it comes to thematic structure, yet again terminology needs redefining. As a matter of fact, BAKER (2011) introduces the idea of *marked vs. unmarked sequences* and since she no longer deals with grammar categories nor with word order, a new sense has to be brought to the foreground. What is at stake at this point is foregrounding information through syntax and information organisation: *markedness* is thus to be understood in terms of lexical choices, meaning (un)predictability and transparency/opacity.

> Meaning, choice, and markedness are interrelated concepts. [...] Meaning is closely associated with choice, so that the more obligatory an element is, the less marked it will be and the weaker will be its meaning. [...] The less expected a choice, the more marked it is and the more meaning it carries; the more expected, the less marked it is and the less significance it will have (BAKER 2011: 141).

The point BAKER is developing in this chapter has to do with a change of perspective whereby clauses and their organisations in a sentence are less and less understood as a «string of grammatical and lexical elements» (BAKER 2011: 132) and more and more as a message aimed at «an interactional organisation which reflects the addresser/addressee relationship» (BAKER 2011: 132) and plays on clear progression, coherent point of view but also «special effects, such as emphasis, by employing marked structures» (BAKER 2011: 132). On thematization, BAKER (2011) sheds light on the relativity and gradability of *markedness* in clauses and, generally, in a source text analysis for translation purposes – e.g. in declaratives a theme subject is to be expected and thus it is unmarked as much as it is unmarked a verb as theme in imperative clauses, yet in a declarative a fronted verb or predicate would be highly marked. Clearly Linguistics and Translation Studies here diverge and what is identified as *marked* follows different priorities. Not only is there higher or lower *markedness* in a clause depending on its codified structure, or expected use, but the degree is also tied to its prominence and overall discourse features, genre or subgenre – e.g. in travel brochures or guidebooks, adverbials or locative themes are very frequent and therefore not as *marked* as in other discourses; in almost all genres fronting a direct object or other complements in English is regarded as particularly *marked* and the intent is «to provide contrast and to emphasize the speaker's attitude to the message» (BAKER 2011: 145). Moving from written to spoken language and from speaker-oriented to hearer-oriented distinction between theme and rheme, BAKER devotes some subsections of chapter 5 to information structure and *marked* tonicity, namely «[m]arked vs unmarked information structure» (BAKER 2011: 166-167); one to «marked rheme» (BAKER 2011: 167-170) and finally one to «marked structures in FSP» (rimando), that is, Functional Sentence Perspective. The extensive argument BAKER (2011) commits to in order to disambiguate *markedness* at different levels and structures, contribute on one side to the term increasing importance as metalanguage in Translation Studies both within a theoretical and a more practical approach; on the other hand, it is odd and puzzling that she did not include the term in the *Encyclopedia* she edited for Routledge (1998).

In TAYLOR's *Language to Language* (2007) there is no index, but there is a glossary listing terms in bold along with a brief definition. Among them, there are three variants for the word currently discussed, namely *marked*, *marker*, and *unmarked* and each has its own separate entry – though no page number is offered to go back to. Unlike BAKER (2011), who uses *marked/unmarked* both at word and clause level, TAYLOR tries to avoid some of the meaning ambiguities the term may cause by adopting the word *marker*. Typically, a *marker* signals grammar categories at word level (mainly it deals with morphology). The other terms, *marked/unmarked*, are only applied to syntax patterns as standard or expected, (e.g. subject-verb-object) as opposed to *marked*, that is, «in contrast with the normal pattern» (TAYLOR 2007: 323). However, early on in the book, i.e. chapter 1, while addressing the theme/rheme pattern in English and in Italian, TAYLOR seems to deviate from clear cut distinctions by associating *markedness* to register as much as to clause and information structure: he offers an example of translation IT>EN stating that «a more spontaneous (**unmarked**) English translation, with the more colloquial verb *chipped in* justified by the informal nature of the discourse» (2007: 16 – bold and italics in the original). What follows is a translation in English of the previously mentioned Italian sentence[9] but since no further co-text or context is offered, the reader is uncertain about what *unmarked* should refer to and whether there is any trait/aspect/feature or priority to be detected whenever *markedness* is identified. Eventually, TAYLOR (2007) openly remarks the importance of understanding *markedness* as a term in translation theory and practice, as it requires «special attention on the part of the translator precisely because there may be valid syntactic, semantic or stylistic reasons» (2007: 18), to evaluate while completing a translation task. Unfortunately, not enough effort is made to offer a consistent and, at least, partially complete picture of the term.

To conclude the review of the coursebooks, in MUNDAY (2016) the word *markedness* can be isolated both in the contents, within the title of a subsection in chapter 4, «Option, markedness and stylistics shifts in translation» (MUNDAY 2016: 98), and in the index. The other variants, for example *marker* as in TAYLOR (2007), is not used by MUNDAY and *marked/unmarked* are not treated as terms (no bold type or colour-coding used). Few occurrences of the word *marked* are meant as general words meaning "characterised by" as in «marked by increased linguistic competence» (MUNDAY 2016: 34), or meant as in «marked an important step forward in translation theory» (MUNDAY 2016: 42), or as a phrasal verb, «the path *marked out* by Baker» (MUNDAY 2016: 294). Interestingly, *markedness* is discussed as a term within a focus on *stylistic shifts* and is defined as follows: «a choice or patterns of choices that stand out as unusual and may come to the reader's attention» (MUNDAY 2016: 99). MUNDAY does not elaborate much on this rather vague idea, but simply offers an example from a promotional, just one line, in which adjectives are fronted: «Challenging it is. Boring it isn't». As a comment, he points to the fact that beyond structures, it is the linguistic function or intention enacted by *markedness* that should be paid attention to and as an addition he issues a warning on equivalence relative to *markedness* between ST and TT but then does not develop the point: «In translation, it may usually be expected that a marked item in the ST would be translated by a similarly marked item in the TT but this is not always so» (MUNDAY 2016: 99). Indeed as shown by BAKER (2011) in her example, *markedness* should always be investigated at all linguistic levels of analysis, be it grammar category (e.g. gender at word level) or word order and syntax, what is perceived as expected and standard in one language and culture may not be as expected and *unmarked* in a target culture and language. In a final, generic statement, within the same chapter, MUNDAY (2016) argues that translation as a product is often carrying a reduced level of *markedness* and that there is an increasing number of scholars who have been investigating the issue, e.g. KENNY (2001), TIRKKONEN-CONDIT (2004). Others, on the opposite end, have targeted the work of those translators who create *markedness* in translation as output to make their work visible, distinctive or exoctic – e.g. SALDANHA (2011) and MUNDAY's own work on Harriet de Onís' translation patterns (2008).

7. Conclusions

The aim of the present research was to show how lexical items such as *shift* and *markedness* (*marked/unmarked*) do have a recognised terminology status across different approaches and theories in Translation Studies, but still lack full and consistent recognition. As a matter of fact, their polysemy is seldom tackled and scholars tend to use the words in both their general and more specific sense or subset of senses, which results in overlappings and inappropriate use that causes uncertainty and reduces their specificity. Both perceived at least as having a strong connotation, *shift* and *markedness* are often deprived of their specialised content and used in a pseudo-technical way or are inconsistently adopted so that their general sense intervenes abruptly alongside a narrower and more discipline specific one – almost as if they were homonyms.

As discussed, *shift* a general English word turned into term has gained currency in many theory-specific compounds and established specific references within a variety of translation theories, from those still strongly tied to Linguistics (CATFORD 1965) to those more concerned with style (POPOVIČ 1970) up to polysystem theories (TOURY 1978/1995/2000) as well as those dealing with issues of coherence and cohesion (BLUM-KULKA 1986/2000). Scarcely featuring in the discipline reference materials, such as translation dictionaries and encyclopaedias, *markedness* is a borrowing from phonology and more broadly from Linguistics where it has been employed in a number of different branches and become popular in a number of theories – i.e. JAKOBSON's structuralism (1959/2000), CHOMSKY's generative grammar (1965), Optimal Theory (PRINCE & SMOLENSKY 1993), first and second language acquisition, etc. Frequently used as «an almost theory-neutral everyday term in linguistics» (HASPELMATH 2006: 27) and often absent from reference books in Translation Studies, *markedness* and its variants *marked/unmarked* feature in BAKER (2011), MUNDAY (2016) and, partly, in TAYLOR (2007) who have included the term and its more technical sense(s) in their coursebooks. Yet its status within Translation Studies is still uncertain and its formal strength would require more consistent treatment also within dictionaries, encyclopaedias, and other handbooks, coursebooks and manuals paratexts, e.g. index, glossary, foot- or endnotes.

If polysemy, homonymy and synonymy are to be meant as opportunities within reference tools addressing primarily learners – i.e. dictionaries, encyclopedias, coursebooks and manuals – they should enhance critical thinking and an open-minded approach to Translation Studies. Hence, a coherent handling of how terms are presented, signalled, and made retrievable via paratextual tools and/or any other typo-graphic solution – e.g. colour -coding or use of bold type – is not only expected but desirable. A rich and coherent presentation of terms along with appropriate redefinition of theory-specific sense(s) could continue to inspire and enrich a lively debate and maybe even open new perspectives. Definition of terms should always be clear and accessible, any approach, methodology and scholar working on such terms should be presented, discussed and offered reference to for further reading or subjected to a compare and contrast analysis. Equally desirable would be to reduce inefficient repetitions by making best use of paratexts – i.e. list of contents, footnotes, glossary, index, etc. – and by avoiding overlapping of meanings that may hinder understanding and intelligibility. Comparing and contrasting terms within approaches and theories from an epistemological, conceptual and intercultural perspective (MARCO 2009) should be regarded as a fertile opportunity as well as an occasion to present new contrastive translation examples that can activate the student's attention and engagement.

As a final remark meant at opening up further work within Translation Studies terminology and metalanguage, another word has come to the foreground, while working on *shift* and *markedness*, that has currency in Translation Studies and has shown an alternate fortune as term. This is *correspondence*. Often misused or reduced in its scope as a synonym of *equivalence* or a weaker version of it (HERMANS 1991), it is worth noting, for instance, how *correspondence* is employed in a number of different compounds that bends the original general meaning of the word into a more technical and specific sense(s) within different theories, such as NIDA's *structural* and *dynamic correspondence* (1964/2000); TURK (1990) who understands *correspondence* as one of two criteria behind the equivalence established by the translator's choices; or HOLMES who discusses hierarchy of *correspondence* and distinguishes three types, that is, homologues, analogues and sematologues or semasiologues (1988). By the way, as early as in the 1960s, CATFORD already spoke about the difference between *formal correspondence* and textual equivalence, whereas KOLLER (1979/1992) used the word mostly in an attempt to distinguish and clarify the meaning of *equivalence* and considered *correspondence* more apt for contrastive Linguistics.

As MARCO (2009) argues, the problem with terminology or metalanguage in Translation Studies has to do with how terms are used «in a non-standardized, even chaotic way, the most frequent result being that there is no one-to-one (i.e. univocal) relationship between term and concept» (MARCO 2009: 76) and in addition scholars are also met with «intercultural problems» stemming from different theoretical national traditions and specific language pairs. However, where MARCO spots the current weaknesses, the opposite side of the coin could be considered as an inspiration to work more on offering clear definitions of terms to reduce that scenario whereby «conceptual similarities are obscured by terminological differences» (MARCO 2009: 76) and equally avoid that «conceptual differences are hidden beneath apparent synonymy» (MARCO 2009: 76). Or at least an attempt in this direction could be conceived as strategic for the discipline and beneficial for communication among specialists and within trainees' programs.

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Note

↑ 1 Italics is used throughout the paper to highlight the two discussed terms, i.e. *shift* and *markedness*. Inverted commas and italics may feature within quotations as originally presented by authors.

↑ 2 All definitions and word senses are from the online *Cambridge English Dictionary*https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/ (last accessed 16/05/2020).

↑ 3 There are several other compounds using *shift* listed in dictionaries, e.g. "shift work", "split shift", "swing shift"; within computer language, another common compound is "shift key", i.e. «a key on the keyboard that you press together with a letter key to produce a capital letter» (*Cambridge Dictionary, sub voce*). In general English, "paradigm shift" is «a time when the usual and accepted way of doing or thinking about something changes completely» (*Cambridge Dictionary, sub voce*); and one that is typical of American English "stick shift" that is "gear stick" in BrE (*MacMillan Dictionary, online version* - last accessed 10/05/2020). Finally, according to the *Oxford English Dictionary (online version* - last accessed 10/05/2020*)*, *shift* largely occurs in astronomy as a term, i.e. "spectral shift" and "redshift" that is «the displacement of spectral lines».

↑ 4 The asterisk is in the original passage and highlights the only compound in the list that is not within CATFORD's theory. "Negative shift" was coined by POPOVIČ.

↑ 5 SHUTTLEWORTH offers clear guidelines relative to the way terms should be identified throughout his volume: «Any headwords which could profitably be read in conjunction with a particular entry are indicated in small capitals, either in the body of the entry or in the "see also" section at the end» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: xiv). But he also points out that «to avoid littering the text with large amounts of extra formatting, a headword is generally given in small capitals only the first time it is mentioned in any particular entry» (SHUTTLEWORTH & COWIE 2014: xiv).

↑ 6 Here is a list of other terms (and page numbers) the word *shift* is associated with in the index: categorial 228, 229; constitutive and individual 229-30; definition and classification 226-7, 229-31; generic 230; intrasystem 229; invariance 227-9; level 229; modulation, modification and mutation 231; obligatory and optional 228; texteme 231; textual equivalence 229; transemes and architransemes 230-1; unit and class 229.

↑ 7 Just to offer another example, taken from an academic paper, but still focused on BLUM-KULKA's use of the word *shift*, let us consider a study by Miriam SHLESINGER (2014). SHLESINGER starts from BLUM-KULKA's approach to discuss empirical data collected from samples of interpreting and in her abstract reliably uses the term *shift* arguing what follows, «[t]his study examines shifts of cohesion which occur in simultaneous interpreting, using data drawn from an eleven-minute piece of spontaneous discourse as rendered by thirteen student interpreters. Preliminary findings suggest that shifts do occur in all types of cohesive devices».

↑ 8 Together with MORAVCSIK and WIRTH, in 1986, ECKMAN edited the volume *Markedness* (Springer Science & Business Media) which collects the proceedings of the «Twelfth Annual Linguistics Symposium of the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee» held on March 11-12, 1983. The book is organised in 4 main sections each covering markedness within a specific area of Linguistics, i.e. Phonology, Syntax, First Language Acquisition (LAPOINTE, MENN, SOLAN) and Second Language Acquisition (BENSON, FELLBAUM, WHITE). Among the featuring scholars CAIRNS points out that markedness values «may differ whether one consider perception or production» (1986: 9) while COMRIE's claim is broader in scope as he argues that «unmarked forms express expected meanings and marked forms stand for less expected meanings» (1986: 9), where expected vs. non expected is related to what is standard and more natural thus implying «an applicability beyond language» (1986: 9) .

↑ 9 The sentence in Italian is «Jack ha pagato il conto, e siccome era molto caro, ha contribuito anche Mary». What is at odds in TAYLOR (2007) reasoning is that the Italian verb *contribuire* cannot be regarded as informal or colloquial, rather the opposite. A less formal lexical choice would have been a periphrastic structure such as *metterci qualcosa* and the sentence would have been “ci ha messo qualcosa anche Mary”, definitely closer in register to the phrasal verb of the ST *chipped in*.

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