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Equivalence in Translation – Errors Occurring in Search of the Right Equivalent

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Abstract: Equivalence in translation may refer to the transfer of a message from the source language to the target language or the decoding of the SL text, just to encode it again in the TL. Despite various theoretical approaches establishing several types of equivalence (grammatical, textual, functional, pragmatic, etc.) and proposing solutions for those in search of the right equivalent, practice remains the real and constant challenge. The challenge is even greater as far as legal translation is concerned, since it involves the transfer of a message not only from one language to another, but from one legal culture to another. Legal cultures have been shaped by an amalgam of factors depending on the historical evolution of each society, with its own law system. The contact of languages and cultures determines mutual influences and interactions and from this perspective, the translation process should be facilitated. Yet, legal notions and concepts have evolved in different directions from one society to another, therefore finding the right equivalent in legal translation is a difficult and creative task. In this framework, the paper also analyzes some errors that law students make while attempting to use translation as a tool meant to build a bridge between two legal cultures.

Keywords: *equivalence, legal translation, legal culture, errors, law students.*

1. Introduction

Language is the heart within the body of culture, and the interaction between the two results in the continuation of life-energy (Bassnett-McGuire, 1991: 14). On that basis, we can say that legal language is the heart within the body of legal culture and the relation between language and law proves inseparable.

Legal cultures have always been shaped by an amalgam of factors depending on the historical evolution of each society, with its own law system. Although the contact of languages and cultures has determined mutual influences and interactions, legal notions and concepts have evolved in different directions from one society to another. Translation has played an essential role in establishing and maintaining linguistic relationships with other legal traditions and cultures.

2. Equivalence in translation

Equivalence in translation may refer to the adequate transfer of a message from the source language to the target language or the decoding of the SL text, just to encode it again in the TL.

From another perspective, translation equivalence concerns the degree to which linguistic units (e.g. words, syntactic structures) can be translated into another language without loss of meaning (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 563). Two items with the same meaning in two languages are said to be translation equivalents.

Some linguists argue that no full equivalence can be achieved through translation because each unit to be translated contains within itself a set of non-transferable associations and connotations. Some theorists – Jakobson among them – claim that equivalence is impossible, since it is just an adequate interpretation of an alien code unit (Bassnett-McGuire, 1991: 15), but just as the relation between language and law proves inseparable, so is the relation between translation and equivalence. According to Emery, “a definition of equivalence will have a direct bearing on a definition of translation.” (2004: 143)

All levels of a text – lexical units, phrases, sentences, paragraphs and the text as a whole are subject to analysis in terms of equivalence, but the real issue is “whether the translator may seek, and can reach equivalence and equivalent effect at a higher level, such as discourse.” (Chromá, 2014: 155)

2.1. Types of equivalence

Nida (Bassnett-McGuire, 1991: 26), distinguishes two types of equivalence – formal and dynamic, where formal equivalence “focuses attention on the message itself in both form and content. In such a translation one is concerned with such correspondences as poetry to poetry, sentence to sentence, concept to concept.” Dynamic equivalence is based on the principle of equivalent effect, i.e. the relationship between the receiver and message should aim at being the same as that between the original receivers and the SL message.

Various theoretical approaches have established several types of equivalence, but some of them have been preponderantly analyzed (Lungu-Badea, 2005: 106-117): *dynamic equivalence*, *functional equivalence*, *linguistic equivalence*, *paradigmatic equivalence*, *pragmatic equivalence*, *referential equivalence*, *semantic equivalence* and *stylistic equivalence*.

Dynamic equivalence relies on the principle of equivalent response, differing from equivalent effect, which denotes the intention assigned to the source text and rendered as accurately as possible in the target text. The

equivalent response is situated in the physical sphere of attitudes, gestures, positions. In the case of dynamic equivalence, the equivalent effect refers to the act of accurately rendering the intention of the source text into the target text so that the effects (especially gestures, attitudes) produced by the target text on target readers will be similar to that produced on source readers.

Functional equivalence involves the translator's attempt to identify in the target language certain linguistic, cultural and contextual elements which can contribute to the restitution of a functional text in the target culture and language, namely a text that is able to reproduce the speech acts of the source text – locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary.

It is most productive in the translation of legal texts. Thus, in the legal field, functional equivalence is fulfilled if the translator can understand the legal concept in the source language and the corresponding concept in the target language, as well as the legal consequences these concepts have in both legal cultures. The success of functional equivalence is illustrated by the degree of correspondence of referents in the two cultures, since there are sometimes considerable differences. This obviously requires serious documentation, conceptual analysis and research or thematic and terminological competence of the translator.

Functional equivalence works out in the translation of document titles, institution names etc. (e.g. NATO). The translation procedure used to fulfil functional equivalence is adaptation, which refers to the replacement of a socio-cultural reality of the source language with one specific to the socio-culture of the target language (a cultural adaptation of the source text in terms of content and form to the intention of the TL community). This is an effective way of dealing with culture – or system – bound terms, the translator resorts to rewriting the SLT according to the characteristics of the TLT. Adaptation, often used in legal translation, is based on cultural substitution, paraphrase and omission. In general, if the translator cannot find an expression which can substitute the legal term or expression of the SL, he should resort to paraphrase as a means of surpassing the barriers imposed by the differences in legal cultures. This procedure is based on explanations, additions and change in word order. (cf. Zakhir, 2008)

The functional method of translation, as a “problem-solution approach” (Brand, 2009: 31) establishes a functional equivalence relation between texts integrated in two different legal cultures, and tends to disregard differences in doctrinal construction and legal concept and focus on the practical consequences that the translated text has. For instance, according to this method, the Romanian term *sinalagmatic*, the use of which is limited to contract law, would be translated as *bilateral* in English. Therefore, *contract sinalagmatic* would become *bilateral contract*, which

everybody understands in English, since the common law equivalent of the civil law term *sinalagmatic* is *bilateral*.

Linguistic/formal/textual/syntagmatic/structural equivalence concerns the literal expression of the content and form of the source text, and it uses the following procedures: word-by-word translation, loan translation, correspondence, transcodation. The notion of *correspondence* is commonly used in contrastive linguistics, being exploited in language learning, lexicology, terminology.

A method of translation which establishes such an equivalence relation would lead to the translation of *sinalagmatic* as *synallagmatic* which, although with little impact in English, since it is specific to legal systems originating in Roman law, would preserve the cultural and legal significance that this term bears within the context of the Romanian legal system, thus facilitating and encouraging the construction of intercultural discourse.

Paradigmatic equivalence is mainly achieved by transposition, which consists in the establishment of equivalence by changing the grammatical category (e.g. *human rights* translated into Romanian as “drepturile omului”).

Pragmatic equivalence, close to dynamic equivalence, arises out of the intention to create symmetrical relations in the sense that the effect on readers should be identical with that caused by the source text on source readers and the relations ST – source-readers and TT – target-readers should be symmetrical. It entails ambiguity resulting from the interpretation of the legal text by lawyers.

In the case of referential equivalence, the translator approaches in the target text the same reality as that in the source text. He avoids a possibly analogous reality.

Semantic equivalence characterizes the relation between the source text and the target text when they have the same semantic or semiotic content. A word from the ST is assigned the same semantic field as is its semantic equivalent or lexical correspondent from the TT.

Stylistic equivalence describes a functional relation between the stylistic elements of the ST and those of the TT for the purpose of obtaining an expressive or emotional identity between the ST and the TT, without any alterations of meaning. In legal translation, the style of the TT should meet the requirements of the norms of the TL culture and law system.

2.2. Errors occurring in search of the right equivalent

Finding the right equivalent in legal translation is a difficult and creative task requiring a lot of research. Many English legal terms of art (with a special legal meaning) have no equivalent in civil law systems (e.g.

deed, trust, consideration, registered office, equity). There are also terms that can only be translated as broad approximations despite their Norman French or Latin origin, and there are terms developed by courts, not in academic environments. (Triebel, 2009: 150)

Even where a legal term has an equivalent in another legal system, the borders of their meanings do not overlap. Common law terms with a counterpart in civil law terminology are ‘dangerous’, because they often have a different reach, ambit and content in detail. Thus the recurrent question arising is whether a common law term should be understood as under common law or it should be given the meaning under civil law. (Triebel, 2009: 150)

In general, where there is no equivalent in the TL, the solutions that translators make use of are: importing terms, creating new terms or using semantic expansion. (Künnecke, 2013: 256)

In this framework, the paper also provides a practical analysis of some errors that law students make while attempting to use translation as a tool meant to build a bridge between two legal cultures.

A challenging term for Romanian students is the English legal term *consideration*, which they translate as *considerație*. The legal meaning of *consideration* is related to contracts, whereas in Romanian, *considerație* refers to the act of considering something carefully, when planning or deciding something. In legal English, *consideration* is “the act, forbearance, or promise by one party to a contract that constitutes the price for which he buys the promise of the other” (*Oxford Dictionary of Law*, 1997: 97). There is no valid contract (other than one made by deed) without consideration, such an agreement is not valid. Therefore, it should be translated as *preț* (*price*), which is a near equivalent.

It is interesting, yet not unexpected, that what characterizes certain Romanian legal terms can be said of their counterparts in most Romance languages, e.g. the Spanish technical words *responsable*, *Administración* and *legal* (Varó, 2009: 186). There are several English equivalents that dictionaries provide for the Spanish word *responsable*: *answerable*, *accountable*, *liable* and *responsible*, and for the Romanian term *responsabil*: *liable*, *responsible*, *accountable*, *in charge (with)*, *of sound mind*, etc. Despite common semantic features and apparent isomorphism, these terms carry specific connotations actualized in specific contexts. Romanian law students tend to translate *responsabil* as *responsible* or *in charge (with)*, almost never as *liable*. If *responsible* involves the moral sense first of all and is more general in meaning, *liable* is the legal term occurring in particular legal contexts and implying the failure to perform an obligation, a duty, even denoting a wrongful act. Therefore, a person who is found liable

is responsible before the law and before the people, i.e. both legally and morally. A common mistake is the translation of the syntagm *răspundere penală* as *penal/criminal responsibility* instead of *criminal liability*, or the English *vicarious liability*, which is really puzzling and which should be translated as *răspundere indirectă*.

Speaking of contracts, the English expression *to avoid a contract* is misleading. It means *to terminate a contract*, but the first rendering is *a evita un contract* (a literal translation containing the common meaning of the verb *to avoid*, i.e. *to keep away from smb/sth; to try not to do sth*).

The term *deed* as a legal term is also troublesome. Students know its common meaning, that of act, action. But it actually denotes a “written document that must make it clear on its face that it is intended to be a deed and validly executed as a deed” (*Oxford Dictionary of Law*, 1997: 131). Consequently, it should be translated as *act authentic, act notarial*.

Just like in Spanish, where the expression *Estado de Derecho* can be rendered in two ways: *the rule of law* and *comply(ing) with the rule of law* (in such a context as *a country that complies with the rule of law*), in Romanian as well, the phrase *stat de drept* has most often been translated as *rule of law* or, through expansion, *state governed by the rule of law* (e.g. the Romanian Constitution, Title I, art. 1(3): “Romania is a democratic and social state, governed by the rule of law”). In search of the right equivalent, students provide a literal translation, namely *state of law*, even *state of right*. One should also note that *rule of law* is sometimes translated in Romanian as *supremația legii* (i.e. *the supremacy of the law*).

Prepositions represent another source of errors in legal texts, they often acquire metaphorical meanings (such as the preposition *on* which encapsulates the idea of burden, weight (of justice), e.g. *to inflict a punishment on somebody, to impose something on somebody*).

The Romanian term *raport* in the phrases *raporturi juridice* or *raportul donației*, causes confusion and proves again the importance of solid documentation before translating legal terms of art (this is valid especially in the case of the expression *raportul donației*). These phrases should be translated as *legal relations, not legal reports, and restitution of donation*, respectively, not *report of donation*.

Some students do not understand the difference between *juridic* and *judiciar*, sometimes translating *sistem juridic* as *judicial system* instead of *legal system* or the other way round, *organ judiciar* as *juridical body* instead of *judicial body*. They actually are not familiar with the legal meanings of these terms (in either Romanian or English).

The English equivalent that students find for the Romanian term *competență* in *competență materială* or *competență teritorială* is *competence*,

as in *material competence*, *territorial competence*, while the right equivalent in these contexts is *jurisdiction*, *material jurisdiction* and *territorial jurisdiction*, respectively. This is not a flagrant mistake, since the choice is semantically motivated. The word *jurisdiction* involves the idea of competence, it may refer to “1. The power of a court to hear and decide a case or make a certain order; 2. The territorial limits within which the jurisdiction of a court may be exercised.” (*Oxford Dictionary of Law*, 1997: 253)

When encountering the Romanian notions of *delict civil* or *faptă ilicită cauzatoare de prejudiciu*, students find it easier to give a literal translation, i.e. *civil delict*, *illicit/illegal act* (sometimes translated as *fact*) *causing a prejudice*, while the common law equivalent is the term *tort*, meaning “a wrongful act or omission for which damages can be obtained in a civil court by the person wronged, other than a wrong that is only a breach of contract” (*Oxford Dictionary of Law*, 1997: 467). On the other hand, the translation of *tort* into Romanian becomes a funny adventure. The interference with the mother tongue leads to such interpretations as the homograph *tort* (meaning *anniversary cake* in Romanian).

Sticking to the funny side of legal translation, the word *quango* refers to a “quasi-autonomous non-governmental organization: a body appointed wholly or partly by the government to perform some public function, normally administrative or advisory (...)” (*Oxford Dictionary of Law*, 1997: 374-375) and was translated as *goangă* (*bug*), explained by the phonetic similarity of the two words, *exotic drink*, *a kind of crime*, etc.

Speaking of legal translation in general, some of the recommendations to civil law experts include: civil law terms in brackets, inclusion of construction and language provisions, avoiding vague terms which have frequently been the subject of common law litigation, avoiding specific common law terms with no equivalent in civil law, etc.

3. Conclusion

Legal translation is an act of communication in which the degree of translatability of legal terms varies linguistically and legally. Each notion is part of a legal culture, therefore translation should rely not only on a comparative conceptual analysis of the source language term and its potential equivalent in the target language, it should also integrate research into a wider (extralinguistic) context (Chromá, 2014: 156), and consider both text-internal and text-external factors.

The understanding of equivalence has developed in recent years and the focus of translational theories has increasingly been on the purpose of

translation, especially for professional communication, and the equivalent effect at the level of discourse.

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Rezumat: Conceptul de *echivalență* în traducere se referă pe scurt la transferul unui mesaj din limba sursă în limba țintă sau la procesul de decodificare a unui text din

limba sursă și recodificare în limba țintă. În ciuda numeroaselor abordări teoretice care stabilesc mai multe tipuri de echivalență (gramaticală, textuală, funcțională, pragmatică etc.) și care propun soluții celor aflați în căutarea echivalentului corespunzător, practica rămâne o provocare reală și constantă. Provocarea este cu atât mai mare în traducerea juridică deoarece aceasta implică transmiterea unui mesaj nu numai dintr-o limbă într-alta, ci dintr-o cultură juridică în alta. Culturile juridice au fost modelate de un amalgam de factori ce depind de evoluția istorică a fiecărei societăți, cu propriul ei sistem juridic. Contactul dintre limbi și culturi determină influențe reciproce și interacțiuni, iar din această perspectivă, procesul de traducere ar trebui să fie facilitat. Totuși, noțiunile și conceptele juridice au evoluat diferit de la o societate la alta și de aceea, găsirea echivalentului optim în traducerea juridică reprezintă o sarcină dificilă, ce implică multă creativitate. În acest context, lucrarea analizează anumite greșeli pe care le fac studenții din domeniul juridico-administrativ atunci când încearcă să folosească traducerea ca instrument menit să construiască o punte de legătură între două culturi juridice.

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Agriculture Terminology and Language Industries. A Teaching-oriented Perspective

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Abstract: The constant necessity to keep updated also refers to terminological work. Communication alongside information has increasingly become the most effective tools the individual could possess. In all spheres of activity terminology has seen its share of transformation and updating to meet the requirements of "...what has come to be known as the language industries, the group of industries or institutions whose primary business is the generation or transformation of language as such." (Hoffmann, 1996: 12)

Keywords: *terminology, language industries.*

1. Background

It should be appropriate to say that with the emergent technologies and the ongoing changes in the present times, the need for new terms, in the already existing or upcoming fields has been growing. The constant necessity to keep updated also refers to terminological work.

Communication, alongside information, has increasingly become the most effective tool an individual can possess. as early as 1996, Hoffmann rightly spotted that in all spheres of activity terminology has seen its share of transformation and updating to meet the requirements of the "...what has come to be known as the language industries, the group of industries or institutions whose primary business is the generation or transformation of language as such. The language industries include the translation and localization industries, and the language engineering industry. Closely allied to these specific language industries is the language training and education sector, as the primary means of equipping consumers with multilingual ability." (Hoffmann, 1996: 12)

With almost no borders today, as far as the channels of communication are concerned, terminology obviously circulates much easier, as it adapts, changes and interacts within the numerous sectors of activity, especially in the field of technology and the specific domains it combines with.

Although the issue of terminology was brought about in 1930 by Wuster (belonging to the Vienna School) in his PhD thesis, the origins of terminology seem to have begun even earlier with the German engineer

Schlomann, who published a six-language small glossary of machine fundamentals in a categorized array, leading to the idea that "...terminologies can only be prepared by the subject specialists of the subject field in question" (Felber, 1984: 28). Wuster emphasized that systematic work should be the domain of terminologists, i.e. of subject specialists with an additional training in terminology." (cf. Felber, 1984)

De Saussure, Dresen and Holmstrom, as well as other scholars, contributed to structure the domain of terminology. The focus would be and still is on the pattern of the specific words, naming, concepts accuracy in compatibility and translation. "The problems of terminology compatibility and their impact on the information market in Europe are so great that they justify the establishment of a common infrastructure for terminology." (Hoffman, 1996: 21)

Terminology can be considered as a sub-discipline of linguistics and can be perceived as a way to ease the communication among specialists and professional communication. Terminology improves the act of communication for specialists pertaining to certain domains while for external users it turns to be a personal and professional development tool, an access key, which individuals can use in this respect. Computer technologies, medical sciences, mechanics, automation or agriculture, are some of such terminology domains essential in the use of information.

ESP teachers working with students that attend specialised academic programmes centred on the research domains mentioned above use terminology as a first-hand communication tool to acquire and exchange accurate information from a certain domain. In order to teach such technical vocabulary, i.e. to speak the student's language, the teacher should start from the body of specialised terminology, and work together with the student, who, sometimes, is more familiar with the specialised vocabulary of his/her training field. Thus, combined forces of teachers and students to find the best translation in the native language or an appropriate synonym for a technical word or phrase are desirable. Accordingly, ESP teachers place themselves in a continuous process of learning and scrolling to find the best translation formulae for the specialised vocabulary, frequently provided by the teacher himself/herself from authentic sources, journals, publications, magazines and information mining activities.

2. Specificities of the agricultural terminology

The evaluation of terms and expressions, called *onometrics*, is done explicitly following a certain 17-term-criteria, as Strehlow (1993) in his *Standardizing Terminology for Better Communication* (1993) explains. The

criteria focus on the accuracy, precision, transparency, unequivocalness, mononymy, appropriate register, precedent, conciseness, appropriate simplicity, form correctness, etymological euphony, derivability, inflectability, series uniformity, acceptability, euphony and pronounceability.

Agricultural terminology abounds in terms, encompassed in a series of specialised glossaries, which sometimes need to be explained by the ESP teacher in order to find and apply the most appropriate translation or interpretation solution. For example, when we discuss soil conservation, we have a wide range of terms such as *cover crops*, *mean temperature*, *growing degree days*, *mulching*, *grassways*, *contour farming*, *keyline design*, *fallow* or *windbreaks*. The definition of *windbreaks* provided by the O'Sullivan and Libbin (2011: 26) – “Agriculture glossary speaks of tree barriers planted in a way that prevents the soil from eroding” – is descriptive in nature, however, we need to find one single unit to be relevant, unequivocal, in the appropriate register, to have simplicity and moreover accuracy, precision in the native tongue in order to have an optimized translation, which, is the Romanian term *perdea* – “a plantation usually made up of one or more rows of trees or shrubs or other vegetation planted in such a manner as to provide shelter from the wind.” (Kumar, 2008: 310)

Other specialised terms such as *fallow land*, meaning that the land does not have crops planted on it, can be translated with the use of archaic words – *pârloagă*, which surprisingly would provide later names for rural certain communities. Furthermore, the translation of *perimeter runoff control* – which means the use of things like plants to prevent water from eroding the soil, is shown a corresponding Romanian neutral equivalent – *garduri vii*.

3. Material and method. By way of exemplifying

The corpus consists of analysis agriculture-related journals and specialised texts. In what follows, we shall provide a sample and a model of text analysis:

“Without healthy soil, farmers cannot produce healthy crops. But soil faces many threats, including nutrient depletion, *fallow land* and erosion. One method, crop rotation, solves nutrient depletion. Cover crops, *mulching*, and green manure are rotated with other crops. This process increases the amount of nitrogen in the soil and reverses land degradation. In addition to addressing *nutrient depletion*, farmers also combat *erosion*. Several practices can prevent erosion. Planting *windbreaks* stops topsoil loss from wind. *Perimeter runoff control* prevents erosion from water. *Contour farming* techniques, such as *keyline design*, also prevent water from eroding

soil. In one method, farmers plow rows perpendicular to hills. The water slows as it reaches the rows, which result in less soil loss.” (O’Sullivan and Libbin, 2011: 37)

EN *Fallow* -/ faləu /djective, 1. describes land that is not planted with crops, in order to improve the quality of the soil. Farmers are eligible for government support if they let a certain amount of land lie fallow. 2. describes a period of time in which very little happens. August is a fallow period in British politics. (*Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*, 2008: 509)

RO *Pârloagă*, pârloage, s. f. Teren arabil lăsat necultivat unul sau mai mulți ani, pentru refacerea fertilității lui. ♦ (Colectiv) Ierburi crescute pe un teren arabil necultivat; p. ext. brazda cosită de pe un asemenea loc. – Din bg. prelog, sb. parlog. (*Dicționarul explicativ al limbii române*, 2009: 752)

Obleágă, obleáguri, s.f. (reg.) pământ necultivat 1-2 ani, servind ca pășune. (Bulgăr and Constantinescu-Dobridor, 2002: 215)

The fact that the students enrolled to Agriculture academic programmes come from the various counties of the Oltenia region explains the input of dialectal words in translation. Thus, for example, we have the case of two students who provided three different synonyms, i.e. regionalisms for *fallow*. Thus, Student no. 1 translated it as *pârloagă*, mentioning that he comes from the Dolj County, where this term is most frequently used. Student no. 2 originated in the Mehedinți County, and provided another synonym of the term, i.e. *obleagă*.

“După defrișare, parcela era folosită pînă la epuizare, apoi se lăsa, ca să se odihnească, în *pirloagă*, *bătătură*, *paragină*, *obleagă* sau *orăște*, termeni sinonimi: Bătătura, Oblegile ...” (Ioniță, 1982: 144), so *pirloagă* and *paragină*, display a high synonymy with *fallow*, *empty* or *dormant* but the dialectal terms *obleagă* or *orăște* reveal a certain amount of ambiguity when translating, especially for students that do not belong to the region where these terms were at use, as opposed to *mulch* or *mulching* (O’Sullivan and Libbin, 2011: 24): “the process of cutting plants into small pieces usually to put on the ground a cover to hold in moisture,” which shows absolute synonymy with the Romanian term *mulci*.

In terms of agriculture research and translation practice, specialised terminology is better and faster acquired through the explanation of the technical and agricultural processes involved, through constant exposure to subject matter authentic language and texts, as well as through descriptive paragraphs that make use of the latest terms and concepts, thus, enabling the flow of *the new* in terminology, while facilitating the students constant access to technical neologisms. Accordingly, an ESP teacher, in addition to being a good, resourceful teacher, possessing technical knowledge, also

needs to constantly train and improve his/her translation and terminology mining skills. Furthermore, information mining is a prerequisite in selecting, recommending and using relevant databases, online monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, multilingual glossaries, translation forums, etc.

A thorough knowledge of the subject matter is often the greatest help when managing to tackle new terms, especially within the steadily developing context of nowadays agriculture. Terminology, just like all other technological advances of agricultural equipment and processes, is in the middle of a transformation and enriching process which acts like a magnetism for both students and teachers.

4. Conclusion

Consequently, aiming at a highly efficient and real-life oriented teaching method, ESP teachers would need subject matter specialists and students alike to actively involve and participate to the complex process of specialised language translation.

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Rezumat: Necesitatea constantă de a ține pasul cu cerințele actuale a pătruns în toate domeniile, iar terminologia nu putea face excepție. Comunicarea, la fel ca și informația au devenit unele dintre cele mai eficiente instrumente aflate la îndemâna omului contemporan. În toate domeniile de activitate terminologia a cunoscut o continuă transformare și actualizare pentru a putea satisface cerințele a „... ceea ce a ajuns să fie cunoscut sub numele de industrii lingvistice, grupul de industrii sau instituții a căror activitate principală este producerea sau transformarea limbii în sine.” (Hoffmann, 1996: 12)

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Error Patterns as Learning Sources in ESP

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Abstract: One of the greatest tributes teachers must pay to error patterns is that they represent an invaluable source of learning both for the teacher and for the students. If reflected upon, students' error patterns may disclose a fault in their system of thought, in the inner workings of their language organization system. It may be perceived as a symptom on the basis of which a diagnosis can be made and a treatment indicated. This paper tries to investigate some concrete sources of errors in ESP classes and to forward some active measures available to teachers in correcting errors. In this sense, we shall analyze the typology, pragmatics and usefulness of error patterns in the attempt to incorporate them in teaching and learning during ESP classes.

Keywords: *error sources, error patterns, pragmatics of error, correction strategies, reassessment.*

1. Error Patterns as Learning Sources in ESP

If language learning is to be understood as a binary process in the computational sense, *trial – correct – repeat* would be the equivalent of 0 and, consequently, *trial – error – adjust – retry* would be the equivalent of 1. Consequently, error occurrence produces learning, while correct production does not. Instead, correct production makes learners want to move to the next level of challenge, in which they try, err, then adjust and try again until correct production is ensured and the process starts all over again. As Corder emphasizes (1974), the study error patterns is an integral “[...] part of the investigation of the process of language learning. In this respect, it resembles methodologically the study of the acquisition of the mother tongue. It provides us with a picture of the linguistic development of a learner and may give us indications as to the learning process.” (Corder, 1974: 125)

This paper seeks to identify the relation between learners' thinking patterns and their error patterns, i.e. the way in which cognition and mental processes that occur in acquiring one's mother tongue influence the way in which speakers encode information when they learn a foreign language such as English. The focus group of the current study is represented by young adults (aged 18-30) with Romanian as mother tongue, engaged in English for Specific Purposes classes, specifically Technical English and Business English.

ESP teaching and learning draws heavily on mother tongue background knowledge as students often resort to it and the teacher is capable of understanding and accepting this. Though Romanian is not actually used during classes, English teachers and trainers alike understand that Romanian is the underlying background against which learners build their messages in the attempt to communicate. And this assumption is verifiable in the errors learners produce in spoken or written communication, most of which betray the fact that what the student has actually done was to transfer a Romanian structure into English by merely translating lexis rather than adapting the structure to incorporate English syntactic and morphological conventions and/or restrictions. In distinguishing between *error* and *mistake*, James (2001) points out that errors cannot be self-corrected as they are deeply rooted in the lack of understanding L2 structure, in other words, the learner possesses incomplete or incorrect understanding of L2 rules. Errors relate to learner competence, his/her organization and understanding the system of rules governing L2. Mistakes (or performance errors), on the other hand, occur when the student possesses sound understanding and internalization of L2 structure rules, but fails to use the rules to produce an acceptable utterance.

Consequently, mistakes can be self-corrected by developing student confidence in self-correction and by training/encouraging them to speak as they write, i.e. by incorporating correct grammar into speaking as well. It is often the case that, when speaking, students focus their attention to lexis, i.e. finding the right words to express their thoughts, to the detriment of grammar. Moreover, when message content takes precedence over message form, they often make mistakes. Essentially, teachers of ESP need to emphasize the importance of student reflection on their own production and provide students with some techniques aimed at avoiding mistakes:

1. Students are taught how to simplify L1 mental formulations prior to speaking with synonymy, rephrasing etc.
2. Using brainstorming techniques in class to help students organize message content and increase confidence;
3. Encouraging students to create their own glossary of mistakes with the purpose of raising their awareness;
4. Encouraging students to display increased alertness while speaking/writing.

Bright and McGregor (1970: 236) suggest that “the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind as the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second.” In the case of second language learners, the evident direction of influence is from the mother tongue to the foreign language in the sense that the L1 system of grammar, pronunciation, syntax

rules dictates the way in which learners encode their messages in L2. Consequently, it is possible to infer that L1 rules represent an important source of errors in L2.

A typical example of such influence is *subject deletion* in impersonal constructions that Romanian natives often operate during ESP English classes. The obvious reason is the influence of the pro-drop features of Romanian which are not to be found in English since English does not favour subject deletion:

E.g. *What is the correct answer?*
 Should be b.
 What did you do in that situation?
 Was necessary to cut the cord.

Another example in the case of native Romanian students learning English as a Second Language refers to poor knowledge and understanding of *progressive* versus *perfective* tenses as Romanian does not display aspectual differences between tenses. Naturally, Present Simple, Past Simple, Future Simple do take precedence over their Progressive counterparts, i.e. the students' first tendency is to select these tenses as they would in their mother tongue, unless they were specifically trained to look for clues in the text that might indicate a Progressive tense choice or interpretation. In the early stages of learning and teaching (starter level included) the Present Tense is introduced in both its perfective and progressive instance with special interest in discerning between the two. By the time students reach Past tenses or Future tenses, they will have already developed increased vigilance regarding the perfective and progressive aspect.

Nonetheless, learners of English as a second language do resort to mother tongue in the initial stages of learning, but as knowledge expands, so does an intuition of how L2 works in terms of structure, rules and acceptability criteria. A learner may not be aware of a rule when producing a correct utterance or, reversely, may be aware of a rule and produce a grammatically unacceptable utterance, also referred to as a production mistake. Computer science students often invoke *intuition* as being the decisive criterion in selecting a specific grammar structure. In other words, when asked why they had formulated a message in a specific way, they respond "because it sounds right." Their grammar training may have been imperfect or inexistent, but they have developed an intuitive understanding of how L2 grammar works and learners apply this intuition as the selection criterion in formulating messages. And most of the time, the formulation is correct. Noticeably, the foreign language learner is not a mere puppet acting

on his/her pre-set language system as outlined by L1. Instead, he/she plays an active role in learning. In other words, the learner is perfectly capable of understanding aspectual differences in English even if they do not exist in his/her mother tongue encryption system, on condition that he/she engage actively and intuitively in understanding the specificity of the newly emerging grammar system.

As potential strategies applied by learners as they increase competence level, they may choose to:

- contrast or make similarity observations between L1 and L2;
- organize information logically, coherently and structurally in order to build a grammar system in a parallel coexistence with the pre-existing one;
- some information may be commonly shared in the two languages or the rules may have some intersecting areas or points, which contributes to the learner's ability to make some familiar associations;
- when data differs in L2 in contrast to L1, the learner can in fact capture and store precisely the element of novelty in a new grammar tree/system, etc. specifically because it is different from his/her mother tongue. This element of novelty may be exactly what the brain needs for later retrieval and for effective learning. Contrasting information stimulates the organizational system in the brain to tag or signal the information as new and different, which creates interest and retention. The principle is very simple: interesting data is retained data.

2. Material and method

One may assume that a pre-requisite of learning in the above framework would require advanced understanding of grammar and how it operates, i.e. being able to operate with sophisticated morphological and syntactic terminology. Surprisingly, it is not the case. First and second year students in Computer Science (B2-C1 level), for instance, display excellent accuracy in production despite the fact they are not able to explain the grammar behind their utterances or name out the rules they were considering how to formulate a message. If we were to believe that grammar mastery is essential, most of these students should intuitively fail at English speaking/writing etc. A possible explanation for their being very good at English without obvious grammatical strain is the fact that while having been *intensely exposed* to multimedia in English (films, songs, games) in the early stages of learning and from a relatively early age, their brain developed an inherent elicitation mechanism which enabled the learner to extract rules from the context to which they were exposed and apply rules in production. If asked why they chose one perfective tense over its

progressive counterpart, for instance, they respond (almost unanimously) "because that simply sounds right." And most of the time, they are right. One need not be aware of a rule in order to apply it intuitively, correctly and repeatedly.

The so-called *developmental errors* can relate to the fluency of learners as contrasted with their accuracy. Accuracy-based tests simply do not seem to capture and tell how much language one actually possesses, which makes it necessary for them to be accompanied by fluency-based test items in order to provide a better assessment of the total language competence of a learner. Developmental errors are extremely difficult to predict and, therefore, to avoid. Richards (1974) maintains that a large number of developmental errors are due to the strategies employed by learners in language acquisition and the mutual interference of items within the target language.

According to Kellerman (1986), advanced learners seem to display some degree of intuition about which elements of their language are transferable. Moreover, contrastive analyses of error occurrence rely heavily on the assumption that errors are dictated by L1 background, which is not necessarily true. An important source of errors is the intrinsic difficulty of the target language itself, with no direct correlation to the native tongue of the learner. For example, Romanian natives often struggle with phrasal verbs in English due to the fact that phrasal verbs encode a metaphorical understanding of the English speaking world and reality rather than a straightforward rule-oriented approach to language. Irrespective of one's first language is, whether it displays verbs with prepositions or not, one will almost certainly not avoid making errors and mistakes when using English prepositional phrases and phrasal verbs. Similarly, even if one's mother tongue language displays various past tense forms, it will be impossible not to produce some erroneous choices with Past Tense and Present Perfect in English on account of their specialized usage.

According to Lightbown and Spada (2006: 85), while learning English sentence negation, learners of varying L1 background seem to develop sentence negation in similar stages. Typically, the use pre-verbal negation (E.g. "no understand") represents the first stage. However, Romanian, Spanish or Italian learners, whose mother tongues display preverbal negation, are more likely to persist with pre-verbal negation in later stages of learning as this inherent property may resurface once in a while, for instance in communication activities when accuracy is not the focal element.

The British linguist Corder (1967) is the one to have re-focused attention on error from the perspective of language processing and language

acquisition in his groundbreaking work *The significance of learners*, in which he emphasizes the learner's active contribution to learning. As the learner engages in studying a foreign language, he/she is able to formulate hypotheses based on language input and to test hypotheses in spoken or written production. Thus, errors are not only inevitable but also, an essential characteristic of learner language, a necessary evil in development of language competence and production accuracy.

Error patterns may occur anywhere in the fields of phonology/graphology, morphology, syntax, lexis, discourse. No field takes precedence over the other, particularly since inaccurate pronunciation or spelling can produce a different word from learner intention and this may often alter the overall message. For instance, the noun *device* is often used instead of the verb *devise* in Computer English leading to intelligible yet inaccurate messages.

(1) *The team at Netrom **devised** the new gadget.--> They had a new gadget and they endowed it with some new devices?* Erroneous

(2) *The team at Netrom **devised** the new gadget.--> The Netrom team was the team that actually invented and built the gadget.* Correct and intended

Corder (1967: 166) resorts to Chomsky's (1965) distinction between *competence* and *performance* to distinguish between tale-telling errors of competence (*errors*) and errors of performance (*mistakes*), a product of slip-of-the-tongue *circumstances*. The latter category is non-symptomatic of the speaker's competence and consequently raises limited interest for analysis.

A number of different factors may interact to produce error, among which

1. first language influence manifested in the form of *translationese*¹ (for instance *localized* instead of *located*, *to play to the computer*, *to enter on the internet*, *to watch at a film*, *to listen music*, *give an exam* etc.) referring to learners' lexical or syntactic deficit in L2 which they seek to compensate for. To do this, they may coin a word based on their L1 modeling, use an L1 word/structure/phrase, anglicize an L1 word, use a more general L1 word, or use a close synonym, paraphrase;

2. communicative strategies in which learners resort to non-linguistic strategies or appeal to their interlocutor for help to convey an intended message. For example, in technical English students may use suggestive gestures to convey the action of screw/unscrew when in fact their intended

¹ "A pejorative general term for the language of translation (...) often indicating a stilted form of the L2 target language resulting from the influence of L1 lexical or syntactic patterning." (Munday, 2008: 236)

message was to refer to the screwdriver tool or the *plug/unplug* gesture when they don't know the words for *plug* and *socket*;

3. intrinsic difficulty of the sub-system of the foreign language. In ESP, the most sensitive and commonly problematic areas refer to aspectual differences between tenses, the sequence of tenses, conditional clauses and the subjunctive, phrasal verbs, scientific nouns in the plural, countable and uncountable nouns, adjective order, complex numbers and operations with numbers etc.

Based on Richards' (1971) typology of errors in the acquisition of English as a foreign language we have identified the following taxonomy of errors that are specific to ESP classes (technical and business English classes):

1. Overgeneralization-learners create an erroneous structure on the basis of their experience of other structure of the target language. A common example in ESP occurs when learners apply the rule *past simple is formed by adding -ed to the verb* and apply it to an irregular verb to express its Past Simple:

E.g. *She **tached** Computer Engineering at college.*
*He **cutted** the power cord.*

Another example of overgeneralization in ESP refers to some translationese lexical terms, i.e. based on the assumption that *-ation* is a typical suffix of English nouns just as much as *-are* is a typically noun-forming suffix, Romanian learners coin words such as *programmation*, *projectation*, *raportation*, *exportation* to form English equivalents for all the Romanian words that end in *-are* (*programare*, *proiectare*, *raportare*, *exportare*).

Teachers can prevent overgeneralizations on the part of learners by providing error training activities in which learners identify the criteria they can use to eliminate error. An example of error training activity in this respect is the odd-one-out exercise in which learners identify the unifying criteria for a string of words and exclude the item that draws away from the criteria. For example, provide learners with a set of past tense regular forms and one erroneous *-ed* form of an irregular verb: *worked*, *repaired*, *cutted*, *welded*.

In order to prevent fossilization of judgment, the exercise must contain lexical choices from various domains that exert overgeneralizations, i.e. alternate verbal forms with word building strings of words, adjectival comparison, etc:

E.g. *bigger* *gooder* *taller* *smaller*
alternation *programmation* *elimination* *installation*

Or vary the judgment criteria: *positive vs. negative, regular vs. irregular, increase versus decrease, noun vs. adjective, noun vs. verb etc.*

2. Ignoring rule restrictions and/or exceptions, resulting in failure to observe the rules and restrictions. English is particularly famous among Romanian learners for its exceptions to lexical, syntactic or phonetic rules. For instance, the restrictive word order in English sentences is emphasized early on in ESP classes but learners often ignore its restrictive characteristics and simply transfer the message from L1 into L2 with no particular adjustments to word order:

E.g. *L1 Acel motor l-am reparat recent → That engine we have repaired recently. Instead of L2 We have recently repaired that engine.*
L1 Adeseori calculatorul afișează pe ecran Eroare 404 → Often the computer displays on the screen Error 404 instead of L2 The computer often displays Error 404 on the screen.

3. Incomplete application of rules, occurring when the learners fail to fully develop and apply a particular structure required to produce acceptable sentences. Typical patterns in this category include situations in which learners focus on a particular grammar issue and fail to apply grammar rules to the rest of the sentence. For example, when learning the plural of scientific nouns in ESP with Greek and Latin plural endings, learners often forget to produce correct subject verb agreement:

E.g. *The occurring **phenomena** is very interesting to observe.*
*Our dissertation **theses** was completed.*

Or, when turning an active sentence into the passive, the learner focuses on putting *to be* in the corresponding tense and the *past participle* but often fails to make correct subject verb agreement, especially when a singular noun stands in the vicinity of the verbs, without fulfilling the subject role:

E.g. *The computers in the lab **was** repaired by my colleague.*
*The invoices for that supplier **was** issued yesterday.*

When focusing on describing/defining technical concepts, giving reason for one's opinions etc., subject verb agreement is overlooked, often on account of noun vicinity rather than on logical subject detection:

E.g. *The GDP **refer** to the goods a country produce.*
*Playing computer games **are** my favourite activity.*

False concepts hypothesized, deriving from faulty comprehension of distinctions between L1 and L2.

In ESP word building, when the learner understands that *-(i)an* is frequently an agent suffix, i.e. it denotes a person working with...x.. stemming from the understanding of *electrician, technician, mathematician* etc., will lead the student to infer (incorrectly) that a *physician* is a person working in the field of physics, when in fact he/she is a doctor, i.e. a person performing physical examinations.

4. Some errors can be attributed to weaknesses or failure of memory (Gorbet, 1979). He adds that in learning a language, a person creates a personal system of "rules from the language data to which he/she is exposed. This compiled system enables the learner to use the target language. And, as memory can play tricks on anybody, often the learner fails to remember the rule as it was formulated initially and either resorts to L1 for structure or simply chooses content over form.

Resorting to L1-Romanian

E.g. *This printer is more cheap than the other.* (affinity of *more* to Romanian *mai* in comparative structures)

Or when students fail to remember regular-irregular categorization of some verb, they either use the bare infinitive (no tense mark) or they overgeneralize and make it regular:

E.g. *Prices rise by 2% last year or Prices **rised** by 2% last year.*
*Computers **costed** a lot when they appeared.*

In Sharma's view (1980), error analysis should be a remedial teaching tool, in the sense it can reveal both the successes and the failures of the teaching and learning program. The role of the ESP teacher in integrating error correction and error analysis into the actual teaching is essential and must unfold in three separate, yet integrated, directions:

1. Observe reflect on the source, reoccurrence and significance of errors in the learning and teaching process;
2. Devise remedial measures, i.e. devising activities that not only point out errors but rather teach structure, clarify, solidify understanding of how L2 operates either in parallelism with L1 or on its own;
3. Prepare sequences of target language items in class activities and in course books targeting the potentially difficult items in increasing levels of difficulty, thus allowing students to climb the ladder step by step and expand their understanding of how L2 works;

4. Make suggestions about the nature or strategies of second language learning during the teaching process and verify learner understanding through error correction activities.

3. Conclusion

Practically and methodologically speaking, the investigation of errors can prove particularly useful in the attempt to identify strategies which learners use and employ these essential clues in building and adapting teaching strategies that ensure effective language teaching and produce genuine learning. Moreover, identifying the causes of learners' errors is aimed at developing coping and remedial strategies that build students' confidence and independence. Finally, the study of errors in ESP is particularly focused at obtaining information regarding the most common difficulties in language learning in view of developing high quality teaching materials and teaching aids. (Richards; apud Khansir, 2008)

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Rezumat: Unul dintre meritele pe care profesorii trebuie să le recunoască patologiei greșelilor este acela că ele reprezintă o resursă extrem de importantă atât pentru profesori cât și pentru studenți. Atunci când este analizată atent, patologia greșelilor făcute de studenți poate dezvălui un deficit cognitiv, în sistemul de organizare lingvistică internă. Acesta poate fi perceput ca un simptom pe baza căruia se poate pune un diagnostic și prescrie un tratament. Articolul încearcă să investigheze unele cauze concrete ale acestor greșeli în timpul orelor de limba engleză pentru domeniul profesional și să propună o serie de măsuri active pentru corectarea acestor erori. În acest sens, vom analiza tipologia, pragmatica și relevanța patologiei greșelilor.

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Analysis of Frequent Errors While Learning Romanian as a Foreign Language

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Abstract: In the process of teaching and learning Romanian as a foreign language, it is very important to identify and reduce the interferential errors with implications on the clear understanding of the message transmitted from sender to receiver. Therefore, the analysis of such errors is justified by its effectiveness in the process of teaching Romanian to learners who have another mother tongue. The incorrect expressions resulting from poor knowledge of Romanian as a foreign language also emerge from the linguistic habits specific to the mother tongue of those who want to learn Romanian. The difficulties that foreign students encounter while learning and speaking Romanian concern phonetic, lexical or grammatical issues.

Keywords: *error, Romanian, rule, teaching, learning.*

1. Introduction

Teaching Romanian as a foreign language may be quite difficult in the context of relating it to a mixed target group, i.e. students belonging to very different language and cultural backgrounds. Hence the mistakes of perceiving and understanding Romanian as a foreign language, inevitable in fact, but subject to correction through enhancement of knowledge and constant comeback to the grammar issues that are hard to understand in the teaching process. Generally, we might be considered naïve if we believed that we could avoid all the mistakes occurring while learning Romanian as a foreign language, but at least we can reduce them.

There have been attempts to explain the causes that made errors possible, and the explanations arise from the conviction that they can be avoided only if they are understood. The attention the analysis of errors enjoys is justified by its effectiveness in the process of teaching foreign languages, including Romanian, to speakers having a different mother tongue. It is well known that the basis of *The Theory of Errors* was laid in 1967 by Corder in *The Significance of Learner's Errors* (Corder, 1967: 161-170), which has been largely developed ever since, even becoming a branch of linguistics.

One must highlight from the beginning the difference between *error* and *mistake* when learning a foreign language, though from a semic

point of view they have the same content (Bulgăr, 1994: 95), in practice both the error and the mistake generate wrong expressions. However, errors are more frequent, more general, more objective and more predictable than mistakes, which have a more or less sporadic, individual, subjective and unforeseen character.

Due to the phenomenon of linguistic interference, one can identify errors triggered by the linguistic transfer (*interlanguage errors*), errors specific to the studied language (*intralingual errors*) and learning errors (*developmental errors*) (Ivanov, 2011). The causes of difficulties and errors that foreign students encounter when learning Romanian are found both at a phonetic level and in the sphere of the vocabulary, morphology and syntax. In other words, “in the process of second language acquisition, making errors is common, especially grammatical errors as it is regarded as a part of learning a second language or a foreign language. Corder (1967) explains that errors made by second or foreign language learners refer to systematic incorrect utterances occurring in the process of acquiring the language reflecting their underlying knowledge of the language to date, namely, transitional competence. Therefore, learners’ errors provide evidence of the system of the language that they are using, or have learned, indicating the state of their linguistic development at a particular point of time. Errors could be found in spoken or written forms. They may contain grammatical errors or communication errors, that is, incorrect and unacceptable utterances, including speaking and writing that is not suitable to the situations.” (Thani, 2013: 118)

2. Frequent phonetic errors

As for the phonetic system, from the perspective of the difficulties of perceiving the sounds specific to Romanian by the foreign students, most errors are made while pronouncing and writing the vowels (ă, â, î) and the consonants (ș, ț). One should not neglect either the difficulties encountered by foreign students while coming across the groups of letters *ce, ci, che, chi, ge, gi, ghe, ghi*. This aspect is due to the fact that Romanian has these letters *ă, î, â, ș, ț*, and groups of letters *ce, ci, che, chi, ge, gi, ghe, ghi*, totally different from those of the French, English, Arab, Serbian, Bulgarian, etc. alphabet, hence the difficulties of pronouncing and writing them. (Iliescu, 2002: 13-19)

Another problem would be the accent, because in Romanian the position of the accent varies, the latter being found at the beginning, middle or end of the word without a precise rule in this sense and without the obligation to mark it in writing. In French, for example, the accents are: é –

the acute accent can only mark the vowel *e*, *â* – the grave accent can mark the vowels *a*, *e*, *u*, *â* – the circumflex accent can mark the vowels *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, *tréma* (dieresis or umlaut) can mark the vowels *e*, *i*, *u*, *cédille* (cedilla) can only mark the letter *c*, one being compelled to mark them in writing. Thus, the French native speaker will obviously find it difficult to correctly pronounce the vowels or diphthongs *ia*, *ea*, *au*, etc. The tendency to stress the basic words of Romanian for a foreign beginner is to generally mark the first syllable, even for short disyllabic words – *suntem*, *avem*, *cântăm* instead of *suntem*, *avem*, *cântăm*.

Another pronunciation error of masculine nouns, rather frequent, is the *i* mark of plural, which, in the phonetic transcription is mistaken for the definite article *i*. Thus, for the nouns *un băiat* – *doi băieți* (*i* – plural mark) – *băieții* (*i* – definite article); *un student* – *doi studenți* (*i* – plural mark) – *studenții* (*i* – definite article); *un câine* – *doi câini* (*i* – plural mark) – *câinii* (*i* – definite article); *un profesor* – *doi profesori* (*i* – plural mark) – *profesorii* (*i* – definite article); *un copac* – *doi copaci* (*i* – plural mark) – *copacii* (*i* – definite article), etc., the pronunciation of the plural form is most of the time identical with that of the definite article form. In the case of masculine nouns that double the *i* in the plural and triple it when used with a definite article, the situation is even more confusing for foreign students.

In conclusion, one may say that phonetic errors are mainly caused by the phonetic system of the mother tongue.

3. Frequent lexical errors

The lexical errors are fewer and due, as a rule, to the less abstract character of the vocabulary compared to that of grammar and to the fact that students learn the terms more easily and with more accuracy through different similarities with their mother tongue. There are also cases in which changes of sense occur due to phonetic errors: *șosea* – *sosea* (*a sosi*); *soră* – *sobă*; *tablă* – *tablou*; *șosete* – *sosește* (*a sosi*); *caz* – *cad* (*a cădea*); *a investi* – *a investi*; *familial* – *familiar*; *original* – *originar*; *numeral* – *numerar*, etc. (Șerban, 2003: 61-64)

There are, too, semantic interferences when two or more terms in Romanian correspond to a single term in the mother tongue, and the vice-versa. For example, three equivalent words in Romanian: *pom*, *copac*, *arbore* correspond to the word *tree* in English. The English verb *to think* (*MacMillan Dictionary*, 2002: 1492) has numerous equivalents in Romanian, such as: *a gândi*, *a crede*, *a considera*, *a socoti*, *a imagina*, *a reflecta*, *a medita*, *a înțelege*, etc., which may cause confusion and the difficulty to use the appropriate Romanian verb in a certain context.

One should treat with great care the synonymic verbs, as well as the patronymic ones, whose forms are alike. Thus, there may appear confusion between the verbs *a merge*, *a trece* and *a se duce*, between *a cunoaște* and *a ști*, *a spune* and *a vorbi*, between *a sosi*, *a veni* and *a ajunge*, between *a investi* and *a investi* or between *a urma* and *a urmări*. In fact, there are numerous errors occurring under the influence of French, especially with beginners, such as: *faceți atenția* formed after *faites attention* instead of *fiți atenți*.

4. Frequent morpho-syntactic errors

Morphology and syntax are constantly interdependent given also by the form of words and their position in sentences or phrases. For example, the erroneous use of the genitive or dative is connected to the misunderstanding of their syntactic form. That is why the grammatical errors could be grouped according to the involved part of speech.

Thus, from a morphological point of view the following confusions may be encountered:

– the gender of nouns

In Romanian, there are three genders (masculine, feminine and neutral), unlike other languages that have only two genders, and in French, like in Romanian, the gender of inanimate nouns may be indicated by the ending or suffix. In English, unlike Romanian, “the gender of nouns is rarely formally marked. (...) it is usually identified by means of pronouns that refer to nouns and have different forms according to gender: *The librarian is at his desk. He is writing something. Bibliotecarul este la biroul său. El scrie ceva. The librarian is at her desk. She is writing something. Bibliotecara este la biroul ei. Ea scrie ceva.*” (Gălățeanu-Fârnoagă and Comișel, 1993: 86)

Due to the fact that the neutral gender in Romanian has common forms with the masculine in the singular, but not in the plural, there is a tendency to choose the wrong desinence for the neutral in the plural: *un alfabet – două alfabeți / două alfabete; un cont – două conți / două conturi; un minut – două minuți / două minute; etc.*

The gender confusion may also lead to the wrong use of the definite article: instead of the articulated form *bani* we may encounter with beginner speakers the wrong form *banile* or *câinea* instead of *câinele*, etc. The problem of changing the gender is aggravated in the case of words whose form is almost identical in the mother tongue and the target language, but whose gender is different. For example, the words: *problemă*, *adresă*,

etapă which have the feminine gender in Romanian have in English the neutral gender (*problem, address, etape*).

Hence the tendency with the native English speaker to change the grammatical gender when he uses such terms: *Avem un mare problem* instead of *o mare problem*; *Este un adres necunoscut* instead of *o adresă necunoscută*; etc. A particularity of Romanian compared to other foreign languages, which is connected to the expression of the gender, is highlighted by the two forms of the ordinal numeral according to gender - *unu, una*, namely *doi, două*, rather hard to understand and to use by beginners.

– *the number of nouns*

One may notice deficiencies at the level of desinences when forming the plural of nouns. For example, sometimes there appears confusion between *–e* and *–i* for the feminine nouns: *orași* instead of *orașe*; *geante* instead of *genți*; *mănușe* instead of *mănuși*; etc., or between *–e și –uri* for neutral nouns: *degeturi* instead of the correct form *degete*; *pixe* instead of *pixuri*; *ghiozdanuri* instead of *ghiozdane*; etc. There are some difficulties of perceiving the correct number of a noun, especially with Slavic languages speakers, because, most of the time, the equivalent words in their languages belong to another number or gender.

The disagreement between the noun and the adjective or pronoun is still a matter of not knowing the number or gender of the respective noun and implicitly of the afferent adjectival or pronominal form. For example, there is frequent confusion between the stressed and the unstressed forms for the singular/plural of the personal pronoun: *o chem pe ele* instead of *le chem pe ele* – or, between the noun and the adjective – *muntele înaltă* instead of *muntele înalt* – or between the noun and the indefinite adjective – *țări mulți* instead of *țări multe*; *câtiva caieti* instead of *câteva caiete* – or between the noun and the possessive adjective – *fratele tale* instead of *fratele tău*, etc.

– *the erroneous articulation*

Regarding the correct use of the definite article, especially in Romanian by foreign beginner speakers, we may pinpoint that it generates many errors, because in their mother tongue there are other rules to position it in relation to it from the noun, as in fact, is the case of English (both the definite and the indefinite article are positioned in front of the noun) or of French (the place of the article in French is in front of the noun). For example: *fată înaltă este studentă* instead of *fata înaltă este studentă*; *copii se joacă* instead of *copiii se joacă*; *scriu cu creion verde* instead of *scriu cu creionul verde*; *completez formularul cu cerneala* instead of *completez formularul cu cerneală*; *niște lucrurile* instead of *niște lucruri*, etc. (Brâncuș, et al., 2003: 41-44)

– *expressing the case*

In Romanian, which preserved the declination of Latin, one uses the declination of the noun, article, adjective or pronoun for the five cases (Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative and Vocative), while other languages, such as French, the case is expressed by using prepositions. The use of the Genitive case raises numerous problems of understanding and use for foreign students, especially regarding the possessive genitival article in the context: *o carte Mariei este pe masă* instead of *o carte a Mariei este pe masă*; *caietul este lui Tudor* instead of *caietul este al lui Tudor*, etc. The disagreement between nouns and adjectives, especially for the feminine form in the Genitive, may frequently occur, as for example: *scrie tema colegei străină*/ *colegei mea* instead of *scrie tema colegei străine/colegei mele*.

The Accusative and the Dative raise problems regarding the correct use of the personal pronoun in correlation with the noun or the verb that requires the appropriate case. That is why, the two cases are frequently mistaken for one another, hence the error of expressing or writing – *te mulțumesc* instead of *îți mulțumesc*, *m-a dat* instead of *mi-a dat*, etc.

– *the use of prepositions*

The use of Romanian prepositions, especially of the ones with the Accusative, determines numerous confusions at the level of their correct perception, the tendency being to use a preposition instead of another. Most errors are connected to spatial prepositions, such as the replacement of the preposition *în* by *la* – *Am plecat la Iran* instead of *Am plecat în Iran* – or, of the preposition *din* by *de la* – *Cobor de la tramvai* instead of *Cobor din tramvai*. Unlike Romanian, in English (*in*) or in French (*en*), the preposition *în* from the above-mentioned example has other values (*I went to Iran* – English; *Je suis parti en Iran* - French).

Thus, the differences between these languages are obvious, English “The Preposition **in** (...) expresses a variety of relationships: spatial, state, condition, mood, etc. (...) In certain cases, **in** is synonymous with **during**, (...)” or with **after** (Badea, 2013: 54), while in French “(...) **en** expresses duration, but also posteriority, (...)” (Badea, 2013: 132)

Another situation which should not be neglected, for as it may create confusion, is the lack of the preposition *de* after numerals past 19, compulsory in Romanian but inexistent in most foreign languages, which leads to expression and writing errors: *23 ani* instead of *23 de ani*, *32 covrigi* instead of *32 de covrigi*, etc.

– *the verb*

The errors regarding the verb are among the most frequent ones, and are mostly due to the interference between the student’s mother tongue and

Romanian. In the case of *perfectul compus* (~ past perfect), the error occurs when identifying the correct form of the participle – *eu am scrit* instead of *eu am scris*, *tu ai comit* instead of *tu ai comis*, etc. One can notice a frequent confusion of the present Subjunctive, the third person singular and plural, which is often mistaken for the present Indicative – *el să merge* instead of *el să meargă*, *ei să citește* instead of *ei să citeas-că*, etc. For Slavic languages speakers there is a tendency to replace the present Subjunctive with the present Infinitive after volitive verbs – *eu vreau merge* instead of *eu vreau să merg*.

Another mood and tense that cause problems and determine errors is the present Imperative, second person in the singular – *nu du!* instead of *nu duce!*, *nu zi!* instead of *nu zice!*, *nu fă!* instead of *nu face!*, etc. In Romanian, the negation is always positioned in front of the verb – *nu merg*, *nu am vrut*, *nu vreau să știu* – while in the case of other foreign languages such as French, the negation encloses the verb form being made up of two elements – *ne* and *pas*.

Morpho-syntactic errors are mostly due to the differences between the source language and the target language, most of the foreign speakers often find it hard to understand the differences and to assimilate them in a short time.

5. Conclusions

The language spoken by foreign beginners willing to learn Romanian is a mixed one, full of interferences at the phonetic, lexical and grammatical level between the mother tongue and the language they want to assimilate. If we objectively observe this process of teaching and learning the information involving the correct assimilation of a foreign language, errors are impossible to eliminate, but they still must be limited through controlled and free practice.

For example, in order to eradicate phonetic errors, one can choose the listening of some recorded texts and their repetition to imprint and automatize the correct pronunciation. Lexical and grammatical errors can be limited through a wide range of activities and through the development of a dialogue, open or not, on certain themes, in order to encourage communication in a foreign language and to strengthen confidence. Errors are natural in the learning of foreign languages, being perfectly normal for one to make mistakes in the process of learning, on the road of reaching a high level of assimilation of that language.

In conclusion, one may consider that the successful assimilation of Romanian as a foreign language should focus on starting from the basic elements towards the complex ones, on the basis of the principle of concentric circles, in order to obtain a minimal stock of well-fixed knowledge on which afterwards one may develop more complex elements of grammar and vocabulary, all being achieved against the background of a constant exercise to identify the correct forms, to fill in the blanks with the correct forms, to establish the topic, but also the form of a dialogue.

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Rezumat: În procesul predării și al receptării limbii române ca limbă străină, o importanță deosebită o are și identificarea și reducerea greșelilor interferențiale de limbă cu implicații asupra înțelegerii clare a mesajului transmis de locutor și receptat de către interlocutor. Așadar, analiza erorilor este justificată de eficacitatea ei în procesul de predare a limbii române vorbitorilor având altă limbă maternă. Exprimările incorecte rezultat al unor erori de cunoaștere a limbii române ca limbă străină izvorăsc și din obișnuințele lingvistice specifice limbii materne ale celor dornici să învețe limba română. Apar dificultăți de receptare și redare a limbii române atât la nivel fonetic, cât și lexical sau gramatical.

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Mistakes in Identifying Transitive Structures within a Functional Framework

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Abstract: The aim of this paper is to discuss some mistakes that can appear in identifying material, mental and relational clauses from a systemic functional point of view. The paper is structured into three parts, each of them discussing the problems that are encountered in classifying transitivity structures. According to systemic functional grammar, there are four major process types within the systemic functional framework: material, mental, verbal and relational which constitute a particular theory of “space.” Most of these major process types are clear, but there are also some other cases which cannot be identified so easily, the so-called “intermediate” cases which are difficult to classify. This paper systemizes the most common mistakes that occur in the identification process.

Keywords: *transitivity, processes, material, mental, relational clauses.*

1. Mistakes in identifying material clauses

The mistakes that appear in identifying material clauses are different, being either semantic or structural.

(i). One problem that can appear in the identification of the material clause is represented by the common characteristics material clauses and relational clauses share, especially due to the fact that there are certain verbs that can be used in both relational and material clauses. These verbs express location, possession and change of state which can be analysed both relationally and materially.

(i.a) Location. A number of locative verbs express relation in space in relational clauses or movement in space in material clauses. Notice the difference between the following examples:

E.g.	<i>The road runs along the river.</i>	(Relational clause)
	<i>The man is running along the river.</i>	(Material clause)

(i.b) Possession. The verb *to have* is one of the most used verbs in relational processes, but it may also be construed materially where it involves some dynamic aspect as getting, giving, receiving, obtaining etc.

E.g.	The young man has positive remarks.	(Relational)
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The young man is obtaining positive remarks.
 The young man is having a great time abroad. (Material)

(i.c) Change of state. A change of state can be represented relationally, as in *The weather became/ got cold*. The material process can be obtained by using the unmarked choice for present time: *It's getting late*.

(ii) Another difficulty in identifying material clauses is represented by the similarity between them and attributive relational clauses. In addition to the participant roles discussed before (Actor, Goal, Beneficiary, Range), we may also have an Attributive in material clause which already have a Goal.

E.g.	<i>Mary</i>	<i>took</i>	<i>the prize</i>	<i>happy.</i>	
	Actor	Process: material	Range	Attributive	
	<i>Mary</i>	<i>painted</i>	<i>the walls</i>	<i>white.</i>	
	Actor	Process: material	Goal	Attributive	

However, in a material clause the Attribute can be left out, which is not possible in relational attributive clauses. For example,

Material:	<i>We hammered the metal flat.</i>
	<i>We hammered the metal.</i>
Relational:	<i>We sold the metal.</i>
	<i>*We sold the metal flat.</i>

2. Mistakes in identifying mental clauses

Some of the problems that can appear in identifying the mental clauses are due to the characteristics the mental clauses share with material, verbal and relational clauses. Besides all these types, Halliday observes that functional grammar creates an intermediate type with mixed characteristics: behavioural clauses. "On the borderline of mental and material there are the behavioural processes." (Halliday, 1994: 107)

(i) It is difficult to decide whether a clause is mental or behavioural because a behavioural clause construes behaviour, including verbal and mental processes as an active version of verbal and mental behaviour.¹

¹ This approach belongs to Matthiensen who considers the verbal clauses as a main type of clauses in SLL. As we mentioned before, according to Halliday, there are only three types of main clauses: material, mental and relational, and the intermediate type of behavioural clauses is partly like material and partly like mental clauses. We consider that, since the verbal clauses construe processes of saying in opposition to the processes of happening and doing (material), being and having (relational) and sensing as inert process (mental), they should be considered the fourth main type.

(ii) A second problem in identifying mental clauses is that some of these mental clauses are similar to verbal ones because of the fact that both of them use simple tenses:

E.g. *He loves travelling.* (mental)
He convinced her to give up. (verbal)

and they are also similar in that they can project another clause:

E.g. *He thought John was smart.*
He said John was smart.

Nevertheless, a mental clause projects an idea, and a verbal clause projects a locution (and can be quoted). On the other hand, while all verbal clauses can project, only certain types of mental clause can do this (cognitive and affective ones).

E.g. *John asked me if I would accompany him.* (verbal)
I believed he would become a star. (mental: cognitive)
I loved he fought it back. (mental: affection)

Moreover, there is also another important difference between mental and verbal clauses: the verbal ones have a Receiver (the Indirect Object in traditional grammar) while the mental ones don't. We can say:

E.g. *He said **to us** he was upset.* (verbal)
**He thought to us he was upset.* (mental)

Though, we can say *He thought of himself that he should do it*, but this case is quite restricted as we cannot use this construction with other verbs such as: *believe, know, imagine*.

(iii) Another problem is represented by certain verbs which can be used in both attributive relational clauses as well as in mental clauses. The process of 'sensing' can be interpreted either as attribute (in relational clauses) or as inert processes (in mental clauses). Due to the fact that both types of clauses construe emotions it is difficult to distinguish between them. Nevertheless, we should notice that mental clauses can also be passive, *I was hit by the thief*, and relational clauses can be intensified by the adverb *very*: *I was hit unexpectedly* but we cannot say: **The thief hit me very* and we cannot have a passive counterpart for the relational clauses.

3. Mistakes in identifying relational clauses

The category of relational clauses is a generalization of the traditional notion of “copula” constructions. Relational clauses construe *being* and do this in two different modes: attribution and identification.

(i) One problem is represented by certain verbs which can be used in both attributive relational clauses and in mental clauses. The process of “sensing” can be interpreted either as attribute (in relational clauses) or as inert processes (in mental clauses).

We can distinguish among several types of verbs:

a. One group of verbs is the class of physical perception, such as *smell, taste, feel*.

E.g. *The woman is smelling the perfume.* (mental)
 The woman smells good. (relational)

In the first case the woman is treated as a conscious being; in the second sentence “good” functions as an attribute, so we can not consider her as a conscious being.

We can also notice that, while the mental clause can be passive: *The perfume was being smelt by the woman*, the attributive relational clauses cannot: **Good was smelt by the woman*.

b. A second group is represented by verbs which can express either a mental process as a reaction or can express a relation of causality. For example,

E.g. *Good education influences children.* (mental)
 Blood pressure influences health. (identifying relational: causal)

Both mental and relational clauses express emotions; the emotions expressed in mental clauses are accomplished through a conscious process, while the emotions expressed in relational clauses can be interpreted as an Attribute.

E.g. *The news upset me.* (mental)
 I felt upset. (attributive relational)

Because both types of clauses construe emotions it is difficult to choose between them. Nevertheless, we should observe that mental clauses can be also passive, *I was upset by the news* which is not possible for relational clauses **Upset was felt*. Another difference is that relational

clauses can be intensified by the adverb *very*: *I felt very upset*, which is not possible for mental clauses: **The news upset me very*.

(ii) Another mistake that occur quite often in identifying the relational clauses is that there are some verbs which can be used in both verbal and relational clauses. Some of the verbs are: *to suggest, to indicate, to show, to convince, to emphasize, to tell to mean, to prove*.

E.g. *Her actions confirmed their suspicions.* (identifying relational)
He confirmed that he would travel with us (verbal)
The management emphasized to the employees that there are no money left for their demands. (verbal)
The white walls emphasized the space in her house. (relational)

Matthiensen notices that “*He took the pen and underlined the main points in this chapter* is an example of these verbs functioning in a material clause.” (Matthiensen: 126)

(iii). Relational clauses are sometimes not recognized. There are some relational types that have a different structure from a typical one which is made up of: Carrier + Process + Attribute or Token + Process + Value. In some cases they can have an Agent (Assigner, Attributor) or a Beneficiary or the Process itself embodies the Attributive role. These types are difficult to be identified in the analysis, so we are drawing attention to them giving a few example of each:

a. causative relational clauses:

- identifying:

E.g. *They* *baptized* *the girl* *Elisabeth.*
The French *elected* *Mr. Sarkozy* *president.*
Assigner Process: Token Value identifying

- attributive:

I *believe* *him* *smart.*
I *keep* *my windows* *shut.*
Attributor Process: Carrier Attribute

“Note that these sentences should not be confused with material processes which include also a ‘resultative’ Attribute” (Martin, Matthiensen, Painter, 1997: 125). The main difference is that, in a material clause the resultative attribute can be left out while in attributive relational clause this is not possible.

E.g. *We folded the paper flat: we folded the paper.* (material)

*We kept the paper flat, but not *We kept the paper* (attributive relational).

b. Relational clauses with Beneficiary role:

E.g. He owes **John** money.
 She makes **her friend** an ambitious woman.

Notice that the last example can be interpreted in several ways according to the structure:

(i). Attributor + Process + Carrier + Attribute means “she caused her friend to be an ambitious woman.”

(ii). Carrier + Process + Beneficiary + Attribute means “she was an ambitious woman to her friend.”

We can also interpret this sentence materially: Actor + Process + Beneficiary (Client) + Goal. This interpretation is not very good for this example because the verb ‘make’ behaves as a copula-like verb, but it works perfectly when the verb ‘make’ is transitive: *She will make him a cake.*

c. Relational clauses in which the process embodies the Attribute role. Normally, a quality is represented as an Attribute, not as a part in the process.

E.g. *It doesn't matter.* = *It is not important.*
This room stinks. = *It is stinky.*
The reasearch methods differ from one institute to another. = *The methods are different.*

According to Martin, Matthiensen, Painter, there are several adjectives such as *eager, keen, willing, happy, afraid, scared, ready etc* which can occur as Attributes in attributive clauses.

E.g. *The president was ready.*
The girl was scared.

These adjectives can also modify the meaning in examples where the process is not relational, but mental:

E.g. *The president was ready to deliver a speech.*
Children are quick to finish their homework.

If we compare *Children are quick to finish their homework* with *Children finish their homework quickly*, we notice that in both cases the

process is the behavioural *finish*. But, in the second case, it was added an additional feature in order to create a “verbal group complex.” The additional meaning is a modal meaning, related to inclination or ability. For example,

<i>Jane</i>	<i>is willing to visit</i>	<i>her parents.</i>
Phenomenon	Process: mental	Senser
<i>Her parents</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>willing [to be visited].</i>
Carrier	Process: attributive relational	Attribute

4. Conclusions

In this paper we have presented only the most important problems on identifying material, mental and relational clauses. These problems appear due to the common characteristics these types of clauses share with each other. Material clauses can be considered as relational due to the fact that there are certain verbs that can serve in both relational and material clauses. In particular, the semantic domains of location, possession and change of state can be construed either relationally or materially. In the case of mental clauses, the mistakes appear due to the semantic interpretation of the content of the sentence. Regarding relational clauses, they express space as relation, while material clauses express space as motion; they construe sensing as attribute, while mental clauses as an inert process.

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Rezumat: Scopul acestui articol constă în discutarea greșelilor care pot apărea în identificarea predicățiilor transitive din perspectiva sistemico-funcțională. Articolul este împărțit în trei părți, fiecare parte discutând problemele de identificare a structurilor tranzitive. În majoritatea cazurilor tipurile de propoziții sunt ușor de reperat, dar așa-numitele cazuri intermediare ridică anumite probleme. În acest articol am sistematizat cele mai frecvente tipuri de greșeli care pot apărea.

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What Is to Be Qualified as Error with Regard to the Process of Translating?

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Abstract: Error can be discussed in relation to both to how the process of translation is perceived and to its aim. In some approaches translation is regarded as a unitary act that does not depend on the type of text to be translated, while in other approaches translation is a fragmentary field in which changes occur according to the features of the original text. In some approaches translation aims at generating the same response of the readers as the original while other views suggest that the aim of a translation is to preserve either the form, or the meaning of the original.

Keywords: *types of translation; form; meaning.*

1. Translation as an essential element of the dialogue between cultures

In a world of various cultures and civilisations that express themselves through a diversity of natural languages, the act of translation, of rendering an original text from the source language into a certain target language ensures the exchange of cultural information that is essential to the configuration of the dialogue between civilisations. Despite being, in various aspects, extremely different, cultures and civilisations share certain features that pertain to the universal characteristics of the human being; thus, even though every society has a particular way of viewing the surrounding reality prefigured by its geographical and historical background, there are widespread features that set the basis of a permanent act of communication between societies. This act of communication is not only possible, but actually necessary, particularly in the contemporary world, where individuals and groups of individuals can no longer live isolated: if in the past societies were separated through a distance that was insurmountable at the time, nowadays, under the auspices of the immense progress achieved in the technological field, the entire world is shaped by globalisation, by the tendency of diminishing or even annihilating the differences between societies and of homogenising all existing cultures. Especially nowadays, when all barriers have been eliminated through technological progress and traveling has turned into something ordinary and even necessary, people pertaining to different groups of individuals come in

contact with each other and, as a result, apparently divergent noetic frames merge and influence one another. This constant dialogue between civilisations generates the need of surpassing the chasm between natural languages: people are constantly making attempts to overcome the apparent impossibility of communicating outside their own languages. As a result, many make a great effort of learning various foreign languages which they consider to be very useful for communicating around the globe. But given the obvious fact that it is impossible for someone to come to know, apart from his native language, all the other languages existing in the world, there is an irrefragable necessity of rendering texts from their source language into various target languages. This way, the original texts are accessible to a larger group of potential readers and they contribute to the enrichment not only of the cultural horizon that has generated them, but also of various other noetic frames that pertain to remote civilisations.

In other words, there is a perennial cyclical process: the necessity of establishing contacts between civilisations leads to an inevitable contact between languages; the differences existing between the natural languages generate the need of rendering texts from one language into another through translation; finally, translation enhances the contact between civilisations as it comes to influence not only the society to which the author of the original text belonged, but also the societies to which potential readers of the translated versions belong. Thus, translation favours contiguity between cultures, it brings them closer to each other by dispersing the ideas pertaining to a culture in other, possibly very different, cultures. The dialogue between cultures, which is a *sine qua non* aspect especially of the contemporary world and which initially generates the need of translation, is in the end amplified precisely through translation.

The permanent exchange between societies can be ensured only through the act of translating texts from a source language into several target languages. This way, cultures that might be considered minor mostly due to their relatively reduced territory and population or due to their not having been involved in various decisive historical events can align with cultures that are regarded as the centre from which the development of humanity as a whole disperses towards the cultures regarded as the margin. The tendency ensured by translation is that of bringing the margin towards the centre and of dissolving the centre into the margin in a process that results into a world that is no longer fragmented into cultures representing the margin and cultures representing the centre, but rather a world that comprises one globalised culture which exhibits, along with many distinct features, universal characteristics that make possible the communication of human beings at a global level.

2. Translation as a unitary/fragmentary act

Any culture can produce a variety of texts, from texts such as poems, short stories, and novels, etc., which do not have a clearly delineated practical aim to utilitarian texts which serve the purpose of informing people with respect to a diversity of fields from the financial, the economic and the legal fields to the medical and technological ones. Taking as a starting point the practice of translation, the actual way in which texts are rendered from a source language into a target language, the theory of translation has constantly been trying to provide an explicit approach to the reality represented by the variety of texts to be translated.

Thus, it has been said that the process of translating should be regarded as a unitary act, as the translator makes use of the same methods and endeavours to reach the same aim regardless of the type of text he is dealing with. Those who promote this approach claim that translation is a homogeneous field despite the heterogeneous texts that it comprises, as, regardless of the text to be translated, the act of translation does not change in the techniques used and in its ultimate goal. The fundamental ideas this approach endorses are, on the one hand, that, irrespective of the type of text that is to be translated, the method used is the same as the translator has to make attempt of finding, in the target language, the words that correspond to the ones in the original text and, on the other hand, that the aim of any act of translation is the same as well, as “with reference to any texts, literary or otherwise, the good translator endeavours to communicate those aspects of the author’s ideas he considers to be most important” (Kandler, 1963: 295). Based on these assumptions, some claim that any act of translation should be judged according to the same criteria; within this approach, it would qualify as an error to correlate each act of translation with the type of text it has implied.

However, a different approach suggests that translation should not be seen as a homogeneous field as there are significant variations in terms of methods and aim according to the features of the text to be translated: “translation is not a uniform process, but a many-sided art” (Savory, 1957: 16-17). In accordance with this perspective, the translator must identify the type of text he is dealing with before engaging in the act of translating in order to know what techniques to employ and what goal to establish. Within this approach, it would qualify as an error to initiate an undifferentiated process of translating regardless of the category the original text might fall into.

The most widespread distinction is that made between literary and technical texts: it has been acknowledged that there are considerable differences that occur during the act of translation, depending on whether

the text to be translated is a literary or a technical text. The literary texts allow the translator to make a choice within a wide range of possible solutions, but they are much more demanding in terms of inspiration, while the technical texts follow a certain scheme, but they require from the translator, aside from the knowledge of the two languages involved in the act of translation, a solid knowledge of the specialised subject they reveal (Zilahy, 1963: 285). In other words, in the case of literary texts, for a certain word from the original text, there are always several possibilities of rendering it into a target language and the translator is the one who determines which of the possible solutions is the most appropriate. His choice is often based on his inspiration, on what his talent as a translator dictates him to do. In the case of technical texts, a particular word from the original text can usually be rendered into a target language only in a specific way: it is quite undemanding for the translator to make the correspondence between the words of the two languages involved in the act of translation, as long as he knows enough about the topic presented in the original text so as to understand it. A poem, for instance, can be translated by anyone who has the talent of making the right choice of words in order for the translated variant to correspond to the original text; a treatise on medicine, however, can be translated by anyone who has sufficient information related to medicine so as to understand the original text and be able to transfer into a target language the notions presented there.

It seems that what varies is the ability of the translator: the translator of literary texts has to have the ability of choosing, from the various possible solutions, the one that is the most appropriate – ability which is closely connected to inspiration, whereas the translator of technical texts has to have the ability of understanding the highly specialised subject of the original text – ability which is related to the knowledge not only of the two languages involved in the process of translation, but also of the topic presented in the original text. In fact, the two apparently discrete abilities need to fuse in order to generate the ultimate skill necessary to any translator: that of providing in a certain target language a variant of an original text that equals it in all aspects and especially in meaning. Thus, inspiration is needed for the translation of literary, as well as technical texts, for even in the case of technical texts the translator has to do a lot more than just make a correspondence between the utterly equivalent words of two different languages: there are situations in which he even has to invent new terms (Kandler, 1963: 296), as the target language does not contain words which correspond to the one used in the source language most often than not due to the fact that there is a huge difference between societies in terms of technological progress. Similarly, the understanding of the topic depicted in

the original text is a necessary condition for the translation of both literary, and technical texts, as the first task of any translator is that of grasping the meaning of the original text he intends to translate: “[T]he translator cannot translate a text which he fails to understand” (Kandler, 1963: 292), irrespective of the type of text he is dealing with. A solid comprehension of the ideas a text comprises is essential to any act of translation.

For instance, rendering a poem from one language into another involves much more than a simple choice of words since not only the musicality of the original text has to be preserved in the translated version, but also the ideas the original text encompasses. As a result, it might be a serious challenge to translate a poem from one source language into a target language pertaining to a culture for which the reality referred to in the poem is inexistent or very little known, because the translator would encounter difficulties in grasping the meaning of the poem and then in rendering it into the target language. If a poem has a very specific referent that is not widespread around the globe, its translation might raise great difficulties in the case of target languages that do not include words to describe this referent as it is not part of the reality acknowledged by the cultures using those languages. In such a case, the translator, at first to some extent confused, has to make a greater effort in order to understand the core idea of the text before trying to render it in a certain target language. The comprehension of the original text is crucial to the act of translating, especially when the grasping of the concepts exhibited in the original text does not occur from the very beginning as the text conveys ideas to a certain degree unknown to the translator.

Since there is an immense variety of original texts that a culture can produce and since the discrepancies existing between texts can be so great that some texts might be considered the exact opposite of others at least in some respects, it can be said that translation is a heterogeneous field that comprises a diversity of forms of manifestation. Thus, any act of translation should start from the identification of the type of text the original illustrates and should aim at providing a proper equivalent in the target language in accordance with the characteristic features that the original exemplifies.

However, irrespective of the category of text the original falls into, when striving to produce a translated variant in a certain target language, the translator should first of all understand the original text and then try to render it in a different code with as much inspiration as possible. It would qualify as an error not translating a literary text without having inspiration or translating a technical text without comprehending it, but rather translating any text without the two complementary conditions having been fulfilled. Thus, it can be said that it is necessary for a translator to realise the

fact that there is a vast diversity of original texts and that the text he is attempting to translate exhibits certain characteristic features that might place it in a particular category. Admittedly, the act of translation remains unaltered as the ultimate goal and the main method are always the same: providing a proper translated version to an original text through a process of finding the most suitable correspondences between the two languages after having understood the meaning of the original text. In what the perception of translation as a unitary/fragmentary field is concerned, the error is far from being as blatant as the unequivocal distinction between translations as being homogeneous/heterogeneous. The error is not discerning the fact that, despite being heterogeneous due to the various types of original texts, translation is in fact homogeneous through the endeavour of the translator, who employs the same basic method in order to achieve the same ultimate aim.

3. What should be the aim of any translation?

Alongside with the constant debate on whether translation should be regarded as a unitary or as a fragmentary field, there has always been a permanent disagreement with respect to what the aim of any translation should be. In some approaches the aim of a translation is that of generating the same response of the readers as the original presumably generated while other views promote the idea that it is the exact reproduction of either the form, or the meaning of the original that should be regarded as the aim of any translation.

Thus, some have argued that the quality of any translation should be discussed in terms of the effect it produces among its readers, as “a translation is considered good when it arouses in us the same effect as did the original” (Zilahy, 1963: 285). The focus is, therefore, placed on the response of the readers of the translated version: “this response must [...] be compared with the way in which the original receptors presumably reacted to the message when it was given in its original setting” (Nida and Taber, 1969: 1). The trouble with such an approach is that it brings into focus position an aspect related to the act of translation that can hardly be quantified, turning it into the criterion used in establishing what translations are qualitative. The response of the readers of the original text itself escapes any form of measurement: first of all because the readers of the original text represent a potentiality, they are not concrete readers that can actually formulate an opinion with respect to a certain text, and secondly because it is impossible to evaluate the way in which a large number of readers respond to a certain text. Judging the quality of a translation within this noetic framework equals with making a comparison between the highly

indeterminable response of the potential readers of the original text and the equally immeasurable reaction of the potential readers of the translated variant. Contrasting two elements that are not clearly delineated cannot lead to the identification of a certain relation between them; therefore, in the absence of distinct objects to be compared, the comparison is nullified since, in order to establish whether something matches something else or not, the essential condition of knowing the exact nature of the two elements has to be fulfilled.

However, the most pervasive distinction is the one established between preserving the form/the meaning of the original text when rendering it into a particular target language; in other words, this distinction between “[...] the literal or faithful translation and the idiomatic or free translation [...]” (Savory, 1957: 50) can be rendered through the following contrasting pair: “a translation must give the words of the original/a translation must give the ideas of the original,” (cf. Savory, 1957)

Original texts as such have always been subject to the differentiation between form and meaning: especially in the case of literary texts, there has always been a debate on whether the key element of the text should be considered its form or its meaning. When translating an original text, this difficulty in identifying the core characteristic tends to increase considerably, as in many cases the translator cannot preserve both the form and the meaning of the original text and thus has to make a decision and to favour one of the two constitutive elements of the text. In such cases, the tendency of determining which is more significant – form or meaning – is even more prominent as a choice has to be made between the two. Thus, unlike the approach in which the quality of a translation is determined by comparing the effect it generates among its readers with the effect most likely to have been generated by the original text, this more complex approach takes into consideration the relation established between the original text and the translated version in terms of what particular element of the original is mirrored in the translation.

Some scholars consider that a translator should always focus on rendering the exact form of the original text, claiming that “[...] there is nothing that can replace the exact term, only the exact term and nothing but the exact term, neither more, nor less” (Zilahy, 1963: 287-288). Within this approach any act of translation appears to be a mere operation of establishing correspondences between the source language and the target language. The translator aims at adapting the linguistic pattern provided by the original text to the syntax of the target language without producing anything but absolutely necessary alterations in a process of isolating the words and phrases of the original and of finding the closest equivalent in the

target language. According to such a perspective upon translation, it would qualify as an error to deviate from the words used by the author of the original text. Thus, the appropriate way of rendering a text from a source language into a target language would be that of identifying the synonymic relations that exist at an interlingual level: for every word comprised by the original text the translator should make a correspondence and provide the closest equivalent existing in the target language.

It is indisputable the fact that any act of translation is based on a constant attempt of the translator to establish correspondences between the source language and the target language. This would actually qualify as a more or less comprehensive definition of the act of translating. Thus, it appears that the approach endorsing the preservation of the form of the original text provides the appropriate criterion to be used for determining the quality of a translation. However, there are countless particular cases which this approach fails to cover.

Sometimes the target language lacks the means of expressing the idea conveyed in the original text through the same linguistic pattern employed in the original. Syntax differs from one natural language to another and often the discrepancies between two natural languages are so substantial that they cannot be compared from a syntactical point of view. However, if an idea can be expressed in one natural language there is a high probability that the same idea can be rendered in any other natural language (Nida and Taber, 1969: 4), whether it is through the same syntactical pattern or not. This is due to the universality of the human being, to the common general character of the experiences undergone by people around the globe. Even though every individual is unique and every culture itself is singular through its specific features, at the level of the entire world there are many similarities in what the conceptualisation of extra-linguistic reality is concerned: irrespective of the particular characteristics a culture has in virtue of the time and space that define it, there are shared features among civilisations which pertain to the universal way in which the human being relates to the world surrounding him. In fact, “[...] translation [...] is made possible by an equivalence of thought which lies behind the different verbal expressions of a thought” (Savory, 1957: 11). Therefore, the ideas that can be expressed through language are to some extent invariant: what varies is the language itself, i.e. is the form in which the expression of ideas occurs. The dissimilarities in form are considerable among natural languages; in fact, they represent the necessary condition which actually generates the separation of one language from the others: in the absence of a difference in form no distinction can be made between one language and another. If the ideas are roughly constant and the form in which they are expressed changes

from one language to another, then one particular idea, rendered in a certain form in the original text, might be impossible to be conveyed in another language in the same linguistic pattern. In other words, in some cases, during the act of translation, the form of the original has to be altered even more than the act of translation inherently presupposes in order to endow the translated version with the same meaning as the original text. "If all languages differ in form (and this is the essence of their being different languages), then quite naturally the form must be altered if one is to preserve the content." (Nida and Taber, 1969: 5)

The form of the original text must often be adjusted according to the syntactic pattern of the target language and, thus, a lot of changes occur in the act of translating at the level of the structure of the text: aside from the inherent modifications of form generated by the change of code, a process of reorganising the formal component of the original text often takes place as a result of the impossibility of rendering the idea expressed in the original by making use of the same syntactic pattern. However, sometimes it is precisely the form that has to be preserved unaltered when rendering an original text from the source language into a particular target language: when the form is not a mere means of transmitting an idea, when it is itself meaning then it has to be rendered exactly as such in the translated version, even if such an operation is detrimental to the apparent message of the original text as resulting from the summation of the meanings of the words used by the author. Thus, when dealing with poetry written in a fixed form (a sonnet, for example) or with a postmodernist literary text that uses form as a way of undermining previous writing conventions, then the translator needs to make the effort of preserving the form of the original text, because in such cases form ceases to be an instrument used to express an idea and becomes the idea itself. In such cases, if changing the form in the process of translation in order to render the apparent meaning of the original text equals to the altering of the actual significance of the original.

It can be said that it is always the meaning of the original that a translator should try to capture in the translated version he provides, whether it is the meaning represented by the sum of meanings of the words used by the author of the original text, or it is the meaning resulted from the use of form not as a means, but as an actual aim. The goal of the translator should, then, be that of recapturing the message of the original text: "the translator must strive for equivalence rather than identity" (Nida and Taber, 1969: 12). It is an equivalence of meaning that is preferred over the identity of form; thus, within this approach, it would qualify as an error to reduce the act of translating to the mechanical operation of identifying the synonymic relations existing between the two languages, as a translation should render

not the linguistic pattern of the original text, but the ideas the author communicates through it.

If the idea of the meaning of the original text as the core component element that should be captured in the translated version is generally accepted at least within this quite valid approach, the manner in which the meaning of an original text should be determined is not that transparent. Any original text, irrespective of the category it falls into and the particular characteristics it exhibits, comprises a sum of meanings that are the possible significances resulted from the combinations of words made by the author. Most often than not, especially in the case of literary texts, there is one obvious significance that a reader and, consequently, a translator notices from the very first encounter with the text. But in most cases, the significance identified at the first reading of a text is the least substantial one: most of the times, the true message of the text, the essential ideas the author wanted to communicate are hidden between the words and several readings of the text are necessary for the grasping of all its possible meanings: “‘the primary sense’ of a context is often far from being the really important element, most texts also contain a ‘secondary meaning’” (Kandler, 1963: 293). This secondary meaning actually represents a whole range of possible meanings that are latent, that are not revealed in a covert manner in the text. Decoding these hidden significances presupposes a reading of the text that takes into consideration not only the primary, denotative meaning of each word, but also the secondary, figurative meaning it might acquire in the given context. Thus, it can be said that any original text, especially any literary text, has a certain “[...] range of interpretability [...]” (ibidem) that encompasses its surface meaning and the diversity of concealed potential meanings that can be derived from it. It is often quite difficult to decipher the whole range of possible significances comprised by a certain text: aside from several very close and careful readings of the text, solid background knowledge is required for the comprehension of all the allusions made in the text.

Translating a text is even more challenging as, when rendering the text from one language into another, some shades of meaning might be lost because of the impossibility of establishing relations of perfect synonymy between the two languages. Definitely what can be said in one language can also be said in another, but this is valid only at a quite broad, imprecise level, in the sense that one general idea that can be rendered in a particular language is very likely to be familiar outside that language, to cultures that speak a different idiom. The act of capturing one very precise shade of meaning is very difficult even at an intralingual level, “for no two people ever understand words in exactly the same manner” (Nida and Taber, 1969:

4-5); communication never occurs at an absolute level, not even between individuals that speak the same language, as people relate to the usage of words in a very subjective manner. Therefore, absolute communication at an interlingual level can never be achieved, particularly because, aside from the barrier represented by the differences in meaning that each individual ascribes to a certain word, when rendering that word from one language into another there is another barrier that obstructs the act of communication, that of the inexact synonymy that can be established between the words of the two languages. As a result, certain shades of meaning exhibited by the original text can sometimes be lost when rendering it into a different language.

However, the aim of the translator should be to “[...] render exactly the whole range of interpretability [...]” (Kandler, 1963: 294) of the original text and to leave the reader of the translated version with the possibility that the reader of the original text has to choose the interpretation he considers valid. When some shades of meaning existing in the original text cannot be preserved in the translated version because of the subjectivity of the usage of words and because of the relative synonyms existing between languages, then the translator has to make the effort of selecting, from the possible significances offered by the original, the ones to render in his translation. This process usually has a highly evaluative dimension, as the translator strives to discover which potential significances are essential to the grasping of the general core message of the original text and makes the attempt of preserving those exact meanings in the translation he provides. This way, the translator actually guides the reader towards a significantly limited perspective and narrows his comprehension of the text: the reader of the translated version no longer has the possibility of evaluating all the range of latent significances of the text and of deriving the message of the text by himself; therefore, instead of receiving the original text in his own language, the reader of the translation receives a variant of the original text which has already been interpreted by the translator.

4. Error in the process of translating

The importance of translation is, given the variety of natural languages and the necessity of the circulation of information, especially in the contemporary world, in the virtue of the dialogue between cultures, something that cannot be questioned.

In what translation is concerned, one possible error is related to the way in which this process is viewed: translation has been perceived either as

a unitary, or as a fragmentary act; thus, some have asserted that, irrespective of the type of text, the act of translation remains unchanged in its basic method and in its ultimate goal, while others have claimed that, on the contrary, both the method, and the goal of a translation undergo changes according to the category the original text falls into. Actually, judging by the obvious fact that there are a variety of original texts a culture can produce (the most widespread distinction being that of literary/technical texts) and taking into consideration the fact that an act of translation equals, at least to a certain degree, to an attempt of rendering an original text from a source language into a target language through establishing correspondences between the two languages, it can be said that, despite being heterogeneous, translation is a homogeneous field. Moreover, another possible error concerns the aim a translation should have: while some have said that any translation should attempt to produce among its readers the same effect the original presumably produced among its readers, others have related the goal of a translation to the distinction form/meaning, claiming either that a translation should render the linguistic pattern of the original, or that it should capture its ideas. The linguistic pattern of the original text is quite impossible to be preserved when rendering it into a particular target language as languages differ one from the other particularly in terms of form.

Therefore, it can be said that the meaning of the original is the essential component element that should be preserved in the translated version: a translator should make the attempt of rendering in the translated version he provides all the possible meanings of the original, including the surface meaning and the latent shades of significance, as all original texts exhibit a range of potential messages that are hidden among the words.

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Rezumat: Noțiunea de “greșeală” poate fi pusă în discuție referitor la modul în care este perceput actul traducerii și referitor la scopul traducerii. Procesul traducerii poate fi privit ca un act unitar care nu depinde de tipul de text pe care îl ilustrează originalul sau ca un domeniu fragmentar în care se produc schimbări în funcție de particularitățile textului original. În cadrul anumitor abordări scopul traducerii este acela de a genera același efect pe care originalul l-a avut în rândul cititorilor săi, în vreme ce alte abordări susțin că scopul traducerii este de a reproduce forma sau sensul originalului.

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Errors in Arab Spring News Translated into Romanian

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Abstract: Between 2010 and 2014, mass media abounded in materials about Syria, Tunisia, Egypt and Libya. However, journalists' tasks were difficult because they had to deal with a lot of information and limited time for covering the events. The aim of this paper is to present some error types which occurred in the Arab Spring news translated into Romanian. Incorrect use of acronyms, translation difficulties of phrasal verbs and idioms, confusion of lexical meanings, misuse of punctuation marks or rules and orthographical ambiguity in the case of Arabic proper nouns are worth mentioning due to their high frequency.

Keywords: *errors, Arab Spring, translation, news.*

1. Introduction

Translating materials referring to the Arab world should be considered important among language specialists because there are specific terms or phrases which need to be properly conveyed into the target language. Otherwise, the overall meaning of the text(s) can be affected. However, this is a time taking process and, although accuracy is one of the purposes, it does not mean that everybody can reach it. Newspaper articles should be clear, concise and correct in point of grammar as well as in what punctuation and orthography are concerned.

Technological developments enable, by means of language, cultural transfer, spreading different values and ideas. Translation is inherent in many fields. In the case of Arab Spring, due to the fact that the uprisings occurred very fast, there was a need for materials referring to the countries involved in the events, in order to be incorporated in the newspaper articles. In this quest for keeping the people informed, for being the first ones to describe what happened, certain errors occurred.

Defined by Corder (1973: 295) as “breaches of code” or by Lennon (1991: 182) as “linguistic form or combination of forms, which in the same context and produced under similar conditions of production, would in all likelihood, not be produced by the speaker’s counterparts,” errors in translation provide insights into the difficulties that translators encounter as well as unawareness of both old and recent norms which should be followed.

The news discourse referring to the Arab society and culture contains certain kinds of references, which cannot truly convey the original source text message, if overlooked intentionally. Translation errors occur when something wrong happens in the process of transferring meaning from source to target text. Whether it is a misunderstanding in the communication code ensured by the sender or changed by the translator, it is not something desired because the levels of perception or description are altered.

2. Improper use of the target language

(En) *“The prime minister, head of the parliament and several other officials who attended the Friday prayers in the mosque at the presidential palace were wounded in the attack,” said Tareq al-Shami, spokesman for the ruling General People’s Congress. (The Telegraph, 3 June 2011)*

(Ro) *“Primul-ministru și președintele Parlamentului, precum și alte personalități politice care participau la rugăciunea de vineri în moscheea din Palatul prezidențial au fost răniți în atacul cu obuze,” a declarat purtătorul de cuvânt al Congresului Popular General, Tarek Chami.” (JN, 3 June 2011)*

It can be noticed that there is an obvious lack of grammatical knowledge in the target text, in the sense that the journalist articulated the word *prim* instead of *ministru*, resulting in an incorrect form, rather than the proper one i.e. *prim-ministrul*. There were instances when the same word appeared written incorrectly without a hyphen. In this category, we can also include the wrong forms *vice-președinte* instead of *vicepreședinte*, *președenție* rather than *președinție* and others.

2.1. Subject and verb disagreement in the target text

Basic grammar rules should be applied fast, without spending too much time to distinguish the correct forms, which, in fact, ought to come as natural. Subject and verb disagreement proves that there is an obvious lack of knowledge of the target language.

(En) *Looters broke into the Egyptian Museum during anti-government protests late on Friday and destroyed two Pharaonic mummies, Egypt’s top archaeologist told state television. (Reuters, 29 Jan. 2011)*

(Ro) *Duminică*,¹ două mumii datând din epoca faraonică a fost puternic avariate în cursul unei tentative de furt, hoții profitând de o manifestație în zonă. (JN, 1 Feb. 2011)

In the Romanian example, the journalist mistakenly took the word *epoca* as subject of the sentence and made the agreement with the singular rather than plural. He was perhaps misled by the word order. Observing this kind of grammatical error does not require special training because, in most of the cases, it can be recognized easily. The logical sequence of words should not be neglected because it is a prerequisite for proper understanding of the messages. News regarding conflicts has several purposes, but obviously there are not journalists that want to be mocked by people due to their incorrect use of the language.

2.2. Cacophonies

Considered by many as accidental, cacophony is something that cannot be overlooked because it is a serious matter, especially when it is to be found in headlines.

(En) *Syria is known as the safest country in the Middle East, possibly because, as the State Department's Web site says, "the Syrian government conducts intense physical and electronic surveillance of both Syrian citizens and foreign visitors." It's a secular country where women earn as much as men and the Muslim veil is forbidden in universities, a place without bombings, unrest, or kidnappings, but its shadow zones are deep and dark.* (The Atlantic, 3 Jan. 2012)

(Ro) *Siria este cunoscută ca cea mai sigură țară din Orientul Mijlociu, poate pentru că, după cum susține site-ul Departamentului de Stat al Siriei, „guvernul sirian duce o politică de supraveghere intensă a cetățenilor sirieni și a vizitatorilor străini.” Este o țară seculară unde femeile câștigă la fel de mult ca bărbații și unde vălul musulman este interzis în universități. Este o țară fără bombardamente, fără neliști sau răpiri.* (A, 27 July 2012)

(Ro) *Armata către Mubarak: “Nu vrem să sfârșești ca Ceaușescu.”* (JN, 31 Jan. 2011)

While *Mediafax* managed to avoid the cacophony by mentioning “Armata egipteană către Mubarak: Nu vrem să sfârșești precum Ceaușescu” (M, 2 Feb. 2011), it did not happen the same in *Jurnalul Național*. For a headline to include such kind of error is not acceptable.

¹ The journalist misinformed the readers in the sense that in the source text the events took place on Friday, while in the Romanian article it appeared that they occurred on Sunday.

Communication is essential for human existence, but how people interact makes the difference, because it can change attitudes, thoughts and feelings. Unlike oral communication when a word or phrase may be repeated on the grounds that the listener did not understand what was being said to him, in writing, occurrence of the same group of letters may have a disturbing effect upon the readers.

2.3. Incorrect use of orthography and punctuation

Proper use of the punctuation marks involves knowing the correct norms and regulations of word order and intonation and how texts can be segmented into syntactic units. All these are significant aspects, enabling better comprehension of texts. People have certain expectations as referred to the materials they read. Punctuation helps establishing the normal connections between words, phrases and sentences. Apart from its role in the graphical structure of a text, it enables the correct organization of the author's intentions, marking pauses of intonation, irony, approval, disapproval, leading to better understanding of the entire content.

Apparently, it may appear as an aspect that can be neglected because it does not hinder the overall meaning. However, choosing the English quoting conventions seem to be spreading. This is proved by the fact that newspapers abound in articles which use them. As to quoting within another quote and using the proper manner is getting harder and harder. I even dare saying that it became quite a challenge to find the proper manner of quoting in Romanian (“”).

Some justify the incorrect use by mentioning that most keyboards lack some signs and it is handy to use the English ones. Although the rules are so simple and easy to be applied, they are constantly broken in today's media. Unfortunately, a lot of hybrid combinations and even inconsistencies inside the same text appeared, such as: “”, “<<...”, ‘ ‘, <<>>.

(Ro) [“] *Se dorește a fi o organizație cu o structură suplă, care să includă personalități sau mișcări care cer reforme democratice,*” scrie AFP (JN, 11 Feb. 2011)

(Ro) [“] *Este un lacheu al Iranului*” (JN, 1 Feb. 2011)

(Ro) [“] *Ei îi spun (lui Mubarak) [«] Te-am iubit acum 30 de ani. Nu vrem să te umilim. Nu vrem să sfârșești ca (președintele român) Nicolae Ceaușescu. Pleacă în pace.*” (JN, 31 Jan. 2011)

(Ro) [‘] *stabilitatea și securitatea regional* [’] (JN, 31 Jan. 2011)

In the example provided below, apart from the quotation marks that should appear when writing in English, not in Romanian, we can notice the incorrect use of the capital letter “C” in the word *Câteva*, which definitely is wrong because it is neither a proper noun and nor there is another plausible reason for writing it as such.

(Ro) *Corespondentul BBC relatează că sunt șanse ca egiptenii să accepte compromisul oferit de Mubarak, pentru că sunt “un popor răbdător,” care ar fi dispus “să mai aștepte Câteva luni înainte să-l vadă plecat. (JN, 1 Feb.2011)*

By improper use or lack of punctuation as well as failure in following orthographical norms, the reader can be misled into interpreting information, diminishing the importance of some words while emphasizing others, therefore changing the perspectives in which situations are presented.

3. Difficulties in translating phrasal verbs, idioms and collocations

Translating phrasal verbs or idiomatic expressions can be quite challenging because, apart from identifying the non-literal meanings of the above-mentioned categories, translators have to be able to find suitable manners to accurately convey the original meanings which should fit the target texts. It would be ideally to translate an idiom from the source material by means of another one from the target text, allowing the same kinds of connections or associations. However, there are many factors to be considered: cultural, social, ideological and historical which require certain strategies in order to enable translation.

For rendering the meaning of an idiom into another language, mot-a-mot translation can lead to confusion. An expression having the same significance can be a good and preferable semantic equivalent preserving not only the meaning, but also the stylistic connotation. Idioms and phrasal verbs are unavoidable. They are frequently used both in writing and speech. They are connected to the language and even the place where they appeared. Rendering the same significance requires in most of the cases specific procedures in the light of enabling the reader to experience the same significance as in the case of the original.

Idioms and fixed expressions are at the extreme end of the scale from collocations in one or both of these areas: flexibility of patterning or transparency of meaning. They are frozen patterns of language which allow

little or no variation in form and, in the case of idioms, often carry meanings which cannot be deduced from their individual components. (Baker, 1992: 63)

In order for somebody to be able to look up idioms, phrasal verbs and collocations in the dictionary, first of all he must know in which categories they belong to, rather than using literal translation. If translators “feel” that something “does not sound right”, they may use dictionaries and, nowadays, due to the technological advances, there are a lot of online materials that can help clarify the meanings of words. Semantically, the significance of each separate lexical unit cannot be added and result in the overall sense of an idiom.

Even for advanced learners of English, phrasal verbs may prove problematic because they usually have more than one meaning and it takes practice to distinguish the right one. Incorrect translation can be noticed in the examples provided below. Thus, the phrasal verb *to head for* appears as *milioane de suflute pe străzi* (back translation *millions of souls on the streets*) when, in fact, it actually means *to move towards*, whereas in another example *to hold meetings* is translated as *să lansez contacte* (back translation *to launch contacts*) rather than *to have a meeting*.

(En) (...) after “seeing millions head for the streets.” (JPost, 1 Feb. 2011)

(Ro) *Acesta a mai adăugat că Washintonul² a fost forțat să abandoneze planurile de a-l ajuta pe Mubarak să rămână la putere, după ce a văzut “milioane de suflute pe străzi.”* (JN, 1 Feb.2011)

(En) *The president has asked me today to immediately hold meetings with the political forces (...)* (The Guardian, 31 Jan. 2011)

(Ro) *“Președintele mi-a cerut să lansez contacte, imediat, cu toate forțele politice, pentru a începe un dialog asupra tuturor problemelor legate de reforma constituțională și legislativă,” a declarat el.* (JN, 1 Feb. 2011)

4. Incorrect spelling of proper nouns

It is true that media does not have strict rules on mentioning the names of political leaders, but in the case of Arabs that would be even harder to follow. The high frequency of mentioning the Arabic proper nouns or numbers wrongly can indicate the tendency for neglecting revision of the work. In the examples provided below, the following names appeared: *Dweih*, *Iqbal* and *Bourhane Ghalioune* instead of the right nouns *Dweik*, *Iqbal* and respectively, *Burhan Ghalioun*.

² The word *Washington* appears written incorrectly as *Washintonul* in the target text.

(En) *“We get just four hours sleep or so and then we wake up to start the protest again,” said Samah al-Dweik, who has not been to her home in Maadi, just outside the city, since Friday. (BBC, 31 Jan. 2011)*

(Ro) *„Dormim patru ore pe noapte și când ne trezim protestăm din nou,” declara, pentru sursa citată, Samah al-Dweih, unul dintre sutele de mii de egipteni instalați în fața sediului Guvernului din Cairo. (JN, 1 Feb. 2011)*

(Ro) *Măsura a fost luată după ce opoziția azeră a făcut apel în vederea demolării monumentului. „În timp ce poporul egiptean încearcă să-l doboare pe dictator, la noi i se înalță statui,” a declarat deputatul Igbal Agazade, citat de agenția rusă Interfax (JN, 1 Feb. 2011)*

(En) *“A corrupt elite backed by Western countries emerged with an incredible arrogance,” said Burhan Ghalioun, director of the Centre for Contemporary Oriental Studies at the Sorbonne university in Paris. (Al Arabiya, 31 Jan. 2011)*

(Ro) *Bourhane Ghalioune, director al Centrului de Studii Arabe la Sorbona, constată, de exemplu, “aparitia unei elite corupte, sprijinite de țările occidentale” în regiunea respectivă. (JN, 31 Jan. 2011)*

Names help in constructing a person’s identity, characterizing him/her. They enable establishing associations between individuals. Unlike an oral communicative process when one of the actors involved pronounces correctly the name of the other speaker and the latter develops a positive attitude towards the former, in a newspaper articles, feedback from the person mentioned in the article is seldom received. Although nowadays identities are constantly redefined, preserving certain characteristics is more than necessary.

5. Improper translation of the words, unawareness of word meaning

There are instances when translators are not certain about the meanings of words and rather than looking them up in the dictionary, they find ways of avoiding them. On the other hand, if they do choose to translate them, the result can be a diminution of the original significance.

(En) *Egyptian cultural heritage, both its monuments and its artefacts, are part of the ancestral heritage of **humanity**, handed down to us through the ages,” she said, in a statement from UNESCO’s Paris headquarters. (The Independent, 1 Feb. 2011)*

(Ro) *„Patrimoniul cultural egiptean, fie că este vorba despre monumente, fie despre obiecte, este o parte a patrimoniului **Umanității**, transmisă nouă de-a lungul secolelor,” a subliniat directoarea generală a UNESCO, Irina Bokova. (JN, 1 Feb, 2011)*

The translator chose to translate *artefacts* as *obiecte* (back translation *objects*) diminishing the historical importance, instead of using the Romanian *artefact* having the plural *artefacte*. Indeed the word artifact means “a simple object (such as a tool or weapon) that was made by people in the past,”³ but this does not mean that it is not important for understanding its significance and being perceived as something common.

Any activity involving translation should include competency, skills as well as knowledge from different fields such as: linguistics, sociology, psychology and so on. If new words appear in newspapers there is a high probability for them to be used by a great number of people in a very short period of time, due to one of the characteristics that defines mass-media, i.e. immediacy. Apart from the linguistic innovations that are coined in order to describe certain historical events, articles provide significant accounts of cultural characteristics that define nations in a certain period of time.

Omitting aspects which are fundamental for readership comprehension leads us to think that there is a lack of knowledge which should not be encountered in quality mass-media. Unjustified use of the foreign words, frequent errors, and inappropriate translation procedures may influence a great number of readers with long term negative effects upon the language.

5.1. Difficulties with acronyms

The number of acronyms that appear in modern newspaper articles is constantly increasing. Each language has its own specific way of formulating them. As it can be seen in Romanian newspapers, the manner of creating and using the acronyms is not unitary in the sense that, if for some the form which is recognized internationally was preserved, for others an adapted version was obtained by means of translation.

In the case of the Arab Spring, the most frequent acronyms referred to international organizations and institutions (NATO, EU), foreign news agencies (AFP, FP) and their explanation was considered unnecessary.

When a certain journalist decided to create an acronym by mistakenly translating its components and then keeping the first letter from each word, the result turned out to be not the best solution. In other cases, the acronym did not even appear. Thus, FMF (Foreign Military Financing) was translated as *alocată anual în cadrul programului de ajutor financiar pentru armatele străine* (*JN*, 1 Feb. 2011), diminishing the importance of the program considerably.

³ www.merriam-webster.com. 2014. Accessed on 11 October 2014 <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/artifact>

The upper case form of MENA (from Middle East and North Africa) was replaced by the lower-case with only the first letter kept capital one. The lack of concordance with the original term reveals that the journalist obviously lacked the right information or available resources (time, Internet access) to produce the proper version of the acronym in writing.

(Ro) “*Libertatea de exprimare sub formă pașnică este garantată tuturor,*” a afirmat purtătorul de cuvânt al armatei, citat de agenția oficială Mena și de televiziunea publică. (JN, 1 Feb. 2011)

Journalists’ discourse is highly productive throughout its evolution and even the first occurrence of a word can influence the future ones. Storage of information should also be considered because people can keep in mind the acronyms whose phonological components enable that. Thus, if they overlap with something from the target culture or their frequency is quite high, there is a great chance for them to be remembered on the long term and, when encountered again, to be perceived as familiar:

Language is a well-defined object in the heterogeneous mass of speech facts. It can be localized in the limited segment of the speaking-circuit where an auditory image becomes associated with a concept. It is the social side of speech, outside the individual who can never create nor modify it by himself; it exists only by virtue of a sort of contract signed by the members of a community. (Saussure, 2011[1916]: 14)

Most of the times, acronyms are created in the written language. If used correctly, they can prove quite efficient because they prevent a text from being either too long or difficult to be read. For people that already have previous knowledge, additional explanations can appear redundant. Otherwise, first of all they need to be introduced, followed by the acronym in parentheses. They may also appear in speaking, having to be easily pronounced, as a main characteristic.

Due to the wide spread tendency of using them in the media, special attention should be given, even by means of error analysis, although there are pros and cons for this strategy. Moreover, journalists should also consider style guides which provide useful information. By constant efforts to improve the quality of the work as well as determination to increase the level of previous knowledge about certain topics, errors can be avoided.

Translation has its own excitement, its own interest. A satisfactory translation is always possible, but a good translator is never satisfied with it. It can usually be improved. There is no such thing as a perfect, ideal or ‘correct’ translation. A translator is always trying to extend his knowledge

and improve his means of expression; he is always pursuing facts and words. (Newmark, 1995 [1988]: 6)

5.2. Repetition

If in poetry, in literary writings, repetition is used to enable the writer to emphasize certain concepts or symbols, in newspapers it can confuse the readers and even lead to losing their interest. It can be accepted when quoting somebody's words because it is obvious that his intentions were to emphasize a certain word or phrase, being an efficient rhetorical method.

The most common and easiest way of avoiding repetition in newspaper articles is by using synonyms. In the first paragraph provided below, apart from repeating the word *săptămână* three times, the second sentence does not have a predicate; in the third example, the unusual script and incorrect quotation marks lead us to conclude that repetition can be combined with other kinds of errors, impeding the readers to follow to logical sequence of events.

(Ro) *Acțiunea de proporții marchează o săptămână de la începutul revoltei populare. O săptămână în care Washingtonul și-a schimbat semnificativ discursul. Săptămâna trecută, secretarul american de stat, Hillary Clinton, vorbea despre necesitatea ca Guvernul egiptean „să caute căi pentru a răspunde nevoilor legale și intereselor poporului egiptean.” (JN, 31 Jan. 2011)*

(Ro) *Cetățenii români aflați în Egipt au contactat **ambasada** cerând diverse sfaturi, au mai spus reprezentanții **ambasadei**. (JN, 30 Jan. 2011)*

(Ro) *Președintele Franței, Nicolas Sarkozy, care a păstrat tăcerea până vineri, a reacționat în cele din urmă sâmbătă seara. Sarkozy, Cancelaria germană și premierul britanic au dat publicității o [“] **Declarație comună**” în care se **declară** [“] profund preocupați de evenimentele din Egipt.” (JN, 30 Jan. 2011)*

Translating materials about the Arab Spring events definitely included political speeches. In the case of newspaper articles, people made an idea about the ones delivering them based on the target texts. If some inconsistencies appeared, readers might have considered that they were intended as such originally. Beneficiaries do not know the processes involved in the production stages. They assess a material based on the final product.

Politicians or political analysts usually do not go back to the original text, neither do they request a detailed comparative analysis of the original text and the translation. Once produced, translations as texts lead a life of their own and they are the bases on which people acquire information and knowledge. (Schäffner, 2004: 125)

5.3. Pleonasms

Expressing an idea in Arabic by using more words than needed is not a wrong practice; in either Romanian or English this may lead to pleonasms. It is considered a problem which results from repeating words with similar meanings, but with different functions. This kind of error occurs in many languages. Apart from the usual causes i.e. lack of time, attention, they appear because, unfortunately, people got used to them due to their high frequency, being more like automatic instances in point of language use.

(Ro) *Un număr de 28 de persoane și-au pierdut viața de sâmbătă până în prezent în confruntările de la Cairo și din alte orașe dintre forțele de ordine și manifestații care solicitau plecarea cât mai rapid posibil a militarilor de la putere. (JN, 22 Nov. 2011)*

(Ro) *Rusia și China au votat împotriva, după ce au opus un vot de veto unui număr de două rezoluții ale Consiliului de Securitate privind situația din Siria. (JN, 24 Feb. 2012)*

(Ro) *Cei de la „National Geographic” au refuzat să divulge suma de bani care i-a fost oferită lui Hawass, deși el a confirmat că este adevărat. (A, 27 Jan. 2013)*

5.4. Mixture of ideas in the target text

In the attempt to include as much information as possible, journalists may create sentences that cannot be comprehended by readers. The example provided below proves how the mixture of words produces quite a hypnotic effect upon the reader. The intention is known just to the journalist, because this excessive use of the language can only stir confusion.

(Ro) *La nord, căderea regimului lui Saad Hariri în Liban îl creșterea influenței mișcării proiraniene Hezbollah, acum cu un regim-marionetă la dispoziție, tabăra moderată din Orientul Milociu a pierdut un element important, crede Eichner. (JN, 30 Jan. 2011)*

Errors indicate the level of competency, of proficiency in point of grammar and vocabulary usage. Moreover, they prove that the one using the language is not aware of the right notions.

One of the main characteristics of the media is that it reaches a large number of people in a very short time. It influences not only the people's ideas, thoughts, but also their language and, that is why, it should be devoid of errors. If headlines or first pages include native language errors, readers may even decide not to buy the newspapers.

On the other hand, if a newspaper article is written grammatically correct, beneficiaries develop trust and willingness to further read materials coming from the same sources because they feel an attitude of appreciation towards the journalist and the institution he is working for. Successfully informing a wider audience may be considered an art or a purpose that not anybody can reach.

Language changes through time in order to correspond to the new realities, foreign influences and human communication needs or requirements. Thus, influences coming from society and progress are directly reflected in lexis, involving a phenomenon of prioritizing because new words appear, while others may gain new meanings or even disappear.

6. Conclusions

Translation is not an activity that can be done by anybody. In the case of news content, there is even a greater responsibility both in relation to the institution the translator works for and to the public. It also involves complex knowledge from different fields, because the topics are not constant.

Errors in newspapers are not acceptable because one journalist can mislead millions of readers. Their analysis is needed in order to know what is right or acceptable, according to the linguistic and cultural norms. Readers may accept novelty in their desire to find out what is new. Notwithstanding, linguistic innovations are not so well received by all of them. Ignoring the lexical differences or overloading sentences with too much information interrupts the logical sequence of the facts presented in the text.

Moreover, correct communication requires awareness of the grammatical norms. It is also a matter of ethics and more precisely its practice. Like many professionals from certain fields, journalists should constantly improve their knowledge and apply it in their work because they need intellectual development. They should always strive for academic levels as far as linguistic correctness is concerned.

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List of Abbreviations:

En = English

Ro = Romanian

JN = Jurnalul Național

A = Adevărul

RL = România liberă

M = Mediafax

Rezumat: Între anii 2010 și 2014, în mass-media s-au putut găsi multe materiale referitoare la Siria, Tunisia, Egipt și Libia. Totuși, sarcina jurnaliștilor a fost dificilă întrucât au existat multe informații și timp limitat pentru a scrie despre evenimentele ce aveau loc în țările sus-menționate. Scopul acestei lucrări este de a prezenta anumite tipuri de erori care au apărut în știrile referitoare la Primăvara Arabă și care au fost traduse în limba română. Folosirea incorectă a acronimelor, a semnelor și regulilor de punctuație, dificultățile în traducerea verbelor cu particulă, precum și ambiguitatea ortografică în cazul substantivelor proprii preluate din limba arabă merită a fi luate în considerare întrucât au apărut în mod frecvent.

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Correcting Dictionary Errors

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Abstract: Dictionaries are among the most authoritative sources regarding language. As such, they should not contain any type of error. More than ten available dictionaries were collected during a project – Romanian-English, English-Romanian law dictionaries – and a few of them were checked regarding translation, grammatical, spelling, formatting, and typographical errors. The present article discusses the findings, offering examples as well. In the second part possible improving options are shown, the author arguing for creating a term base, which may be incorporated into computer-assisted translation tools (CAT), such as SDL Trados Studio, OmegaT, or memoQ.

Keywords: *dictionaries, law, errors, term base, Romanian, English.*

1. Introduction

People have been striving to understand languages since they discovered that not all humans speak the same language. Although the story of Babel may be controversial to some people, it offers a possible explanation to the huge diversity languages manifest. Since the invention of the printing press in Europe (Johannes Gutenberg, around 1440), the possibility to record a language in the form of a printed book/dictionary has become possible.

Dictionaries try to offer the core or the extended vocabulary list of one or more languages (monolingual, bilingual, multilingual dictionaries), depending on the purpose: general dictionaries or specific ones. Now we know that no dictionary can contain “all” the words of a particular language, so a proper selection of entries is more than a basic requirement.

Technically speaking, a dictionary is “A book explaining or translating, usu. in alphabetical order, words of a language or languages, giving their pronunciation, spelling, part of speech, and etymology, or one or some of these” (Trumble and Stevenson, 2002: 673). However, the definition should be updated: dictionaries may be in e-format (pdf, doc, docx, djvu, etc.), and the electronic format be later modified (new entries added, obsolete ones removed, definitions altered, etc.). In fact even the definition of *dictionary* is modified in the online version of the dictionary mentioned above: “A book or electronic resource that lists the words of a language (typically in alphabetical order) and gives their meaning, or gives

the equivalent words in a different language, often also providing information about pronunciation, origin, and usage.”¹

The most prestigious Romanian explanatory dictionary (Coteanu *et al.*, 1996: 301) offers a similar definition, according to which a dictionary is a lexicographic work containing the words of a language, of a dialect, of a field, of a writer, organized in a particular order (usually alphabetical) and explained in the same language or translated into a foreign one (our translation).² Thus, we can state that dictionaries must be among the most authoritative sources of languages in which any kind of error is hardly acceptable, even if we accept the fact that *to err is human*. Still, we believe that dictionaries should contain *language* in its purest form, and the importance of bilingual dictionaries is much more obvious, serving as *bridges* between languages and culture. This logically leads to the importance of those who actively use dictionaries: linguists, philologists, (proof)readers, translators and interpreters in a both globalized a localized world.

In the age of technological revolution publishing (printed or electronic) dictionaries is much faster, easier and less expensive. The ‘here and now’ effect of the advertising industry pervaded all fields, thus the time allotted for the preparation of books and dictionaries has shrunk considerably. This is our starting point when looking for possible errors, which may be due to lack of time, money and energy. The trend is to offer ‘modern,’ ‘updated’ versions of offline printed dictionaries, and these new online dictionaries can be accessed by a much larger target community. Once we have the electronic version of a dictionary various alterations may be possible (addition or deletion of entries), but most importantly, term extraction, through which a term base can be added to computer-assisted translation tools (CAT) such as *SDL Trados Studio*, *OmegaT*, *memoQ*, etc.

However, the globalized McWorld and McLanguage (Snell-Hornby, 2006: 132-133) must have had its effects on all language-related activities as well, resulting in a so-called dilution of translation and interpreting services. If McLanguage is “a particular brand of American English”, that is “reduced in stylistic range and aided by abbreviations, icons, acronyms and graphic design” and “tailor-made for fast consumption” (Snell-Hornby, 2006: 132), it is no wonder that Snell-Hornby draws the conclusion: there is a greater tolerance towards “language mistakes” (Snell-Hornby, 2006: 133), and possibly typing errors, if we may add.

¹ Source: <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/dictionary>.

² In original: “Operă lexicografică cuprinzând cuvintele unei limbi, ale unui dialect, ale unui domeniu de activitate, ale unui scriitor etc., organizate într-o anumită ordine (de obicei alfabetică) și explicate în aceeași limbă sau traduse într-o limbă străină.”

Studies regarding terminology prove the importance of updating term bases as new words and expressions continuously enter languages, resulting in the publishing of new dictionaries and term bases compatible with CAT. While Barber mentions “fast music, fast computers, and fast food – with MTV, Macintosh, and McDonald’s” in a “global network ...of one McWorld tied together by technology, ecology, communications and commerce” (Barber, 1992: 53), we can mention fast McTranslations and McDictionaries with all the advantages and disadvantages detailed in the following.

2. Our project

The starting point of our project was the unusually large number of complaints regarding the quality of Romanian-English, English-Romanian legal dictionaries on ProZ.com, a site dedicated to professional translators and interpreters.³ A POSDRU project offered the possibility to plunge into a 20-month research (2014-2015), aiming at creating a bilingual term base with legal terms based on recently published dictionaries in Romania, containing legal terms.

In the initial stage we were able to find eleven dictionaries published between 1999 and 2014, but during the project further dictionaries were added, reaching to sixteen, realizing that dictionaries on economics contain a considerable number of entries connected to law as well. One of our conclusions is that distinctions between economics, law and ‘other’ fields of expertise are somewhat artificial, which explains why legal dictionaries differ so much in the number of entries. For instance, Lozinschi’s Romanian-English legal dictionary (Lozinschi, 2008) contains around 90,000 terms, whereas Hanga and Calciu’s *Romanian-English, English-Romanian legal dictionary* (Hanga and Calciu, 2009) contains around 15,000 entries.

A logical deduction may be that while one dictionary focuses on the ‘core’ legal entries, the other one incorporates more marginal entries, but this is only one side of the coin. The fact is, that browsing carefully through all the entries, we discovered that certain entries seem to be included on a rather subjective basis. Otherwise there is no explanation why certain *numbers (fourteen)*,⁴ *countries (Sudan)*, *geographical areas (Întorsura Buzăului – The curve of Buzău)*, *body parts (knee)*, *diseases (rinofaringită - rhynopharyngitis)*, *sports (patinaj artistic – figure skating)*. The obvious

³ <http://www.proz.com>.

⁴ Let alone the case when the Romanian *patruzeci* (40) is translated as *fourty*.

questions arise: Why are not all numbers, countries or diseases included?, or What were the selection criteria?

We estimated around 250,000 entries that need to be checked, but after all dictionaries have been examined, the total number of entries was more than 330,000. Of course, many entries were similar (e.g. *închisoare* – *jail, prison, penitentiary, penitentiary, detention*, etc.), i. e. appeared in more than one dictionary, so we had to eliminate these similar entries. Still, there were more than 200,000 entries to cross-examine for possible errors.

At this stage we were not interested in the different concepts of law in Romania (*Noul Cod penal, Noul Cod de procedură penală, Codul civil, Codul de procedură civilă*) and the English *common law, Civil Rights Act, or Criminal Law Act*, but it is obvious that these concepts cause difficulties when we have in mind the equivalence of terms.

2.1. Correcting errors while creating a term base

The reasons may be manifold, but surprisingly many errors have been found in the printed Romanian-English, English-Romanian dictionaries. Some of them may be labelled as irrelevant (a missing letter or an extra letter), others are much more serious (Romanian term preserved in the English section or vice versa). Whatever the case, we consider that it is worth mentioning several categories of errors, as while examining the database, we had a feeling that Murphy's Law applies: *Anything that can go wrong will go wrong*.

The errors we identified appeared while we were focusing on creating a possible term base (TB) for CAT-tools in order to improve the quality assurance of translations. Once a term is added to the TB with its correct translation, whenever the same term appears in the text, the TB will offer the match/its previous translation. Yet, it is important to mention that a term and its translation is not set in stone, as there is the possibility to modify (correct) it, add further possible translations or even delete them.

The starting point for creating a TB is a *Microsoft Excel* file with at least two columns for the source terms and target terms. Further columns are possible if extra information is needed: the letter where the source term belongs to (*A, B, C*, etc.), the source of the term, spelling remarks (*US or UK English*), or lexical remarks (*slang, taboo, obsolete, Latin*, etc.). However, the most important thing to do is set the spell-check to reduce the risk of typographical errors from the start. Typographical errors may be the following:

- a. Missing letter: **whch* instead of *which*, **aprove* instead of *approve*;

- b. Extra letter: **contenstation* instead of *contestation*, **enactement* instead of *enactment*;
- c. Mistyped letter: **villein* instead of *villain*;
- d. Mistyped letter ('fat finger syndrome' – a neighboring key is pressed instead of the proper one on the keyboard: *E-R*, *U-I*, etc.): **null ans void* instead of *null and void*. The worst type of fat finger syndrome may even result in a faulty alphabetical order: **îmsemmat* instead of *însemnat*;
- e. Romanian diacritical mark preserved in the English translation: **condițional bond*
- f. Missing Romanian diacritical mark: **imprumut* instead of *împrumut*, **baga în marșarier* instead of *a băga în marșarier*;
- g. Extra word: **conception of of legality* instead of *conception of legality*;
- h. Incorrect use of quotation marks: **, „best before date”* instead of *“best before date”*;
- i. Wrong alphabetical order, which – in our opinion – is the worst type of typographical error. This may be due to ignorance, or due to different electronic sorting in different languages. In our case, the proper alphabetical order of the Romanian *a, ă, â, i, î, s, ș, t, ț* may cause problems. For instance, *inginerie* is among the words starting with *î* (*înghețare* and *îngrădi*, Lister and Veth, 2010: 447). However, this is not an isolated case, as *înșelătorie* preceeds *înainta*; in fact, more than 30 (!) terms starting with *înș...* or *înț...* come before terms starting with *îna...* (Dumitrescu, 2009: 126-127), and all through letter *Î* the same problem persists.

The examples above show the importance of spell-check, as an incorrect letter may lead to improper alphabetical order. If this is the case, one may not find the term in question, although it may still be included in the dictionary. As a result, it is mandatory to have an activated spell-checker to minimize the typographical errors while typing, and not only in the phase of proofreading.

If typographical errors are connected to meaning, then we talk about 'atopic typos,' which are extremely difficult to track: *pay football* instead of *play football*, *necasare* (non-annulment) instead of *necesare* (necessary).

The inconsistency regarding UK or US spelling may also cause minor problems (*centre* vs. *center*, *offence* vs. *offense*), but this can be solved easily from the point of view of alphabetical order (both versions should be listed in alphabetical order).

If dictionaries are approached lexically and not typographically, the meaning of entries may signal further issues. One of them is when in bilingual dictionaries a word/term is preserved in the other language: *penal*

**servitute* is in fact *penal servitute*, showing that the Romanian term remained in the English translation (Hanga and Calciu, 2009: 41), or **depozit at notice* instead of *deposit at notice* (Hanga and Calciu, 2009: 338). The majority of cases may be easily solved, if – while typing the entries – the proper language is selected for spelling, grammar and proofing language, on condition that the proofing tools for the particular languages are installed. In fact, these language modules are freely available for both *Microsoft Office*⁵ and *LibreOffice*⁶ (built-in feature, to be selected for the desired languages while installing).

Specialized dictionaries (legal, medical, etc.) have a particular problem with searchability. A characteristic feature of terms is that they tend to be combinations of words in order to clearly refer to a specialized concept (Imre, 2013: 232), thus a proper alphabetical order may prove to be difficult. For instance, *privare de libertate* (constraint, duress) is found under *P* (Dumitrescu, 2009: 175) and not under *L*. *Rent allowance* is under *R* and not under *A* (Lister & Veth, 2010: 238), whereas *personal allowance* is under *A* and not under *P* (Lister & Veth, 2010: 20). The optimal solution would be for these cases to have them twice, but this is what all dictionaries tend to avoid: redundancy.

Although terms should not overlap in meaning and they should have no emotional content (Heltai, 2004: 32), it may happen – however objective we would like to be – that we include terms which are questionable. For instance, it is difficult to explain why *quail* (and not *sparrow* or *stork*) is included in a legal dictionary. However, we like so much *unitate motorizată* (*motorized unit*) that we particularly wanted to preserve the term in the legal database, although its relevance is questionable. Our “best example” is a case when the sub-entry does not even belong to the main entry (*înalt* – *high, tall*).

The Romanian term is *Summit-ul Social Tripartit pentru Dezvoltare și Angajarea Forței de Muncă*, translated as *the Tripartite Social Summit for Growth and Employment*, and the problem is that should anyone be interested how the Romanian is translated, he/she will search for it under *S*, *T*, *D*, *A*, *F*, *M*, possibly *P*, but definitely not under *Î*.

When trying to offer a possible solution, we can only say that a TB will inevitably position all entries in a strict alphabetical order in English (the Romanian is more complicated due to the diacritical signs), and the TB creator must pay attention to certain differences between dictionaries and term bases. Thus we should not to include the long infinitive particle (*to*) or

⁵ <http://www.microsoft.com/en-us/download/details.aspx?id>.

⁶ <https://www.libreoffice.org>.

the definite/indefinite articles (*the, a, an*) in case of English, whereas the Romanian reflexive form (*a se*) will cause trouble.

A proper TB will also eliminate further inconsistencies, such as the reference to British English or American English. In one of the dictionaries, American English was abbreviated as *amer.*, *SUA* and *S.U.A* (Imre, 2014: 532), which may be unified as *US*.

3. Conclusion

Although the present article laid emphasis on dictionary errors and argued that a proper spell-checker in text editing software may easily correct them, we cannot and do not want to hide the fact that – for the time being – dictionaries are still the most reliable sources of information regarding specialized terms. The benefits of globalization, localization, the revolution of technology and the revolution of translation also contributed to large unreliable e-sources on the Internet, and sometimes it takes too much time and effort to check their reliability. Thus a tailored TB may be suitable for a professional translator only if proper sources were selected, and the reliability of the sources is combined with the benefits of a high quality TB. Some of these are: well selected relevant entries for the purpose, no typographical errors, improved searchability, no index needed, possibility to modify (change, add, delete), and once we have a source language – target language direction, this is easily reversible (an English-Romanian database can be turned to Romanian-English almost instantly). A strict alphabetical order can be implemented, provided that the proofing tools are installed and set for the desired language. In this case the Romanian words containing diacritical marks will be in a correct alphabetical order, enhancing searchability.

We mentioned previously that extra columns may be added to the term base, and two further categories may be useful: one of them is the grammatical category of the term (*noun, verb, adjective*, etc.) in order to improve disambiguation. The other option takes more energy, as sometimes it is difficult to distinguish ‘pure’ legal terms from terms belonging to economics. Most typically, finances, banking, money-related issues may ‘start’ as terms belonging to economics, but they often appear in legal contexts: *overdue (bank loan, installment)*, *embezzlement*, *counterfeit (money)* etc.

If the database is created in *Microsoft Office Excel* (.xls or .xlsx format) or *LibreOffice Calc* (.ods format), it can be easily converted to .csv format, which may be added as a TB to CAT-tools (*SDL Studio Trados*, *memoQ*). Compatibility issues of databases for various CAT-tools are less

problematic nowadays (*SDL Trados Studio, memoQ, Déjà Vu, Wordfast, OmegaT*, etc), but one might wonder whether a translator really needs the technical background describe above. Gouadec mentioned almost a decade ago (Gouadec, 2007: 109) that the “Pencil and Rubber-Assisted Translator is clearly on the way out” and it is our firm belief that only the best translators in a field remain competitive on the market; those, who have the necessary skills to keep up with the technological changes in the translation industry. There are no ‘perfect’ dictionaries or term bases, but reducing typographical, grammatical, meaning-related errors with only relevant entries in a particular field should be a constant strive of a compiler.

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Rezumat: Dicționarele sunt considerate printre resursele cele mai autoritative privind limba. Astfel, ele nu ar trebui să conțină nici un fel de greșeală. În cadrul unui proiect POSDRU postdoctoral am selectat peste zece dicționare juridice bilingve (român-englez, englez-român), din care trei dicționare au fost verificate privind traducerea termenelor și greșelile gramaticale, punctuația, formatarea și cele tipografice. Prezentul articol prezintă rezultate parțiale, oferind exemple. În a doua parte a lucrării argumentăm importanța creării unei baze de date terminologice, care se poate încorpora în traducerea asistată de calculator (TAC), cum ar fi SDL Trados Studio, OmegaT, sau memoQ.

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The Role of Literature in English Grammar Learning

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Abstract: English is regarded as the language that brings the whole world together, having status as the world's lingua franca through globalization. The aim of this paper is to guide the teachers and students to become familiar with the effectiveness of using literature in grammar teaching. Integrating literature in language teaching adds a new dimension to the teaching of EFL.

Stories and poems, for example, help students to learn the four language skills—listening, speaking, reading and writing more effectively because of the motivational benefits embedded in the texts. Using literary texts in teaching English grammar, the process of communication is better realized and students can more easily learn without making efforts to memorize rules that govern the world of words.

Keywords: *language, literature, grammar, teaching, learning, linguistic, literary texts, authentic materials deduction approach, induction approach.*

1. Introduction

Learning a language is an interesting and pleasant activity but at the same time it is also a full and effortful process. Teachers are those who can set their students on the road, helping them to develop confidence in their own learning process. Then the teachers have to wait, ready to encourage and assist the students who persevere with the activity. For those who find this activity difficult we can assure them that language learning is an enjoyable and educational experience, too.

2. Studying grammar – grammatical terminology

It is known that students are afraid of studying grammar, especially grammatical terminology.

Students must not only understand the grammatical concepts they encounter, but also appreciate how each term, like a link in a coat of chain mail, interrelates with all the others in one fabric – the English language system. It is essential for students to comprehend grammatical concepts in relation to, or in contrast with other grammatical concepts, which guide us in selecting from various ways of presenting the grammar, especially deductive and inductive processes. Each of these approaches has its own use for specific age, for group, or for particular aspects of the language. The

deductive approach is most useful for mature, well-motivated students with some knowledge of the language, who are anxious to understand the more complicated aspects of the grammatical system, and students attending intensive courses who have reasons for understanding better and more quickly how the language works.

The inductive approach is very appropriate for young language learners who have not yet developed fully their ability to think in abstractions and who enjoy learning through active application.

Most classroom teachers use a mixture of inductive and deductive approaches according to the type of students with whom they are dealing, and the degree of difficulty of the problem being presented.

Teachers of English language must take the responsibility themselves for teaching the students as much as abstract grammar as possible with its associated terminology. Teachers must feel free to adapt, invent or find terminology in order to help their students grasp the concepts and use the language effectively; they need to determine which terms are the most effective in displaying the structure of the language for a given level. They should become familiar to their own non-traditional ways of talking about the English language, and continue with those that work.

Many scholars consider literature as a tool for teaching grammar.

Using literature in grammar lessons has got several benefits if the teachers select the proper literary texts. "Our success in using literature, greatly, depends on a selection of texts which will not be too difficult on either a linguistic or conceptual level" (Brumfit and Carter, 1986). This means that unless the teachers make a good selection, they will not be able to teach what they plan to, rather than confuse the students.

Regarding the students' level, stylistically or linguistically complicated or difficult texts may be more suitable materials for higher level than the lower ones. If there is a difficult vocabulary expressed into more different structures and sentences, students will neither understand the text nor like it. This means that it is not advisable to select too simple texts in order to be understood; if the texts aren't able to stimulate the students' interest, they won't be able to make right judgments and notice how much grammar is implied to make words act their role in concise objective structure. The created atmosphere is a boring one and students can't discuss or relate what they have read.

Long sentences in complicated paragraphs make students decrease their interest in a successful lesson.

3. The cultural background

Sometimes the cultural background helps students to understand more easily what really happens in the selected text and why the teacher offers them those specific literary texts.

We suggest using questionnaires or interests of students and giving brief summary of some possibilities letting them choose what they consider to be interesting for them; in this way, teachers can select the work by seeing it through the students' opinions.

It is an active process where teachers and students take part all together in order to realize the objectives targeted.

Teaching language through literature enables students to develop all language skills; it is all about a vivid activity where students can listen to what the teacher says and in the same time to ask or answer any question that may appear, or read passages relevant to the deal under consideration.

Literature provides a rich context in which individual lexical or syntactical items are made more memorable.

Reading a substantial and contextualized body of text students gain familiarity with many features of the written language- the functions and formations of sentences, the variety of possible structures, the different ways of connecting ideas.

There are some scholars who discount the value of using literature in teaching learning, stating different arguments.

The first argument that the literature, due to its complex and unique use of language, fails to contribute to learning grammar, which remains one of the main goals of language learning, was found to be a weak argument.

Lazar (1993) mentioned that the use of literature, in fact, encourages language acquisition and expands the students' language for some reasons:

a) literature stimulates language by providing contexts or processing and interpreting the new language.

b) rich in multiple levels of meanings, literature provides with a framework for sharing their feelings and opinions.

c) listening to recorded literary texts exposes the students to the new language.

The second argument against using literature is that it would contribute to nothing towards promoting the academic goal to the students.

Widdowson (1975) considers reading as a reaction to a text and as a dynamic interaction between the writer and the reader, mediated through a text. Therefore, by developing reading proficiency, literature can contribute to students' academic and professional objectives.

The third argument objects to the literary texts that they have a particular cultural perspective, which according to scholars, can create difficulties to the reader at a conceptual level.

It is considered that that if the students were to read a foreign culture literature, they would increase their understanding and develop their imagination being able to find out cultural differences.

Hence, by exposing our students to interact with these texts, we are asking them to think about the culture from which the English language text is written.

The above counter-arguments are somehow convincing to conclude that because of its several benefits, literature plays an important role in the learning of the language:

- a) Lazar (1993) states that the literature provides appropriate ways in order to stimulate the learners to acquire a new language, since it provides meaningful contexts for processing and interpreting a new language.
- b) the literature is one which provides pleasure by engaging emotions of the students when they interact with a text.
- c) the literature can provide, to the students, the access to the culture of the people whose language they are studying.

The literary texts, if selected based on the interesting background and level of the students, are invaluable as they help the students to develop positive feelings towards the lessons.

Littlewood (1988) states: "A major problem of language teaching in the classroom is the creation of an authentic situation for language. A language class especially one outside the community of native speakers is isolated from the context of events and situations which provide natural language." The communicative approach to second language teaching and learning calls for authentic materials that create a proper environment for students to exercise that target language items in real situation.

Widdowson (1975) states: "If you are going to teach real English as it functions in contextually appropriate ways, other than a collection of linguistic forms in contrived classroom situation, then you need to refer to how people have the language as an L1 actually and put it into communicative use."

All the authors who support the authentic material share a common idea which is "exposure." By exposing learners to authentic language can help them develop a feeling of certainty in understanding or using target language.

These materials are also highly useful to present grammatical points. They can be used as contexts to present grammar implicitly and enable students to contextualize and internalize them quickly.

Authentic materials to teaching grammar rules may help students to remember the grammatical constructions better and give them a sense of how these constructions can be used in various contexts. Teachers should provide meaningful input through context and provide an opportunity to put grammar to use, and relate grammar instructions to real situations.

If teachers are enthusiastic and take advantage of the benefits and use them properly learners can be motivated and be beneficiaries in many ways.

There are many sources of authentic materials which expose students to examples of natural languages rather than materials which have been written for language teaching purposes such as: newspapers, TV and radio programs, magazines, the internet, songs, leaflets and brochures, comics, literature, novels, poems and short stories.

A good grammar lesson includes some stages: presentation focused practice, communicative practice, and feedback and correction.

Presentation is based on the deductive or the inductive approach. When using an inductive approach, students would be presented the language sample, for example some kind of advertisement.

Then they would be encouraged to make their own observation about the example, the form of mass and count nouns.

The teacher will listen to their observation and will summarize by generalizing about the grammar point. When practicing a deductive approach, the teacher is the one presents the generalization and then asks students to apply it to the language samples.

Ur (1984) considers presenting and explaining a foreign language grammatical structure to a class of learners is difficult because of how understanding is involved in knowing the structure and how correctly the students can present examples and formulate explanations that will convey the necessary information.

The teacher can choose some techniques according to his strength or the nature of structure, for example: songs, authentic texts (articles, newspapers, literary texts).

Focused Practice – the purpose of this step is to allow students to gain control of the form. The teacher is strongly advised not to proceed to the next phase until most students have mastered the form of the structure.

Communicative Practice it is the phase where the students are engaged in different communicative activities.

In this phase an exercise must have three features:

a) information gap – when doing the activity there should be information gap between the communicators. It means that one participant should be in a position to tell one or more people something that they do not know yet.

b) choice – the learners should be in a position to decide what they will say and how they will say it out by themselves.

c) feedback – what the speaker says to the person he is speaking with depends on what the person says and on what the speaker wants to accomplish via the conversation.

Feedback and correction – this is usually considered as a final step and it can take place throughout the lesson.

For example, during the second phase correction should be straight and immediate so as to let students dominate the structure; it's better not to interrupt them.

During the third part, the teacher should take note of errors and deal with them after the communication exercises.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, teachers of grammar can be supported by using literary texts that increase the learners' motivation and involvement, and also develop the confidence to use the target, since they feel that they are learning the targeted language.

To this effect, teachers should be able to know the benefits of literature, have the knowledge of how to select literary texts and teach grammar through literature.

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Rezumat: Engleza este limba care aduce întreaga lume laolaltă, având statutul de lingua franca a lumii prin globalizare. Scopul acestei lucrări este de a ghida profesorii și studenții pentru a deveni familiari cu folosirea efectivă a literaturii în predarea gramaticii. Integrarea literaturii în predarea unei limbi adaugă o nouă dimensiune predării EFL.

Povestirile și poeziile, de exemplu, ajută studenții să învețe cele patru caracteristici ale unei limbi – ascultarea, vorbirea, citirea și scrierea într-un mod eficient datorită beneficiilor motivaționale cuprinse în text. Folosind textele literare în predarea limbii engleze, procesul de comunicare este mult mai bine realizat și studenții pot învăța mult mai ușor fără a face efortul de a memora regulile care guvernează lumea cuvintelor.

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A Review of Concepts in Error Analysis Theory

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Abstract: The paper, structured in three parts, is intended to provide a review of some concepts and theories concerning Error Analysis, its implementation in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching. Part one briefly outlines some aspects regarding the theoretical development of error analysis, particular emphasis being placed on two theories: (i) contrastive analysis, which systematically compares the similarities and differences between the native language system and the target language system; (ii) the interlanguage theory, representing a type of language produced by the non-native speakers in the process of learning a second language, with a structurally intermediate status between the native and target language system. The second part of the paper is concerned with some salient features of error analysis, namely, definitions, criteria of classification, causes and sources of errors, error correction. The third part discusses the significance and limitations of error analysis in language teaching and learning.

Keywords: *error analysis, contrastive analysis, mistake, interlanguage, EFL teaching, second language acquisition.*

1. Introduction

In foreign language teaching and learning, error correction has become one of the most important teaching processes. As some teachers take a negative attitude towards errors, a theoretical foundation about error analysis is required in dealing with errors and in understanding error correction. Contrary to what is commonly thought, errors are not to be negatively considered, but rather, they are a sign that learning is actually taking place, that the learner is building up his/her new language. In the next section, we provide a brief review on the development of some concepts and theories in error analysis.

2. Theoretical development of error analysis

2.1. Contrastive analysis

In the 1950s, Lado (1957) began to study errors systematically and developed the hypothesis or theory about errors, represented by contrastive analysis. Some of the principles of contrastive analysis were a couple of

decades later synthesized by Corder (1974) who highlighted the importance of interference in the learning of a second language (L2).

Contrastive analysis systematically compares the similarities and differences between the native language system and the target language system, predicting the difficulties that learners might encounter when learning a new language. Furthermore, contrastive analysis hypothesis claimed that the main barrier to second language acquisition is the interference of the first language system with the second language system and that a scientific, structural comparison of the two languages in question would enable people to predict and describe which are problems and which are not.

Deeply rooted in behaviourism and structuralism, such theories held that language learning was to change old habits and to build new habits. Errors occur when learners could not respond correctly to a particular stimulus in the second language. Since an error may serve as a negative stimulus which reinforces “bad habits,” it should not be allowed to occur. So, in the classroom teaching, teachers placed more emphasis on mechanical pattern drills and attempted to correct any errors and mistakes wherever they were.

2.2. The interlanguage theory

The weaknesses of contrastive analysis are that it overemphasized the interference of the outer environment of language study, while language learners themselves are totally neglected. In an attempt to redress such weaknesses, Selinker (1972: 201) introduced the term *interlanguage*, to refer to a type of language which is produced by the non-native speakers of the language in the process of learning a second or foreign language, that is, a type of language which is neither the mother tongue nor the target language. The concept of *interlanguage* emphasizes the notion that second language learners are forming their own self-contained independent linguistic systems: this is neither the system of the native language nor the system of the target language, but a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and target language system.

According to Selinker (1972: 213), interlanguage is a temporary systematic grammar composed of rules, which are the product of five cognitive processes:

i. overgeneralisation: some of the rules of the interlanguage system may be the result of the overgeneralisation of specific rules and features of the target language.

ii. transfer of training: some of the components of the interlanguage system may result from the transfer of specific elements via which the learner is taught the second language.

iii. strategies of second language learning: some of the rules in the learner's interlanguage may result from the application of language learning strategies as a tendency on the part of the learners to reduce the target language to a simpler system.

iv. strategies of second language communication: rules of the interlanguage system may also be the result of strategies employed by the learners in their attempt to communicate with native speakers of the target language.

v. language transfer: some of the rules in the interlanguage system may be the result of transfer from the learner's first language.

Selinker's description of the interlanguage system has a cognitive emphasis and a focus on strategies the learners employ when learning a second language.

The interlanguage theory refers to the idea that the language produced by the second language learner is systematic in the same way that first language performance is systematic.

Corder (1981: 116) refers to the interlanguage system as an *idiosyncratic dialect* of the target language. The concept of idiosyncratic dialect is a development of Corder's earlier concept of *transitional competence*. These terms refer to the rule-governed system (an interlanguage) a learner produces at a given time in his development, i.e. the language the learner develops as he moves from his mother tongue to the target language.

Corder (1981: 65) further suggests that the analysis of interlanguage should be based on inferring the intended meaning of the learner before conclusions can be reached about the presence or absence of error. Another characteristic of interlanguage is that it is unstable and dynamic, since the learner's language is constantly changing.

Selinker and Douglas (1985: 190) argue against the notion of a single system, positing a variety of different distinct and coexistent systems which change over time and according to context. Systematicity is both horizontal (or synchronic) and vertical (or diachronic).

McLaughlin (1987) defines *interlanguage* as "(1) the learner's system *at a single point in time* and (2) the range of interlocking systems that characterizes the development of learners *over time*" (McLaughlin 1987: 60). It is the analysis of learners' errors that gave the most convincing results against contrastive analysis, i.e. that children make errors reflecting L2 influence more than L1 influence. Even if these errors could partly be influenced by the L1, they may in fact reflect L2 overgeneralisations, which indeed correspond to strategies used by monolingual children. Such errors are called "developmental" and are produced by adult learners as well.

McLaughlin (1987: 69) further brings up some issues in interlanguage theory, such as, (i) How systematic and how variable is the interlanguage?; (ii) how are interlanguages acquired?

McLaughlin (1987: 79) enumerates a number of features of interlanguage, such as, (i.) *transfer as process* (differences in L1 imply differences of process), (ii) *typological organization* (appears when syntactic similarities exist between the two languages), (iii) *avoidance* (concerns constructions that do not exist in the L1 and as a result are less often used), (iv) *overproduction of certain elements* (concerns constructions that exist in both languages and which, though they are less used in the L2 than in the L1, tend to be overused), (v) *language facilitation* (occurs when vocabulary items show similarity in form and meaning in both languages and thanks to it the acquisition of items that are different appears to be facilitated as well). *Modification of hypotheses* means that learners, because of their previous knowledge, may form faulty hypotheses about the L2, leading to mistaken generalisations and inaccurate information.

Transfer can be seen as “a cognitive process in which decisions are made on the basis of (1) the learner’s perception of the similarity between L1 and L2 structures and (2) the degree of markedness of the L1 structure. More marked structures are those that the person thinks of as irregular, infrequent, and semantically opaque. Transfer is predicted to occur when the perceived similarity between the two languages is great and when the structures involved are marked” (McLaughlin 1987: 79). The conclusion reached by McLaughlin is that the L1 does affect the development of the interlanguage, but this influence is not always predictable.

3. Error analysis theory

3.1. Definitions and stages of error analysis

The fact that learners do make errors and these errors can be observed, analysed and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner has led to a surge of study of learners’ errors, called Error analysis.

Error analysis developed as a branch of applied linguistics in the 1960s, being concerned with the study and analysis of errors made by second language learners, and aiming at investigating aspects of second language acquisition. the theory has been conducted to identify strategies which learners use in language learning, to track the causes of learners’ errors, obtain information on common difficulties in language learning or on how to prepare teaching material. (Richards et al., 1996: 127)

Corder (1974), outlined the main points of error analysis, shifting researchers' attention from the teaching perspective to the learning perspective, and therefore also away from contrastive analysis, behaviourism, and structuralism towards cognitive psychology. This development went hand in hand with the turn towards a communicative approach in language teaching.

According to Corder, "the study of error is part of the investigation of the process of language learning. In this respect it resembles methodologically the study of the acquisition of the mother tongue. It provides us with a picture of the linguistic development of a learner and may give us indications of the learning process." (Corder, 1974: 125)

An important aspect raised by Corder (1974) is that second language learners use similar strategies that children use with the first language (L1). Since errors produced by small children with their L1 are normally not seen as just errors, the question arises why it is different in a classroom situation, since errors are the evidence that the acquisition process is taking place.

According to Corder, there are two justifications for studying learners' errors: its relevance to language teaching and the study of the language acquisition process. The scholar states that "the pedagogical justification, namely that a good understanding of the nature of error is necessary before a systematic means of eradicating them could be found, and the theoretical justification, which claims that a study of learners' errors is part of the systematic study of the learners' language which is itself necessary to an understanding of the process of second language acquisition." (Corder, 1981: 112)

Considered a multidisciplinary process, error analysis involves much more than simply analysing errors of learners, since it may be carried out in order to:

- i. identify strategies which learners use in language learning;
- ii. try to identify the causes of learners' errors and
- iii. obtain information on common difficulties in language learning as an aid to teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials.

According to James (1998), there are two stages of error analysis:

- i. the first (or initial) stage enables the researcher "to gain a first impression of the learner's capacities and limitations to identify the areas of TL competence where they are most susceptible to error." (James, 1998: 19)
- ii. the second stage of error analysis is where one counts the number of obligatory contexts and then calculates suppliance of the morpheme according to certain categories.

Ellis (1988) points out that errors are an important source of information about second language acquisition (SLA), since they are the

evidence that second language (L2) rules are not just simply memorized and then reproduced. Instead, learners make their own rules based on input data, but sometimes these rules differ from those of L2. The problem is that errors are not systematic, they differ according to learners and contexts.

However, they are regular in some ways, and it is possible to predict how learners will perform in specific situations. We can do that thanks to *variable rules*, i.e. “if x conditions apply, then y language forms will occur.” (Ellis, 1988: 9)

There are both *situational* contexts – errors occur when the learner is not given enough time to monitor his output carefully – and *linguistic* contexts – errors occur in one type of sentence but not in another. Individual differences concern the way learners learn and use the second language (L2).

Five general factors have been found which are age, aptitude/intelligence, cognitive style, motivation/needs and personality. In addition, the learner’s first language (L1) plays a role.

In *Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics* (Bussmann 1996: 378), the types and causes of language errors are classified according to:

- i. modality, i.e. levels of proficiency in speaking, writing, reading, listening;
- ii. levels of linguistic description, e.g. phonetics/phonology, orthography, graphemics, morphology, syntax, lexicon, phraseology, stylistics;
- iii. form, e.g. omission, insertion, substitution, contamination, etc.
- iv. type, i.e. systematic error(s) or errors in competence vs. occasional errors or errors in performance;
- v. cause, e.g. interference, development-related errors, interlanguage.

3.2. Distinction between “mistake” and “error”

In order to analyse learners’ errors in a proper perspective, it is important to make a distinction between the terms “mistake” and “error” because although these terms are often used interchangeably, there is nevertheless a clear difference between the two.

Both Corder (1974) and James (1998) reveal a criterion that helps us to do so, namely, the self-correctability criterion. A mistake can be self-corrected, but an error cannot. Errors are “systematic,” i.e. likely to occur repeatedly and not recognised by the learner. Hence, only the teacher or researcher would locate them, the learner would not.

Another noted scholar, Norrish (1983) made a clear distinction between “error” and “mistake,” by postulating that errors are “a systematic deviation when a learner has not learnt something and consistently gets it wrong,” while mistakes are not systematic, they represent “inconsistent deviation.”

Corder (1981: 10-11) identifies *systematic errors* (errors of competence) and *non-systematic errors* (errors of performance), the first type being called just *errors* and the second *mistakes*. Corder states that “mistakes are of no significance in the process of language learning,” whereas errors furnish the verification of to which extent a language is acquired (or learnt) and what strategies the learner uses.

According to Brown (2000: 217), a mistake or lapse refers to a performance error in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly; it is due to performance deficiencies and arises from lack of attention, slips of memory, anxiety possibly caused by pressure of time etc. Mistakes are not systematic, being readily identifiable and self correctable.

A conclusion regarding the distinction between errors and mistakes is that errors are assumed to reflect the level of competence achieved by a learner, while mistakes are performance limitations that a learner would be able to correct.

3.3. Causes and sources of errors

It is very important for English teachers to know the various sources of errors. Some causes of language errors were mentioned in section 2.1. in a quotation from *Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics* (Bussmann, 1996: 378). In this section, we discuss two factors that have been identified as representing causes or sources of errors, namely, mother tongue interference and fossilisation.

3.3.1. Mother tongue interference

In various publications, Corder (1974, 1981) focuses his attention on errors caused by mother tongue interference. According to the scholar, when people are learning a second language, they already have a first language. The learners tend to use the rules of the first language on the second language and end up committing errors.

Mother tongue interference may cause two types of transfer: “positive transfer” or “facilitation” and “negative transfer” or “interference.” In this respect, Wilkins (1972: 199) observes that “when learning a foreign language an individual already knows his mother tongue, and it is this which he attempts to transfer. The transfer may prove to be justified because the structure of the two languages is similar – in that case we get “positive transfer” or “facilitation” – or it may prove unjustified because the structure of the two languages is different – in that case we get “negative transfer” or “interference.”’”

A similar distinction between positive and negative transfer can be found in Richards et al. (1992): i. *positive transfer* makes learning easier and may occur when both the native language and the target language have the same form. This similarity in forms facilitates second language acquisition; ii. *negative transfer* or interference refers to the use of a “native-language pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the target language.” (Richards, et al. 1992: 205)

The beginning stages of learning a second language are characterized by a great deal of interlingual transfer from the native language. In the early stages, the native language is the only linguistic system upon which the learner can draw.

Negative intralingual transfer or overgeneralization of language rules may occur, these kinds of errors being called developmental errors.

3.3.2. Fossilisation

A well-known phenomenon related to interlanguage is “*fossilization*” which takes place when L2 learners tend to keep items or rules from their native language in their interlanguage, no matter their age or how much instruction they get in the target language. In other words, fossilisation is the process in which incorrect linguistic features or errors become a permanent part of the way in which a person uses language.

According to Nakuma (1998: 247), this term is used to denote what appears to be a state of permanent failure on the part of an L2 learner to acquire a given feature of the target language. Interlanguage, on the other hand, is regarded as the kind of language that has aspects that are borrowed, transferred and generalised from the mother tongue. It is the type of language produced by second language and foreign learners who are in the process of learning a language.

An interesting point of debate in this discussion is raised by Ellis (1988: 48) who states that fossilisation structures can be realised as errors or as correct target language forms. If, by fossilisation, the learner has reached a stage of development in which feature “x” in his interlanguage has assumed the same form as in the target language, then fossilisation of the correct form will occur. If, however, the learner has reached a stage of development in which feature “y,” still does not have the same form as the target language, then fossilisation will manifest as error.

Fossilization can occur in terms of five central processes:

- i. language transfer (which results from the L1);
- ii. transfer of training (which results from identifiable items in training procedures used to teach the L2;

- iii. strategies of L2 teaching (which results from a learner's approach to the L2 material);
- iv. strategies of L2 communication (which results from a learner's approach to communication with native speakers of the L2);
- v. overgeneralisation of the L2 linguistic material (it covers instances when the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of the other structures in the foreign or target language).

3.4. Error correction

Since error treatment is a very complicated and thorny problem, language teachers need to be armed with some theoretical foundations represented by principles of optimal affective and cognitive feedback, of reinforcement theory, and of communicative language teaching. These principles and theories help teachers to judge in the classroom whether errors will be treated or ignored, also when and how they can be corrected.

Furthermore, since the errors of performance are known to be unsystematic, while the errors of competence are systematic, teachers should be aware of the system of errors.

Learners' errors are usually classified in different categories. Burt (1975: 57) makes a distinction between "global" errors, which hinder communication and prevent the learner from comprehending some aspects of the message, and "local" errors, which only affect a single element of a sentence, and do not prevent a message from being heard. Teachers should focus on global errors rather than on local errors.

With reference to the question – *When to correct the errors* – teachers are confronted with the choice between immediate treatment or delayed correction depending on whether they focus on accuracy or fluency. For communicative purposes, delayed correction is usually preferred.

An answer to the question – *when to correct errors* – depends on the type of errors committed. For instance, pronunciation or grammatical errors require immediate correction. Furthermore, the overall situation in the classroom is also important. When the whole class is familiar with a word, but only one of them is singled out for being corrected, s/he would feel awkward. So, both the teacher's intuition and the feedback from the students are equally important.

According to James (1998: 91), it is sensible to follow certain principles in error correction.

- i. The techniques involved in error correction would be able to enhance the students' accuracy in expression.

ii. The students' affective factors should be taken into consideration and the correction should not be face-threatening to the students.

iii. Some scholars believe that teachers' indirect correction is highly appreciated. They either encourage students to do self-correction in heuristic method or present the correct form, so students couldn't feel embarrassed

Elaborating on Corder's model (1974), Ellis (1994: 43) provided stages in identifying and analysing learners' errors. The initial stage requires the selection of a corpus of language followed by the identification of errors, which are then classified. The next step, after giving a grammatical analysis of each error, requires an explanation of different types of errors.

Selinker and Lakshmanan (1992: 197) identified six steps in conducting an error analysis: i. collecting data; ii. identifying errors; iii. classifying errors; iv. quantifying errors; v. analysing source of errors; vi. remediating errors.

4. Significance and limitations of error analysis in language teaching and learning

4.1. Significance of error analysis

Error analysis is beneficial to teachers, syllabus designers and textbook writers by showing them a student's progress, as well as the problem areas. Remedial exercises could be designed, special attention being focused on the "trouble shooting" areas. Error analysis is also significant to researchers and to the learners. It can show researchers what strategies learners use to learn a second language and also indicate the type of errors learners make and why. Error analysis is conducted not only in order to understand errors but also in order to use what is learned from error analysis and apply it to improve language competence.

Corder (1974) stated that errors are visible proof that learning is taking place and emphasized that errors, if studied systematically, can provide significant insights into how a language is actually learned by a foreigner. The significance of learners' errors can be explained in three ways:

i. Errors can tell the teacher how far towards the goal the learner has progressed, and consequently, what remains for him to learn. By error analysis, teachers will get an overall knowledge about the students' errors. Foreign language learning is a process of hypothesis and trial and error occurrence is inevitable. So, the teacher should learn to tolerate some errors, especially some local errors.

ii. Errors provide evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. So students' errors are valuable feedbacks and teachers can do some remedial teaching based on those errors.

iii. Errors are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. This view is also reinforced by Brown (2000) who states that language learning, like any other human learning, is a process that involves the making of mistakes.

Error analysis helps linguists realize that although errors sometimes obstruct communication, they can often facilitate second language learning, and they play a significant role in training teachers and helping them identify and classify errors, as well as helping them construct correction techniques.

Finally, some errors need to be handled, otherwise, they will become fossilized. In a sense, error analysis theory together with other theories have enriched the second language learning theory in that learning involves in a process in which success comes by profiting from mistakes and by using mistakes to obtain feedback from the environment. With the feedback they make new attempts to achieve the more closely approximate desired goals.

The pedagogical significance of error analysis is related to four aspects: i. the problem of correction; ii. The design of syllabuses; iii. The remedial work; iv. The writing of pedagogical grammars.

4.2. Limitations of error analysis

In spite of its significance, error analysis has its limitations and has been criticised, both from a theoretical and methodological point of view.

Firstly, in error analysis the norm is the target language and any deviation from the target is viewed as an error. However, determining a norm is problematic because it depends on a variety of factors including the linguistic context, "the medium (spoken or written), the social context (formal or informal), and the relation between speaker and hearer (symmetrical or asymmetrical)" (van Els, et al., 1984: 47). As deviation from norm is viewed negatively, it means that these studies do not acknowledge the creative processes learners use in building new language. They therefore, ignore a large part of the developmental process.

From a methodological point of view, error analysis measures production rather than perception; furthermore, error analysis studies focus on only a small part of the production data (i.e. the error) rather than on the learner language produced.

First, there is a danger in too much attention to learners' errors. While the diminishing of errors is an important criterion for increasing language proficiency, the ultimate goal of second language learning is the attainment of communicative fluency in a language.

Another shortcoming in error analysis is the overstressing of production data. Actually, language comprehension is as important as production. Indeed, production lends itself to analysis and thus becomes the prey of researchers, but comprehension data is equally important in developing an understanding of the process of language acquisition.

Thirdly, it fails to account for the strategy of avoidance. A learner who for one reason or another avoids a particular word or structure may be assumed incorrectly to have no difficulty with that. The absence of error therefore does not necessarily reflect native-like competence since learners may be avoiding the very structure that poses difficulty for them.

5. Conclusions

Error analysis is associated with a rich and complex psycholinguistic view of the learner. In order to improve teaching, EFL teachers should be aware of recent developments in the field of error analysis and keep a keen eye on the related theories. Teachers also need to explore the learners' psychological process in language learning in order to be able to enhance their understanding of learners' errors. Based on the analysis of the causes of their errors, teachers can provide their timely guide and help. Teachers are enlightened on the errors that require remedial work so that time is not wasted on teaching grammar items which pose little or no problems to the students. While placing emphasis on error correction in the classroom, language teachers should also take students' linguistic competence, their affective factors and the effectiveness of the error correction into consideration.

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Rezumat: Articolul, structurat în trei părți, își propune să treacă în revistă câteva concepte și teorii privind Analiza Erorilor, implementarea acestora în învățarea englezei ca limbă străină (EFL). În partea întâi, se prezintă pe scurt câteva aspecte privind evoluția teoretică a analizei erorilor, un accent deosebit fiind pus pe două teorii: (i) analiza contrastivă, care compară în mod sistematic asemănările și deosebirile dintre sistemul limbii materne și cel al limbii țintă; (ii) teoria interlimbii, care reprezintă un tip de limbă produs de vorbitorii nenativi în procesul învățării celei de a doua limbi, având un statut

intermediar din punct de vedere structural între sistemul limbii materne și cel al limbii țintă. Partea a doua a articolului se ocupă de câteva trăsături definitorii ale analizei erorilor, și anume, definiția sa, criteriile de clasificare, cauzele și sursele erorilor, corectarea erorilor. Cea de a treia parte ia în discuție semnificația și limitele analizei erorilor în procesul de predare și învățare a limbilor.

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Avoiding Error in Foreign Language Learning: Communicative Competence through Developing Vocabulary on a Need-to-know Basis

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Abstract: Error in communication is the result of encoding and decoding issues. This article demonstrates a practical approach to L2 vocabulary learning through problem based learning and development of communicative competence on a need-to-know basis. The L2 language referred to in this article is English, but the same principles may be applied to other L2 languages. The presentation sees vocabulary building in the light of the individual schemata. The primary focus is demonstrating the importance of developing and at the same time showing competence in using new vocabulary on a need-to-know basis through ownership to a product.

Keywords: *vocabulary, communicative competence, PBL, LEGO.*

1. Introduction

The concept of *error* may be roughly divided into two main categories of error: 1) error in communication, and 2) erroneous facts. This article deals with error in communication, where error is linked to the potential lack of clarity and incomplete encoding and decoding of emotions, ideas, and experiences. This article demonstrates a practical, and also tactile, approach to testing encoding and decoding ideas and texts for communicative errors.

The approach is that of problem based learning. Problem based learning in academia has become widespread since the pioneering days of Howard Barrows and his colleagues at McMaster University in Hamilton, Ontario, Canada in the late 1960s (Neville, 2009), and has since been adopted by other studies, such as language learning. Francom and Gardner (2013) show how there may be some confusion of the terms Problem Based Learning (PBL) and Task Centred Learning (TCL).

However the discussion of the distinction between the two is not the focus of this article. The activity that is discussed in this article has elements of both pure PBL and TCL. Firstly, TCL activities are based on solving real world challenges, and as we will see, the following LEGO brick activity is creating something new based on real world activities, and secondly, the

role of the facilitator does not clearly fall into either of the two distinct functions described by Francom and Gardner.

Challenges in language learning have often been an exposure issue, where exposure to and practice of the target language has at times been lacking or totally absent. There may be a wide range of reasons for this. Today's globalization and freer flow of information has greatly reduced the challenges of exposure and practice. In schools, globalization expressed through increased migration and the integration of multi-cultural learners in the classroom is an additional challenge for the local English teacher; not only does he or she need to be a role model of English to fellow countrymen, but increasingly the mixed ethnic and cultural backgrounds of the young learners are a challenge when it comes to the individual schemata based on cultural platform and life experience.

Motivation as the prime driving force for learning is founded on a need-to-know basis, and this is commonly expressed by especially older learners by questioning new material presented: "Is this exam relevant?" Here the need-to-know triggers both intrinsic motivation in the need to learn the applicable material to satisfy one's aspirations, and extrinsic motivation of being judged at the exam table. The first Norwegian national curriculum, the M74 (Kirke og Undervisningsdepartementet, 1974), has twenty-two pages for the subject English, and eighteen of these are a list of grammar components and a vocabulary of roughly 2,000 words the pupils should know at the end of the nine year compulsory education.

One may question the motivation such a list instils on the teacher or learner. Though pupils have not changed as such the past forty odd years, we have since come to terms with e.g. Howard Gardner pointing out and summing up the distribution of differing intelligences (1983) in the individual, and thus placing a focus on the need for learner centred curriculums, and consequently a raised awareness of the development of and catering for differing learning styles and approaches to teaching.

As near as all foreign language learning activities in schools are inextricably connected to the mother tongue and schemata of the learner. In state run schools, this would in practice mean that the L1 is that of the school's geographical location. Using a common L1 as a platform for a learning context and tool to support L2 learning, has created a learning environment the learners can relate to.

The increased migration and mixed ethnic backgrounds of learners in schools today are a challenge to the teacher as well as the learners, as there at times will be a lack of a common frame of reference, and the individual schemata may influence the understanding of given tasks and

how they may be addressed. In practice, the lack of a common L1 as a reference language may be initially regarded as the nearest challenge at hand.

In the traditional schooling context, there has been a tendency to see the learners as receivers of knowledge – as opposed to developing skills and competence – that is implemented from the outside world, and is to be reproduced with the teacher as primary recipient and target audience. This type of isolated knowledge and in-classroom competence may be seen as the conveyance of knowledge decided by others than the learner.

Languages being a communicative tool, what vocabulary will the *learners* need in order to communicate successfully? True, the various national curriculums and text books widely used are thoughtfully produced to anticipate what vocabulary is needed by the end of the period of learning a foreign language.

These books and material attempt at covering a range of interests the learner might have, at the same time as giving the learner the tools to communicate with others in the target language. Though attempting to address these important issues, the text books at times struggle to trigger an interest and spark intrinsic motivation for the learner.

Motivation being the prime factor and driving force in obtaining new knowledge and developing new skills, it is important to consider the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The traditional learning process in schools, where one would read, study, and practice in order to be graded by the teacher, may well entail a fair bit of intrinsic motivation among the already motivated learners, but all in all we are dealing with a system primarily focused on gratifying the teacher; the one who is responsible for the evaluation of the pupil's work, and needs to be satisfied in order to hand out the marks for performance. The vocabulary sought taught and learned will reflect this situation.

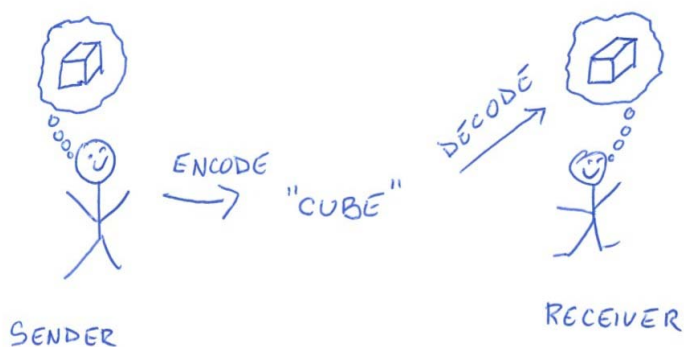
When it comes to PBL, the task at hand will dictate the needed vocabulary, and thus create an increased intrinsic motivation to find, develop and practice vocabulary (rather than read a text and learn by heart for the next dictation test); though the final product will necessarily still be the object for teacher evaluation.

The bottom line may well prove to be that as long as there is formal/informal feedback at the end of a process, the extrinsic motivation will be there; it is important for as many of the learners as possible to have their *intrinsic* motivation triggered in the process of reaching the goals to be evaluated.

2. Communicative competences

Individually differing schemata will be one possible source of error in communication. One of the ideas behind developing the learning activity presented, is to find out whether it is possible to initialize a language learning process on a need-to-know basis that goes far to eliminate possible individual, non-identical schemata based on different mother tongues, backgrounds, walks of life, and also the internal ranking and self-positioning within a group; thus eliminating an important source for communicative error.

Language and language skills is all about communication, where one person (the sender) has a desire to communicate a feeling, emotion, or idea to another (the receiver). To be able to communicate as desired, one needs to have a common code to relay the information. Types of coding may be body language, ones and zeroes in computing, runes, hieroglyphs, emoticons, and various alphabets, where the differing genres of written communication demand and incorporate different forms of coding. In order for clear and coherent communication to take place, the receiver recreates the identical mental image of that which the sender encodes; a process which may be illustrated as seen by Mohamed¹ in upper secondary school:



When the receiver is able to recreate the identical mental image to that of the sender's intention, only then may one speak of complete communication. There are numerous elements that may disturb or hinder a

¹ This description of the communicative process was given by an 18 year old at Kristen Videregående skole Nordland, Norway (upper secondary school) in response to the task of summing up the communication process following the LEGO brick activity described in this article.

complete decoding, and these so-called filters may be of an objective/subjective and/or physical/emotional nature, thus creating a partial decoding. Typical for partial decoding may be the ten year old girl who is able to read an article on the construction of nuclear power plants, but is not able to fully comprehend the contents and implications thereof; or “mother” may be perceived differently by the child who has a good relationship to its mother, than by the child that has been abused by its mother. The latter example shows how personal experience and the individual’s schemata may influence clear and unambiguous communication.

These filters to communication are closely tied in with the concept of the individual’s schemata, which will be the individual learner’s starting point and area of development during (also) the L2 learning process. Additional elements that influence the encoding and decoding of a text and function as communicative filters, may include native language, culture, time, context, and target audience. In the light of increased multiculturalism in the L2 classroom, the need to learn vocabulary for clear and unambiguous communication also in L2 becomes no less.

Pragmatic and practically oriented at heart, the communication process of a text may be summed up as follows: If you can draw or construct the contents of a text, you understand the text. This claim by the author of this article is presented to the learners in order to capture and illustrate the communication process, yet experience shows that many a teacher training student taught over the years has initially been somewhat doubtful to this claim and approach. The underlying doubt seems to stem from two sentiments: 1) *how can we draw or construct a text?* and 2) *building with LEGO bricks is for children.*

3. A PBL LEGO brick task

The unique quality of LEGO bricks for vocabulary learning on a need-to-know basis is founded on the stroke of genius how the LEGO Group promotes its products for years 0-99. It would be a challenge to adapt building instructions to both age and language of builders; a challenge the LEGO Group has met by resorting to the probably most practical and logical encoding of all: Visualization. There simply are no written building instructions for the LEGO Group products, and by having the learners of both mother tongue (L1) and L2 write their own building instructions, they are developing something new, rather than resorting to existing texts as a formula to copy.

3.1. The concrete task

The following task is presented as given to students and pupils.

Coding & Decoding – a practical communication exercise

This is an exercise to demonstrate coding a visual, concrete model into writing, and decoding a written text into a visual, concrete model.

The goals of this exercise are:

- a) show communicative skills
- b) develop vocabulary from scratch
- c) practice and show competence in the correct use of prepositions
- d) practice written and oral skills



- 1) Start with two identical sets of LEGO bricks (the number and shapes depend on age and target group)
- 2) With ONE of the sets, build a construction of your choice. Do not let the other groups see what you build
- 3) Make a written instruction for the model. You may write the instruction step-by-step as you build the model
- 4) Pass on the second unused set of bricks and the written instructions to the next group
- 5) You will receive a set of LEGO bricks and building instructions. Now construct the model following the instructions supplied.
- 6) When done, compare the model to the one built by the group that made the written instructions. Are the two constructions identical? If not, find out together what has been the problem getting it right.

This being a problem based activity, ideally the learners' motivation for learning comes from the challenge of completing the task itself. The motivation involved will be a mix of intrinsic and extrinsic, but the drive to find the needed vocabulary is rooted in the learners' own construction, and the need to complete their own product – which is very much in opposition to the traditional approach of reading a text and answering questions to be evaluated by.

Ownership to the product is a key motivational factor, where ownership is related not merely to the product and outcome of the given task, but also to the underlying process. The learners are in command of their work through physical design and the responsibility for vocabulary building and language structure needed to ensure ownership to the two intended outcomes: The LEGO brick construction and the accompanying building instructions. The LEGO brick exercise in question clearly demonstrates the challenges of

accurately encoding something visual into writing, as well as decoding from writing to the visual. If the LEGO brick constructions turn out identical, the text has been encoded and decoded correctly.

3.2. The construction of vocabulary for writing a LEGO brick building instruction

Traditionally, L2 vocabulary learning is a matter of finding the correct word or term from an existing language vocabulary, be it directly from L2, or indirectly via L1. When it comes to writing a LEGO brick building instruction, there is no existing vocabulary where to find the needed terminology, thus the learner needs to construct new words. This entails some challenges, which once met, offer numerous rewards in terms of strategic competence and motivation.

The presentation of vocabulary building is based on a compilation of experience from giving this task to learners of L2 from lower secondary school to teacher training students within the Norwegian educational system over a period of five years. The first challenge appears to be the easiest one: Finding a generic term for the building bricks². The learners themselves are familiar with the concept and term from their L1, but interestingly enough, there tends to be some disagreement as to whether one should agree on “block” or “brick.” The question is sought resolved in the classroom, based on the schemata of the learners; and without input from the outside world in form of an Internet search. Learners tend to regard *block* as a more uniform size than *brick*, and *brick* is perceived by the learners to cover a larger range of shapes. A quick Internet search reveals that though *brick* seems to be the most widely used term for describing LEGO components, the term *block* and even the combination of *block* and *brick* do indeed occur. The LEGO Group uses the term *brick*,³ but that information is purposefully not supplied to the learners, as it would not promote the otherwise interesting discussion.

The learners now have the fundamental term of *brick* at their disposal, and now need to name the individual bricks. The first thing to meet the eye is colour and shape. Whereas the colours are quickly identified, either through the learner’s existing L2 vocabulary or as an aided translation from L1, the terms for shape cause a greater challenge for the learners. The tendency for suggested vocabulary for shape is towards terms based on two-dimensional figures, rather than three-dimensional. The traditional brick

² The term brick is used in the task instructions, but this is not distributed before after the initial vocabulary has been developed by the learners.

³ The LEGO Group (2012).

shape in a two-dimensional plane is rectangular, but even among the older learners there is a lack of basic vocabulary in order to describe the difference between a square and a rectangle. In Norwegian, the word *firkant* (literally four sides) is popularly used for any object with four sides, be it a square, rectangle or other shapes involving four sides. Based on schema, it appears that at least Norwegian learners see *square* as equivalent to *firkant*. This is an inaccuracy that would cause problems in a building instruction. The questions of vocabulary relating to the shape of the square blocks are solved by taking a cross-curricular glance towards the subject of mathematics and the definitions of *square* and *rectangle*.

The practical implications of working on a three-dimensional plane, are the need to describe the height of the individual brick. The learners agree the LEGO bricks are of different height, but how does the group of learners agree on the terminology to use? Though Robert Cailliau (2014) has measured the dimensions of the classical bricks to the mm, the learners perceive the relative height of the bricks to each other, rather than exact values measured in mm. In most cases, there is consensus that the *thicker* brick is the norm; and thus the use of *regular*, or indeed no term reflecting thickness for the standard brick, while the thinner form would be termed *thin*. The learners are initially not in agreement about the term *thin*, as many view this as related not just to thickness, but also to width. The term *flat* is introduced, and as a response to the question “why *flat*?” the response was highly visual: “That’s what you get when you press something together.” The fact that the learners themselves not only are aware of a norm, but also bring it up as a starting point for creating and building vocabulary, is a point of interest not only to language awareness and competence, but in more general terms to the development of self. This raises the interesting aspect of what is seen as a norm. Does one indeed need to specify the term for a norm when that is the point of reference? Judging by the response from the learners, apparently not, thus consequently there is a consensus that there is only a need to term a deviation from the norm. Though the understanding of the norm for the thickness of a LEGO brick was disputed by none, it is still noteworthy that some of the subsequent building instructions include the term *normal* or *regular* in the description of LEGO bricks, while some learners choose to leave it out. This is an indication that where the learners agree to the lack of need to term a norm in the process of constructing terms and vocabulary, some tend to do so when putting the vocabulary to practice. When questioned about this, some of the learners see this as a more detailed encoding in order to better correspond to the three-dimensional brick that is handled.

Avoiding a mm measurement, how does one determine the size of a LEGO brick? Learners of all ages and cultural backgrounds agree that the

thingies on top are the correct unit of measurement for a LEGO brick's size. The following process of arriving at a common term for these *thingies*, again shows how some learners tend to think two-dimensional, where one of the suggestions for a term is dot; whereas others suggest the three-dimensional *knob*. The ensuing discussion of the difference between the two-dimensional *dot* and the three-dimensional *knob* gives grounds for a common understanding that the term *knob* is the logically preferred option.

3.2.1. When size matters: Eight, two by four or double four?

The logical-mathematical intelligence (Gardner, 1983), so termed by Howard Gardner, is put to the test when deciding how to count the knobs, and thereby define the relative size of a given brick. The learners do agree that the absolute number of knobs is decisive for size, but how to find common terminology for the description of size is a matter of finding one's way by putting logical-mathematical and visual intelligences in the driver's seat. On the question of how to use the unit of knobs, the clear answer is "by giving the number."

The brick in Fig. 1 is shown to the learners, and the response is universal: "That is an eight!"

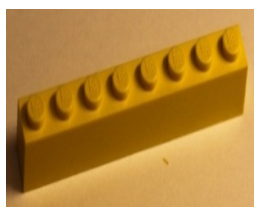


Fig.1

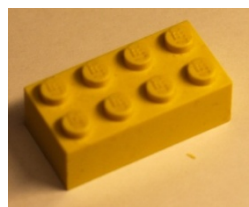


Fig.2



Fig.3

Then the brick in fig. 2 is shown to the learners, and there is a general agreement that this brick is also an eight. When confronting the learner that this is so, but the bricks are not identical, they see the need to differentiate the bricks by bringing in a second parameter in addition to the number of knobs. It is noteworthy, that especially younger learners who are still in the LEGO brick building age, and use LEGO bricks on a regular basis, will have constructed a vocabulary to use among fellow builders

when applicable; and the response will be *double four*, more often than not stated in L1. Thus the learners have included in their vocabulary a term that relates to the concept of doubles or doubling.

This concept is not initially quite fully understood by the younger learners when a group of six-year olds⁴ were asked about LEGO brick vocabulary, as some have described fig. 2 as a *four*, which is the same as fig. 3. The learners show two approaches to the concept of doubling: While some would see fig. 1 as a *double four*, others would view it as a *two by four*. As a note, all learners term the base plates with the shorter side of three or more knobs by counting the knobs along two adjoining sides, e.g. *four by eight*. Philosophy as a subject is not taught in Norwegian primary education, but teachers do strive to aid the development of philosophical thinking among the young learners. The process of establishing a vocabulary for LEGO bricks has brought on more than one discussion of a philosophical nature among nine and ten year olds: Is fig. 5 a *two* or a *double one*?

The learners have thus created a vocabulary for standard bricks, represented here by a few samples.



Fig. 4



Fig. 5

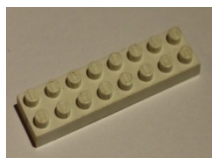


Fig. 6



Fig. 7

3.2.2. Shape vs. function

*Flat⁵ blue
double four*

White double two⁶

Flat white double eight

Flat blue double three



Fig. 8
Blue one

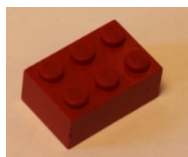


Fig. 9
Red double three

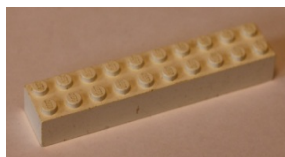


Fig.10
White double ten

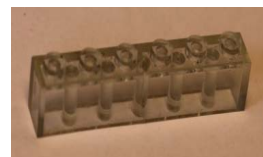


Fig. 11
Clear six

⁴ Note: Though not as in performing the activity in question, a group of six-year olds were used as a reference group for vocabulary.

⁵ Note: The learners opt to consider shape before colour. From conversations with learners, the answers may be collectively stated as “all bricks have colours, but not all deviate from a norm.”

⁶ Note: The vast majority of learners of all ages would count the knobs length wise first, so consequently this is not termed as a *double one*.

This brings the interesting concept of terminology to the level and age of the individual learner. There are especially two qualities that are apparent in the formation of the needed vocabulary, which are *shape* and *function*. When it comes to finding a suitable naming of the non-standard LEGO bricks, the natural starting point is the individual learner's schemata of shape. Regardless of cultural background, or competency and skills, a rectangle is a rectangle, and a cone is a cone etc. Naming bricks that represent standard shapes does not cause serious problems other than possibly not finding the correct translation from L1. The real challenge is when the brick in question does not have a standardized form or shape. This is where the learner can get no further, as the shape in question is not included in the learner's schemata of standard shapes and forms. Needing to transcend existing schemata and develop new ones, experience shows that focusing on the apparent or potential function of the bricks in question uncovers differing, and indeed lacking, schemata. These differences are based not only on age, but also interests and general life experience.

Teaching younger learners a foreign language, the spelling and semantics of new vocabulary in the target language will more often than not be based on similarities with the reference language. The immediate and short term need for the learner is to understand the meaning of a term, with the native tongue as a reference. Seeing the need to develop a new vocabulary to be able to identify and describe LEGO bricks in order to complete a task, the learner reaches a higher level of skills and competency, as compared to memorizing a word for word translation of an existing vocabulary in L1. Comparing the development of vocabulary to memorizing vocabulary may be seen clearly when placing the two approaches within e.g. Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning (Bloom, 1956). Explaining the difference between shape and function, even to the younger learners, it becomes quite apparent that the learners have a built-in concept of such; responding "ah, of course, I just didn't think about that." Older learners would state "I just didn't think of that option." The two very similar responses show that the younger learners immediately see that the *function* of the brick is a logical way to name it, whereas the older learners are aware of that there is an option, but were not able to see and use it in this concrete example. Among the older learners at college level, there is a tendency to themselves arrive at the solution of looking at function; thus backing the assumption that vocabulary learning moves from the more concrete to slightly more abstract with age and experience. Once the learners are made aware of the option of looking at the brick for function, this is completed without teacher input for the rest of the bricks.

The following three bricks have been used to illustrate conversations about creating vocabulary:



Fig. 12



Fig. 13



Fig. 14

Based on function, this brick has been termed a *white 6x4 base*. It is interesting to note that even the younger learner will count the knobs along the longer side first.

It may be obvious how to name this brick, but learners of all ages have struggled to see the function when out of context. With a little prompting, this is a *yellow hinge*.

For all groups, the instructor has had to hint at the function. The learners who have experience with cars and towing found the term quicker than those who don't; a *white tow bar*.

It is to be noted that the vocabulary and terminology developed on a need-to-know basis has little function as a mere list of words, and need to be put in a context for the learners to see and demonstrate the need for these words. The context is given as the process of creating a LEGO brick structure and the accompanying building instruction, and also the vocabulary for the various bricks is contextualized through their relevant physical position to each other. The relevant positions in the building instructions are primarily encoded by the use of a variety of prepositions, which might have several translations and different usage between L1 and L2. Subsequently, this LEGO brick task is in addition to developing vocabulary and showing communicative competence, also a grammar intensive task.

3.3. The building process and writing a building instruction

Developing a vocabulary on a need-to-know basis being the primary objective of this article, it is interesting, though not surprising, that the learners find the demonstration of language competence and communicative competence through their process of creating building instructions as the primary activity. In regards to time spent, the process of defining vocabulary is relatively short to that of the practical task of construction. Logical and obvious as this may be, this is indeed a concrete observation and realisation

of the intended language instruction: Vocabulary and language structures are mere tools, and communicative *competence* is the ultimate outcome of the process.

Approaches to the task vary not only by age, but also within age groups. Among the younger learners, there is a general notion of a competitive element: “how can we make the other group struggle to complete their build?” Such a competitive approach motivates creativity within the group, and intricate constructions follow. The challenge is that the more intricate LEGO brick structure the group builds, the greater the challenge for the group to write the instructions. This is a starting point for discussion initiated by the instructor, followed by a joint problem solving session. The learners are quick to see their limitations of vocabulary, and modify their LEGO brick structure accordingly. Adapting to the gap between a physical construction and the encoding of the construction into writing may indeed be viewed as adapted learning. Though not in the traditional sense, where challenge is how to cater for the slower and faster learner through differentiated texts and tasks, but rather through group dynamics and cooperative learning. The competitive drive will make the group members push their collective limits to how many of their ideas they are able to encode. By changing the structure to be within their encoding limits, the group members effectively are able to make both a physical and an encoded written presentation of their competence level. The groups’ need to find ways to encode their structures into writing and building instructions, triggers internal discussion and problem solving. A clearer understanding of vocabulary and communicative competence is not only displayed through the vocabulary used, but also in the limitations of the joint vocabulary of the group. This concord between physical construction and vocabulary available clearly demonstrates the imminent requirement on a need-to-know basis. Consequently, the groups will collectively adapt their work to the level of the larger group.

It is noteworthy that although the group process of the older learners (teacher training students) is quite similar to that of the younger learners, the starting point is not. Where the younger learners seek to be creative and suggest abstract shapes, the older learners show a tendency of constructing more concrete shapes, such as a car that looks like a car, and a house that looks like house according to established schemata. Focus on competitiveness and creating a challenging task for the other group is not clearly present, as the groups apparently take the easy way out in order to complete the task as given. In dialogue with the older learners, it becomes apparent that there is a tendency to construct according to existing vocabulary, rather than the approach of the younger learners: “How can we find the right words to explain our structure?”

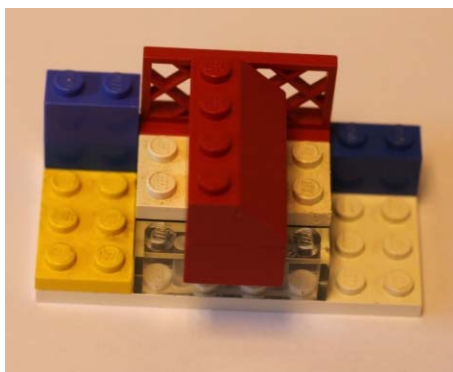


Fig. 15 How younger learners used given bricks

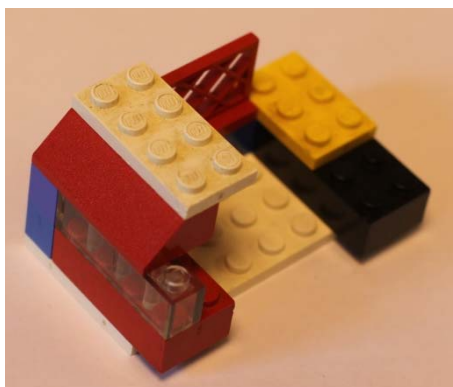


Fig. 16 How teacher training students used the identical set of bricks. Note the attempt to build a house.

The process of writing the building instructions may be monitored by the facilitator making a few spot checks, where he carries out the building instructions under way. More often than not, the instructions tend to be ambiguous. Rather than inform the group members that their instructions are ambiguous, it is preferable that the instructor purposefully feigns to misinterpret, thus ending up with a construction different from the one that was intended. This provokes reactions such as “that is not right!” With this as a starting point, the following discussion on what is believed encoded and what in fact may be decoded is indeed of a practical nature. This is a tangible, hands-on representation of the communication process, and a display of how imprecise encoding may lead to unintended decoding,

and ultimately a breakdown in communication. Consequently, building instructions are altered to become focused more on accuracy than general ideas, meaning a more detailed encoding of the physical structure. To further enhance the idea of need-to-know vocabulary, the building process uncovers a need for vocabulary depending on the LEGO brick structure a group has built. The more complicated structure, the greater the need for vocabulary in addition to the vocabulary for bricks and prepositions. Examples of need-to-know vocabulary sought: *length wise, adjacent to, perpendicular to, at a 45 degree angle, partly covering, horizontally, and vertically*, to mention but a few.

3.4. Comparing the LEGO brick structures

When done, compare the model to the one built by the group that made the written instructions. Are the two constructions identical? If not, find out together what has been the problem getting it right.

Rotating the newly created building instructions and accompanying bricks among the groups, and the following building activity shows the decoding competence among the group members. This competence is manifested directly by the construction under way, and the group has collectively arrived at an understanding of the submitted written instructions. There are a couple of points to note; the quality and accuracy of the decoding process depends to some extent on the quality and accuracy of the decoding process, and one group's vocabulary inventory may not be the same as that of the other group. Misinterpretations of the building instructions based on lack of accuracy in decoding will potentially manifest themselves when comparing the newly built construction to that of the original, while the lack of vocabulary triggers an in-group process to seek out the meaning of unknown vocabulary. This is primarily sought solved among the group members, as the competitive element (especially among the younger learners) ensures that the other groups are not willing to come to the aid. The group that is challenged will therefore need to think strategically, and seek outside help. The instructor, readily at hand, will have the option to further promote learning and oral activity by guiding the group towards an answer, rather than giving the direct translation of the vocabulary in question.

The instructions provided may indeed at times appear confusing when out of context, though when accompanied by the LEGO bricks, the groups would more often than not provide identical constructions. Though the layout is not a topic for discussion here, it is worth noting that the younger learners who are still in a LEGO brick building mode, will

invariably number each step of the instructions in the same manner the LEGO Group does with the visual instructions supplied with the kits. The following illustration (Fig. 17) shows how a group of teacher training students have chosen to present their building instructions. Even with the support of the accompanying bricks, there has obviously been a problem with communication here (Fig. 18)

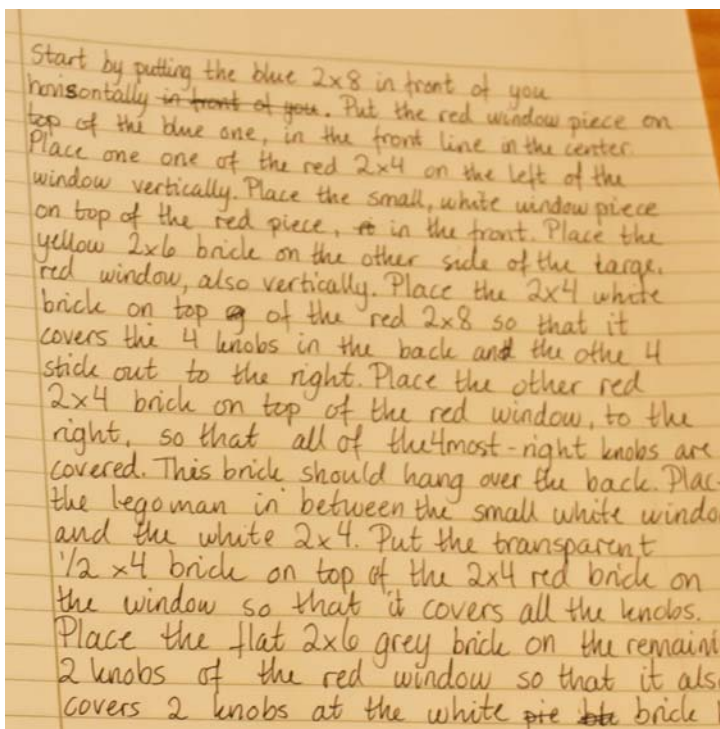


Fig. 17 A building instruction written by teacher training students.



Fig. 18 There is a problem with communication here.

This not only concludes the PBL session itself, this is also arguably an ideal way for the learners to check for themselves their degree of communicative competence. Traditionally, the instructor would initiate a post-activity session, where the work of the day is summed up in an attempt to see whether the goals of the learning session have been reached. Depending on the creativity and skill of the instructor, these sessions do not always engage as many learners as desirable. In this LEGO brick exercise, two-and-two groups are jointly responsible for peer review, based on *their* concrete work.

By both writing a building instruction for another group, and also being on a receiving line for one, each group is given the opportunity to both evaluate and have their work evaluated – all on a peer basis.

4. Conclusive comments

This PBL task is a concrete way of demonstrating how vocabulary development and learning on a need-to-know basis may serve to develop communicative competence and awareness of own strategies of acquisition. The experience gained from using this task in the L2 learning process, shows that cooperative learning and PBL trigger the motivation and drive to learn vocabulary that is imminently required, and not always from a list of words supplied which might come in handy one day in the future. The process of developing vocabulary together and the following 3D construction serves as a clear reminder that avoiding errors in communication is the joint responsibility of the sender and the receiver.

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Rezumat: Eroarea în comunicare este rezultatul unor probleme în procesul de codare și decodare. Acest articol prezintă o abordare practică a însușirii vocabularului limbii L2 prin învățarea bazată pe problematizare și dezvoltare a competenței de comunicare pe baza nevoii de a cunoaște. Limba L2 la care se face referire în acest articol este limba engleză, dar aceleași principii pot fi aplicate și altor limbi. Prezentarea analizează construcția vocabularului în lumina schemelor individuale. Principalul obiectiv vizează evidențierea importanței dezvoltării și operaționalizării competenței de utilizare a vocabularului recent asimilat, pe baza principilului nevoii de a cunoaște prin proprietate asupra produsului.

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Context-sensitive Collocations and Translation Errors in the Framework of Multilingual Legal Systems

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Abstract: In the context of the EU multilingual legal system, collocations have become well-known risk factors that make legal translators prone to linguistic and translation errors. The current paper underpins a contrastive approach to English-Romanian commercial contracts, aiming to identify those recurrent source language context-sensitive adjective – noun and verb – noun collocations causing translation errors, especially if English is not the native language of one party to the contract. The research is also based on an interdisciplinary analysis of collocations from the perspective of translation procedures, morpho-syntactic features and socio-cultural items, in an attempt to test the applicability of collocations in corpus linguistics research, thus verifying whether the socio-cultural context could cause errors in the translation process. Subsequently, collocations may be perceived as an added value that plays a significant role in the creation of a domain specific lexicon. Inasmuch as collocations tend to be tied to specific domains, the present paper also envisages further research propositions to the establishment of a contract language database.

Keywords: *collocations, contract language, corpus linguistics, translation studies.*

1. Introduction: on legal translation in the context of the EU multilingual legal system

Over the past half century, in the context of EU borders' expansion and accession of new Member States, linguists and translation theorists alike have signaled the emergence of a dichotomist approach with regard to one of the basic principles of the European Union – *unity in diversity*. Hence, in terms of linguistic diversity, a twofold situation would highlight, on the one hand, a tendency towards an *international lingua franca* – a detrimental effect to linguistic diversity, and on the other hand, an increase in the use of translations, thus implying a significant networking process, a catalyst in the increasing of linguistic diversity. Within this context, EU citizens grow aware of an ever increasing demand for highly-specialised experts to adapt within a world of changes, while the continuously expanding sector of business investments and the increased occupational mobility is resulting in a need of a common medium of communication.

Accordingly, the role of English as “legal lingua franca” (Doczekalska, 2009: 342) is expanding, while more and more professionals

need English to draft, understand and close contracts in English. As European companies are competing in an increasingly aggressive commercial environment “business and law genres are merging” (Northcott, 2008: 27), demanding the professionals more accurate and specialised knowledge. Within this context, translators need to develop specific competences by examining the linguistic nature of legal texts, how they are constructed, the use of vocabulary, the meaning of legal utterance, how these aspects change over time under the socio-cultural imprint of each Member State.

Concerned with the linguistic aspects faced by translators when dealing with English legal language, we shall embark to our study, aiming at investigating some specific facets of English legal language, and more precisely of English contract translation that highly affect, but also improve the performance of a translator, i.e. the issue of context-sensitive collocations and translation errors in non-native contract English.

Based on the hypotheses that a TL legal text needs to sound clear and accurate, yet always natural and resourceful, without any changes in the transferred meaning, we sought to investigate context-sensitive collocations and translation errors in legal translation from the perspective of translation procedures, morpho-syntactic features and socio-cultural items. The major objectives of our translation-oriented investigation is to test whether the study of collocations can be applied to corpus linguistics research, and to verify to what extent the socio-cultural context may lead to errors in legal translation, more precisely in contract translation.

Aiming at providing some sustainable research outcomes, we also propose a corpus-based investigation of legal expressions that we will then re-test via a computer-assisted analysis by means of MAXQDA 11 software. Thus, we aim at establishing the frequency rate of such terms within the corpus documents and highlight the significant role context-specific and culture-specific collocations play in the creation of a domain specific lexicon. Due to limitation constrains, the research domain will be limited to 5 bilingual (English-Romanian) commercial contracts, investigating how general English and specific legal terms are combined into complex units and providing a translation-oriented analysis algorithm as a contribution for an applied legal translation tool-kit and future terminology resources.

2. Collocations: definitions and taxonomies

Collocative meaning, which has long been the object of linguistics and lexicographic studies, is defined by Leech (1974: 20) as “the

associations a word acquires on account of the meaning of words which tend to occur in its environment.”

Cruse (2006: 40) refers to collocations as “sequences of lexical items which habitually co-occur, but which are nonetheless fully transparent in the sense that each lexical constituent is also a semantic constituent”. Thus, Cruse (Ibid: 86), states that these habitually co-occurrences cannot be anticipated by means of semantic or syntactic rules, for as they can only be registered with some regularity in different text types. Admittedly, Cruse endorses that collocations indicate a semantic cohesion which “is the more marked if the meaning carried by one or more of its constituent elements is highly restricted contextually and different from its meaning in more neutral contexts.” (ibidem)

Conversely, Baker (1992: 47) advocates that collocations are “semantically arbitrary co-occurrences,” and they “do not follow logically from the propositional meaning of the word,” arguing that the way collocations occur is not always conditioned by the propositional or the denotative meaning of a word. In this respect, she highlights the following example used by English speakers who normally *pay a visit* and less frequently *make a visit*, while they definitely do not *perform a visit*. Thus, comparing collocations to idioms, Baker places idioms and fixed expressions at the extreme end of the scale, while describing collocations as flexibility and transparency-governed occurrences.

Prominent linguists have established several categories of collocations. A primary distinction is drawn between grammatical collocations and semantic collocations.

- Grammatical collocations, as suggested by their labelling, encompass structures such as verb + preposition (e.g. *come to, put on*), adjective+ preposition (e.g. *afraid that, fond of*), and noun + preposition (e.g. *by accident, witness to*), where the *collocators* occur as determiners of the class establishing element.

Cruse (2006: 71) considers that the classification of collocation categories is essentially grammatical. Depending on the grammatical word classes of the collocational occurrence, collocations may be classified in:

- noun + preposition: *ability in/at*
- noun + to + infinitive: *a problem to do*
- noun + that clause: *we reached an agreement that*
- preposition + noun: *on purpose*

- adjective + preposition: *tired of*
- adjective + to + infinitive : *easy to learn*
- adjective + that clause: *she was delighted that*
- verb + preposition: *believe in*

▪ Semantic collocations are “lexically restricted word pairs, where only a subset of the synonyms of the collocator can be used in the same lexical context”, thus pointing to the logical form and its features Smadja (1933: 8). A graphical interpretation of the above mentioned characteristics of semantic collocations is illustrated in figure 1 below, where we have set the *standardized area* and the *level of specificity* as variables.

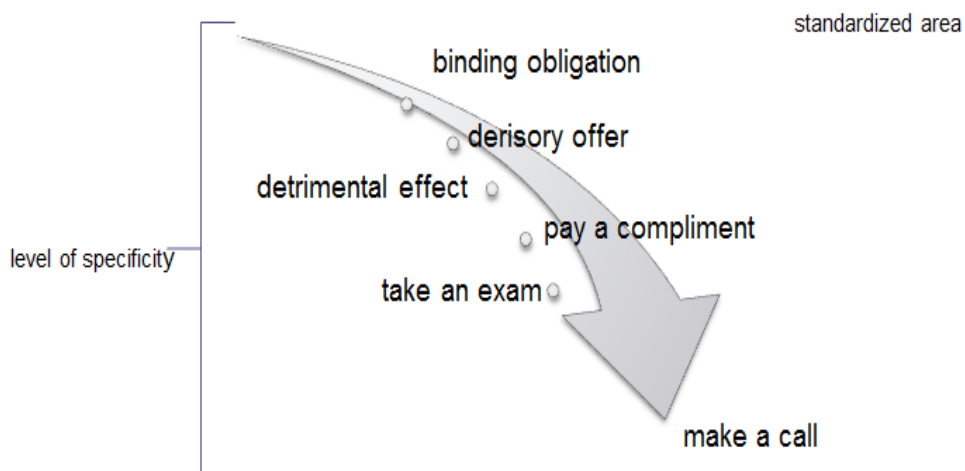


Fig. 1. Semantic collocations: specificity and generalisation degrees

2.1. Avoiding collocations misinterpretation in legal documents: socio-cultural imprints and translation strategies

Special emphasis is laid on the role collocations play in translating legal texts, considering the distinctive features displayed by legal texts, i.e. extraordinary precision and accuracy. Thus, collocations acquire a special significance in legal language translation transferring distinguished meanings from the general language, due to specific term combinations.

The question of collocations in translation is put forward by Newmark (1988: 180), who endorses that “the translator will be caught every time, not by his grammar, which is probably suspiciously ‘better’ than an educated native’s, not by his vocabulary, which may well be wider, but by his unacceptable or improbable collocations.” Therefore, a first assumption we could highlight is that collocations stand as a key problem for legal translators.

2.3. Socio-cultural imprints in translating contract collocations

According to Baker (1992: 55) collocations “play a vital role in language, as they are a direct reflection of the material, social, or moral environment in which they occur, inevitable in any kind of text with no exception,” hence their importance in translation. Thus, for example, the meaning of the English collocation *law and order* shall highlight the importance of *order* for the English and any other “restrained society” governed by strict norms that regulate natural human desires, whereas, a similar collocation would lose meaning in “indulgent societies,” where individuals have an inclination towards enjoyment based on natural human desires of life and having fun. (cf. Hofstede, 2005: 91)

In this context, cultural embedding stands as a general feature for all types of texts, including legal texts as well. The translator needs to train and develop his/her socio-cultural awareness in order to detect legal-specific cultural aspects, by listing indirect cultural implications to specific constructions at text level. We could thus envisage that culture-specific items occur in any text-type on all linguistic levels: word form and word meaning, syntactic structures and pragmatic particularities.

Translating legal texts and more precisely contracting documents in the professional business environment goes beyond the translator’s ability to handle specialised or highly specialised terminology, as most of the linguistic expressions within such technical discourse fields tend to encompass not only subject-relevant information, but also indirect culture-bound hints to the socio-cultural background of the contracting parties. Thus, cultural embeddedness is present in such texts as well, starting from the very contract-structuring particularities and conventions, which are culturally influenced. Thus, based on Hofstede’s (2005) cultural dimensions, Kirkman *et al.* (2006: 285-320) postulate that “firms from countries with large *power distance* prefer subsidiary and joint venture entry modes whereas firms from countries high in *uncertainty avoidance* prefer contract agreements and export entry modes.” Moreover, cultural particularities are reflected in the professional behaviour of each party, from the very negotiation stage of a forthcoming cooperation. Thus, the stronger the “*power distance*” features of a culture are, the higher the position of the business negotiator and the size of his negotiating team will be. At the other end of the scale, firms established in “*low power distance*” cultures may even risk future business relations for having sent a junior negotiator.

Consequently, cultural incompatibility of concepts may lead to the translation of seemingly analogous terms that are not equivalent, because the concepts they convey have different meanings in different cultures.

Cultural implications of legal texts are based on the historical and social dynamics of each particular people and their translation is closely related to the translator's competence to understand the source text, since (s)he is not a member of the same culture. In conclusion, the localisation and the understanding of cultural elements in contract texts are of salient importance for translation.

2.4. Translation strategies and procedures applied to legal collocation transference from SL to TL

In terms of translation strategies, Venuti (1998) puts forward a general classification of such strategies that encompasses two main types: *foreignising*, where emphasis is laid on the foreign influence and *domesticating*, which is TL-oriented, in order to facilitate the target readership a better understanding of the text via TL cultural acclimatisation. Accordingly, prominent figures in the field of Translation Study favour *domesticating* in legal translation. Others claim that by applying *domestication*, the target readership would no longer understand the SL legal system, which "would inevitably lead to confusion of the reader" (Rayar, 1998:27). "This reader accustomed to a different system, will automatically approach the text from his own frame of reference" (ibidem)

We shall adopt the approach put forward by Šarcevic (1997: 236), who considers that in legal translation, the client needs understand the foreign culture context through familiar representations – "a term designating a concept or institution of the target legal system having the same function as a particular concept of the source legal system." Accordingly, when translating contract texts, we need to find TL equivalents in compliance with the legal and socio-cultural characteristics of the TL legal system.

As previously highlighted, translation errors may occur due to translators' lack of competence or silk to adequately understand the cultural implications of a legal text, or even to misinterpret them. Thus, "modulation" and "adaptation" are less frequently applied to attain "cultural shifts," while "a translation where foreign elements are not adapted will appear as an overt translation, which allows the translation receptor a view of the original through a foreign language while clearly operating in a different discourse world." (House, 2001: 29)

No matter the labelling applied by each school of linguistics, translation has been defined as an inter-lingual transfer, a cultural manipulation or the representation of a message understood where text features and typologies represented the core variables. Under the

circumstance, the translation of sales contracts – as hybrid texts (vocative-informative) with an international perspective – is based on their specific communicative situation. In the translation of such texts the focus is laid on their specific technical object, though as previously mentioned, there are still culture-specific items that are not cross-culturally homogeneous, leading to increased instances of inadequate translations. In this context, Chesterman (1994: 154) endorses the “quantitative aspects of translation quality,” implying both cultural accommodation and internal cohesion observance to meet the expectations of the target culture readership. Accordingly, the translator has to acquire and develop socio-cultural knowledge of the source text cultural particularities in order to be able to explain them in the translation. In this respect we also mention a series of translation possibilities proposed by Stolze (1999: 225) to compensate for cultural gaps between texts, i.e. explication, paraphrasing and adaptation.

3. Context-sensitive collocations and translation errors: a corpus-based analysis

In order to validate our hypotheses that translation errors tend to occur in contract translation due to context-sensitive collocations and moreover to establish a frequency rate of specific collocations that occur in contract texts, we sought to carry out a corpus-based analysis implemented in two successive phases: a classical corpus-based analysis of a set of documents, i.e. 5 English-Romanian bilingual contracts, and a computer-assisted investigation of the same corpus by means of MAXQDA 11 software.

To design our corpus we have applied internal criteria as sampling techniques, while the research constrains focused on context-sensitive adjective – noun and verb – noun collocations in commercial contracts. Our corpus contained exclusively electronic English bilingual commercial contact drafts used as research materials. We sought to disclose confidential data such as sums, addresses, tax identification numbers, thus, fulfilling the copyright permission. In terms of representativeness, our approach underpinned context-sensitive adjective – noun and verb – noun collocations in commercial contracts, aiming at balanced quantitative and qualitative research variables.

3.1. Classical corpus-based analysis of sales contracts

Following our investigation of the corpus we have encountered a series of error translation examples due to the occurrence of context-sensitive

collocations. By applying our analysis algorithm proposed to minimise the incidence of translation errors, in what follows we shall provide some examples obtained following our investigation:

▪ *financial consideration* ≠ **considerație financiară* → *garanție contractuală*

(1) *Price*’ means *financial consideration* and shall include ‘rate’ or ‘fee’ particularly in [...]

(Contract Sample 1)

According to Martin (2003: 56) *consideration n.* is “An act, forbearance, or promise by one party to a contract that constitutes the price for which he buys the promise of the other. *Consideration* is essential to the validity of any contract other than one made by deed. Without *consideration* an agreement not made by deed is not binding [...]” Thus, we will have the following relation:

≠ literal, word for word translation → adaptation: legal meaning in compliance with the Romanian legal system

☑ cultural gap: bridged by means of a domestication effect.

▪ *floating charge* ≠ **taxă instabilă* → *rată variabilă* (a dobânzii)

(2) [...] where the Supplier/Contractor is a corporate body, if such body passes a resolution for winding-up or dissolution or [...] or possession is taken of any of its property under the terms of a floating charge [...]

(Contract Sample 3)

Floating charge – “an interest in company property created in favour of a creditor to secure the amount owing. Unlike the fixed charge, the floating charge does not immediately attach to any specific assets but ‘floats’ over all the company's assets until *crystallization.” (Martin, 2003: 74). We shall obtain the following relation:

≠ literal, word for word translation → modulation: technical meaning – common words with uncommon meaning

☑ cultural gap: bridged by means of a domestication effect.

▪ *effective costs* ≠ **cost efectiv* → *cost rentabil*

(3) [...] At Client’s request the Consultant can take official trips outside the locality and travel expenses will be charged to the Client at an effective cost

(Contract Sample 2)

≠ literal, word for word translation → modulation: technical meaning – common words with uncommon meaning

☑ cultural gap: bridged by avoiding foreignization

False friend: *effective* En. ≠ *efectiv* Ro.

Further examples encountered are: *reasonable costs* ≠ **costuri rezonabile* → *costuri reale* ; *written notice* ≠ **notă de informare* → *preaviz/notificare scrisă*; *exercise discretion* ≠ **exercițiu de discreție* → *marjă de apreciere*.

3.2. Quantitative computer-assisted investigation of the corpus

Aiming at establishing the frequency rate of context-sensitive collocations within our corpus and highlight the significant role context-specific and culture-bound collocations play in the creation of a domain specific lexicon, we have implemented a quantitative computer-assisted investigation of the corpus by means of MAXQDA 11 software.

In order to carry out our quantitative investigation, the first steps were to import the 5 electronically available documents in the software by activating the command *import documents*. Once imported the documents were organised in a *document set*, containing the 5 contract drafts, entitled *Bilingual corpus*

By means of our computer-assisted investigation we sought to investigate the frequency rate of context-sensitive collocations in contract texts, aiming at establishing a contract language database, through text mining and extraction of domain specific collocation.

For accurate results we have selected and activated in turns each contract draft from the document set *Bilingual corpus*. Then, selecting the command *MaxDictio* we set the function *Word frequency*, and the software generated a list of the most frequently encountered terms, as illustrated in figure 2 below. It is worth mentioning that by applying the command *Stop list*, we were able to stop the occurrence of general English terms as well as of short words (conjunctions, pronouns) or numerals in order to obtain more accurate results.

Word frequency

In 1 documents (5574 words total)

Word	Word length	Frequency	%
includingcopiesofanywrite...	46	1	0,02
contractortoenterontocom...	42	1	0,02
terminatecontractwithi...	39	1	0,02
contractthecontractbetweenthe	29	1	0,02
anytenderspecification	22	1	0,02
characteristics	15	1	0,02
confidentiality	15	10	0,18
interpretations	15	2	0,04
notwithstanding	15	4	0,07
recommendations	15	1	0,02
representations	15	1	0,02
representatives	15	4	0,07
sub-contractors	15	7	0,13
administration	14	2	0,04
administrative	14	3	0,05
constitutional	14	1	0,02
discrimination	14	1	0,02
exceptwherethe	14	1	0,02
implementation	14	1	0,02
includingemail	14	1	0,02
interpretation	14	1	0,02

Fig. 2 Print screen: term frequency

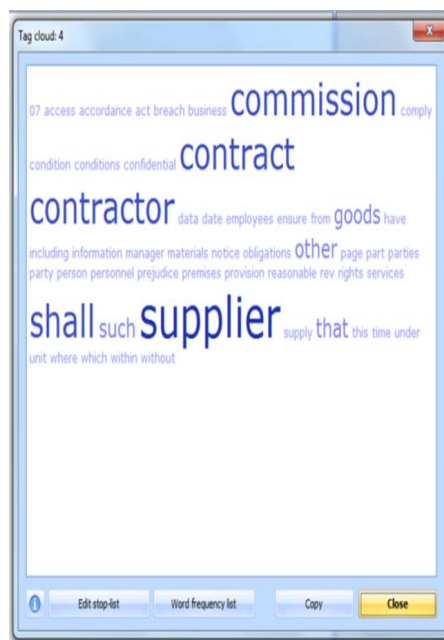


Fig. 3 Print screen: Tag cloud of per document – Sample 4

Another very user friendly and useful setting of MAXQDA 11 is the *Tag Cloud* option. By selecting this option from the main menu, the software generates a Word-cloud with the most frequently used word units in the analysed text (Figure 3).

The results obtained have validated once again our hypotheses that culture-specific collocation occur frequently in contract texts. Moreover, by means of our computer-assisted linguistic analysis of the corpus we could gain a better understanding of this highly-specialised field of research and expertise.

As value-added outcome of our investigation, it is worth mentioning that we were able to organise a thematic data base regarding contract language specific terminology, for as MAXQDA 11 also generate Excel sheets for both frequency lists and the word clouds, thus contributing to the development and improvement of the two essential translation competences demanded by the contemporary translation, i.e. thematic competence and technological competence.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, we can highlight that in legal translation and particularly in contract translation errors occur, especially in adjective +noun collocations where a certain term can have different meanings in the general and in the legal language. According to our computer-assisted investigation such structures are also easier to localise, though the meaning of this type of word combination highly depends on the socio-cultural background of each contracting party. Though, we been concerned with collocations that have two or three elements, we could also register further specific features of legal language, i.e. the use of more complex collocations that cannot be found in the general language or in the specialized dictionaries and databases. Thus, the translator needs to constantly improve and develop his/her knowledge of the specific domain, of the professional terminology and a long professional experience.

In order to minimize the incidence of error translation with reference to context-sensitive collocation, our computer-assisted investigation indicated some a fruitful results, providing us with frequency lists of specialised terms used in legal and contracting terminology. Moreover, the data obtained are easily to access, as the software can generate Excel sheets alphabetically ordered.

Witnessing legal English dynamics and how words' meaning tends to change over time, the task of the translator is facing steadily threats to the correct translation. Thus, after having overviewed the mainstream literature on collocations, aiming to provide comprehensive definitions of the term collocation, we sought to design a translation-oriented analysis algorithm of contract language collocations, including word pairs that co-occur in flexible variations.

Special attention was paid to the cultural embeddedness as well, considering the fact that laws and contractual terms have to be understood in fully compliance with their legal, cultural or linguistic particularities. Thus, legal terms acquire certain meanings only in the socio-cultural context of a legal system. Briefly put, specific terms of a legal system cannot be transferred to another legal system as isolated single items, for as the translators should bear in mind that to avoid errors in translating contract texts, they need to develop general English and general translation skills, to fully understand the meaning of English legal terms (thematic area competence), to consider socio-cultural imprints when interpreting and translating legal texts.

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Dictionaries:

Martin, A. E. *A Dictionary of Law*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003.

Bilingual Corpus:

Sample 1: *Ctr. No.247/2010 Somaco* – Purchase Contract

Sample 2: *Ctr. No.423/2009 Print Media* – Services Contract

Sample 3: *Ctr. No.248/2010 Novanetwork* – Services Contract

Sample 4: *Ctr. No.42/2007 La Fantana* – Services Contract

Sample 5: *Ctr. No.264/2009 Expresco* – Services Contract

Rezumat: În cadrul sistemului juridic multilingv al UE, colocațiile reprezintă factori de risc bine-cunoscuți, ce predispun traducătorii juridici la erori lingvistice și de traducere. Lucrarea de față vizează o abordare contrastivă a contractelor comerciale bilingve (engleză-română), cu scopul de a identifica în limba sursă acele colocații contextuale, adjectiv-substantiv și verb-substantiv, recurente, ce pot conduce la o serie de erori în procesul de traducere, mai ales dacă engleza nu este limba maternă a unei părți la contract. Demersul de cercetare se bazează pe o analiză interdisciplinară a colocațiilor din perspectiva procedurilor de traducere, a caracteristicilor morfo-sintactice și a aspectelor socio-culturale, în încercarea de a testa aplicabilitatea colocațiilor într-un studiu bazat pe corpus, verificând, astfel, dacă contextul socio-cultural ar putea produce erori în procesul de traducere. Astfel, colocațiile pot aduce plus valoare în alcătuirea unui lexic dedicat, caracteristic unui anumit domeniu de specialitate. Așadar, dat fiind faptul că acestea tind să fie strâns legate de anumite domenii specializate, lucrarea de față vizează, de asemenea, propuneri viitoare de cercetare în vederea alcătuirii unei baze terminologice specifice limbajului contractual.

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A Co-Action and Intercultural Perspective in Teaching Romanian as a Foreign Language

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Abstract: Intercultural education should not be identified with multilingualism (diversifying the foreign languages study offer within an educational system) or with plurilingualism (the competence to switch between foreign languages), but with functional adequacy in a wide range of communication-oriented encounters. It is quite obvious that a language can be adequately mastered, only if learners are frequently exposed to it in contexts based on its real-life purpose. Learning a language is not solely reliant upon the development of certain linguistic patterns of competence, but also on the acquisition of a number of behavioural elements and cultural norms. Hence, the latter cannot be acquired through definitions or lexical references. More often than not, words or expressions can be comprehended through the mediation of the situational context. Learning a foreign language involves the following factors: cultural identity, stereotypes, communicative competence and the dynamics of identity inside a framework of cultural growth.

Keywords: *cultural perspective, specific contexts, intercultural dialogue.*

1. Introduction

Intercultural communication constitutes a relatively new discipline from both a conceptual point of view and also from an applicative toolkit of concrete implementation and functional relevance. Nowadays, with globalisation, intercultural communication has become a pluralistic concept, an experience that can be understood both personally, but most importantly collectively. The interlocking of rich diverse cultures produces a cultural synergy which reverberates through cities, countries and even continents, enriching the world's heritage, constantly adding to its spiritual and communicative legacy, cancelling out previously insurmountable distances, shuttering barriers, bringing us ever closer together.

2. Framing intercultural communication

A fully functional discipline, intercultural communication can be perceived as emerging from the necessity to clarify the theoretical realities of a contemporary world while also bestowing a sense of practical support towards achieving patterns of adequate behaviour when coming into contact with our fellow human beings.

Before the formulation of a specific theory of intercultural communication, there had been a wide array of experimental descriptions and approaches relating to the framework of understanding and engaging a foreign culture. There is a vast and enticing literature in this respect, teeming with profound descriptive reflections of the contact and the communicational contract between two or more cultures interacting with one another. In addition to these writings, which largely partake in the realm of literature, certain aspects of intercultural communication have indeed been analysed inside certain disciplines such as anthropology, ethnology, the history of art, language and culture.

The explicit theorisation of *intercultural communication* as an independent science was first expressed in 1959 by the American scholar Edward T. Hall in the book *The Silent Language*. His analysis of this unique and innovative concept is largely based on the structure of semiotics. In accordance with his theories, the individuals who are engaged in a dialogue utilise not only language but also a series of nonverbal attributes such as mimicry, tonality, basic or complex gestures. Within every culture, there exists a specific convergence of non-verbal factors (facial expressions, body language and various tones) which influence and complete the verbal dynamics of communication (basic affirmative or negative statements, permission, requests, interdictions, orders and even amazement). The incorrect decoding of this dual ensemble can often lead to a failed communicational act, an infelicitous transference of information which is most commonly referred to as *miscommunication*. (cf. Hall, 1973)

The concept of intercultural communication has since grown to designate a process of communication between different cultures, as it is evident in *Intercultural Communication. A discourse Approach*:

Regular patterns of discourse tend to form systems of discourse in which cultural norms lead to the choice of certain strategies for face relationships. These face relationships lead, in turn, to the use of particular discourse forms. Those different discourse forms imply certain modes of socialization which complete the circle by predetermining cultural norms. [...] There are many aspects of intercultural communication which have been brought up in the research literature. We discuss history and worldview, the functions of language, and non-verbal communication. The pernicious problem of binarism and stereotyping is shown to be one which arises when someone knows enough to contrast two cultural groups or discourse systems, but remains unaware of further dimensions of contrast and commonality. (Scollon and Wong Scollon, 2001: 24)

2.1. Intercultural communication vs International communication

There are two distinct terms which should not be confused with each other: *intercultural communication* and *international communication*. In the first case, we are dealing with distinct individuals belonging to different cultures, while in the latter we are shown people who are part of diverse nations. Were the terms nation and culture to overlap then there would be no conceptual obstacle. Intercultural communication is by no means a viable substitute for ethnology or anthropology, it is merely an expanded continuation of these fields of research. The term has also come to the attention of linguists who are naturally puzzled by the nature of complete language acquisition.

Extensive research undertaken in Europe during the late 80's produced a series of new disciplines such as intercultural psychology, intercultural pedagogy, intercultural history and the intercultural history of science (Lusebrink, 2005: 4). As an integral part of most global cultures, religion has always represented an element of paramount significance. Intercultural communication has therefore integrated religion as well in its area of analysis, as seen in many research journals such as *International Journal of Intercultural Communication* and *The International and Intercultural Communication*. (Lusebrink, 2005: 5)

Key terms such as "intercultural," "transcultural" and "interculturality" provide meaning to entirely new contemporary realities, totally detached from the communicational protocols which were in effect even a decade ago (Lusebrink, 2005: 1). The transitions which are often tumultuous are a concrete necessity, a fulfillment of the fundamental objective of language, which is to reflect the cultural structure of the society from which it stems.

3. Defining culture, interculturalism and transculturalism

Along with the age of Enlightenment culture has transcended simple barriers of society, gaining new meanings, expanding its grid of understanding so as to encompass the culture of the spirit, the very essence of the human soul as it related to culture in general. Subsequently, a string of theories emerge, presenting a multiplicity of inter-disciplinary perspectives envisioning a variety of definitions of culture, systemic to the very core of human identity and communication.

Culture has come to define our very spirituality as it related to art, education and the development of modern man, and has itself become an

instrument of freedom, a destroyer of artificially, pre-imposed barriers which had previously hindered our evolution as individuals and as a society.

Hofstede (1993: 19) distinguishes four levels of distribution assigned to the concept of culture: values, rituals, heroes and symbols. Values constitute the core of a culture, that is why understanding the values of *the other* represents the most important moment of the process of intercultural communication. The rituals are those customs which regulate the basic norms of communicational functionality within a society, starting from greeting expressions and going all the way towards marriage or funeral ceremonies. Heroes or icons are an integral part of every society as they provide behavioral architectures, positive or negative, which influence entire societies. The hero is often a larger than life carrier of complex imagery and symbolism, manifesting oneself as a model of successful living (a top athlete, a brilliant artist, a political mastermind or a business tycoon). Symbols are the labels, the markings; the heraldic legacy of a culture transmuted in a multiplicity of forms such as words, religious objects or generally recognized images. Culture is therefore a product of synergy and dynamic syncretism, a complex and adaptive entity inextricably intertwined to the resource of humanity from which it originates.

Any definition of interculturalism cannot be formulated without accessing pertinent associations related to multiculturalism, transculturalism and ultimately returning to the root of the entire system which is culture. Interculturalism is therefore the offspring of culture, a worthy heir adapted to the needs of contemporaneity and our increased capacity to limit the physical and spiritual obstructions which would unjustly see us wither away in forlorn and desolate self-imposed isolation. Communication is culture's instrument of human liberation and interculturalism is the method through which it all comes to pass:

The ambiguous nature of language is one major source of difficulties in interdiscourse communication. Where any two people differ in group membership because they are of different genders, different ages, different ethnic or cultural groups, different educations, different parts of the same country or even city, different income or occupational groups, or with very different personal histories, each will find it more difficult to draw inferences about what the other person means. In the contemporary world of international and intercultural professional communication, the differences between people are considerable. People are in daily contact with members of cultures and other groups from all around the world. Successful communication is based on sharing as much as possible the assumptions we make about what others mean. (Scollon *et al.*, 2001: 21-22)

Interculturalism is ultimately the coalescence of phenomena which merge from the productive encounter of two cultures which are in fact the melting pot for potentially enlightened homogeneity. This does by no means entail a cancellation or negation of individual traditions. On the contrary, it entails an exploration of our common humanity, a discovery of the universal elements which unite us rather than succumbing to capricious autarchy and devastating isolationist ideologies which threaten to extinguish our global legacy of togetherness.

When it comes to transculturalism, many scholars have asserted that the idea of a culture strictly linked to ethnicity is obsolete eluding even the boundaries of capricious fiction. Modern systems of communication have triggered an immensely productive cultural mix. The distinct formation of an individual is no longer conditioned by his or her ethnic or national background. Therefore, transculturalism is undoubtedly the product of successfully implemented globalization. Current cultures are now intercontinental expressions of fusion on all levels of cultural understanding, as Wolfgang Welsch (1999) pertinently claims:

The old homogenizing and separatist idea of cultures has furthermore been surpassed through cultures' external networking. Cultures today are extremely interconnected and entangled with each other. Lifestyles no longer end at the borders of national cultures, but go beyond these, are found in the same way in other cultures. The way of life for an economist, an academic or a journalist is no longer German or French, but rather European or global in tone. The new forms of entanglement are a consequence of migratory processes, as well as of worldwide material and immaterial communications systems and economic interdependencies and dependencies. It is here, of course, that questions of power come in. (Welsch, 1999: 197-198)

The genetic lineage of most nations is living proof that multiculturalism, transculturalism and interculturalism have been the generative engines for the creation of new cultures and civilizations. Everything was, is and will always be in a state of perpetual flux. In the journey of cultural transformation, the most humble of roads can lead to the most glorious of destinations. Many fear that globalization will lead to cultural uniformity or even deformity, yet the reality is that transculturalism is the intricate process of creating new evolution and diversity. The facilitation of dialogue between cultures must therefore, by no means, be feared, as only through dialogue we can put an end to conflict, put aside the elements which divide us and celebrate those which unite us.

Cultures today are in general characterized by *hybridization*. For every culture, all other cultures have tendentially come to be inner-content or satellites. This applies on the levels of population, merchandise and information. Worldwide, in most countries, live members of all other countries of this planet; and more and more, the same articles – as exotic as they may once have been – are becoming available the world over; finally the global networking of communications technology makes all kinds of information identically available from every point in space. (Welsch, 1999: 198)

The words of Welsch are once again relevant in the sense that the need for cultural purity always leads to isolation, conflict and extremism, and only by allowing ourselves to meet, learn and accept cultures from all over the globe, can we truly reach our full potential.

3.1. Interculturalism and the educational perspective

Approaching interculturalism from an educational perspective, it is relevant to know that in the year two thousand, experts in education from the European Council gathered in Lisbon in order to define the fundamental competences related to language and culture in today's knowledge-based modern society. Speaking foreign languages together with the use of computers in the fields of communication and information dissemination, technological culture, entrepreneurial culture as well as social and interactional competences will provide key abilities in the development of contemporary man. The European Council is fully aware of the essential role played by linguistic and intercultural competences in the economic, political and cultural progress of a new Europe. In this respect, the prerequisites are quite obvious:

- each European citizen should know at least two foreign languages apart from the mother tongue;
- the process of teaching foreign languages should start at a pre-school stage
- the respective foreign languages should be utilised in the teaching process as much as possible.

In addition, European citizens must become fully aware of the possibilities of personal and professional growth, facilitated, of course, by their ability to speak several foreign languages.

In the methodology of learning and teaching foreign languages, created and supported by the European Union, an essential objective is to create the intercultural speaker. In this sense, we are not just dealing with a simple formulation of a system based on the correct use of language from a grammatical standpoint, we are also compelled to explore our capacity to evaluate a system of values provided by each and every language

independently, gain the capacity to process any misunderstandings caused by potential cultural differences. This way, the process of learning and teaching foreign languages manifests a dynamic shift in focus. Learning foreign languages within a multicultural context means mastering those languages for a better intercultural communication.

The stronger an individual is connected to his own language, culture, cognitive and co-actional values, the harder it is for that individual to accept another culture and perceive diversity as a normal phenomenon. Teaching foreign languages with the help of a teacher has the key function to help young people develop multicultural receptiveness in their way of thinking, rescuing them from a potentially harmful ethnocentrism.

The main objective in the process of learning and teaching foreign languages is constituted by communication itself, namely the individual's capacity to understand and to speak a foreign language. The question that is raised when the concept of intercultural communication is brought into focus refers to the relationship between communication and culture. By learning foreign languages we will be able to learn about other cultures, and by learning about those foreign cultures, we will be able to master those foreign languages as a result of this symbiotic duality.

The link between language and reality is, however, far more complex than the previous statement would suggest. The theories of Sapir and Whorf predicate that the perception of the world is greatly influenced by linguistic structures already possessing an image of reality. The two linguists considered a totally independent perception of reality as illusory because "the world presents itself within a flux of kaleidoscopic impressions which must be organised and perceived through our mind's eye, and that entails that we are compelled to resort to the linguistic systems inside our minds" (Whorf, 1956: 213). Further exploring Whorf's theory, many scholars from the field of communication and linguistics, such as Hymes (1972), agree that the two cannot be taken and analysed separately:

From a finite experience of speech acts and their interdependence with sociocultural features, they develop a general theory of speaking appropriate for their community, which they employ, like other forms of tacit cultural knowledge (competence) in conducting and interpreting social life [...] From a communicative standpoint, judgements of appropriateness may not be assigned to different spheres, as between the linguistic and the cultural; certainly the spheres of the two will intersect. (Hymes, 1972: 279, 286)

This theory, which claims that our perception of the world is determined by language, was also explored and even brought to extremes.

According to de Saussure's theory, that each phoneme can only be determined within its own system, we discover that the concept known in philosophy and linguistics as a linguistic turn is strongly connected to the predication that the signification of a notion can only be identified inside the linguistic system, implying that language is the final reality at our disposal preventing us from knowing what exists outside of it. In other words, objects are created only when we talk about them, every language producing its own reality from raw material.

Furthermore, there are numerous critical voices, especially associated with the concept of *lingua franca*, which combat the relationship between language and culture, exploring the possibility to ignore this interdependence within certain communicational situations, if we are to consider Henry Widdowson's (1988) theory on the pedagogy of learning a foreign language:

A language will obviously develop so as to meet the conceptual and communicative requirements of its users and users will exploit it to express their own cultural values. But one can learn and use a language in dissociation from its past or present cultural affinities. There is no equation between language and culture (...) You do not have to take the language and the culture as a package deal. The two are not bound inextricably together. The symbolic relationship between them is not fixed. (Widdowson, 1988: 18)

4. Conclusion

However, people have been successful at learning foreign languages mainly because of the existing similarities between their respective linguistic systems which are ultimately emphasised through the interaction of languages, as Hilary Putnam claims while criticising relativism in linguistics: "What we say about the world reflects our conceptual choices and our interests, but its truth and falsity is not simply determined by our conceptual choices and our interests." (Putnam, 1992: 58)

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Rezumat: Educația interculturală nu trebuie asimilată multilingvismului (diversificarea ofertei de programe de limbi străine într-un sistem educațional) sau plurilingvismului (abilitatea de a utiliza mai multe limbi străine), ci adecvării funcționale la diverse situații de comunicare. Este evident că o limbă străină poate fi învățată doar dacă utilizatorii lingvistici sunt puși în situații reale de comunicare. Învățarea unei limbi străine nu depinde doar de asimilarea unor tipare lingvistice, ci și de însușirea unor norme de comportament și convenții culturale. Astfel, această ultimă componentă nu poate fi însușită prin furnizarea de definiții sau referințe lexicale. Cel mai adesea, este nevoie de contextualizare. Învățarea unei limbi implică următorii factori: identitate culturală, stereotipuri, competență de comunicare și dinamică identitară într-un cadru ce permite dezvoltarea culturală.

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Errors and Error-Making in E. Albee's *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?*

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Abstract: The paper is a pragmatic analysis of the various types of linguistic errors and mistakes characterizing the communicative behavior of the characters in E. Albee's *Who's afraid of Virginia Woolf?* In terms of cognitive poetics frame, each character gains prominence at one point or another, and it is precisely his/her errors and mistakes that will turn them into figures and, at the same time, instantiate the process of defamiliarization with them as prototypes. The situational context (psychological context included) represents the ground, acting both as a 'facilitator' of such errors, and as a trigger of their sanctioning. A linguistic error often leads to an error of judgment which causes an error of action. The characters of the play, as evolutive referents, illustrate this causal relationship.

Keywords: *linguistic error, evolutive referent, figure, ground, context.*

1. Introduction

1.1. Error vs. mistake

As The Merriam-Webster Dictionary defines it, *an error* is an act or condition involving ignorance or imprudence, therefore unintentionality, resulting in a deviation from what is true, accurate or correct.¹ The first meaning of the word refers to a code of behavior; consequently, the linguistic errors of a user mean a deviation from a code of behavior functioning as a norm and a criterion of social identification. In case of fictional texts, as in everyday life, linguistic errors produce the defamiliarization with their producers as prototypes.

On the other hand, a mistake is the result of a wrong judgment or of an incorrect understanding or identification. Unintentionality is not explicitly specified in defining the term *mistake*, so it can be regarded as linked more to erring as a process and covering both voluntary and involuntary cases of error.

¹ "an act or condition of ignorant or imprudent deviation from a code of behaviour; an act involving an unintentional deviation from truth or accuracy; an act that through ignorance, deficiency or accident departs from or fails to achieve what should be done; [...]" (www.merriam-webster.com)

If speech is action, linguistic errors are errors of action caused by judgment errors, and this is how they appear against the general conventions or the beliefs of one or the other of the characters. At the same time, such errors would, in their turn, produce an error of judgment in the interlocutors' interpretation process. Judgment errors become precursors of the speakers' linguistic errors and potential triggers of the interlocutors' understanding errors.

1.2. Figure vs. ground in context(ualization)

The binary notion of figure and ground (Stockwell, 2002) offers a frame that can facilitate the process of interpreting the explicit or implied meanings expressed by the utterances containing linguistic mistakes. The characters exhibiting such errors become figures against the common ground represented by the narrow situational context of the verbal exchange and also by the larger distinct socio-cultural backgrounds of each character; therefore, other characters can themselves represent the ground against which another character gains prominence.

Referring to socio-cultural determination, it is discourse analysis frame which suggests "ways in which features of social structure need to be treated as context" (Blommaert, 2005: 39), since they determine power dynamics and balance during the interaction. "The way in which language fits into context is what creates meaning, what makes it (mis)understandable to others" (idem: 39-40). Contextualization facilitates meaning expression and interpretation (be it right or wrong) due to some "cues" (both verbal and nonverbal) related to grammatical signs and drawn on socio-cultural knowledge (Gumperz, 1992: 42), affecting understanding, which is itself always a framed one (idem: 43-44). Blommaert (2005: 41) asserts that any form of framing is linguistic and cognitive, resulting in systems of contextualization conventions; this would account for the general facet of understanding; at the same time, the specificity of contextualization as a necessary condition of understanding lies in its social and cultural dimension. A general and comprehensive definition of contextualization would retain the feature [+heterogeneous]²;

Since the role of the interlocutors is fundamental, it results that contextualization is by definition dialogical and the essential element is the interpretation of an utterance by the interlocutor(s), their uptake (Austin, 1962) or responsive understanding (Bakhtin, 1986). The uptake, depending

² It "comprises all activities by participants which make relevant, maintain, revise, cancel... any aspect of context which, in turn, is responsible for the interpretation of an utterance in its particular locus of occurrence." (Auer, 1992: 4)

on the temporal sequencing of the verbal interaction, is active and transformative. According to Blommaert (2005: 44-45) dialogue does not presuppose co-operativity, sharedness or symmetry in contextualizing power. Co-operativity becomes, thus, a variable, not a rule (cf. Grice's Cooperative Principle and meaning negotiation); lack of sharedness concerns language and language variety, the referential and indexical meanings attributed to basic linguistic units (words), to basic pragmatic units (utterances), or to more complex pragmatic superordinate levels, such as speech events; regarding power, interpreters don't have equal access and control over contextualized universes: access and control are rather unilateral, therefore, imposed. The prominence of a character will be given by his/her temporary access and control to power, language power included.

Language is involved in offering conditions for uptake, but the process of interpretation is a fully social one (Blommaert, 2005), based on power and inequality. The intertwining between linguistic and non-linguistic dimensions of interpretation may account for the contextualization taking the form of both *intertextuality* and *entextualisation* (Blommaert, 2005 following Bauman and Briggs, 1990; Silverstein and Urban, 1996). Whereas intertextuality links discourse analysis to social, political and cultural histories of word use, causing correspondent effects, entextualisation refers to the "process by means of which discourses are successively or simultaneously decontextualised and metadiscursively recontextualised, so that they become a new discourse associated to a new context and accompanied by a particular metadiscourse which provides a sort of 'preferred reading' for the discourse." (Blommaert, 2005: 47-48)

Contextualization is comparable, at least in some linguists' view, to Goffman's (*multiple*) *frames* (Goffman, 1974), i.e. implies a process of *footing* choice or *footing* shift in interpretation, given the interpretive universes in which utterances are set and offered for interpretation: for instance, the interpreter can choose to frame an utterance as "serious" or a joke.

Nevertheless, this process of contextualization can follow a wrong direction, misplacing utterances in contexts (intentionally or not), which might lead to misunderstandings, conflicts or breakdowns of communication (Blommaert, 2005: 42); unbalanced power relations and categorization according to race, gender, ethnicity, religion etc, favor negative effects in everyday interaction, but such confrontations triggered by misplacing utterances in contexts might also contribute to the shaping and re-shaping of the users' identities. The mismatch text-context affects the words, the identities of the interlocutors and the whole situation of communication.

Though classifiable as members of discourse communities as a result of their socio-professional and (partly derived from the former) cultural

status, users (real or fictional) can exhibit linguistic patterns that might have been subconscious, or, even if apparent, are not generally interpreted as definitory. Nevertheless, they can become so, instantiating the character as an evolutive referent (Adam 2008).

2. Language errors in E. Albee's *Who's afraid of Virginia Woolf?*

Blommaert (2005: 44-45) asserts the link between the exclusive access to particular contextual spaces and power and authority in society: according to Briggs (1997) and Barthes (1957), the variable degree of access and control is a feature of power and inequality. The characters in Albee's play are academics, therefore, as members of this professional and social group, are subject to the unequal access to contextualized spaces. Also, class and gender are features which facilitate/block access to the contextual spaces each of them gives birth to. All the characters in Albee's play are circumscribed to certain contextual spaces according to gender, class and socio-professional status. The identity of each character is revealed through its multiple facets and constantly subject to change according to the appropriate or inappropriate contextualization of their replies.

Language errors, true or apparent, are a marker of lack of sharedness, regarding language variety and indexical meanings, and also a marker of power asymmetries along the axes represented by gender, class and socio-professional status. Alliances and rivalries are successively formed in the fight for power, and, thus, for (self-)recognition. The contextualization of a speaker's linguistic behavior as containing an error, and being itself consequently inappropriate, reflects the antagonistic relationships between the interlocutors.

Linguistic errors can be divided into three classes, though all three are a reflection of the user's communicative behavior: grammar, semantic and pragmatic errors. We will focus on the first two categories.

The first class is illustrated the least in the text and, at first sight, grammar errors would represent the most serious type of errors, potentially declassifying the character socially, but, in fact, it is pragmatic errors that appear as more easily noticeable in interactions and more consequential, being explicitly sanctioned. The separation of errors into the three categories is somewhat artificial, since both grammar and semantic errors may reflect an error of attitude, in its turn, a marker of power asymmetries. Throughout the text such errors, sometimes false, are meant to assert the supremacy of the sanctioning agent in point of his/her status. Grammar and semantic errors will be discussed as pertaining to the two major sources: George and Martha, the characters illustrating a multifaceted conflict.

George, allegedly having the highest socio-professional status of all the characters, feels it is his duty to correct all those considered as being inferior to him from one perspective or another. But he also makes self-corrections, his excessive preoccupation with language dominating human emotions, even in critical situations. His major conflict is with his wife, but that conflict subsumes the conflicts with the young couple visiting them, to the extent to which the latter are used as “ammunition” by Martha to prove that George is a failure in more than one way.

The first grammar error we refer to is a harmless observation of George’s:

GEORGE. I can’t remember all the pictures that ...

MARTHA. Nobody’s asking you to remember every single goddamn Warner Brothers epic ... just one! [...] Bette Davis gets peritonitis in the end [...] and she’s married to Joseph Cotton or something ...

GEORGE. ... Somebody ...

MARTHA. ... somebody ... (Act I, p. 6)

We consider the correction harmless since it follows almost automatically from a character whose identity is essentially his social role. By emphasizing the pronoun *I*, George implies a contrast with his wife, and, implicitly makes reference to a contextual space (that of academics) that Martha does not really understand, and has a superficial access to. At the same time, George might be attempting to assert his gender role that excludes discussions on trifles: Martha makes an error but George’s correction is interpreted by her as an intentional mistake in contextualizing her utterance. She apparently accepts the correction, though her attitude expresses annoyance at the fact that George focuses on irrelevant aspects, i.e. form, when it is the topic that he should be focusing on. So, she partly misplaces his utterance in context.

In point of socio-cultural knowledge, George is superior, the figure, from the perspective of the link appearance-prestige, but it is Martha who is perceived by the reader as the figure, since she is brighter and more attractive by her lack of linguistic rigidity. In fact, the pronoun used, *something*, can be considered a part of an expression, and not a substitute of a noun denoting a [+human] referent, which would have obligatorily required the use of *someone*. The characters’ different linguistic choice is a marker of unsharedness.

The previous verbal exchange is symmetrical and also opposed to the one between George and Honey, when the former, the prominent character himself (the figure) is corrected by an allegedly inferior

interlocutor (in gender and status). *Someone*, generally used in free variation with *somebody*, seems to be entextualized, acquiring the feature [+definite reference] and even an affective connotation marking [+prestige]; the scene is a one imagined by the characters and presented as true:

GEORGE. [...] the bells rang ... and it was someone...

HONEY. Somebody. ... (Act II, p. 143)

Another verbal exchange which is symmetrical and opposite to the first one presented involves the same characters. Martha cannot leave her husband, George, unsanctioned when he uses a grammatical form she does not consider correct. Their unsharedness in point of the register used is again obvious. But the balance of power will remain shifted to George, who will assert this power, not only as a more proficient language user, but also as a younger male. Status, gender and age are exploited to maintain him as the figure in the context; his linguistic choice is entextualised so as to express gender and age superiority; his choice of the form specific to British English, thus, *older*, is associated to the seniority of his wife in relation to him; if in the first example quoted his error intentionality was questionable, now it is certain:

GEORGE [...]. Well now, let me see. I've got the ice ...

MARTHA. ... gotten ...

GEORGE. Got, Martha. Got is perfectly correct ... it's just a little archaic, like you. (Act II, p. 133)

If in the verbal exchange above Martha was defeated, she will succeed in shaming her husband in front of an inferior status colleague. By correcting her husband's choice of words, she marks his error of attitude regarding his own value. The play with the NP is a play with self-images, involving the opposition lofty ideals vs. petty local glory which ensures social climbing. Actually, Martha projects her own ambitions on her husband, reproaching him something which is far from being his preoccupation, but is constantly hers:

GEORGE. I seem preoccupied with history.

MARTHA. George is not preoccupied with history. George is preoccupied with the History Department. (Act I, p. 42)

This perspective is ironically accepted and internalized by George, who presents it in front of his colleague, in order to implicitly mark his

intellectual and conceptual superiority. The prepositions are thus entextualised and become markers of the referent's identity, therefore, we are faced in fact with a pragmatic error which encodes a conceptual mistake: *I'm in the History Department ... as opposed to **being** the History Department* (Act I, p. 32).

Not even when he thinks of extremely severe topics, such as the potential mental disorder of Martha or his imaginary son, considered a true being by Martha, is George capable of re-setting his mind as to disregard grammar errors, or at least to place them on the second position in importance. His socio-professional role has captured him completely, he cannot step out of it; the observations above are valid for another example of George's linguistic behavior: he is engaged in a verbal exchange with Nick and the topic is sending Martha to a rest home.

GEORGE. If I were ... her ... she ... I would. (Act I, p. 75)

The oscillation between the forms of Nominative and Accusative of personal pronouns can be contextualized as an attempt to become more human in the sense that perfection of form is not the supreme ideal. George's self-correction is an example of hyper-correctness, of avoiding using spoken language; at the same time, his hesitations denote his low self-image and his self-doubt, his inner struggle to live up to his socio-professional role. The seriousness of the topic is rendered by an utterance containing hesitations, "cues" in contextualizing it correctly; George expresses his despair and imagines a possible solution for ending what seems a never-ending conflict; but even under such circumstances, he remains the figure, the flawless language user in front of a colleague who is not his peer.

An equally serious topic, but which is subsumed to the former, is that of George and Martha's imaginary son, referred to as if he were real. The make-believe world created by the two spouses is a result of Martha's distorted life view and troubled mind. But, in spite of his better judgment, George goes along with the pretense, since deep down he thinks that parenthood is an essential part of the stereotypical gender role requirements:

GEORGE. Ohhh. (Too formal) When is our son coming home?

[...]

MARTHA. I said never mind. I'm sorry I brought it up.

*GEORGE. **Him** up ... not **it**. You brought **him** up. Well, more or less.*
(Act I, p. 60)

This context of interpretation is justified by the “cue” represented by the paralinguistic devices: his tone shows that he is apparently totally immersed into the make-believe world. It is a way of beating Martha with her own weapons. Martha senses the danger and makes an attempt to withdraw, but George forces her to remain within the imaginary world and face the consequences: that is the significance of the play with words, in the form of the balance between the pronouns *it* and *him*. *It* refers to the topic – a result of a sick(ening) imagination –, it is a discourse deictic, but can also be the imaginary child, void of any materiality, just a mental projection. The whole verbal exchange expresses sharedness, equal access to the contextualized universe, but unequal control over it. It is George who has the position of power and the use of *him* (the masculine form of the personal pronoun in the Accusative) is to be contextualized as a way of forcing Martha to give material consistence to her fantasy and acknowledge her failure in assuming her gender role as a mother.

Martha will retaliate and proceed similarly by dehumanizing and then simply de-materializing her husband:

MARTHA. I actually fell for him ... it ... that, there. (Act I, p. 69)

The use of the pronouns reflects that process: from *him* she gets to *it*, marking not only the feature [-human], or even [-animate], but also the connotative feature [+scorn]. The process of referent reification is completed by the use of the distal demonstrative *that*, which becomes an empathetic deictic designating an amorphous entity and connoting repulsion; the referential chain ends with the use of a distal place deictic in the form of the adverb *there*: contextualized, this last word choice expresses the refusal to refer linguistically to a referent that is not worthy of it; simply pointing at him is enough (and the adverb requires the ostensive use to indicate a referent), since words seem to become useless and inadequate. Martha’s utterance also connotes self-despise, revolt and bitterness: that is the contextualization of the utterance as a whole.

The result of her feelings and of acting in accordance with them was her marriage. It was Martha who seems to have been the active element, not George, and that is in contradiction with the traditional gender roles. Martha’s linguistic behavior is a reflection of her compliance with traditional values, and her revenge at being forced to step out of traditional gender role frame will be expressed linguistically. After denying her husband the status of a human being, or as a being, for that matter, Martha aims at destroying the core of his profile in relation to her: his manhood. His quality of a man implies the features [+action], [+initiative], while in reality

he behaves like a patient, not like an agent in control of things. Passively, he accepts to be turned into a groom:

MARTHA. He was the groom ... he was going to be groomed. (Act I, p. 71)

Martha corrects what she considers to be her grammar error, caused by an error of judgment: the first part of the utterance emphasizes George's quality as a groom, the nominal predicate expressing passivity in a milder way; then, she is not satisfied with the emphatic strength of the structure and reformulates the idea by using a passive construction. Of course, the passivity of the referent (i.e. George) is to be contextualized in relation to the authority of Martha's father and in relation to her uncontrolled instincts intertwined with a conservative view of gender roles, therefore, his lack of volition is the result of power asymmetries.

From all the examples above it is obvious that George, the counterpart of Martha, is in a permanent conflict with his wife, the conflict being perceived as the condition of their relationship, as what keeps them together. Therefore, any temporary ally of Martha is used to help her belittle her husband. One of these unwilling allies is Nick, a new colleague of George, working at the Department of Biology. Nick's specialty becomes an element that Martha is taking advantage of to prove the obsolete character of George's domain, history. She does not do that directly, but praises Nick's domain of research.

MARTHA. Biology's even better. It's less ... abstruse.

GEORGE. Abstract.

MARTHA. ABSTRUSE! In the sense of recondite. (sticks her tongue out at George) (Act I, p. 54)

Obviously, Martha does not neglect the most important area of George's profile, his intellectual status. Their conflict involves semantic aspects because the right choice of words and the full knowledge of their meanings are qualities that George takes pride in and uses as weapons. In this case, Martha intentionally provokes George to a semantic dispute, but the error should be entextualised against the background of the relationship with her husband; George contextualizes the term wrongly, considering it an error in the light of a narrow perspective, while Martha's meaning is much more profound and bluntly expressed. *Abstruse* vs. *abstract* means objective vs. subjective meaning. Domains are used to stand for people in the context, and people (i.e. George vs. Nick) are to be opposed strictly considering Martha's intentions at the moment of uttering. Her gesture of sticking her

tongue out at George is a proof that the formality of the terms and the seriousness of the topic of profession are just pretexts to assert her power. Her admiration of the domain of biology is an index of her interest in Nick, which, in its turn, is an expression of her exaggerating the sexual dimension of her gender role.

In relation to his younger colleague, Nick, George maintains himself within the domain of the professional, hierarchical and cold friendship, and forces Nick to enter an unknown space. Nick's semantic errors derive from his inability to contextualize correctly the utterances, therefore, his uptake is impossible unless he is really offered conditions for that, and that is exactly what George is not willing to do, because he would risk his position of power and control of the discourse. Their talk about a painting goes like that:

NICK. It's got a ... a ...

GEORGE. A quiet intensity?

NICK. Well, no, ... a ...

GEORGE. Oh (Pause) Well, then a certain noisy relaxed quality

NICK(knows what George is doing but stays grimly, coolly polite). No. What I meant was ...

GEORGE. How about ... uh ... a quietly noisy relaxed intensity. (Act I, p. 19)

George behaves apparently like a good host, trying to help his guest express himself. But, in fact, he asserts his power within the professional and hierarchical sphere, and increases gradually the intensity of the irony, by producing ever stronger oxymora: *a certain noisy relaxed quality, a quietly noisy relaxed intensity*. His semantic errors are intentional and are meant as a critique aimed at those academics whose false public image includes the feature [+snobbery].

Nick is considered to be such a person and, since he is implicitly treated as an enemy, George will resort to his sarcasm "wrapped" in falsely naïve politeness. Even Nick's simple request would be analysed and interpreted literally as containing a semantic ambiguity:

NICK. Bourbon on the rocks, if you don't mind.

GEORGE. Mind? No, I don't mind. I don't think I mind. [...] (Act I, p. 20)

The verb *to mind* is interpreted as expressing two meanings in the sentences making up the utterance. Appropriately contextualized, Nick's utterance was supposed to be interpreted as a pragmatic marker of politeness, which means the verb *mind* is void of its denotative meaning. On the contrary, George displays an example of verbal banter by loading the

verb successively with its denotative meanings: $mind_1$ “upset” in *No, I don't mind₁* and $mind_2$ “care” in *I don't think I mind₂*. In the first case, the literal interpretation of the verb $mind_1$ implies George's role as a host (and can be interpreted as referring to everything that is going to happen throughout the play and is related to him as Martha's husband), whereas $mind_2$ can be associated to all George's roles, determined by age, gender, socio-professional and intellectual status.

Another marker of unsharedness and asymmetrical power in the relationship between the two interlocutors is the metaphor George appeals to, *Parnassus*, to describe the circle of academics and their families, dominated by the President of the University, Martha's father:

GEORGE. *That what you were drinking over at Parnassus?*

NICK. *Over at ... ?*

GEORGE. *Parnassus.*

NICK. *I don't understand. ...*

GEORGE. *Skip it. [...] It's a private joke between li'l ol' Martha and me.*

(Act I, p. 26)

The metaphor is used ironically, because, from the point of view of his socio-professional, intellectual and moral role, George considers himself superior to the “inhabitants” of Parnassus; thus contextualized, George's last reply, marked by an exaggerated informality, criticizes their hollow formalism. Thus, George intends to turn his marginalization into a victory. From this perspective, he allows himself to despise Nick, viewed as a social climber, who is happy to get integrated into the local community of academics.

As mentioned before, Nick is objectively unable to interpret the utterance correctly and is kept outside the contextualized universe that would allow the interpretation. Viewing Nick as a potential threat for his gender role, George asserts the existence of a contextualized universe to which only he and his wife belong, and which is accessible only to them: *It's a private joke between li'l ol' Martha and me*. Blocking the appropriate contextualization, the speaker creates a breakdown in communication, which is the prerequisite of a potential conflict. He apparently tries to avoid that risk, but, in fact, a conflict would give him the opportunity to maintain his superiority.

3. Conclusions

Errors reflect a speaker's (un)intentional meaning in a certain context. This is proven by the examples analysed: the same utterance can

include components requiring different contextualizations, some in a relationship of inclusion to the others. Consequently, the meanings expressed can be complementary or opposite, the latter reflecting the antinomy appearance-essence. The analysed grammar and semantic errors are linguistic instances of biased (i.e. mistaken) judgments and beliefs, and, as forms of communicative behaviour, they are most skillfully manipulated by George (their source and/or interpreter). He is the “coordinator” of these devices turned into “sharp knives” struck out at the closest people and at himself. In this respect, George appears as an evolutive referent and the trigger of the other characters’ evolutive path. Moreover, against the background represented by the others’ politeness, lesser competence or, on the contrary, challenging replies, George constitutes the figure around whom everything/everybody else revolves.

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Rezumat: Articolul este o analiză pragmatică a diverselor tipuri de greșeli lingvistice ce caracterizează comportamentul comunicativ al personajelor din piesa lui E. Albee's *Who's afraid of Virginia Woolf?* Din perspectiva cadrului teoretic oferit de poetica cognitivă, fiecare personaj iese în relief la un moment dat și tocmai greșelile sunt cele care contribuie la această reliefare, în același timp, producând defamiliarizarea cu prototipul personajului. Contextul situațional (inclusiv cel psihologic) reprezintă concretizarea conceptului de *ground*, acționând atât ca facilitator al erorilor, cât și ca declanșator al sancționării lor. O greșeală lingvistică atrage o eroare de judecată care duce la o acțiune greșită. Ca referenți evolutivi, personajele piesei ilustrează această relație cauzală.

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Translation Procedures as Means of Achieving Flawless EU Translations. A Corpus-based Analysis

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Abstract: The present paper attempts to approach several translation procedures from the point of view of their usefulness to translators by enabling them to make the most suitable translation choices, thus avoiding possible translation inadequacies. On the basis of bilingual English-Romanian examples, we discuss certain cases of *one-to-one translation*, *transference*, *through translation*, *recognized translation*, *modulation*, *transposition*, *paraphrase*, *componential analysis*, *expansion* (including *explicitation*) and *reduction* (including *implicitation*), which lead to flawless translations that are proper to the TL naturalness and linguistic norms, as well as to the formal and/or legal style.

For the purpose of our analysis, we use a bilingual corpus of EU legal documents, which contains the English versions along with their official Romanian translations.

Keywords: *translation procedures, suitable translation choices, TL naturalness and linguistic norms, formal and legal style, EU legal documents.*

1. Introduction

The present paper is focused on a bilingual corpus-based analysis attempting to reveal the ways in which several translation procedures enable translators to avoid possible translation inadequacies. On the basis of bilingual English-Romanian examples, we discuss some cases of translation procedures that we consider helpful to Romanian translators as regards the obtaining of adequate translation results that preserve the meanings of the ST, comply with the TL well-formedness, as well as meet EU formal and/or legal style requirements.

It is important to point out that the translation solutions under discussion are either intuitively or intentionally used by the Romanian translators. However, in either case we can identify the occurrence of a certain translation procedure which, being the result of either a mandatory or optional choice, ensures the production of flawless translations.

2. Bilingual Corpus-based Analysis

I. One-to-one translation is based on *collocational meanings* and it involves that “each SL word has a corresponding TL word, *but their primary (isolated) meanings may differ.*” (Newmark, 1988: 69)

The analysis of our bilingual English-Romanian corpus of EU legal documents provides many cases of *one-to-one translation* as regards verbal collocations.

1. “shall <i>enter into</i> a (guarantee) <i>agreement</i> ” [1]	„ <i>încheie un acord</i> (de garantare)”
2. “should <i>pay</i> (particular) <i>attention</i> to” [2]	„ar trebui <i>să acorde</i> o <i>atenție</i> (deosebită)”
3. “it <i>meets the requirements</i> ” [3]	„aceasta <i>respectă cerințele</i> ”

In these three examples, the English collocations “*to enter into an agreement*,” “*to pay attention*,” “*to meet requirements*” have the corresponding Romanian collocations “*a încheia un acord*,” “*a acorda atenție*” and “*a respecta cerințele*,” the primary/isolated meanings of the English and Romanian head verbs being different (“to enter” – “a intra”; “to pay” – “a plăti,” “to meet” – “a (se) întâlni”).

4. “shall <i>carry out his mandate</i> ” [4]	„ <i>își exercită mandatul</i> ”
5. “ <i>make comments</i> ” [2]	„ <i>formulează observații</i> ”
6. “ <i>have the capacity</i> to produce” [5]	„ <i>dispun de capacitatea</i> de a elabora”
7. “It is of particular importance to <i>have an early exchange of views</i> between the Commission, the EEAS and the EIB.” [1]	„Este deosebit de important <i>să existe un schimb de opinii</i> într-un stadiu timpuriu între Comisie, SEAE și BEI.”
8. “should not <i>give</i> (any person) <i>an entitlement to enter</i> ” [5]	„nu ar trebui <i>să confere</i> (niciunei persoane) <i>dreptul de intrare</i> ”

In examples (4-8), the translator has chosen corresponding Romanian collocations which conform to the official and elegant style. Therefore, the English collocations “*to carry out one’s mandate*,” “*to make comments*,” “*have the capacity*,” “*have an exchange of views*,” “*to give someone an entitlement to*” have the corresponding Romanian collocations “*a-ți exercita mandatul*,” “*a formula observații*,” “*a dispune de capacitatea*,” “*a exista un schimb de opinii*,” “*a conferi cuiva dreptul de*,” while the primary meanings of the head verbs are different (“to carry out” – “a îndeplini (“a duce la îndeplinire”)/executa/realiza;” “to make” – “a face;”

“have” – “a avea;” “give” – “a da”). The other corresponding Romanian collocations containing head verbs that have the same primary meanings as the English ones could also have been used, but they are less proper to the formal context.

In (7), the verbal collocation “*have an exchange of views*” is felicitously translated as “*a exista un schimb de opinii*.” The use of the Romanian collocation “*a avea un schimb de opinii*” would have been inappropriate here, as it would have led to a cacophony in Romanian (“*este deosebit de important ca Comisia, SEAE și BEI să aibă un schimb de opinii*”).

II. Transference (*borrowing/emprunt/loan word*) involves the direct transfer of a lexical unit under its original form from the SL into the TL, being usually used to make up for a TL lacuna or to render the SL flavour for stylistic effects. (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1958/1995: 31-32), (Newmark, 1988: 81-82)

We have noticed that the Latin words/phrases used in the English EU documents making up our corpus are usually preserved in the TT, although there are Romanian translations for such phrases.

1. “ <i>prima facie</i> (evidence of <i>dumping</i> (of the said product))” [6]	„(elemente de probă) <i>prima facie</i> (care atestau existența) <i>dumpingului</i> (în ceea ce privește produsul în cauză)”
2. “Article 14 shall apply <i>mutatis mutandis</i> ” [2]	„se aplică <i>mutatis mutandis</i> articolul 14”

As we can see in these two examples, the Latin phrases “*prima facie*” and “*mutatis mutandis*” are transferred as such into the TT. The translator’s option to preserve them is a good one, since they are shorter than their translations (“[*așa cum lucrurile apar*] *la prima vedere*”¹; “*schimbând ceea ce este de schimbat*”²) and the Romanian legal documents also contain such Latin phrases. Thus, their borrowing complies with the Romanian legal writing.

Moreover, in example (1), the term “*dumping*,” which refers to the action of “sending goods to a foreign market for sale at a low price” (ODT, 2007: 315), is borrowed into the TT. A *paraphrase* would have been useless in this case, as this borrowed economics term, which has become part of the Romanian vocabulary as a neologism (Marcu, 2008: 323), is used as such in all Romanian specialized works.

¹ http://www.dictionar-online.ro/expresii_latinessti.php?id=prima%20facie

² <http://dexonline.ro/definitie/mutatis+mutandis>

3. “ <i>Feedback</i> on information sent” [7]	„(transmiterea) <i>unui feedback</i> (cu privire la informațiile trimise)”
4. “may apply to the <i>Ombudsman</i> ” [4]	„se poate adresa <i>Ombudsmanului</i> ”
5. “(the Commission’s representatives and) <i>Banco de Santander S.A.</i> ” [8]	„(reprezentanții Comisiei și) <i>Banco de Santander S.A.</i> ”

In (3), the word “*feedback*” has been transferred into the Romanian translation, as it has become more used than its possible corresponding words “*reacție*” or “*răspuns*.” The word “*feedback*” has already entered the Romanian vocabulary as a neologism, according to MDN (Marcu, 2008: 385), thus the translator has chosen to preserve it in the TT while keeping up with the language tendencies. We notice the use of the indefinite article “*unui*,” which confirms the increasing usage of the noun “*feedback*” in Romanian.

In (4), the word “*Ombudsman*” is part of EU vocabulary, representing a concept that has entered the Romanian lexicon under the original form (Marcu, 2008: 661). By transferring this EU term, as well as others, into all the languages of the Member States, the communication between the official languages becomes easier, creating a common EU culture. The fact that this word has been taken over into Romanian is also proved by the definite article attached to it (“*Ombudsmanului*”).

Example (5) indicates that the Spanish name of a bank, “*Banco de Santander S.A.*,” has been preserved both in the ST and in the TT. It could have been translated both into English (“*Bank of Santander*”/“*Santander Bank*”) and into Romanian (“*Banca din Santander*”/“*Banca Santander*”). Taking into account that it has been transferred under the Spanish name in the ST, it is better to preserve it in the TT as well, creating uniformity as regards designations between EU texts. In this way, it is easily identified at referential level and it also renders the local colour.

III. *Through translation* (calque/loan translation) refers to the transfer of a SL word or phrase into the TL by means of a literal translation of its component elements. (Delisle et al., 1999: 122)

With reference to our previous study (Reiss, 2013: 98-106), in which we enlarged upon the occurrence of *through translation* in the official Romanian translations of English EU legal documents, we briefly point out several cases. Our bilingual corpus contains many ST *specialized collocations and phrases* whose forms and meanings are faithfully reproduced in the TT, as shown in the following table.

“measurable heat” [9]	„căldură măsurabilă”
“multiannual financial framework” [1]	„cadru financiar multianual”
“Contracting Parties” [3]	„părți contractante”
“free circulation” [10]	„liberă circulație”
“open-source software” [11]	„program cu sursă deschisă”
“non-classified sensitive information” [2]	„informații sensibile neclasificate”
“target company” [8]	„întreprindere-țintă”

We have also encountered *through translations of collocations and phrases belonging to EU field* that achieve better transparency and facilitate communication among EU official languages. We consider that they are *recognized translations*, being officially accepted and used unchanged in all Romanian EU translations.

“European Neighbourhood Policy” [1]	„politica europeană de vecinătate”
“tripartite memorandum of understanding” [1]	„memorandumul de înțelegere tripartit”
“pan-European undertakings” [8]	„întreprinderi paneuropene”
“the principles of subsidiarity and proportionality” [4]	„principiile subsidiarității și proporționalității”
“European political awareness” [4]	„conștiință politică europeană”
“the common foreign and security policy” [4]	„politica externă și de securitate comună”

In addition, our bilingual corpus displays some English EU *acronyms/initialisms* switched into Romanian according to the *through translation* of the words they designate.

EU (European Union) [8]	UE (Uniunea Europeană)
TFEU (Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union) [8]	TFUE (Tratatul privind funcționarea Uniunii Europene)
EIB Group (European Investment Bank) [1]	grupul BEI (Banca Europeană de Investiții)
EBRD (European Bank for Reconstruction and Development) [1]	BERD (Banca Europeană pentru Reconstrucție și Dezvoltare)

IV. *Recognized translation* occurs when the translator uses “the official or the generally accepted translation of any institutional term.” (Newmark, 1988: 89)

The examples provided in the table below, namely names of EU institutions and bodies, the position held by an EU official and the name of an EU official document, represent *recognized translations*. The Romanian translators use all the officially recognized translations as they are indicated in the *Romanian Style Guide for the Use of Translators of the Acquis Communautaire*.³

“the European Parliament” ”the European Commission” ”the Court of Justice of the European Union” [4]	„Parlamentul European” „Comisia Europeană” „Curtea de Justiție a Uniunii Europene”
“The High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy” [4]	„Înaltul Reprezentant al Uniunii pentru afaceri externe și politica de securitate”
“European Judicial Cooperation Unit” [2]	„Unitatea Europeană de Cooperare Judiciară”
“European Investment Bank” [1]	„Banca Europeană de Investiții”
“Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union” [12]	„Carta drepturilor fundamentale a Uniunii Europene”

These *recognized translations* are obviously *through translations* which follow closely the structure of the English names, involving at the same time different *shifts at the syntactic level* required by the TL syntactic constraints. (Reiss, 2013: 106-109)

V. *Modulation* is seen as “a variation of the form of the message, obtained by a change in the point of view.” (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1958/1995: 36)

Our discussion is based on several typologies discussed by Vinay and Dalbernet (1958/1995: 249-255): “*space for time*,” “*intervals and limits*,” “*negation of opposite*,” “*abstract for concrete*,” “*change of symbol*” modulations, as well as “*popular-learned*” modulation mentioned by Van Hoof. (1989: 103-156)

1. “the <i>above</i> deadline” [15]	„termenul <i>menționat anterior</i> ”
2. “ <i>no later than six months</i> from the date of receipt of the request” [7]	„ <i>în termen de cel mult șase luni</i> de la data primirii cererii”
3. “the test material <i>differs from that specification</i> ” [16]	„materialul de testare <i>nu este conform specificației</i> ”

³ http://www.ier.ro/documente/Ghid%20stilistic/ghid_stilistic_2008.pdf

4. “Salmonella in (...) <i>table eggs</i> ” [14]	„infecțiile cu Salmonella la (...) <i>ouăle pentru consum</i> ”
5. “the product benchmarks for coke and <i>hot metal</i> ” [9]	„pentru produsele de referință cocs și <i>metal lichid</i> ”
6. “the placing of <i>plant protection products</i> on the market” [17]	„introducerea pe piață a <i>produselor fitosanitare</i> ”

In (1), there is a case of “*space for time*” modulation, in which the English adjective “*above*” indicating *place* is translated into Romanian by the adverb “*anterior*,” which indicates *time*, preceded by the participle “*menționat*” (“*menționat anterior*”). The translator’s option is more explicit and elegant than the prepositional phrase “*de mai sus*,” which preserves the same idea of *place* as the English adjective “*above*.”

The ST phrase “*no later than*,” in (2), is rendered into Romanian as “*în termen de cel mult*,” which is clearer and more formal than the literal translation “*nu mai târziu de*.” It can be interpreted as a combination between “*intervals and limits*” modulation and “*negation of opposite*” modulation. In the English phrase (“*no later than six months*”) the emphasis is on negating the period after the deadline, whereas in the Romanian phrase (“*în termen de cel mult șase luni*”) the stress falls on the period of time until/before the deadline at the latest.

In (3), we observe a case of “*negation of opposite*” modulation, since the ST verb “*differs*” is translated into Romanian as “*nu este conform*,” which is obtained by negating the opposite of the verb “*to differ*” – “*a fi conform*.” Apart from being appropriate to an official style, this translation choice complies with the naturalness of the TL in comparison with other possible translations such as “*diferă de /este diferit de (specificație)*.”

In (4), there is a case of “*abstract for concrete*” modulation, the *concrete* noun “*table*” in English being rendered into Romanian by the *abstract* prepositional phrase indicating the purpose “*pentru consum*.” The noun phrase “*ouă pentru consum*” is not only formal, but also more explicit than the literal translation “*ouă de/pentru masă*.” Our analysis indicates that, in most cases English tends to use a *concrete* image, whereas Romanian prefers an *abstract* one.

In (5), we notice a case of “*change of symbol*” modulation, the term “*hot metal*” being translated as “*metal lichid*” into the TT; the adjective “*hot*” expresses the temperature level of the metal, while the adjective “*lichid*” conveys the aggregation state of the metal. Although the term “*hot metal*” can also be translated as “*metal încins*,” it actually refers to “*liquid metal*” in this context. Another possible translation solution would have been “*metal topit*,” which expresses the same idea of *liquidity*.

A case of “*popular-learned*” modulation is given in example (6). The SL common collocation “*plant protection*” is rendered by the TL adjective “*fitosanitare*,” which is a scientific term. This example also indicates a combination between modulation and reduction by lexical contraction (“plant protection” – “fitosanitare”).

VI. *Transposition (shift)* involves a change at the syntactic level without altering the meaning of the message, when translating from the SL into the TL (Vinay and Dalbarnet, 1958/1995: 36), (Newmark, 1988: 85). We have identified cases of *transposition* triggered by the TL syntactic rules and by the TL naturalness constraints.

1. “promoting technology and <i>knowledge</i> transfer” [1]	„promovarea transferului de tehnologie și de <i>cunoștințe</i> ”
2. “publication (...) of a call for <i>expressions</i> of interest” [2]	„publicarea (...) unei invitații pentru <i>exprimarea</i> interesului”
3. “ <i>The Union</i> shall share <i>competence</i> with the Member States.” [4]	„ <i>Competența Uniunii</i> este partajată cu statele membre”
4. “for the determination of the benchmark values for products of which the production <i>generates</i> waste gases, the carbon content of these waste gases <i>has been taken into account</i> to a large extent” [9]	„la determinarea valorilor de referință pentru produse în a căror producție <i>se generează</i> gaze reziduale, <i>s-a ținut seama</i> , în mare măsură, de conținutul de carbon al acestor gaze”

In (1), there is a case of *change in the number of the noun*, namely a *singular to plural shift* (Newmark, 1988: 85). The uncountable English noun “*knowledge*” can only be used in the singular, even if it has a plural meaning. It is translated as a plural noun (“*cunoștințe*”), since it would have been unnatural to render it in the singular (“*cunoaștere*”) in this context. In (2), we notice a *plural to singular shift*. The noun “*expression*” is used in the plural, as this form is proper to formal contexts in English. It is translated as the noun “*exprimarea*” in the singular, its plural form being totally inappropriate here.

We observe a case of “*sentence-member*” *transposition* (Gibová, 2012: 36-37) in example (3). The subject “*the Union*” in the ST becomes the attribute “*Uniunii*” in the TT and the direct object “*competence*” in the ST becomes the subject “*competența*” in the TT.

If the translator had chosen to apply a *literal translation* preserving the syntactic functions of the ST units, the result would have been rather inappropriate (“*Uniunea partajează/împarte competența cu statele membre*”).

In (4), there are two cases of what we can call the *change in the verb voice*. We notice that the active voice (“*generates*”) is rendered by the reflexive-passive voice (“*se generează*”) in the TT. Moreover, the passive voice in the ST (“*has been taken into account*”) is rendered by the reflexive-passive (“*s-a ținut seama*”) in Romanian, both involving the omission of the agent. The use of the passive voice in the TT would not have been suitable in this case.

As Newmark (1988: 89) points out, Romance languages prefer a reflexive form to a passive one. The choice for reflexive-passive forms gives naturalness of expression, since they are quite frequent in Romanian, and they also comply with a formal, impersonal style.

VII. Paraphrase is “an amplification or explanation of the meaning of a segment of the text” (Newmark, 1988: 90). In other words, it is the result of replacing an ST word with a TT group of words/phrasal expression having an equivalent sense. (Delisle et al., 1999: 167)

Archaic words are often encountered in legal English documents, as they contribute to the cohesion of the text, but such words do not exist in Romanian, so translators usually make use of a *paraphrase* whenever their meanings have to be rendered into the TT.

1. “A definitive anti-dumping duty is <i>hereby</i> imposed” [10]	„ <i>Prin prezentul regulament</i> se instituie o taxă antidumping definitivă”
2. “the original notifier (<i>hereinafter</i> “the applicant”)” [15]	„notificatorul inițial (<i>denumit în continuare</i> “solicitantul”)

In the first two examples, the archaic words “*hereby*” and “*hereinafter*,” which mean “as a result of this” and “further on in this document” (ODT, 2007: 484), respectively, are translated into Romanian by the phrases “*prin prezentul regulament*” and “*denumit în continuare*,” the latter being used when it refers to a certain appellation, namely “the applicant” – “solicitantul.”

3. “ <i>pre-accession</i> countries” [1]	„țările <i>aflate în proces de preaderare</i> ”
4. “multilingual, <i>European-oriented</i> schooling” [2]	„școlarizare multilingvă și <i>cu vocație europeană</i> ”
5. “ <i>non-EU</i> countries” [8]	„țări <i>din afara UE</i> ”

Examples (3-5) given in the table above show cases of *paraphrase* of ST compound and derived words. The derived term “*pre-accession*,” in (3), which refers to the state before the accession, is translated into Romanian as the noun “preaderare,” but when it is used as a premodifier

(“*pre-accession* countries”), it cannot be translated by a TL adjective, since Romanian lacks such a form as regards this SL term.

Therefore, this is when the *paraphrase* comes into play by use of the participial adjective “*aflate*” combined with two prepositional phrases “*în proces*” and “*de preaderare*,” the latter containing the noun “*preaderare*” (“*țările aflate în proces de preaderare*”).

The translation version of the compound word “*European-oriented*,” in example (4), is a very successful one by the prepositional phrase “*cu vocație europeană*,” which captures the meaning of the English word very well, namely what we can call “a particular proneness to the EU.” The TL noun “*vocație*” is more appropriate than the noun “*orientare*,” taking into account that it refers to “*schooling*” – “*școlarizare*,” which reminds of the well-known collocation “*școală vocațională*.”

In (5), the derived term “*non-EU*,” which refers to “countries that are not members of the European Union,” could have been translated using the procedure of *through translation* (“*țări non-UE*”), but the official translation displays a *paraphrase* (“*țări din afara UE*”), which has the aim to make this term clear by expanding the prefix “*non-*” into the prepositional phrase “*din afara*,” which expresses the meaning of the negative prefix “*non-*.”

VIII. Componential analysis (CA) is used in order to find the most appropriate TL equivalent word, which has a similar meaning with the SL word, but is not its one-to-one equivalent, by analysing their common and their differing sense components. (Newmark, 1988: 114)

1. “This Decision does *not affect* „Prezenta decizie *nu aduce atingere* Member States’ competence” [18] | competenței statelor membre”

<p><u>affect</u> [+ common + generic + “have an impact on”]</p>	<p>1) <i>make a difference to</i> 2) move someone emotionally 3) pretend to have or feel something 4) use or wear in an artificial way or so as to impress; etc. (ODT 2007: 17)</p>
<p><u>a aduce atingere</u> [+ formal + narrowing + legal + “be detrimental to”]</p>	<p>a atinge: (fig.) 1) <i>a aduce prejudicii</i>, a provoca pagube; 2) a vătăma, a leza (DEX 1998: 69)</p>

In example (1), the verb “*to affect*” is common and generic, conveying the idea of “having an impact on,” whereas the Romanian verb phrase “*a aduce atingere*” is formal and narrowing, as it is used in legal

contexts. It also emphasizes the meaning of “being detrimental to,” which makes it stronger than the TL verb “a afecta.”

2. “Sweden evaluated the additional data (...) and *prepared* an additional report” [15] | „Suedia a evaluat informațiile suplimentare (...) și *a elaborat* un raport suplimentar”

<p>prepare [+ common + generic]</p>	<p>1) to make a meal or a substance 2) to make plans or arrangements for something that will happen in the future 3) <i>to make something ready to be used;</i> (LDCE 2003: 1504)</p>
<p>a elabora [+ formal + narrowing + “drawing up”]</p>	<p>1) <i>a realiza, a da o formă definitivă unei idei, unei doctrine, unui text de lege etc; a alcătui, a întocmi; a redacta</i> 2) a efectua operațiile necesare pentru extragerea de metale din minereuri (DEX 1998: 333)</p>

The verb “*to prepare*,” in example (2), has a common and generic meaning, whereas the Romanian verb “*a elabora*” is formal and narrowing, clearly referring to the action of drawing up a document, which is not expressed by the one-to-one Romanian equivalent “a pregăti.” Another possible translation solution would have been the verb “a întocmi.”

3. “(...), unless the European Council, in agreement with the Member State concerned, unanimously decides to *extend* this period” [4] | „(...), cu excepția cazului în care Consiliul European, în acord cu statul membru în cauză, hotărăște în unanimitate să *proroge* acest termen”

<p>extend [+ common + generic + “prolong”]</p>	<p>1) <i>make something larger or longer in space or time</i> 2) occupy a specified area or continue for a specified distance 3) stretch out the body or a limb; etc. (ODT 2007: 361)</p>
<p>a proroga [+ formal + narrowing + legal + “prolong a deadline”]</p>	<p>1) <i>a amâna (din oficiu) pentru o dată ulterioară</i> activitatea unui corp constituit, a unei adunări legislative, <i>un termen scadent</i> etc. (DEX 1998: 860) 2) (<i>termene</i>) <i>a face să dureze mai mult decât este prevăzut de lege</i> (http://dexonline.ro/definitie/proroga)</p>

The verb “*to extend*,” in (3), is common and generic, generally signifying “to prolong,” whereas the Romanian verb “*a proroga*” is formal

and narrowing, as it belongs to legal contexts, precisely referring to a deadline which is prolonged. Moreover, taking into account that it refers to an official decision of an EU institution, the verb “*a proroga*” is the best translation choice.

4. “To this end, each Council *meeting* shall be divided into two parts” [4] | „În acest scop, fiecare *sesiune* a Consiliului este divizată în două părți”

<p>meeting [+ common + generic + “gathering for discussion”]</p>	<p>1) <i>an organized gathering of people for a discussion or other purpose</i> 2) a situation in which people meet by chance or arrangement (ODT 2007: 644)</p>
<p>sesiune [+ formal + narrowing + “gathering of authorities for discussion” + “time frame”]</p>	<p>1) <i>perioadă de timp în care membrii unui organ reprezentativ, al unei instituții științifice sau ai altui colectiv organizat se întrunesc pentru a rezolva împreună unele probleme; p.ext. ședințele ținute în această perioadă de timp</i> (DEX 1998: 979)</p>

In (4), the noun “*meeting*” is common and generic, usually conveying the idea of “gathering for discussion” while the noun “*sesiune*” is formal and narrowing, referring not only to a particular gathering for discussion, that is the one of authorities, but also to the “time frame” in which this gathering takes place. Bearing in mind that it refers to the meeting of the EU Council, which is a representative EU institution, the noun “*sesiune*” is definitely more appropriate than the one-to-one equivalent nouns “*ședință*/întunire.”

IX. Expansion (amplification) employs more words in the TT than there were used in the ST with the aim to render an idea or to highlight the sense of a ST word which cannot be expressed as concisely in the TT (Delisle et al., 1999: 116). It is usually combined with *explicitation* and/or *paraphrase*. **Explicitation (addition)** makes explicit in the TL what is implicit in the SL, as it is obvious from either the context or the situation. (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995: 342)

We analyzed these two translation procedures in an elaborate bilingual corpus-oriented study focused on a series of cases, taking into account their occurrence in the EU official Romanian translations. (Reiss, 2014: 125-131)

1. “When carrying out <i>due diligence</i> in respect of the project” [1]	„Atunci când aplică <i>principiul diligenței necesare</i> în ceea ce privește un proiect”
2. “Each Member State and the Commission shall appoint <i>two members</i> of the Committee” [4]	„Fiecare stat membru și Comisia numesc <i>câte doi membri</i> ai Comitetului”

The first two examples show the *addition of precise information to ST words or phrases into the TT*, a case of *explicitation* which leads to *expansion*.

In (1), the term “*due diligence*,” is rendered as “*principiul diligenței necesare*.” The addition of the noun “*principiul*” is obligatory, because the translation would have been infelicitous without it (“Atunci când aplică [] diligența necesară în ceea ce privește un proiect”). By adding the noun “*principiul*” in the TT, the translation sounds natural and logical in Romanian.

In (2), we remark the addition of the adverb “*câte*” to the numeral “*doi*,” forming a distributive numeral, which is used for emphasis and for clearing up the fact that each Member State appoints two members, not that all Member States together appoint two members. Thus, the addition avoids a possible ambiguity.

3. “Where a product is a direct substitute of another product, both should be covered by the same product benchmark and the related product definition” [9]	„În cazul în care un produs este un substitut direct al altui produs, ambele <i>produse</i> trebuie incluse în același produs de referință și în definiția produselor aferente <i>acestuia</i> ”
4. “the nature of the certification bodies <i>active</i> in this field” [19]	„caracterul organismelor de certificare <i>care își desfășoară activitatea</i> în acest domeniu”
5. “the right <i>to petition</i> the European Parliament” [4]	„dreptul de <i>a adresa petiții</i> Parlamentului European”
6. “Every citizen of the Union may <i>write</i> to any of the institutions” [4]	„Orice cetățean al Uniunii poate <i>să se adreseze în scris</i> oricărei instituții”
7. “the costs of production and <i>SG&A</i> expenses were adjusted” [10]	„costurile de producție și <i>cheltuielile administrative, de vânzare și alte cheltuieli generale</i> au fost ajustate”

In (3), we notice the addition of the demonstrative pronoun “*acestuia*” in the TT, with a view to both clearing up and emphasizing the idea that the other products are related to the same product benchmark. Likewise, the addition of the noun “*produse*” (“*ambele produse*”) in the translation conveys the message more explicitly, making sure no ambiguity

occurs. The ST adjective “*active*,” in (4), is rendered as the relative clause “*care își desfășoară activitatea*” in the TT, being an example of *explicitation by TL clauses*. The relative clause is more formal and clarifying than the Romanian corresponding adjective “*activ*.”

Examples (5, 6) show cases of *expansion of ST one-word into TT phrase*, namely the ST verbs are rendered by verb phrases into Romanian by means of a combination between *paraphrase*, *explicitation* and *expansion*. The use of the Romanian verb “*a petiționa*” (*a petiționa Parlamentul European*) instead of the formal verb phrase “*a adresa petiției*” would have been inappropriate in this context. Furthermore, the choice for the TL verb phrase “*a se adresa în scris*” instead of the verb “*a scrie*” may be motivated by its elegant formulation, which is required by the formal style of the official EU document.

In the last example, there is a case of *expansion of ST abbreviations*. The initialism “*SG&A*,” which means “*sales, general and administrative expenses*,”⁴ is rendered in full form into Romanian as “*cheltuielile administrative, de vânzare și alte cheltuieli generale*.” The corresponding TL initialism is “*VAG*,” which could have been used in the translation. However, the expansion clarifies its meaning in case the TT readership is not familiar with this initialism.

X. Reduction (concentration) involves the reduction in the number of ST elements (Gibová, 2012: 55). **Implicitation (omission)** makes implicit in the TL what is explicit in the SL by relying on the context or the situation. (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1958/1995: 344)

1. “persons <i>liable to tax</i> established in several Member States” [1]	„persoane <i>impozabile</i> stabilite în mai multe state membre”
2. “conclusions <i>reached at provisional stage</i> (...) could not be reconsidered” [6]	„constatările <i>provizorii</i> (...) nu au putut fi revizuite”
3. “(...) takes place in a manner that <i>provides incentives</i> for reductions in greenhouse gas emissions” [9]	„(...), se efectuează într-un mod care <i>stimulează</i> reducerea emisiilor de gaze cu efect de seră”

Examples (1-3) contain cases of *lexical contraction* which entails *the reduction of ST phrases to one-word TT units* (Reiss, 2014: 131-133). In the first example, the phrase “*liable to tax*” is rendered into Romanian as the adjective “*impozabile*” by lexical contraction. If the translator had chosen to use one of the corresponding TL phrases “*supuse impozitului*,” “*supuse la plata*

⁴ <http://financial-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/SG%26A>

impozitului” or “plătitoare de impozit,” then the type of tax to which persons are liable should have been mentioned (e.g. “supuse impozitului [pe venit]”).

The participle phrase “*reached at provisional stage*,” in example (2), which acts as a post-modifier of the noun “conclusions,” is reduced to the adjective “*provizorii*” in the TT. This is the best translation solution, since a *literal translation* (“constatările ajunse în stadiul provizoriu”) would have led to an awkward way of expression in Romanian. In the third example, the verbal collocation “*to provide incentives*” is reduced to the one-word verb “*a stimula*” in the TT. This translation choice is felicitous, since the corresponding TL verbal collocation “a oferi stimulente” would have been context-inappropriate.

4. “an unauthorised disclosure of <i>confidential business secrets</i> ” [6]	„o divulgare neautorizată a <i>secretelor comerciale</i> ”
5. “the committee (...) <i>has been consulted for its opinion</i> on the setting-up of the SHARE-ERIC and has delivered a favourable <i>opinion</i> ” [3]	„comitetul (...) <i>a fost consultat</i> în ceea ce privește înființarea SHARE-ERIC, iar <i>avizul său a fost favorabil</i> ”
6. “the Scientific Monitoring Board shall issue a <i>written report</i> ” [3]	„Comitetul științific de monitorizare va redacta <i>un raport</i> ”

In examples (4-6), the ST adjective “*confidential*,” the ST prepositional phrase “*for its opinion*” and the ST adjective “*written*” are left out in the translation, being implicit from the context. They are cases of *omission of ST elements* (Reiss, 2014: 133-135). If the ST adjective “*confidential*” had been rendered into the TT, it would have led to redundancy (“secrete comerciale *confidențiale*”), since the “secrets” are definitely “confidential.” Moreover, the ST adjective “*written*,” in (6), becomes implicit by translating the verb “to issue” as the TL verb “a redacta” instead of its corresponding verb “a emite.” In this way, it is obvious that the report is a *written* one.

The TT sentence “*avizul său a fost favorabil*,” in (5), conveys the fact that the committee has been consulted in order to *give its opinion*. The ST noun “opinion,” referring to an instrument which is used by EU institutions to issue a statement that expresses their viewpoints⁵, is officially translated as “aviz”/“avizare” into Romanian. If the ST prepositional noun phrase “for its opinion” had been translated as “pentru avizare”/“pentru a-și da avizul,” a structure containing either the noun “aviz” or “avizare,” it would have created a redundant way of expression. Therefore, its omission in the translation is welcome.

⁵ http://europa.eu/eu-law/decision-making/legal-acts/index_en.htm

3. Conclusions

The present bilingual corpus-based analysis has revealed numerous advantages of the translation procedures under discussion in terms of avoiding inappropriate translations.

One-to-one translation enables the translator to provide the right TL verbal collocation, although the primary meanings of the SL and TL head verbs are different. In case of more translation possibilities, the appropriateness to the formal style becomes the choice criterion of the best corresponding TL collocation. *Transference* is useful to overcome a lacuna in the TL, to comply with the legal style (in the case of Latin terms), to meet the TL tendencies (as regards neologisms), to enable EU communication (in what concerns borrowed EU terms).

Through translation represents a means of easily obtaining the TL corresponding specialized collocations and phrases by closely following the structure of the ST ones. It ensures a better transparency regarding EU collocations and phrases and provides the right TL EU acronyms/initialisms. *Recognized translation* enables the translator to make use of the right official Romanian translations of EU collocations/phrases and designations, being often the result of *through translations*, which leads to uniformity among official Romanian EU translations and symmetry among EU official languages.

Modulation offers the possibility to express the ST message into the TT by changing the perspective while meeting the TL well-formedness and the official language requirements. It is also useful to create an emphasis in the TT in order to make the message clearer, when needed. *Transposition* enables the translator to comply with the TL syntactic and naturalness constraints through a change at the syntactic level in the TT. *Paraphrase* is helpful to cope with a lack of TL corresponding words for the SL archaic, compound and derived words, as well as to obtain a clearer translation solution. *Componential analysis* contributes to the compliance with the formal and legal style of EU documents by enabling the translator to come up with the most context-appropriate TL equivalent word.

Expansion and *explicitation* are used in order to avoid a possible ambiguity and to throw light on the ST message by adding details in the TT, by expanding SL verbs into TL verb phrases, as well as by expanding ST initialisms. *Reduction* and *implicitation* entail the preservation of a natural way of expression in the TT by lexical contraction and the avoidance of redundancies by omission of ST elements. Likewise, they are useful when a brief and concise way of expression is needed.

These translation procedures, used either intuitively or intentionally, or triggered by either a mandatory or optional choice, can be considered useful ways of obtaining the most suitable solutions, which lead to flawless or error-free EU translations proper to the TL naturalness and linguistic norms, as well as to the formal and/or legal style adequate to EU legislation.

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- [16]. Commission Regulation (EU) No 234/2011 of 10 March 2011
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Rezumat: Lucrarea de față încearcă să abordeze câteva procedee de traducere din punct de vedere al utilității lor pentru traducători, înlesnindu-le acestora posibilitatea de a obține cele mai bune variante de traducere, evitând astfel posibile inadvertențe de traducere. Pe baza unor exemple bilingve (En-Ro), discutăm anumite cazuri de *traducere biunivocă*, *transfer/împrumut*, *calc*, *traduceri recunoscute*, *modulare*, *transpunere/shift*, *parafrază*, *analiză componențială/semică*, *expansiune* (inclusiv *explicitare*) și *reducere* (inclusiv *implicitare*) care duc la obținerea unor traduceri fără greșeli, adecvate atât normelor lingvistice și de naturalețe ale limbii țintă, cât și stilului formal și/sau juridic.

În vederea analizei noastre, folosim un corpus bilingv de texte juridice UE ce conține versiunile oficiale în limba engleză alături de traducerile lor oficiale în limba română.

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Restrictive Relative Clauses in English and Romanian: Reconstruction for Binding and Principle C Effects

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Abstract: In this article, we mainly focus on the asymmetry between relative clauses and *wh*-interrogatives and on a number of relevant aspects of Principle C effects in restrictive relative clauses. The aim is two-fold: 1. to show that the absence of Principle C effects in relative clauses plays an important role in the evaluation of the analyses proposed for the derivation of relative clause; 2. to argue (in line with the recent proposals) that this constitutes an argument for the implementation of the Matching Analysis (Sauerland 2003, Hulsey&Sauerland 2006, Salzmann 2006, Szczegielniak, 2012 a.o). Taking into consideration the complexity of the matter, it is very hard to cover all the empirical evidence that was proposed in the literature. Therefore, we will only present the most relevant data regarding the English and Romanian restrictive relative clauses.

Keywords: *syntax, restrictive relative clauses, reconstruction, Binding theory, Condition C effects.*

1. Introduction

A test for whether head noun reconstruction inside a relative clause is obligatory or not involves Binding Principle violations. Therefore, we discuss the reconstruction phenomena in restrictive relative clauses and we particularly deal with binding for Principle C.¹

The standard version of Principle C of the binding theory states that an R-expression cannot be A-bound in any domain. This principle disallows the reconstruction of an R-expression in a position c-commanded by a coindexed element placed in an A position, which posits problems for the HRA. The HRA predicts that the configuration given in (1) should be ungrammatical. At LF, the relative head undergoes LF reconstruction, where the name is c-commanded by the coindexed pronoun:

¹ Reconstruction was originally proposed in the Government-Binding Theory as a process that occurs in the mapping from S-structure to Logical Form (LF), moving some constituents back to their D-structure positions. It has been considered as a reliable diagnosis for movement because a constituent that has undergone movement behaves as if it were in the position occupied before movement at the level of computation at which binding principles apply.

- (1) [DP... name_i...]_j [CP pronoun...*t*_j]
 [DP... name_i...]_j [CP pronoun...name_i] LF reconstruction (Citko, 2001)

However, the prediction is not borne out as relative clauses in English involving this configuration are grammatical. Therefore, reconstruction for Principle C has proven to be crucial in the discussion of relative clauses in recent years (Munn 1994, Safir 1999, Citko 2001, Sauerland 2003, Bianchi 2004, Hulsey&Sauerland 2006 a.o.).

This has to do with the fact that relative clauses differ from *wh*-questions with regard to Principle C effects. This is unexpected because reconstruction for other phenomena, such as anaphor binding, variable binding, scope and idiom interpretation was just as systematic with relativization as with *wh*-movement.

Taking into consideration the complexity of the matter, it is very hard to cover all the empirical evidence that was proposed in the literature. Therefore, we will only present the most relevant data. We will mainly focus on the asymmetry between relative clauses and *wh*-interrogatives and on a number of relevant aspects of Principle C effects in restrictive relative clauses.

The aim of this article is two-fold: 1. to show that the absence of Principle C effects in relative clauses plays an important role in the evaluation of the analyses proposed for the derivation of relative clause; 2. to argue (in line with the recent proposals) that this constitutes an argument for the implementation of the Matching Analysis. (Sauerland 2003, Hulsey&Sauerland 2006, Salzmann 2006, Szczegieliński, 2012 a.o)

2. Asymmetry between relative clauses and *wh*-interrogatives

In the case of restrictive relatives, the central observation is that there do not seem to be Principle C effects with R-expressions contained inside the external head of relative clauses and thus coindexation with a pronoun that c-commands the reconstruction site is grammatical (contrary to (1)).

In the recent literature, we could find examples like the following (taken from Munn 1994: 402, Sauerland 1998, and Bianchi 1999) in which the relative clauses contrast in this respect with analogous *wh*-questions. If the R-expression occurs inside a relative clause that modifies an NP (2-7a), it doesn't trigger Principle C in the trace position, but if the R-expression is inside this NP that is the complement of *which* in the *wh*-questions (2-7b), it triggers Principle C in the trace position, as illustrated below:

- (2) a. the picture of Bill_i that he_i likes *t*

- b. *Which picture of Bill_i does he_i like?
- (3) a. The relative of John_i that he_i likes *t* lives far away.
b. *Which relative of John_i does he_i like?
- (4) a. The picture of John_i which he_i saw *t* in the paper is very flattering.
b. *Which picture of John_i did he_i see in the paper?
- (5) a. The pictures of Marsden_i which he_i displays *t* prominently are generally the attractive ones.
b. *Which pictures of Marsden_i does he_i display prominently?
- (6) a. I have a report on Bob's_i division he_i won't like *t*.
b. *Which report on Bob's_i division will he_i not like?
- (7) a. In pictures of Al_i which he_i lent us *t*, he_i is shaking hands with the president.
b. *Which pictures of Al_i did he_i lend us?

The contrast can be explained as follows: in the interrogative under (8b) the R-expression is within a complement to the NP of the wh-phrase. As a complement, [of Bill] is subject to the Projection Principle, which requires all thematic relations to be satisfied at all levels of the derivation. Since there is no copy of the complement in the base-generated position [which picture], (8b) violate the Projection Principle, as illustrated below in (8a). Even if it were a copy of the complement in base-generated position [which picture of Bill_i], which does satisfy the Projection Principle, as in (8b), it would violate Principle C, because *he* c-commands the lower copy of [Bill] and binds it:

- (8) a. *Which picture of Bill_i does he_i like <which picture>?
b. *Which picture of Bill_i does he_i like <which picture of Bill_i>?

The same explanation could be given for all the ungrammatical examples with interrogatives under (2-7b). Accordingly, there is no licit way to derive the ungrammatical examples above. (cf. Hulsey&Sauerland, 2006: 117)

In Romanian, the data are not as clear-cut as in English. We argue that there is a contrast between a relative clause with a weak/null pronoun vs. a relative clause with a full pronoun: the former seems sensitive to reconstruction of the relative head, giving rise to a disjoint effect (cf. Bianchi, 2004), whereas the latter does not:

- (9). a. *Zvonurile despre Ion_i pe care credea *pro*_i că le-a auzit Maria erau adevărate.
Rumours-the about Ion PE which thought *pro* that them_{CL}-has heard Maria were true
'The rumours about John_i which he_i thought Mary heard were true.'
- b. Zvonurile despre Ion_i pe care credea el_i că le-a auzit Maria erau adevărate.
Rumours-the about Ion PE which thought him that them_{CL}-has heard Maria were true
'The rumours about John_i which he_i thought Mary heard were true.'
- c. *Care zvonuri despre Ion_i credea el_i că le-a auzit Maria?
Which rumours about Ion thought he that them_{CL}-has heard Maria
'Which rumours about John did he think Mary had heard?'
- (10). a. *Zvonurile despre Ion_i pe care le auzea *pro*_i săptămânal erau adevărate.
Rumours-the about Ion PE which them_{CL} heard *pro* weekly were true
'The rumours about John_i which he_i heard weekly were true.'
- b. Zvonurile despre Ion_i pe care le auzea chiar el_i săptămânal erau adevărate.
Rumours-the about Ion PE which them_{CL} heard even he weekly were true
'The rumours about John_i which he_i heard weekly were true.'
- c. *Ce zvonuri despre Ion_i auzea el_i săptămânal?
Which rumours about Ion heard he weekly
'Which rumours about John did he hear weekly?'
- (11). a. *Rudele lui Ion_i pe care le iubea *pro*_i mult s-au mutat in America.
relatives-the of Ion PE which them_{CL} loved *pro* much SE-have moved in America
'John's relatives whom he loved much have moved to America.'
- b. Rudele lui Ion_i pe care le iubea el_i mult s-au mutat in America
relatives-the of Ion PE which them_{CL} loved he much SE-have moved in America
'John's relatives whom he loved much have moved to America.'
- c. *Pe care rude ale lui Ion_i le iubea el_i mult?
PE which relatives of Ion them_{CL} he much
'Which relatives of John_i did he_i love very much?'

We find the sentences (9-11b) in Romanian more natural only because the subject pronoun is slightly stressed. This correlates with the observation made in Bianchi (1999: 112-115; 2004: 81) that Principle C effects in Italian relatives are more clearly absent with a strong (overt) pronoun, but are still detectable with the empty pro-subject:

- (12) Questo sono i [pettegolezzi su Gianni_i] che *pro_i/?lui_i ha sentito *t*.
 these are the gossips about John which pro/he has heard
 ‘These are the gossip about John_i that he_i heard.’
- (13) Acestea sunt zvonurile despre Ion pe care le-a auzit *pro_i/el_i *t*.
 these are the gossips about John which pro/he has heard
 ‘These are the gossip about John_i that he_i heard.’

This asymmetry between relative clauses and *wh*-interrogatives is unexpected under the head raising analysis (HRA) of relative clauses, since relatives have basically the same structure as questions as far as their A'-chain is concerned.

Sauerland (1998, 2003) has a straightforward account for this difference with regard to Principle C effects between *wh*-movement and relatives. In *wh* movement, interpretation of the lower copy leads to a straightforward Principle C effect. In relatives that do not contain unlicensed material in their external head, the matching analysis (MA) applies.

3. Asymmetry between complements and adjuncts

Another case discussed in the literature is when an R-expression contained in a complement PP, embedded in turn in a fronted *wh* phrase, is interpreted as if it were in its base position, hence the Principle C violation in (14a). On the other hand, if the R-expression belongs in a relative clause, as in (14b), no reconstruction takes place, and coreference is possible.

- (14) a. * [Which picture [_{PP} of John_i]] did he_i see *t*?
 b. [Which picture [_{RC} that John_i took]] did he_i see *t*?

In these examples, the difference in grammaticality is linked to the fact that in (14a) the R-expression is inside a complement, while in (14b) the R-expression is within an adjunct (relative clause) to the moved *wh*-phrase. Adjuncts are not subject to Projection Principle, so [that John

took] can be merged directly to the higher position after wh-movement of [which picture], as shown in (15)²:

(15) [Which picture [_{RC} that John_i took]] did he_i see <which picture>?

As shown below, Romanian PPs show reconstruction effects in the same way as their English counterparts, as shown in (16):

(16) * [Ce zvonuri [_{PP} despre Ion_i]] a auzit pro/e_i t?

However, a more intriguing pattern is illustrated in (17-20): antireconstruction effects parallel to (14b) are observed only in the examples in which the SV order is maintained inside the relative clause as in (17-20a). If the order is VS, they reconstruct (17-20b). This pattern is illustrated with examples from Italian, French and Spanish (cf. Bianchi 1999, Vincente, 2005):

(17) a. Quale fotografia che *Gianni_i ha fatto* (pensi que) lui_i abbia visto?
 what picture that Gianni has made think that he has seen
 b. *Quale fotografia che *ha fatto Gianni_i* (pensi que) lui_i abbia visto?
 what picture that has made Gianni think that he has seen

(18) a. Quelle histoire que *Jean_i a racontée* a-t-il_i inventée de toutes pieces?

² A similar explanation could be given if we follow Lebeaux's (1988, 1992) analysis in dealing with this asymmetry. He argues that asymmetry illustrated in (83) stems from a dichotomy between complements (PPs) and adjuncts (relative clauses and some PPs), ultimately reducible to theta assignment. Specifically, he claims that complements, since they receive a theta role, must be present at the level where theta relations are expressed, namely, D-Structure. On the other hand, adjuncts do not receive theta roles, therefore their insertion can be delayed until S-Structure. Stepanov (2001 a, 2001b) reinterprets Lebeaux's proposal in a DS/SS-less system as cyclic versus postcyclic insertion: Cyclically inserted phrases enter the derivation before their heads undergo further operations; postcyclically inserted ones adjoin to their heads at a later point. Under this hypothesis, together with the assumption that reconstruction is LF activation of a lower, unpronounced copy (Chomsky 1993), we arrive at the LF representations in (i), which derive the asymmetries in (15).

(i) a. [which *x*] he saw [*x* picture [of John]]
 b. [which *x* [that John took]] he saw [*x* picture]

The contrast between PPs and relative clauses follows from the assumption that binding theory applies at LF (Chomsky 1993). In (ia), *John* is c-commanded by a coreferential pronoun, therefore causing a Principle C violation. In (ib), on the other hand, there is no copy of the relative clause containing *John* in the c-command domain of *he*, so binding theory is satisfied.

- what story that Jean has told has-he invented of all pieces
b. *Quelle histoire qu'a racontée Jean_i a-t-il_i inventée de toutes
pieces?
what story that-has told Jean has-he invented of all pieces

- (19) a. Qué libro que Juan_i escribió ha publicado él_i?
what book that wrote Juan has published he
b. *Qué libro que escribió Juan_i ha publicado él_i?
what book that Juan wrote has published he

- (20) a. Los parientes de Juan_i que él_i odia t viven lejos de aquí (Vincente,
2005)
the relatives of Juan that he hates live far from here
b. *Los parientes de Juan_i que odia él_i t viven lejos de aquí
the relatives of Juan that hate s he live far from here

The same SV/VS contrast can be observed in Romanian, but with the results are different. In (21a), the (strong) pronoun is in the postverbal emphatic position and it does not yield Principle C effects under reconstruction and so the example is grammatical. In (21b), on the other hand, the strong pronoun or a *pro* form is in preverbal position and Principle C effects block reconstruction and yield the sentence ungrammatical:

- (21) a. Ce carte despre Ion_i pe care a scris-o el_i este interesanta?
What book about John PE which has wrote-CL he is interesting
b. *Ce carte despre Ion pe care pro/el a scris-o este interesanta?
What book about John PE which he has wrote-CL is interesting

What seems to be relevant in these examples is that the subject is postverbal and in Romance postverbal subjects are usually focused and have an emphatic function. The question is how SV inversion can be related to these paradigms. One possible explanation is that this emphatic function is crucial in licensing coreference of the subject of the relative clause with the R-expression. It could be that this coreferential relation is not a case of binding, but one of accidental coreference (Reinhart 1983). Therefore, we can only conclude that emphatic DP subjects are insensitive to reconstruction with respect to Principle C in Romanian.³

³ We point to the fact that both examples become grammatical if we insert a focus particle, such as *chiar*:

- (i) a. Ce carte despre Ion_i pe care a scris-o *chiar* el_i este interesantă?
What book about John PE which has wrote-CL he is interesting

At this point, we are left with the problem of choosing a suitable analysis that could account for the respective structures. We base our argument on the lack vs. presence of Principle C effects in the VS vs. SV relatives discussed above. Therefore, since the VS relatives in (21a) show no reconstruction effects, it can be accounted for in the same way as its English counterpart (14b), in terms of a mixed matching/raising analysis, whereas SV relatives (21b) call for a pure raising analysis.

4. Asymmetry between the external head and the operator phrase

A similar difference as in the previous section was observed above between R-expressions contained inside the external head and those inside the relative operator phrase. We illustrate with a pair of examples taken from Sauerland (1999:355):

- (22) a) * I respect any writer [whose depiction of $John_i$] he_i 'll object to t_j .
 b) I respect [any depiction of $John_i$] he_i 'll object to t_j .

As discussed in the previous section, such an asymmetry is unexpected under an unmodified version of the HRA because in both cases, there is an A'-chain where by default the lower copy is interpreted. Under the assumption that the HRA can be applied to possessive relatives, *whose* must be reanalyzed as [*Op+X*] 's, in our example [*Op+writer*] 's:

- (23) a) * I respect any [_{XP} [writer]_j] [_{CP} [[Op [writer]_j]'s depiction of $John_i$] he_i 'll object to [[x writer]'s depiction of John]]].
 b) I respect any [_{XP} [depiction of $John_i$]_j] [_{CP} [Op [depiction of $John_i$]]] that he_i 'll object to [x depiction of $John_i$]]]].

Sauerland (1998, 2003) derives this asymmetry by using his variant of MA. He applies Vehicle Change, but argues that this is restricted to that part of the operator phrase that undergoes ellipsis, as illustrated in the examples below:

- (24) a) I respect any [depiction of $John_i$]_j] [_{CP} [Op [one]_j]] that he_i 'll object to [x one]].
 b) I respect any [depiction of $John_i$]_j] [_{CP} [Op [depiction of him_i]]] that he_i 'll object to [x depiction of him_i]].

b. Ce carte despre Ion pe care *chiar el a scris-o* este interesantă?
 What book about John PE which he has wrote-CL is interesting

In these examples, the R-expression is inside the external head, so the copy in Spec, CP undergoes ellipsis under identity with the external head. Vehicle Change can therefore apply and turn the entire copy into *one* or the R-expression into a personal pronoun. As a consequence, no R-expression is found inside the relative clause and no Principle C violation occurs.

Things are different with R-expressions contained inside the relative operator. Since the external head only contains *writer*, but not *depiction of John*, the lower copy inside the relative clause cannot be LF-deleted because that would be irrecoverable. Consequently, the copy is retained and triggers a Principle C violation:

- (25) * I respect any [writer]_j [_{CP} [whose depiction of **John**]_i **he**_i'll object to [x depiction of John]_i].

As in Sauerland's approach, there also might be an ellipsis operation involving part of the relative operator if an abstract analysis of *whose* is adopted. But this would not affect the Principle C effects.

- (26) * I respect any [writer]_j [_{CP} [[Op [writer]_j]'s depiction of **John**]_i **he**_i'll object to [[x writer']s depiction of John]_i].

Considering the asymmetry between the external head and the operator phrase as far as Principle C reconstruction is concerned, the conclusion is that the HRA cannot be a suitable analysis. On the raising structure, the relative clause head is moved to its surface position from a relative clause internal position and its reconstruction inside the RC leads to Principle C effects. Therefore, Sauerland's variant of MA where Vehicle change and partial ellipsis have been applied might be a solution.

5. Principle C and idioms/variable binding/scope reconstruction

There are structures where Principle C effects reemerge because reconstruction is forced by idioms interpretation (27), variable binding (28) or scope (29):

- (27) *The headway on *Mary's* project that *she* had made pleased her boss.
 (28) *The letters by John_i to *her*_j that he_i told *every girl*_j to burn *t* were published.
 (29) *The [many bottles of *Peter's*_i Merlot] that *he*_i drank *t* in just one evening

These facts are surprising, since it seems that whatever mechanism prevents Principle C effects in normal relative clauses must be absent here. Moreover, the data presented here is not solid and should not be taken as decisive arguments that the Principle C pattern changes if reconstruction is forced by other means. More empirical evidence is needed and the only conclusion we could reach is that reconstruction for idiom interpretation, variable binding and scope does lead to Principle C effects, at least in English.

Therefore, we resort to the HRA which can in principle derive these cases: since the external head contains material that needs to be reconstructed (as in the case of variable binding in (28) and of the amount quantifier in (29)). The entire external head is represented inside the relative clause so that the R-expressions end up in the c-command domain of the personal pronoun and trigger a Principle C effect. We illustrate with the derivation of (28) and (29):

- (30) a) * The [_{XP} [letters by *John_i* to *her_j*] [_{CP} [Op [letters by *John_i* to *her_j*]] that *he_i* told *every girl_j* to burn [x letters by *John_i* to *her_j*]] were published].
- b) * the [_{XP} [many bottles of Peter's_i Merlot] [_{CP} [Op [many bottles of Peter's_i Merlot]] that *he_i* drank [x many bottles of Peter's_i Merlot] in just one evening]].

For the time being, we will leave this issue open, because it is beyond the purpose of this article and further research is needed both in English and in Romanian.

6. Conclusions

These subsections have shown that the Principle C facts are the most interesting reconstruction data as far as restrictive relative clauses are concerned, despite being extremely delicate and often leading to conflicting judgments. We discussed that reconstruction for Principle C is not found in English relatives, but in *wh*-movement and topicalization. The same seems to hold for Romanian as well.

We have also discussed the core case and more complex examples, but further descriptive work is needed for a better evaluation of the approaches based on a particular empirical basis.

We based our assumptions about Principle C on the facts presented in Munn (1994), Citko (2001), and Sauerland (2003). The result is that Principle C effects or rather the absence of them clearly shows that a HRA is confronted with serious problems. That is why the solution proposed is

Sauerland's implementation of the MA, since it derives more or less the right results. However, his assumption that one needs two different types of Vehicle Change, hence two different types of MA implementation, seems problematic. And we are still left with the necessity to use both the MA and the HRA in certain configurations to capture the entire Principle C pattern.

However, in the cases where there is no reconstruction, such as the absence of Principle C effects, an unmodified version of the HRA cannot capture the entire reconstruction pattern. Additional mechanisms are necessary, such as, for example, Safir's (1999) Vehicle Change mechanism that partly takes care of the Principle C effects, but at the price of massive overgeneration.

To deal with the cases when there is no reconstruction, we analysed the solutions proposed in Bhatt (2002) and in Sauerland (1998, 2003), which tackled the problem by adopting two different derivations (depending on whether there is reconstruction or not).

We specifically discussed Sauerland's proposal based on the hypothesis that restrictive relative clauses allow for two different LF structures, one involving full reconstruction of the "head", and the other not. Sauerland implements this distinction in terms of a "raising" vs. "matching" derivation (Sauerland, 1998: 62-90). For instance, the MA handles (at least) the Principle C problem, whereas the HRA applies to the structures with reconstruction. The overall conclusion is that English needs both.

A more unitary approach is Munn's (1994) and Citko's (2001) implementation of the MA, which seems the most promising approach to relative clauses: it accounts for reconstruction effects and for the absence of Principle C effects. Furthermore, it seems to be the only approach that gives us the possibility to handle the cases where there are conflicting requirements on interpretation: it is in principle possible to interpret both the external head as well as the lower relative clause-internal copy.

Regarding the Romanian data presented in this article, we showed that both analyses should also be available for restrictive RCs to account for their different properties, especially in the reconstruction for binding and Principle C effects.

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Rezumat: În acest articol, discutăm cazurile de asimetrie dintre propozițiile relative restrictive și propozițiile interogative introduse de elemente relative (cuvinte *wh* în limba engleză) pornind de la aspecte importante legate de efectele produse de reconstrucție pe baza Principiului C al teoriei legării. Ne preocupă, în mod special, propozițiile relative restrictive din limba engleză și limba română. Articolul are un dublu scop: 1. să demonstreze că absența efectelor generate de Principiul C în propozițiile relative au un rol important în evaluarea analizelor propuse pentru derivarea acestui tip de propoziții; 2. să argumenteze (în conformitate cu propunerile teoretice mai recente) că acest aspect constituie un motiv relevant pentru adoptarea teoriei de tip matching (Sauerland 2003, Hulsey&Sauerland 2006, Salzmann 2006, Szczegielniak, 2012 a.o). Având în vedere complexitatea subiectului, este foarte dificil să aducem în discuție toate dovezile empirice propuse în literatură. De aceea, prezentăm doar cele mai importate date privind propozițiile relative restrictive din limba engleză și română.

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Mental Representations, Contextual Reference and Ambiguity

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Abstract: The present paper focuses on one of the main topics of cognitive linguistics: mental representations and referential ambiguity. Mental spaces are conceptual structures, originally proposed by Gilles Fauconnier (1985, 1994) to describe how we assign and manipulate reference, including the use of names, definite descriptions and pronouns. Mental spaces can be seen as a parallel to the notion of possible worlds in formal semantics. The main difference between a mental space and a possible world is that a mental space is not based on an exact representation of reality, but on an idealized cognitive model. Mental spaces and the links established between them can be used to explain the interaction between knowledge and reference in the phenomenon of referential opacity.

We shall also briefly present the importance of mental representations (mental spaces and text worlds) in cognitive poetics. In cognitive poetics, context is seen as encompassing social circumstances and personal experience. While traditional stylistic analysis makes use of linguistic theories in order to explain or predict textual interpretation, cognitive stylistics is based on theories that relate linguistic choices and reader's perception of the text to cognitive processes and conceptual structures.

Keywords: *cognitive poetics, idealized cognitive model, mental spaces, reference, text worlds.*

1. Introduction

One of the main tenets in cognitive semantics is that the meaning is a cognitive phenomenon based on conventionalized conceptual structures, such as image schemas, metaphor, metonymy and mental spaces.

Mental spaces are conceptual structures used in cognitive linguistics to describe how language users manipulate reference, that is, the use of names, pronouns, and definite descriptions. These theoretical constructions were proposed by Gilles Fauconnier (1985, 1994) and correspond to possible worlds in truth-conditional semantics. The main difference between a mental space and a possible world is that a mental space does not contain an accurate representation of reality, but an idealized cognitive model. (Fauconnier, 1994: 240)

Building of mental spaces and establishment of mappings between them are the two main processes involved in construction of meaning

(Evans and Green, 2006: 394). Mental spaces represent basic components in Gilles Fauconnier and Mark Turner's cognitive blending theory (1996).

Cognitive linguists consider that the meaning is not in language. It has to be constructed and language is a mere recipe for constructing meaning, a recipe which relies on many cognitive processes. This means that the process of meaning construction is clearly based on discourse and, implicitly is context dependent, since an utterance is just a step in the recipe and cannot be completely understood without recognizing its relationship to the previous utterances.

First, we propose a brief analysis of the notions of reference and context. As mental spaces can be seen as a cognitive parallel to the notions of possible worlds, a concise description of the notions of possible worlds and of idealized cognitive models may be also useful.

2. Reference and context

Reference is the relationship between a linguistic expression and the entity in the external world to which it refers. It is also called the referential meaning of the expression. For example the referent of the word *book* is the object book. Reference is an extra-linguistic notion in which aspects of reality play a part, and contrasts with the intralinguistic notion of *sense*, a property arising from the meaning relations between lexical items and sentences. (Crystal, 1999: 286)

We will confine our analysis to the referential possibilities of nominals, since the nominal is the referential linguistic item par excellence.

In discussing reference, Saeed (2003: 26-27) makes the following distinctions:

Referring and non-referring expressions There are words which can never be used to refer, for example: *so, very, if, maybe*. This means that these linguistic expressions bring meaning to the sentence they occur in, but they do not themselves identify entities in the world. On the contrary, when somebody says the noun *lion* in an utterance like *The lion was running very fast*, the noun is a referring expression since it is used to identify an entity in the real world.

The linguist considers that the second use of this distinction is about potential referring elements like nouns. Thus, it distinguishes between instances when they are used to refer to certain entities and instances when they do not. For example, the indefinite noun phrase *a lion* is a referring expression in the following example:

A lion escaped from the zoo yesterday.

Here the speaker refers to a certain entity. By contrast, in the next example, the nominal has the generic value:

A lion is a dangerous animal.

Some sentences can be ambiguous between a referring and a non-referring interpretation, as is well-known to those who write scripts for movies. For example, a character, trying to find a missing woman, is the recipient of lascivious looks, or offers, when he tells a waiter *I'm looking for a woman*. The viewers know, but the waiter does not, that our hero will not be satisfied by the non-referring reading.

Constant versus variable reference. One difference among referring linguistic units becomes evident when we look at how they are used in a series of distinctive utterances. Some linguistic units will have the same referent across a range of utterances, e.g. *the Black Sea* or *the Atlantic Ocean*. Others have their reference completely dependent on context, for example the words in bold in the examples below, where to identify the referents we need to know who is speaking to whom, etc.:

***I** told you.*

*He placed **it** on **my** table.*

Linguistic expressions like *the Atlantic Ocean* have constant reference, whereas words like *I*, *you*, *she*, etc. are said to have variable reference. Their reference is context dependent.

Actually, most acts of referring rely on contextual information. For instance, to identify the referent of the nominal *the Prime Minister of France* we need to know when it was uttered.

Referents and extensions. The referent of an expression is the object picked out by uttering the word in a certain context. The term *extension* of an expression is the set of objects which could be the referent of that expression. The extension of the lexeme *rose* is the set of all roses.

As we have mentioned, a nominal phrase is a prototypical case of linguistic item used to refer.

The most relevant examples of nominals which have reference are proper names, since they denote individuals, places, etc. Context is crucial in the use of names. They are definite in the sense that they carry the speaker's assumption that the interlocutor can identify the referent. For example, if someone says:

He looks like Charlie Chaplin,

the speaker is assuming the interlocutor can identify the famous actor.

As we have already stated, reference is context dependent.

Context is one of the most important topics in linguistics and in literary criticism. Wales (2001: 81-82) defines the two types of context: *the verbal and the situational* one. Thus, context refers to something which precedes or follows something. In an utterance or a sentence this can be the sounds, words, phrases or clauses surrounding another sound, word, phrase or clause; in a text, the words, sentences or utterances, paragraphs, chapters, etc. This is also called *the verbal context* or the *co-text*.

Context has an important role in determining the meaning of words. Definition by contextualization is well illustrated by the practice of quotations in reliable dictionaries, since contextualization helps in the resolution of ambiguity arising from polysemy and homonymy.

Situational reference is very wide. It can include:

- a. the immediate discourse situation of *here and now* in which a text or utterance is produced;
- b. the immediate situational context in which discourse occurs (in a classroom, at a party)
- c. remote environments beyond these, such as the historical, social, cultural and geographical, also the cognitive context of background or shared knowledge and beliefs: the world itself as a macro-context. In Relevance Theory the emphasis is on the cognitive aspects of context, how contextual implications are derived from the processing of existing information and assumptions.

All these meanings of context can be subsumed under the term *context-of-situation*.

In literature there are two types of situational context: the context of world created and inferred in the text and the large situational context of the non-fictional world, i.e. the shared knowledge of which authors and readers inevitably draw (including in science fiction).

Thus, our interpretation of the text depends on our judgement of readings appropriate in the verbal context and the world of the text, mediated by our knowledge of the world, and the historical context. The context of critical reception may also play an important role.

3. Possible worlds

The notion of possible worlds was developed as a means of calculating the truth-value of a sentence, and in order to deal with the ontological status of non-actual entities.

The concept of a possible world is used by philosophers and logicians to express modal claims.

A sentence like *Germany was defeated in the Second World War* is true. Still, it is true only in our actual world and the actual world is only one of a multitude of possible worlds which could provide a context for the sentence. Other possible worlds could change the truth-value of the sentence. For example, in the novel *The Man in the High Castle*, a fictional world is presented in which the allies were defeated. In this possible world, the above sentence is false. (Stockwell, 2002: 93)

The theorists consider that for each distinct way the world could have been, there is said to be a distinct possible world; the actual world is the one we in fact live in.

The sentences presenting analytic or universal truths are necessarily true by definition. They are only few and in possible worlds theory, no context could make these sentences false while maintaining the same sense of the words: a world in which they are not true is an impossible world. In a possible world, if one statement is true, then its opposite must be false. It operates the rule of excluded middle.

A possible world is a philosophical construction, consisting in a set of propositions that describe the state of affairs in which a sentence can exist. It is a formal logical set, not a cognitive display of knowledge. The possible worlds theory can be adapted for literary studies and we can use the notion of discourse worlds that can be understood as dynamic readerly interactions with possible worlds: possible worlds with a narratological and cognitive dimension (idem).

To use possible worlds theory in literary studies means to apply concepts from formal logic to worlds that are created by fictional texts, in a fictional universe. In particular, possible-world theory provides a useful conceptual framework with which to describe fictional worlds. A fictional universe is a self-consistent fictional setting with elements that differ from our everyday reality. It may also be called an imagined or fictional domain (or world). Fictional universes or fictional worlds may appear in novels, plays, films, serials, television shows, video games and other creative works.

In possible worlds theory, the world of a text is in fact seen as a universe, consisting in a central domain considered as actual, and an array of alternative worlds counting as non-actual. A possible worlds approach presents certain advantages in describing the internal structure of the textual universe and in accounting for the development of the plot. Thus, the textual universe becomes a dynamic combination of the text actual world and various kinds of alternative hypothetical worlds formulated by characters. (Semino, 2003: 87)

Ryan (1991) considers these alternate possible worlds as different versions of the text actual world which may correspond to characters' beliefs, hopes, intentions, moral obligations, wishes and fantasies.

The same author claims that the plot itself develops on the basis of mutual relationships between the worlds contained in a textual universe. Thus, studying different types of inter-world conflicts in textual universe can lead to a typology of plots (Ryan, 1991: 120). Ryan also considers that the existence of complex networks of unrealised possibilities is central to the aesthetic potential of plots.

A possible worlds approach to literary texts focuses on the result of comprehension: the structure and features of fictional worlds as the product of interpretative processes.

Semino (2003: 89) considers that the main drawback of this approach is that it does not deal with fictional worlds as cognitive constructs and does not analyse cognitive processing. Consequently, there is no systematic analysis of how worlds are created in the interaction between the reader's mind and linguistic stimuli, and of linguistic choices and patterns in texts.

A mental space approach to fiction represents a choice which offers a better understanding of the problems left unsolved by the possible worlds theory. We consider that for a complete comprehension of the development of the plot and of its intricate mechanisms, a combination of the two theories may be fruitful.

4. Cognitive Idealized Models

As we have already mentioned, the main difference between a mental space and a possible world is that a mental space does not contain an accurate representation of reality, but an *idealized cognitive model*.

Idealised cognitive models (ICMs) are structures used to organise our knowledge. ICMs cause prototype effects and our entire sense of categorization is based on these structures. This term of ICM was proposed by scholars such as George Lakoff (1987) and Gilles Fauconnier (1985, 1994).

An idealized cognitive model, or ICM, is the term used in cognitive linguistics to describe the phenomenon in which knowledge represented in a semantic frame is often a conceptualization of experience that is not congruent with reality. The most famous example cited in cognitive linguistics to prove this point is the concept of BACHELOR. A simple definition of this term is "an adult unmarried male." Croft and Cruse (2004: 28) consider that this conceptual analysis may suit most cases, but there are a number of instances where speakers may have doubts whether a person is a bachelor or not:

1. The Pope
2. Tarzan
3. A male homosexual

The problem is not that the definition of BACHELOR is too simple. It is just that the concept is profiled against a frame that cannot include the variety of actual social statuses found in the real world. Thus, the frame for BACHELOR is an idealized version of the world that simply does not include all real-world situations. This is, according to Lakoff, an idealized cognitive model. (1987)

Words cannot be reduced to logical or decontextualized or non-cognitive denotations. Cognitive linguists consider that we have to resort to our encyclopaedic knowledge in order to properly represent and understand a concept.

Cognitive models which are shared become cultural models. These structures are clearly context dependent. Cultural models are shared by social groups, and so prototype effects can vary not only by virtue of nationality and geographical background, but also along the lines of common understanding or purposes. (Stockwell, 2002: 33)

Being a conventionalized mental representation of reality as perceived by our senses in our everyday experience or as determined by culture, the ICM concept is meant to include not only people's encyclopaedic knowledge of a certain domain, but also their cultural models. ICMs reflect culturally well-known and shared patterns of experience. The ICM notion cannot be confined to reality, to conceptualization or to language, but may cut across these ontological domains. (Neagu, 2005: 94)

Radden and Kovecses (1999) claim that the theoretical framework of ICMs may be very relevant for the metonymic processes. ICMs and the network of conceptual relationships characterising them have psychological reality: they create associations which may be exploited in the metonymic transfer.

Defining metonymy as a cognitive process in which one conceptual entity, the vehicle, provides mental access to another conceptual entity, the target, within the same ICM, Radden and Kovecses (1999) classified metonymic processes according to the ICM they belong to. According to their taxonomy, there are two main configurations: 1. the whole ICM and its part or parts and 2 parts of an ICM. (Neagu, 2005: 95)

5. Mental spaces

Fauconnier (1985, 1997) proposes an alternative model of representing the status of knowledge that offers elegant solutions to many issues in semantic and pragmatic analysis. As we have already stated the notion of possible world is replaced in cognitive linguistics with that of a mental space. Fauconnier considers that the mental space is a cognitive structure.

According to Croft and Cruse (2004: 34), Fauconnier crucially distinguishes between *roles* and *values* in mappings between spaces. A *role* describes a category and a *value* is an individual that can be described by that category. A role can be a category or type with various instances or tokens. For example *bird* is such a role, since there are many values of birds: sparrow, eagle, dove, hawk, etc.

Fauconnier's interest is in the cognitive processes developed during discourse by linguistic structures. The focus is on the management of reference: how interlocutors keep track of the entities referred to in the discourse. The issue is that when we are involved in conversation, we are continually constructing domains. Thus, if we discuss the novel *Queen Margot* by Dumas, we maintain several relevant mental spaces. One domain or mental space is that of the novel, while another might be the real world, the historical reality where Margaret of Valois is a historical figure.

Our referential practices make use of such divisions into domains so that we can use the same name Queen Margot to talk about the historical figure and the character in the novel or in the French films or in the Russian serial. Between the different uses of the name there are links: we might say for example that Dumas's character is meant to describe the historical personality. We may also watch a film or the serial and say that *Margot was very beautiful*, or *too old*, commenting now on the actress playing the part. So we can use the same name to refer to a historical person, a role in a film or serial, an actress playing the part. Such flexibility is specific for our use of referring expressions.

Saeed (2003: 319) argues that mental spaces can be seen as a cognitive parallel to the notion of possible worlds in formal semantics, since it is assumed that interlocutors can partition off and hold separate domains of reference.

Sometimes the mental space may be created by a hypothetical construction: *If I were you I'd sell my house*, where once the shift from the real to the non/real domain is made in the first clause, the I in the second clause identifies not the speaker, but the interlocutor.

Metonymic configurations can function as links between mental spaces. For instance, we can say: *Queen Margot was borrowed*, referring to the book. Fauconnier (1994) uses the terms *trigger* and *target* and employs an *identification principle* which allows speakers to use such referential shifts.

The linguistic elements which trigger mental spaces are called *space builders* by Fauconnier. We can mention here the following space builders: place and time expressions: *When I was a student*; adverbs like *possibly* and *really*; conjunctions like *if*, and certain verbs like *believe*, *hope*, *imagine*. The context in which a sentence is uttered builds the background mental

space. Where spaces are placed inside one another, the including space is called *parent space*. *Parent space* is often reality itself, or more precisely what the current speaker assumes to be the reality.

One important advantage of this theory of mental spaces and links between them is that it can be used to explain the phenomenon of *referential opacity*. This is the traditionally complex domain where knowledge interacts with reference. The *opaque contexts* are associated with embedded clauses under verbs of propositional attitudes like *think, believe, want, suspect, hope, presuppose*, etc. (Saeed, 2003: 323)

According to this approach any space builder can trigger ambiguities of interpretation so that a time adverbial like in *1987* can trigger two readings for the sentence:

In 1987 my best friend was very young.

Here two time spaces are established: the *now* of the speaker and the time *1987*. The reference to the NP *my friend* can be interpreted in two ways. The first merely identifies a friend in the *1987* time space and is consistent with the speaker either having the same friend in the *now* space or not. The second reading is that the person who is the speaker's friend now was not his friend in *1987*, but is referred to as *my best friend* by a shift linking the mental spaces.

In this approach the regular system of establishing mental spaces predicts these types of referential flexibility and the prediction includes referential opacity, such ambiguities being very common.

Saeed (2003: 326) states that mental spaces approach unifies the account of referential opacity with an analysis of presupposition. One of the problematic features of presuppositions is their cancellability. The mental spaces theory accounts for the cancellation feature by viewing presupposition as 'floating' (Fauconnier's term) from space to space if they are not blocked by contradiction with the entities and relations identified in a space.

The floating or sharing of presupposition between spaces is possible because of a general similarity principle governing space creation, which Fauconnier (1994: 91) calls optimization.

This principle also explains why in hypothetical construction like:

If I were rich, I'd move from Romania to California.

we assume in the counterfactual space that the world resembles reality except for the speaker's wealth.

Given such a principle and the phenomenon of presupposition floating, it can be inferred that all kinds of knowledge about a parent space, say reality, can cancel an incompatible presupposition (Saeed, 2003: 327).

Fauconnier and Turner (1996) claim that information from two different spaces is blended in the resulting space, and that this blending process occurs in a wider range of contexts than counterfactual conditionals. The two linguists argue that blending is a process of space mapping, essential for human reasoning, and analyse this process especially in connection with metaphor.

In this way, blending theory has moved from the old mental space theory. Mental space theory shows how utterances evoke not just semantic frames, but also spaces representing the status of our knowledge, including beliefs, desires, hopes, counterfactuals relative to reality, how language uses links between different spaces manipulating reference, and how knowledge can float between spaces. With blending theory the interest has shifted to how information from two spaces is combined to produce new conceptual structures, for instance metaphor. (Croft and Cruse, 2004: 39)

6. Mental representations in cognitive poetics

People process and understand discourse, including the fictional one, by constructing mental representations in their mind. These mental representations have been called *mental models* or *narrative worlds* in cognitive psychology, *mental spaces* in cognitive linguistics and *text worlds* in cognitive poetics. The text-as-world metaphor has most frequently been used to describe the reader's impression of being immersed in a particular fiction, in which the characters, setting, the plot itself are constructed in a complex manner as that we encounter in our real life. (Gavins, 2003: 129)

6.1. Mental spaces in cognitive poetics

Cognitive poetics has proposed understanding the cognitive tracking of entities, relations and processes as a mental space. There are four main types of mental spaces (Stockwell, 2002: 96):

1. time spaces – current space or displacement into past or future, typically indicated by temporal adverbs and by the categories of tense and aspect.
2. space spaces – geographical background, usually indicated by place adverbials and verbs of movement.
3. domain spaces – an area of activity
4. hypothetical spaces – typically described by conditional sentences, hypothetical constructions, suggestions and speculations.

In the process of understanding and negotiating reality, we build a reality space, if we operate on the set of knowledge specific to this space, we create a projected space. The same process applies to fictional spaces, which we build to follow a narrative in progress.

Mental space theory develops the possible worlds notions of counterparts by using the access principle.

Blending is a useful notion to discuss extended narratives. This involves a mapping between two spaces. Specific features which emerge from this mapping form a new space from the generic one, the blended space. Conceptual blends are mechanisms by which we can hold the properties of two spaces together, such as in metaphorical thinking and imaginary domains (*idem*).

No literary work can maintain the same cognitive space since it would mean to include no breaks of narration, no changes in time or place, no plans, wishes, flashbacks, and no characters with different views from each other or from the reader's.

It is in fact the structure of discourse worlds which brings about the pleasure of reading literature.

According to Fauconnier (1997) and Fauconnier and Turner (1996), mental spaces are defined as cognitive representations of different situations, constructed on the basis of the textual input on the one hand, and the comprehender's background knowledge on the other. Thus, they can be used to explain not only linguistic phenomena, but also the gradual understanding of narrative texts.

Semino (2003: 97) states that the mental space approach focuses both on the linguistic features of the text and on the reader's encyclopaedic knowledge, so that the inferences and nuances of meaning may be included in the textual analysis. This gives a cognitive account of text processing and emphasises the interaction between the reader and the text. The author also considers that, although different, mental space theory can benefit from the findings of the narratological applications of possible worlds theory and concludes that the challenge and potential of literary texts have not been fully exploited by mental space theory.

6.2. Text Worlds Theory

As we have already stated, the text-as -world metaphor has most frequently been used to describe the reader's impression of being immersed in a particular fiction, in which the characters, setting, the plot are constructed in a complex manner as that we encounter in our real life. (Gavins, 2003: 129)

Cognitive and experientialist assumptions are the basis upon which Text Worlds Theory is built. Text Worlds Theory is clearly situated within the tradition of cognitive linguistics, taking the communicative process as its central focus.

It was Paul Werth, who began formulating a text-world framework in the late 1980s and early 1990s, publishing its outline in a series of articles during this period. Werth claimed to have devised a methodological approach capable of accounting for the cognitive process underlying the production and interpretation of all forms of human communication: from telephone conversations to dramatic performance, from church sermons to newspaper reports.

However, Werth's development of his all-encompassing model was sadly cut short by his untimely death in 1995. By that time, Werth had set down only the basic principles of Text Worlds Theory in published form, though he had also succeeded in completing a manuscript for his monograph on text-worlds before his death. (Gavins, 2007)

Despite the death of its creator, Text Worlds Theory has continued to sustain the interest of the academic community.

As we have already mentioned the Text Worlds Theory is a model of human language processing which is based on the notions of mental representations found in cognitive psychology and which shares the experientialist insights of cognitive linguistics. The Text Worlds Theory applies the cognitivist principles in analytical practice.

Text Worlds Theory is a discourse framework. This means that it is concerned not just with how a particular text is constructed, but how the context surrounding that text influences its production and reception. (Gavins, 2007: 8)

Text Worlds Theory provides a methodological framework through which both factual and fictional discourses may be systematically analysed: from the pragmatic circumstances of their genesis to the conceptual consequences of language choices.

According to Gavins (2003: 130) a typical Text Worlds Theory analysis normally begins by separating a certain discourse into three interdependent levels. The first of them, *the discourse world*, contains two or more participants involved in a language event. The participants may share the same space, or they may be separated in time and space. It may be a face to face talk or a long-distance conversation, or a sequence of written communication. The personal background of each participant can affect the process of linguistic negotiation.

As the language event advances, each participant constructs a mental representation – that is *a text world*, by which they are able to process and understand the discourse. This is the next level of a Text Worlds Theory.

Once the text world is constructed and developed, an infinite number of other worlds which depart from the standards of the initial text world may also be created. This stage is the final layer of Text Worlds Theory.

7. Conclusions

Mental spaces allow the participants in the communicative process flexibility in manipulating reference and give access to knowledge about cognitive domains.

We have noticed that the mental spaces approach offers the advantage of situating the referential opacity and belief contexts within regular linguistic phenomena. Thus, these are not considered as irregular or exceptional linguistic features, but as part of the referential flexibility created by the semantic framework of the language.

Text processing involves the gradual construction of networks of interconnected mental spaces

Cognitive poetics uses the theory of mental representations (*mental spaces* and *text worlds*) as a novel approach to literary texts. Like possible worlds theory, mental spaces and Text Worlds Theory consider the way in which texts project complex situations that can stand in different ontological relations to each other.

Both theories are part of cognitive linguistics and aim at explaining the online production and understanding of language. These approaches give a unified and consistent means of understanding reference, co-reference, and referential ambiguity, and also offer a model of textual comprehension whether the texts refer to real, historical, imagined or hypothesized situations.

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Rezumat: Prezentul articol se centrează pe una dintre temele cele mai importante din lingvistica cognitivă: reprezentările mentale și ambiguitatea referențială. Spațiile mentale sunt structuri conceptuale propuse de Gilles Fauconnier (1985, 1994) pentru a descrie felul în care atribuim și controlăm referința, inclusiv folosirea numelor și a pronumelor. Spațiile mentale pot fi privite ca o paralelă la noțiunea lumilor posibile din semantica formală. Principala diferență dintre un spațiu mental și o lume posibilă constă în faptul că spațiul mental nu se bazează pe o reprezentare fidelă a realității, ci pe un model cognitiv idealizat. Spațiile mentale și legăturile stabilite între acestea pot fi folosite pentru a explica interacțiunea dintre cunoaștere și referință în fenomenul numit opacitate referențială.

De asemenea, vom prezenta, pe scurt, importanța reprezentărilor mentale (spațiile mentale și lumile textuale) în poetica cognitivă. În poetica cognitivă, contextul este văzut ca incluzând atât circumstanțele sociale, cât și experiența personală. În timp ce stilistica tradițională apelează la teoriile lingvistice pentru a explica sau a estima interpretarea textuală, stilistica cognitivă se bazează pe teorii ce relaționează alegerile lingvistice și percepția textului de către cititor cu procesele cognitive și cu structurile conceptuale.

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Crafting Error-Free Translation of Wine Advertisements. An Exercise in Deriving Implicature

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Abstract: The paper integrates three already “cooperative” and cross-fertilising fields of scientific investigation, i.e. discourse analysis, translation studies and pragmatics, in an attempt to describe the functional levels of the wine advertising discourse, inwards and outwards. In the age of globalization and of glocalization, the translator’s multilayered competence, which definitely includes a pragmatic component, will secure optimal if not error-free translation, based on the activation of his/her encyclopaedic knowledge, of the shared knowledge with the prospective readership/consumers, and on information mining with respect to terminology management, intercultural awareness and expert knowledge acquisition. It is only these aggregate knowledge, values and skills that will lead to the translator’s maturing and accurate detection of implicature beyond the face value of wine advertisements and to his/her decision on promoting the brand and preserving the local flavour.

Keywords: *wine advertisements, implicature, error-free translation.*

1. State of the ad – the wine advertising discourse

It goes without saying that in the age of ICT, when the information travels so fast in space and time, nearly everyone is influenced, to a larger or smaller extent, by the promotion and advertising discourse. Advertisements have pervaded all the social and professional arenas, and there seems to be increased interest in the advertising discourse as a most dynamic field. Consumers have been learning how to better rely on advertisements when selecting, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing of products and services so as to satisfy their needs and desires and make well-informed decisions when buying a product or becoming loyal to a brand.

The traditional approach to describing advertisements as basically combining informative and persuasive language is re-shaped by Simpson (2001) in the distinction *reason vs. tickle*, the former type providing an objective motivation for purchase (in rhetoric terms, logos-oriented), whereas the latter category involves subjectivity – appeal to humour, emotion, mood (pathos-oriented). The distinction also underlies a pragmatic approach, as the reason type is based on detecting the locutionary meaning and the tickle advertisements imply the illocutionary value.

We think that the *reason* and *tickle* should not be viewed as a binary opposition, but as a movement from awareness to action. In fact, mainstream literature acknowledges that such a movement characterises both the marketing industry and the consumer profile. Dodds et al. (2008: 211ff) endorse that science is becoming increasingly embedded in culture as shown by “the proliferation of discourses of ethical consumption, sustainability, and environmental awareness,” and that health benefit claims (scientific and pseudoscientific in nature, loosely equated to “credence claims”) are made for “experience products” (generally evaluated after purchase) associated with indulgence and enjoyment.

For the sake of generalisation, argument and logic-based strategies are said to be most effective for purchases where there is a high level of consumer involvement whereas the search and purchase of luxury products is mostly triggered by subjective reasons. Another widely circulated tenet is that more knowledgeable consumers rely heavily on specific content rather than on more abstract concepts.

Following Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, we place wine consumption on the level of esteem needs (self-esteem, recognition and status). We integrate wine advertisements to trade advertisements (a category defined by Bhatia, 2004) as addressing experts and non-experts alike (the latter being identified with hobbyists by Bathia, 2004 and Tiefenbacher, 2013) because they are make a well-informed decision, based on the evaluation of the claims of cost, value, use, etc.

In line with Pavel (2013), we advocate that wine consumers are in fact good wine enthusiasts and that the wine culture involves much more than the product purchase, becoming a quality label attached to lifestyle or even branding a particular cuisine or place/region of origin:

In today’s consumer society, the wine has gone from being the staple diet to become one of the signs that show the status of the subject, as a demonstration of high rank and taste, aspirations, status, lifestyle, in which having fun, the pleasure, is the fruit of knowledge. It’s a hobby, a leisure culture, an environment implying major activities (vineyard tours, wine tastings, contest criticism), but also a passion “for lovers of good wines.” (Pavel, 2013: 50)

2. Policing the error-free translation in a bottle

In what follows, we shall analyse a number of print red French wine advertisements with a view to identifying the recurrent template, frequent terminology and highly sensitive translation issues into Romanian.



Chateau Bernot Bordeaux Rouge 2012

Bordeaux AOC

Gold medal-winning Bordeaux favourite from 400-year-old estate

Red Wine

France

- *About this wine*

Château Bernot is one of the most popular clarets on our list and it is not just down to its extraordinary value

- *The Bernard family have owned Château Bernot since the 16th century. Since 1981, it has been run by brothers, Bruno and Pierre-Joel, who are moving the vineyards to organic growing methods*

- *Unoaked, it's the juicy, ripe fruits that come to the fore in this easy-drinking claret*

- *A consistent winner of medals, the delicious-drinking 2012 vintage scooped another gold at the Concours de Bordeaux*

Tasting note: *56% Merlot, 39% Cabernet Sauvignon and 5% Cabernet Franc. A brimful of vibrant red and black berry fruits burst from the glass with subtle savoury spice developing with further aeration. Smooth and fresh, it's already drinking well – pair with a Sunday roast dinner.*

Suggested translation:

Chateau Bernot Bordeaux Rouge 2012

Domeniile Bordeaux

Cîștigător al medaliei de aur la Concursul de la Bordeaux, provenind de pe domenii vechi de 400 de ani

Vin roșu

Franța

- *Descriere*

Château Bernot este unul dintre cele mai populare vinuri roșii seci din lista noastră și asta nu doar datorită calității sale extraordinare.

- *Familia Bernard este proprietara domeniului din secolul al XVI-lea. Din 1981, domeniul este administrat de frații Bruno și Pierre-Joel, care folosesc metode organice.*

- *Nefiind învechit în butoaie de stejar, acest vin ușor de băut are o savoare fructată puternică.*
- *Medaliat constant, acest vin din 2012 a câștigat o altă medalie de aur la Concursul de la Bordeaux.*

Gust: *56% Merlot, 39% Cabernet Sauvignon și 5% Cabernet Franc. Cu gust pătrunzător de zmeură și mure și arome delicate care apar o dată cu aerarea. Fin și proaspăt, un vin perfect pentru friptură.*



Averys Fine Red Burgundy 2012
Bourgogne AOC
New Vintage Averys Red Burgundy
Red Wine
France

- *About this wine*

Nicolas is the son of the late Gerard Potel, former owner of the renowned Domaine de la Pousse d'Or. Growing up on this revered estate with a father who was well-loved by fellow winemakers has given Nicolas an amazing insight into Burgundy, as well as an enviable list of contacts. As a result, he gets access to parcels of grapes and wines that others could only dream of.

Tasting note: *Averys Red Burgundy 2012 is sourced from vineyards stretching from Volnay up to Nuits-Saint-Georges. There is good concentration this year owing to the lower yields, as well as a lovely purity of fruit. Delicious, juicy, red berry fruits are complemented by delicate spice and an attractive, fresh finish.*

Suggested translation:

Averys Fine Red Burgundy 2012
Domeniile Bourgogne
Colecție nouă de Averys Red Burgundy
Vin roșu
Franța

- *Descriere*

Nicolas este fiul răposatului Gerard Potel, fostul proprietar al renumitelor Domenii Pousse d'Or. Copilăria petrecută în acest mediu venerat cu un tată îndrăgit de alți producători de vin l-a făcut pe Nicolas nu doar un fin cunoscător al vinurilor de Burgundia, ci i-a adus și o listă de contacte demnă de invidiat. În consecință, are acces la soiuri de struguri și tipuri de vin la care alții doar visează.

Gust: *Averys Red Burgundy 2012 provine din podgorii care se întind de la Volnay până la Nuits-Saint-Georges. Anul acesta concentrația este bună datorită recoltei slabe și purității fructelor. Un vin delicios, succulent, cu gust de zmeură, la care se adaugă arome delicate și un final atractiv, fructat.*



Domaine Drouhin Laroze Gevrey Chambertin 2008

Chambertin Grand Cru

The palate is rich and focused with a typical Gevrey Chambertin spine.

Red Wine

France

- About this wine

The Laroze family have owned vineyards in Gevrey-Chambertin since 1850 and today, with 5th generation Philippe Drouhin in charge, it ranks as one of the region's leading estates. Aged for 18 months in barrel, this is a dark, powerful cuvée with a great intensity of fruit and minerality. You can choose to enjoy it now with rich dishes such as a boeuf bourgignon or game, or pop it in the cellar for further ageing.

Suggested translation:

Domaine Drouhin Laroze Gevrey Chambertin 2008

Domeniile Chambertin Grand Cru

Pe cerul gurii se simte gustul bogat de Gevrey Chambertin.

Vin roșu

Franța

- Descriere

Familia Laroze este proprietara domeniilor Gevrey-Chambertin din 1850, iar astăzi, la a V-a generație, cu Philippe Drouhin la cârmă, este unul dintre domeniile de prim rang din regiune. Învechit timp de 18 luni în butoaie, acest vin spumant este închis la culoare, cu aromă puternică și intens fructat și mineralizat. Îl puteți savura cu mâncăruri sațioase cum ar fi boeuf bourgignon sau vânat, sau îl puteți ține în cramă să se matureze.



Domaines Andre Aubert Grignan-les-Adhemar 'Le Devoy' 2012

Grignan-les-Adh mar AOC

Grignan-Les-Adh mar – the meeting of north and south

Red Wine

France

- *About this wine*

At the very heart of the Rh ne Valley, at the northerly tip of the Southern Rh ne, lie the vineyards of Grignan-Les-Adh mar. The chances are you haven't heard the name before, few people have, but the wines are worth seeking out.

It's not a new wine region – vines have been planted here since around 500 BC but it is a new name (formerly known as C teaux-du-Tricastin). The obscurity of the name and the fact that they've only had three vintages to build a reputation means the wines are very keenly priced. We were bowled over by this

red from Domaine Andr  Aubert which would put many of its more famous Rh ne neighbours to shame.

What we love about this wine is that, owing to the location of the vineyards, it shares qualities with both Northern and Southern Rh ne reds. It's supple and soft with lots of ripe fruit like those of the Southern Rh ne but with an appealing freshness thanks to the Mistral wind. It also has peppery, spicy hints and a silky Syrah character akin to those of the north. If all the wines in Grignan are as good as this one, this little-known appellation has a very big future.

This blend of Grenache, Syrah and Carignan is fresh and inviting with aromas of lush, ripe berry fruits and a touch of smokiness. Rich and mouth-filling but also fresh and easy-drinking, it makes a great fireside red to enjoy with warming casseroles as the evenings draw in.

Suggested translation:

Domaines Andre Aubert Grignan-les-Adhemar 'Le Devoy' 2012

Domeniile Grignan-les-Adh mar

Grignan-Les-Adh mar – acolo unde se int lne te nordul cu sudul

Vin ro u

Fran a

- *Descriere*

 n inima v ii Rh ne-ului,  n partea de nord a Rh ne-ului de sud, se  ntind domeniile Grignan-Les-Adh mar. Poate c  n-a i auzit de acest nume p n  acum, pu ini  l  tiu, dar vinurile merit  s  fie cunoscute.

Nu este o regiune viticol  nou  – vi a de vie este plantat  aici aproximativ din anul 500  .Hr., doar numele este nou (vechiul nume era

Côteaux-du-Tricastin). Obscuritatea numelui și faptul că reputația vinului s-a bazat doar pe trei recolte înseamnă că vinul merită prețuit. Am fost impresionați de acest vin roșu provenind de pe domeniile André Aubert, care i-ar face pe mulți dintre mai cunoscuții competitori din Rhône să pălească.

Ceea ce ne place la acest vin este faptul că, datorită poziției geografice a podgoriilor, are calități comune cu alte vinuri roșii din nordul și sudul Rhône-ului. Este suplu și fin, puternic fructat ca vinurile din sudul Rhône-ului, însă și de o prospețime uimitoare datorită adierii Mistralului. Este, de asemenea, piperat, condimentat și are o aromă ușoară de Syrah, ca vinurile din nord. Dacă toate vinurile din Grignan sunt la fel de bune ca acesta, atunci această denumire puțin cunoscută va avea un viitor strălucit. Acest amestec echilibrat de Grenache, Syrah și Carignan este proaspăt, îmbietor, puternic fructat și ușor afumat. Bogat, dar proaspăt și ușor de băut, merită savurat la cină.



La Triboulette Hermitage Cave de Tain 2008

Hermitage AOC

Fine Syrah from “a high quality co-op, offering excellent Hermitage” Hugh Johnson

Red Wine

France

• About this wine

Syrah is the only red grape used in the northern Rhône crus and arguably the finest of these are produced in Hermitage. These serious, long-lived reds rank among the greatest in the world, offering an incomparable silkiness and complexity.

• Made by Cave de Tain, the largest producer of Hermitage “This cooperative located on the outskirts of the village of Tain is one of France’s finest coops, producing some of the Northern Rhône’s most astonishing wines.” Robert Parker, The Wine Advocate, Dec 2012

• The secret to their success is that they have long-term contracts with many small growers as well as owning 21 hectares of their own vineyards on the steep terraces of Hermitage. This gives them unrivalled access to grapes within this tiny, much-heralded appellation.

• Hermitage consists of only 137 hectares in total on the world-famous Hermitage Hill. This exclusivity combined with the hard work involved in making it, not to mention the outstanding quality of the wines,

means that Hermitage always command a high price. It is rare to see one at such a modest price.

Tasting note: Hermitage is renowned for its glorious perfume and this is no exception. Complex notes of ripe red fruits, black olives, pepper and spice waft from the glass. Rich and generous on the palate with fine, silky tannins, it's a perfect balance of power and elegance. Its rich flavours make it a great match for game.

Suggested translation:

La Triboulette Hermitage Cave de Tain 2008

Domeniile Hermitage

Vinul fin Syrah provenit dintr-o "cramă de calitate, oferind un excelent Hermitage" Hugh Johnson

Vin roșu

Franța

• *Descriere*

Syrah este singurul soi de struguri roșii folosit în cramele din nordul Rhône-ului și probabil cele mai fine soiuri sunt produse la Hermitage. Acest vin roșu serios, cu o istorie bogată, este printre primele din lume, de o finețe și complexitate incomparabile.

• *Produce de Cave de Tain, cel mai mare producător de Hermitage "Această crămă situată la marginea satului Tain este una dintre cele mai renumite din Franța, producând unele dintre cele mai uimitoare vinuri din nordul Rhône-ului." – Robert Parker, The Wine Advocate, Decembrie 2012*

• *Secretul succesului stă în faptul că au contracte pe termen lung cu mulți viticultori mici și că dețin 21 de hectare de podgorii pe terasele abrupte ale dealurilor Hermitage. Asta le permite accesul liber la struguri care poartă această denumire atât de cunoscută.*

• *Hermitage are doar 137 de hectare pe renumitul deal Hermitage. Această exclusivitate combinată cu abnegație și cu calitatea extraordinară a vinurilor înseamnă că Hermitage va cere întotdeauna un preț pe măsură. Rar găsești un astfel de vin la un preț mic.*

Gust: *Hermitage este renumit pentru parfumul său, iar acest vin nu face excepție. Arome complexe de fructe roșii, măslina neagră, piper și condimente compun acest buchet. Cerul gurii îl simte bogat și generos, cu gust fin de tanin, echilibrul perfect între putere și eleganță. Aromele puternice îl recomandă pentru vânat.*

As far as the template is concerned, we can easily spot the following structure:

identification details (brand name, appellation) + slogan + brief description of the product (*About this wine*) + *Tasting note* (optionally),

conveying information about the wine, the brand and the wine maker.

Actually, we recognize Caballero's (2007: 2099) technical card, iconically reflecting the wine tasting procedure, i.e. the visual description of the wine, followed by the olfactory and gustatory impressions, the wine's aftertaste or internal olfactory capture, and the finish, i.e. how the wine vaporizes:

Introduction of wine

Name and year	and/or
Winery	and/or
Price	and/or
Score	and/or
Cases/bottles made	and/or
Grape composition	and/or

First evaluation of wine

Assessment of the wine's color

Assessment of the wine's nose (aroma and bouquet)

Assessment of the wine's palate (flavors and texture or mouthfeel)

Attack	and/or
Mid-palate	and/or

Aftertaste or finish

Closing evaluation of the wine

Potential consumers	and/or
Consumption span	and/or
Recommended food	and/or

Final evaluation.

Unfailingly, the use of appellation (based on a hierarchy of specific territorial divisions – regions, districts, communes, villages, individual vineyards and châteaux) is controlled – *Appellation d'origine contrôlée* – *controlled name of origin*, acronym, *AOC*), being intended to lend more visibility and economic power in an ever more crowded wine market. For instance, training further our cultural awareness and wine geography, we should know that *Gevrey-Chambertin* gives ones of the most celebrated Burgundy wines, and that the whole Burgundy region with varying landscape

(from the lowlands of the Paris Basin to the plateaus of Jurrasic) is a premier wine-producing region; the region of Bordeaux has a long history in wine culture, the Bordeaux wine classification includes 36 districts, the *château* label guarantees that the wine is not a blend, the *château*-bottled wines rated best are called *crus classés*, subdivided into five *growths*.

Bruwer and Johnson (2010) highlight that wine consumers consider the place-based information as an indication of the content in the bottle and achievement of quality and distinction (associated with the social status and luxury lifestyle) of the wine. As exemplified above, bionotes of the winemaker (and his/her family) hinting at his/her passion and craft, or the history of a vineyard (as a cultural heritage) is meant to create a feeling of togetherness and familiarity. Explicit mention of the landscape associated with the vineyard is also part of the branding strategy, the consumer can derive a taste of place in a glass.

Also, dealing with culture-bound items and terminology management, we draw attention to: *AOC*, a highly opaque term as an abbreviation, rendered into Romanian by modulation - *domeniile*; *Château*, equated to *domeniile* via neutralisation as no distinction is kept between *region*, *domaine* and *château* (geographical units in decreasing order, the last being also transferred in English to create local flavour); *claret* as typifying the Bordeaux red wine, translated into Romanian by a descriptive equivalent – *vin roșu sec*; *vintage* – referring to the process of picking grapes and creating the finished product in a single specified year, translated into Romanian by a strategy of compensation and modulation – *recoltă*; *Merlot*, *Cabernet Sauvignon*, varieties of black wine grape originally from the Bordeaux region (transferred); *Cabernet Franc* (transferred), a variety of black wine grape grown chiefly in parts of the Loire Valley and NE Italy; *grapes and wines*, their Romanian counterparts *soiuri de struguri și tipuri de vin*, involving explicitation; *Grand Cru* – a ranking of quality (great vintage), transferred to create both local flavour and glamour; *cuvée*, a blend of wine, especially champagne, rendered by *vin spumant* (descriptive equivalent); *Grenache*, *Syrah* and *Carignan* – varieties of dark-skinned grapes native to the Languedoc-Roussillon region of France, *Hermitage* – a rich Syrah-based wine (all of them transferred).

3. Implicature and the wine consumerland

Broadly speaking, competent language users are equipped with a seemingly infinite number of possibilities for how to express what they intend to; they can opt out either for direct or indirect ways, in the latter

case, the speaker is said to imply meaning as complying with linguistic and socio-cultural norms.

Specifically referring to the (wine) advertising discourse, what the advertiser always implies is the appeal “Buy the product.” The implied meaning also concerns the consumer’s benefits. At tis stage, let us remember that *implicature*, as defined by Grice (1975) and further developed by Levinson (1983, 2000), Bach (2006), is dependent on context explaining the cooperative use of inference skills, and that Relevance theory (see Sperber and Wilson, 1986) replaces conversational maxims with communicative efficiency.

Let us examine a few claims from the samples above and derive the implicature:

*Château Bernot is one of the **most popular** clarets **on our list**...*

Implicature: We have already made a selection for you.

*... who are **moving** the vineyards **to** organic growing methods*

Implicature: They are not using totally organic methods now.

*... **easy-drinking** claret*

Implicature: Suited for both men and women.

*... with subtle savoury spice **developing with further aeration**.*

Implicature: It is advisable to let it aerate.

*There is **good** concentration **this year**...*

Implicature: It may not have been as good the years before.

The chances are you haven't heard the name before...

Implicature: The brand/wine is not popular.

*...this **little-known** appellation has a very **big future***

Implicature: The brand is almost unknown at present.

*... producing **some** of the Northern Rhône's **most astonishing** wines.*

Implicature: The wines may not be very well-known, but are worth experiencing.

*The **secret** to their success **is that**...*

Implicature: It is no longer a secret.

Interestingly, all these implicatures are preserved in the Romanian translation, which shows linguistic and cultural symmetry or a process of acculturation.

4. Good wine needs no bush?

The analysis of wine advertisements from a cross-cultural translation-oriented perspective will enable the understanding of terminology and the still evolving language of wine that can influence the ever more complex sensual (vision, smell, taste), aesthetic and intellectual experiences of wine lovers and not only.

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Rezumat: Lucrarea integrează mai multe domenii de investigație științifică, recunoscute ca intersectându-se și influențându-se reciproc, i.e. analiza discursului, traductologia, pragmatica, comunicarea interculturală etc în încercarea de a descrie nivelele funcționale ale discursului publicitar despre vin, din perspectivă internă și externă. În era globalizării și glocalizării, competența multifuncțională a traducătorului, care, în mod cert, include și componenta pragmatică, oferă garanția unei traduceri optime, chiar nemarcată de erori, bazată pe activarea cunoștințelor enciclopedice, a cunoștințelor partajate cu potențialii cititori – consumatori și pe capacitatea de documentare legată de gestionarea terminologiei, competență interculturală și dobândirea de cunoștințe de specialitate. Doar acest cumul de cunoștințe, valori și abilități îi poate asigura traducătorului identificarea cu acuratețe a implicaturii, dincolo de valoarea informativă a reclamelor la vin, și poate contribui la luarea unei decizii corecte în ceea ce privește promovarea brandului și păstrarea culorii locale în traducere.

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Oral Narrations – Where “Errors” are the Foundation for Creativity

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Abstract: Folklore has been part of most cultures at all times. The stories were predominantly oral, passing from storyteller to storyteller. Each storyteller brought something of himself into the story; is that to be considered an error? What place and value does the traditional storytelling have in these times, where films and digital texts are replacing traditional means of presentation? These two issues will be addressed in this article.

Keywords: *narrations, folklore, creativity, language acquisitions.*

1. Introduction

We need the fairy tale – not just as entertaining play, but as a means to convey ideals and wisdom of life; a shortcut to heart and mind. Because it is always ourselves we meet, disguised as witches and princesses, animals and trolls. (Bringsværd, 1987)

Folklore, legends, tales, and songs, have been part of most cultures at all times. Over time, these tales were collected and written down, and today this is a treasure available for all of us who can read. When I read a story from one of these storybooks, my listeners receive something from their culture, tradition and heritage. Traditional conveying of folklore is not only about listening to the old tales, it is also about *telling* stories.

When the texts became available in the written form, they may be read, rather than memorized. In this way, folktales become easier to read to an audience, rather than having to memorize and learn by heart. The communication process is simplified, and the passing of information becomes more accurate by avoiding inconsistencies due to a possible lack of memory of detail. *Is a variation in narratives to be considered an error?*

In the introductory quote, Bringsværd clearly states we need fairy tales. Today’s multimedia society offers entertainment and information through numerous channels not available a few years ago. *What place and value does the traditional storytelling have in these times, where films and digital texts are replacing traditional means of presentation?*

2. Folklore

The oral tradition of storytelling has through all times been part of almost every culture; it was not only entertainment, but also a way to receive information about the present and the past. Tales, myths, legends, fables, and songs were passed from storyteller to storyteller, from time to time, and from place to place. Folklore is a tradition of storytelling that appealed to the broader part of the population; both in pre-literate times, and among the illiterate in a not so distant past; and sources on the origin, geographical spread, and function of the tales are scarce. Much of the known tales have roots in the Medieval period (800-1400 AD), and were only recorded in writing during the 19th century. The oldest individually recorded stories found up to now, come from Egypt, and are recorded on papyrus scrolls some three to four thousand years old. The plot and drive of these stories remind us of the later tales of folklore.

Traditional tales were collected and written down by authors such as Asbjørnsen and Moe in Norway, and the Grimm brothers in central Europe. Due to oral telling and retelling, each story had at the time of recording an individual form of expression, where each telling was coloured by the storyteller. Collectors like Asbjørnsen, Moe and Grimm thus needed to make a selection from all the available versions of the tales they got to hear. The power of the written text saw that the versions not recorded soon faded and became but a distant memory; and the oral versions that may have survived are often seen as less “correct” than the ones manifested in various written collections of fairy tales.

With knowledge of the nature of folk tales, we know that there is no version that is more correct or erroneous than the other when it comes to the telling of a fairy tale: there are just different presentations thereof. Folklore is dynamic and creative. The variations may disclose something of the place of origin, nature, and local culture. An example of these is the traces of Homer’s Greek epos *Odyssey*, and Odyssey’s meeting with the Cyclops¹ Polyfemos, in northern Norwegian folklore. Northern Norway consists of a long coastline with high mountains, mountain plateaus, and deep valleys, and is the home of diverse cultures. The variations of stories told are adapted to both culture and landscape. Sami folklore tells of a Sami boy

¹ According to Greek myths, the Cyclopes were a tribe of terrifying one-eyed, man-eating giants; created by fire and stone, and so strong that they could pile mountains on top of each other.

who is captured by a Stallo² who lives in a Sami sod house³. The boy tricks the Stallo, and burns out his eyes (Pollan, 1999: 78). In a Norwegian tale that takes place along the coast, we hear about a man who is boiling cod liver oil in the boat house, when a terrible monster comes to the door. The man presents himself to the monster as “Self”, and ends up by throwing a bailer full of boiling oil in its face (Strompdal, 1929: 68). From the in-land and the Norwegian farming society, we have a story where a man blinds a Troll dwelling in the mill. The Troll, like the Cyclops, has only one eye in the middle of its forehead, and the man burns it out. (Olsen, 1912: 195-196)

Even though some of the variations in stories told were lost during the collection of tales, the story collectors have been given the honour for folklore being recorded and rescued in a time where books, films, and later digital texts have taken much of the place of oral storytelling traditions.

Folklore tells of life itself; of how land marks, animals, and flowers came into being and got their names. The tales would often carry a moral message, and served to enlighten the audience. When the little hero defeats the large Troll, it is a tale about the child or the little man against someone or something more powerful. There is a legend about the islands on the coast of Helgeland, and how they got their names. The legend tells of the positions of the different islands you will pass when you sail in this area; the legend thus has through the ages served as a map for navigation.

Some years ago, I participated in a project between the University College of Education in Krems, Austria and Nesna University College, Norway. One of the aims in this project was to learn more about different cultures, folklore and folktales. The Grimm brothers and their folktales are well known in Norway, and during the process the students learnt that folklore from central Europe has so much more to offer. In Norway, there are numerous stories about the characters from the netherworld, and mermaids who live in the sea, but these characters are different from those of the legends we received from Krems. However, there is at least one thing they have in common: *legends are used to scare children away from water*. In Austria they tell about the dangerous and ugly Donau-Fürst who lures people to the river Danube, and drowns them. In the Sami tradition, we meet the Stallo who does the same thing. He lives close to the Sami settlements,

² The Sami Stallo and the Norwegian trolls are not equal. Both are considered evil and rather stupid, and the trolls are large and will turn to stone if the sunlight hits them. The Stallo is of the same size as a man, but he is stronger, and as he comes from the land of the Midnight sun; thus the sun is no threat to him.

³ The Sami people were originally nomads, and therefor relied on simple, but warm places of dwelling. A Sami sod house (gamme) is a circular sod structure with one room and no windows. There is a centrally located fireplace, and a hole in the roof for smoke evacuation.

and waits by the waterhole for children, who he captures. The Norwegian Noekk lives in the river falls or in ponds in the woods. He plays the violin, and lures especially young girls to the water, where they are drowned.

3. The story in language stimulating work

The folklore we find written down and recorded in various collections is part of our heritage, telling about our past, our history. Another part of this heritage is the storyteller tradition. This tradition of oral deliverance can be creative, where the storyteller tells something new, or improvises over an older and well-known theme, rooted in traditions. The use of folklore and the oral storytelling is not only about passing on culture and traditions; it is also about stimulating the use of both oral and written language, both for children learning to speak their mother tongue, and learning a new language.

When learning a second language, grammar and accuracy in pronouncing is an important issue. Some people are afraid to use the new language they are learning, they are aware that it is incorrect; they have “errors.” In many ways, this fear of errors can hold a person back in language acquisition. The learners are more concerned about accuracy, than fluency and language as communication. Children will often be opposite, having more focus on communication, not caring about accuracy. Growing up, our children spend many years in school, where writing, reading, and mathematical skills can be a platform for all learning; a basic requirement for every aspect of life. To learn these skills well, the children have to be skilled speakers. They need to have a good vocabulary; they will have to learn about how their language is constructed. It does not matter what group the learner is in, using the language is the best way to learn it.

At a young age, the child goes through a rapid development of language acquisition where the children together experiment and play with language options while playing and telling stories to each other (Brok, 2005: 182). It is important that the child is in an environment where language is used actively, thus acquiring new terms and phrases in a meaningful context. Oral narratives followed by conversation, illustrations, and the children’s own narratives, pave the way for a joyful and natural practice of new words, concepts, and narrative patterns; further strengthening the child’s linguistic consciousness and self-confidence. Stimulating language acquisition is not just about focus on pronunciation, new vocabulary or concepts, but also about the child learning to use the vocabulary to explain and retell. (Gjems, 2006: 78-86)

Children that are good storytellers benefit from this as they grow older. They are better listeners, and they learn about the structure in a story. As a listener, the child learns new words and builds a larger and more varied vocabulary, and as a storyteller, the child tries out new words and sentences. They try out new ideas and new thoughts. They taste the new things. The spoken language is after all the first stepping-stone for all further education.

A number of studies have documented that narrative competence at pre-school age lays a foundation for later reading competence. (Aukrust, 2005: 28). Children who have been read to, realize at an early stage that there is a connection between the signs and symbols in the book and the words that come out of the adult's mouth. They know that learning to read will give them a chance to read lovely stories and learn about new things. Children who like to tell a story, understand why they need to learn to write. Letters and words can express all the ideas and images they have inside themselves, they have something they are eager to tell; and they know that if they write their stories down, they can be read over and over again.

4. The narrator

The main difference between reading and telling a story is that when you are reading from a book, you are giving your voice to another storyteller, the author. When you are telling a story, you are the narrative voice. You cannot hide behind a book or another storyteller; you have to give from yourself.

“Can one learn to narrate, or is that an ability one is born with?” the pupil asks. “Of course it is something one can learn – if you are born with the ability!” answers the teacher (Eskild and Hambro, 2005: 46). Some may have a natural talent and are born narrators with a passion for narration; but I believe that everyone can learn to narrate if they so wish. When some are much better narrators than others, it is often the result of received stimuli. Children learn to narrate by listening to other narratives and through attentive listeners. It is all about daring to let go and unleash their potential, and have faith in one's own abilities. Assurance that there is no one key solution to how a story is to be narrated is an important factor; as is the assurance that your narrative is important for the audience.

Teaching a subject, it is of importance to not only have a theoretical approach to the given subject, but also a practical approach. I arrange and head storytelling workshops for my own students in teacher training and employees in kinder garden; as well as free-lancing as narrator on a variety of occasions and contexts. I have thus gathered experience acquiring a variety of texts and the narration thereof. When I am to convey folklore, I

need to rehearse the applicable texts, and then make the material my own; taking into use my own vocabulary and formulations suited to the intended audience. I tell the story aloud for myself, and when I say the words aloud I can feel that these are the right words to use. “To narrate may be seen as an individual form of art, where you can include some of the tools and techniques of the theatre” (Heggstad, 2012: 91) (my translation). Narration is a minimalistic form of expression, where the narrator is in possession of five important tools: Eyes, voice, mimics, gesture, and body. The voice is the narrator’s primary tool, but the eyes are seen as the most important expressive tool. “The narrator uses glance not only to attract the attention of the audience, but also to express emotions and to guide the individual listener’s attention in different directions. When it comes to mimics, gesture, and body, the main advice is to economize.” (Knutson og Ørvig, 2006: 114) (my translation)

From experience, this is the most natural way to narrating folklore in accordance with its traditional narration. This is not only because it is the originality of the narrative technique that is sought, where the individual narrative is coloured by the narrator, and in that sense is an individual piece of narrative art, but also that through telling rather than reading creates a different communication and bonding with the audience than what might be achieved reading from a book.

Here follows an example of a task I often give in workshops in storytelling. I have a bag filled with different things, mostly odds and ends, I call it *The magic bag*. The students have to pick an item from the bag, without looking. Then they have to tell a story connected to this item, which starts with these words: “This is my most valuable item, and this is the story about how I got it.”

This is a task that is difficult for most adults, as they are forced to denounce the item for what it de facto is, and move on to an imaginary world. They need to call on their creativity to find the good descriptions and good points. An important part of the task is to learn that there is not always a key solution; there are no correct or incorrect answers – just different ways of solving the task. Another important part of the task is daring – daring to tell.

Children are still in a playful world, and thus find it easier to solve tasks like this. Here is an example of how to work with improvisation and creating stories from a kindergarten in a small mountain village in northern Norway. I was invited to take part in a “fairy tale week” in order to learn more about how the employees work teaching the children the art of narration.

Close by the kindergarten, there is a Sami sod hut, and the first day of the week started with a trip there. On the way through the woods, the

children searched for a magic fairy tale stick. “What is a magic fairy tale stick?” asked one of the children. “You will see when we find it”, was the response. “Perhaps it resembles something?” The children searched for sticks, studied them, showed them to each other, smelled them, and tasted them. “Is this one magic?” a boy asked. A girl studied it, wrinkled her forehead and shook her head. After a little while, one of the adults found a stick. “Look at this one!” she said. The children stormed over to her to see the stick she had found, “Does this not look like a crow’s foot?” she asked. The children nodded, and were in agreement that this stick contained much magic.

Arriving at the sod hut, the fire was lit to create the right atmosphere. Children and adults gathered around the fire and joiked a welcome joik⁴. This first day, the kindergarten teacher narrated a story she had created, while holding the magic fairy tale stick. She added sound effects to her story, and the children participated in the narration helping her with these; they were the blowing wind and the crying wolves. “If the story does not catch the attention of the children from the start, or we are not able to maintain their concentration, ask the children to help tell the story” is her advice.

The following day, the trip went directly to the sod hut and another lit fire. One of the employees made a small introduction, and then handed the magic fairy tale stick to the child on her left; the child continued her story. When the child ran out of things to say, she passed the magic stick on to the child on her left to continue with the story. In this manner, the magic stick circulated to all the children in the circle around the fire. The employees sat spread among the children to help them along if needed. If the story halted, the adults could add some questions to help the children along. Some of the children clearly enjoyed telling their part of the story, and had a hard time letting go of the magic stick; in that case, the adults took responsibility for passing the stick on without further ado. A couple of rounds of storytelling was sufficient for the children, before heading out to play

The last day of the week, one of the children was asked whether he would start the fairy tale. If the child would have had reservations, the task would be passed on to the next child. By the next round, the first child would be up to telling his part. At times the story would come to a halt, typically at the sudden death of the main character, and it would be challenging to continue. In this case, one of the children introduced a lion that ate the main characters. An adult then took over the magic stick and ensured a continuation where the two main characters survived, one of the main characters had forgotten to cut his nails, and could scrape a hole in the lion’s stomach. In this fashion, the story and magic stick could continue.

⁴ A joik (also spelled yoik) is a traditional Sami form of song.

The child who took over the magic stick felt sorry for the lion, and thus appeared a little hero with a first aid kit to help the lion. It was exciting to witness how these young children were able to fabulate. Each of these days ended with a session of reflection upon return to the kindergarten. The adults asked questions about the story, the children retold what they remembered, and also drew what had made the greatest impression on them.

Inspiration getting started on a task or a piece of work, is about receiving impulses that trigger the creative process, according to the English drama-pedagogue Malcolm Ross' model for creative work, where this type of impulses is placed in the center. In this model, the elements of the arts curriculum are sensations and sensuous experiences, understanding presentational and representational media, craft skills that allow the control of media and imaging and surrounding it all the playfulness. (Ross, 1978: 80-81)

Brok in his book states that methodical work with developing children's narrative competence always consists of two equally important steps:

1. First and foremost it is about supporting the children's spontaneous narrative desire. It is important that the adult appears as a linguistic narrative role model, and needs to have a ready supply of interesting and age applicable stories, and in general create conditions for the development for a listening culture within the group of children.
2. Then one may start to use various methods to stimulate the children's own story narration. (Brok, 2005: 182) (my translation)

The magic fairy tale stick was passed among all around the fire, adults and children alike, so that all would participate in the creation and development of the stories. This created a magic atmosphere surrounding the story, and served as inspiration, as well as a system where all could have the word without being interrupted. Through well thought out planning and tasks, the adults created a context and landscape to stimulate the children's imagination. In the ears of the adults, the stories lacked some finer points and a red thread; and the stories did not have one highlight, but numerous. There was also a challenge to gather the loose ends to conclude the stories. However, this did not in any way serve as a damper to the children's joy of storytelling, and they enjoyed their own story and contribution; and importantly enjoyed listening to each other's contributions.

In all work with language, be it learning one's mother tongue, a foreign language, or a written language, it comes down to the availability of good role models who actively use the language, and who support and facilitate the children or the students in their storytelling. If we as teachers

show that we like telling stories, and that we are listening when children or students are telling stories, their ability to tell stories will grow. Their language and vocabulary will be better. It feels good to tell stories when you feel that you have an interested audience.

5. Conclusive remarks

In response to whether *variations in narratives are to be considered an error*, storytelling or narration is the very nature of folklore, and there is no such thing as one narrative being correct, and another erroneous; it is all about different narrations. In this we also find the answer to the second question: *what place and value does the traditional storytelling have in these times, where films and digital texts are replacing traditional means of presentation?* When acquiring a language, whether it is our mother tongue or a second language, we need to use the language to build competence through both speech and writing. Telling stories is a good way of achieving this goal. Folklore is dynamic and creative, as opposed to more static texts and facts where the author is subject to a critical audience, searching for errors in the presentation.

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Rezumat: Folclorul a făcut parte din majoritatea culturilor în toate timpurile. Poveștile aveau predominant un caracter oral, trecând de la un povestitor la altul. Fiecare povestitor a adus ceva din propria ființă în povestire; aceasta ar trebui să fie considerată o greșală? Ce loc ocupă și ce valoare are povestitul tradițional în timpurile noastre, când filmele și textele în format electronic înlocuiesc formele tradiționale de prezentare? Aceste două aspecte vor fi abordate în acest articol.

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