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Hedging Patterns Used as Mitigation and Politeness Strategies

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Abstract: *Hedging* has received much attention in recent years in relation to conversational rules and social conventions as it is the main strategy used to facilitate turn-taking, show politeness and mitigate *face*-threats. For linguists, *hedging* has aroused interest and curiosity because it is a means of conveying vagueness purposely. *Hedging* is used by speakers and writers to convey *certainty* or *doubt* towards a statement and to show the degree of confidence they assign to their claim. By using hedges, writers allow their readers to evaluate the truth value of the assertion. Politeness and hedging have become forms of encoding verbal and non-verbal behaviour with the purpose of *saving face*, thus playing a crucial role in social interaction strategies. *Hedging* represents a crucial aspect in the study of language as the appropriate use of hedges reflects a high degree of efficiency in social interaction by demonstrating the ability to express degrees of certainty and mastering rhetorical strategies required in conversational circumstances. In this paper, we seek to investigate and compare the main hedging strategies in English and Romanian and the social and communicational roles they fulfill.

Keywords: *hedging, mitigation, politeness, face, certainty, doubt, vagueness.*

1. What is *hedging*

Hedging has received much attention in relation to conversational rules as a means to facilitate turn-taking, show politeness, mitigate face-threats, but it is also considered a means of conveying vagueness purposely. Politeness and hedging have become forms of social interpretation of verbal and non-verbal behaviour revolving around the concept of *saving face*, thus playing a crucial role in social interaction strategies.

In language studies, hedging has come to designate a manifestation of language by means of which speakers take precautionary measures to protect themselves from the negative effect of their sayings or to protect themselves or their interlocutors from any harm to the concept of *face* caused by their utterances.

Lakoff analysed hedges as "*words whose meaning implicitly involves fuzziness-words whose job is to make things fuzzier or less*

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fuzzy" (1972: 271) and he discussed words and phrases manifesting hedging power (like *rather, very, in a manner of speaking*) setting some boundaries in how to interpret linguistic items as hedges. Lakoff also discussed the fact that hedges "*interact with felicity conditions for utterances and with rules of conversation*" (1972: 213), thus setting the coordinates for interpreting hedges as manifestations conditioned by pragmatic factors.

A *hedge* has later been defined by Brown/Levinson (1978: 145) as: "a particle, word or phrase that modifies the degree of membership of a predicate or a noun phrase in a set; it says of that membership that it is partial or true only in certain respects, or that it is more true and complete than perhaps might be expected."

The boundaries of hedging are, thus, extended to "negative" politeness which is used for avoiding threats to the face of the participants. This definition includes in hedges both *detensifiers* and *intensifiers*, which was how Lakoff also saw hedges. Nonetheless, hedges are often limited only to expressions showing that "the match between a piece of knowledge and a category is less than perfect." (Chafe, 1986: 270)

Hedging represents a crucial aspect of language as the appropriate use of hedges reflects a high degree of efficiency in social interaction by demonstrating the ability to express degrees of certainty and mastering rhetorical strategies required under conversational circumstances: "Hedging refers to any linguistic means used to indicate either a) a lack of complete commitment to the truth value of an accompanying proposition, or b) a desire not to express that commitment categorically." (Hyland 1998a: 1)

The study of hedging has deepened over the past twenty years. Literature includes various works on the topic and various labels are used to denote this category, such as *softeners* (Crystal & Davy, 1975), *weakeners* (Brown and Levinson, 1978, 1987), *downgraders* (House & Kasper 1981), *compromisers* (James, 1983), *tentativeness* (Holmes, 1983), *understatement* (Hübler 1983), *evidentiality* (Chafe 1986), *downtoners* (Greenbaum et al. 1990), *diminishers* / *downtoners* (Biber & al.,1999), *stance markers* (Atkinson 1999).

Namasaraev (1997: 67) identifies 4 parameters that characterize hedging strategies:

- Indetermination – adding a degree of fuzziness or uncertainty to a single word or chunk of language;

- Depersonalisation – avoiding direct reference by using “we” or “the authors” or some other impersonal subjects;
- Subjectivisation – using *I + think/ suppose, assume* and other verbs of thinking with the purpose of signaling the subjectivity of what is said, as a personal view instead of the absolute truth;
- Limitation – removing fuzziness or vagueness from a part of a text by limiting category membership.

According to Hübler (1983) hedges are used to increase the appeal of the utterance, to make it more acceptable to the interlocutor and thus increase the probability of acceptance and reduce the chances of negation. This could also explain the actual term *hedge* as the attitude of the speaker trying to protect him/herself from potential rejection on the part of the interlocutor. House & Kasper believe (1981) that “both these functions – one defensive and ego-oriented, the other protective or alter-oriented are fulfilled by politeness.” (1981: 157)

By using hedging devices and displaying uncertainty and reservation, authors and speakers alike may be attempting to suggest the absence of absoluteness or the varying amount of accuracy of their statements. At the same time, they may try to save face in case of any possible falsification of their judgments. By using hedges and not attributing the ideas to oneself, writers can also invite readers to evaluate the truth value of the proposition as an independently thinking individual without the possibility of being biased by the absoluteness of a non-hedged statement.

2. Lexical and grammatical patterns of *hedging*

Our analysis will be focusing on the main lexical realizations of hedges as well as on epistemic modal elements functioning as politeness markers or/and as hedges in the discourse of Jane Austen’s novels. The examples extracted from our corpus will be analysed in parallel with their Romanian translations so as to demonstrate whether the same politeness strategies appear in Romanian. Also, it is within our area of interest whether the two languages play the game of politeness by the same pragmatic rules, i.e. whether the utterances display the same illocution, perlocution or abide by the same maxims etc.

Hedges are roughly considered to be represented by lexical verbs (*seem, tend, appear*), modals (*may, might*) and some adverbs (*probably, perhaps*), although conditional clauses, passive voices, and impersonal phrases can also be proven to have hedging powers.

The following section discusses some of the most frequent occurrences of hedges and some examples from our corpus with the purpose of finding out whether hedging strategies employed in English make use of the same lexical items for their realization in Romanian. Hedges, therefore, are most commonly realized under the form of:

- Modal auxiliaries
- Lexical-modal verbs
- Adjectival, adverbial and nominal phrases
- Approximates of degree, quantity, frequency and time
- Discourse epistemic phrases
- If clauses
- Negative constructions
- Compound and multiple hedging

2.1 Modal auxiliaries: may, might, can, could, should, would, must, particularly in their epistemic senses. Modal verbs reflect the speaker's attitude and help them express ideas indirectly, which makes modal verbs perfect candidates as hedging devices. Moreover, they allow speakers to be fuzzy about an informational content, avoid face threatening acts and formulate illocutions so as not to offend the hearer.

We believe that the modal verbs *shall* and *will* in their epistemic stances expressing *probability* that X will happen or *certainty* of the speaker about the truth of his statements cannot be understood as hedges because they have an *I am telling you so* component rather than *I am telling you I am not sure* one. *Should* and *would*, on the other hand display varying degrees of hesitation and tentativeness on the part of the speaker in vouching for the absolute accuracy of his statement and therefore can be considered to play a hedging role when this reading is present.

Example

E: *"But **if** a woman is partial to a man, and does not endeavour to conceal it, he **must** find it out."*

*"**Perhaps he must**, if he sees enough of her*. (P&P: 246)

R: - *Dar **dacă** o femeie are înclinație pentru un bărbat şi nu încearcă să i-o ascundă, el **trebuie** să-şi dea seama de acest lucru.*

- ***Poate că trebuie**, dacă o vede îndeajuns*. (2009: 28)

Comment: The value of *must* is *certainty* arrived at by *logical inference on the basis of available information* and the modal functions as a hedge in both instances: in the first instance, *must* reads "*I do not say that X*" but rather "*I am bound by the available evidence to conclude that must be X*." The speaker is thus partially absolved of blame in case of being proven wrong later on. These instances of *must* are translated as *trebuie*.

The presence of the If clause and of the epistemic adverb *perhaps* is notable because they are also hedges by the hypothetical understanding they assign to the sentence: the speaker is not willing to take the states of affairs as certain but rather as an assumption. *Perhaps* is translated by its Romanian equivalent *poate*.

2.2 Lexical verbs with modal meanings, mainly the so-called *speech act verbs* used to perform acts like *evaluating, assuming* or *doubting* rather than merely describing: the epistemic *seem* and *appear*, also *believe, assume, suggest, estimate, tend, think, argue, indicate, propose, speculate, suppose* etc. When used epistemically as hedging elements these verbs express the speaker's strong belief in the truth of the utterance or, on the contrary, the speaker's unwillingness to vouch for understanding the utterance as more than a personal opinion.

Example

E: *"Your sister,* ***I understand****, doesn't approve of second attachments."*

"No," replied Elinor, "her opinions are all romantic."

"Or rather, ***as I believe*****, *she considers them impossible*** *to exist." (S & S: 35)*

R: - După câte ***am înțeles****, sora dumneavoastră crede că omul nu poate iubi decât o singură dată în viață.*

- Da, are păreri din cale-afară de romantice, răspunse Elinor.

- Sau ***cred,*** *mai degrabă,* ***că ea-şi*** *închipuie că a iubi a doua oară în viață* ***este ceva cu totul imposibil.*** (1995: 57)

Comment**:** *I understand* is a hearsay evidential marker shielding the speaker against public disrepute for claiming as his own words what he has heard from additional sources. The Romanian translation is more tentative because it used the verb *to understand* in the remote past (*După câte am înțeles*), a device which has a clear hedging power, demonstrating the speaker's wish to be contradicted on grounds of his statement being outdated and contrary to the present state of affairs.

As I believe introduces the speaker's personal opinion, contrary to the hearsay mentioned before, aimed at providing a mere personal interpretation of some available information. The translation is interesting, "***cred,*** *mai degrabă**, că**"* and it can be equated to "*I think it is more likely that...*"

2.3. Adjectival, adverbial and nominal modal phrases:

i. (modal) adjectives have hedging power when they are used epistemically to diminish the strength of the nouns they determine and they usually form a predicate with the verb to be: (It is) *possible, probable, un/likely*:

Example

*E: I wonder you should think it **possible** for me to have such feelings. [...] That she is a gentleman's daughter is **indubitable** to me; that she associates with gentlemen's daughters, **no one, I apprehend**, **will deny.*** (*E.: 807)*

*R: Mă întreb cum crezi că e **posibil** să am asemenea sentimente. [...] După mine **e clar** că tatăl ei e un gentleman. Iar că prietenele ei sunt de familie bună, **nu cred** că **poate** nega cineva.* (1992: 46)

Comment: "*I wonder you should think it **possible***" in fact reads "*it is impossible*" and the speaker used this intricate hedge to criticise her interlocutor for having such terrible thoughts. The modal adjective *possible* is translated by its Romanian equivalent *posibil* in combination with *a fi (to be)*. The adjective *indubitable* is translated as if it were *clear* by the phrase *e clar* to render the speaker's *certainty* and commitment to what she is saying. This expression of *certainty*, though, is hedged by the phrase *to me (după mine)* expressing *certainty* as a matter of personal opinion which may or may not be shared by others.

ii. Modal nouns render epistemic *certainty* or, on the contrary, *doubt*: *assumption, claim, doubt, possibility, probability, estimate, suggestion, likelihood,* etc.:

Example

E: "***I was told*** *that not only your sister was on the point of being most advantageously married, but that you, that Miss Elizabeth Bennet, would**, in all likelihood**, be soon afterwards united to my nephew, my own nephew, Mr. Darcy. Though **I know it must be a scandalous falsehood,** though **I would not injure him so much as to suppose the truth of it possible,** I instantly resolved on setting off for this place, that I might make my sentiments known to you*."(P & P: 450)

R: ***Mi s-a spus*** *că nu numai sora dumitale este pe punctul de a face o căsătorie foarte avantajoasă, ci că dumneata - domnişoara Elizabeth Bennet,* ***după toate probabilitățile*** *- se va uni curând după aceea cu nepotul meu, cu propriul meu nepot, domnul Darcy. Cu toate că ştiu* ***că trebuie să fie o minciună sfruntată****, cu toate că lui* ***nu-i pot face marea ofensă de a presupune că e posibil să fie adevărat,*** *m-am hotărât să pornesc încoace pentru a-ți face cunoscute simțămintele mele*. (2009: 377)

Comment: The modal noun *likelihood* appears in the adverbial phrase *in all likelihood* and is translated identically to the adverbial *in all probability*, i.e**.** *după toate probabilitățile***.** In the above example the meaning of certainty expressed by *likely* is reinforced by the presence of the modal *would* interpretable as a future in the past form of *certainty will*, translated into Romanian by the future indicative (*se va uni curând)*, a signal of *certainty* that an event will occur at some point in the future. The passive evidential (*I was told*) in the beginning of the excerpt is also used as a hedge to account for the source of knowledge the speaker possesses and attribute a low level of certainty to the information in question on account of being hearsay. The translation retains the passive form (*Mi s-a spus*) and, equally, the hedging strategy.

The excerpt contains a second modal noun *scandalous falsehood* demonstrating strong disbelief. This low degree of certainty is reinforced by the presence of *must* aimed at inferring that such information is impossible. Interestingly, the negative meaning of impossibility is embedded in the noun *falsehood* rather than in the modal. In Romanian, *must* is translated by the indicative to show the highest amount of certainty and *scandalous falsehood* is translated as "*minciună sfruntată*" – "a *blazing lie.*"

The text also contains an interesting accumulation of hedges in "*I would not injure him so much as to suppose the truth of it possible*," all of which contribute to rendering the high degree of disbelief on the part of the speaker that the hearsay might be true. *Wouldn't* may be understood as refusal to perform the act of injuring and is translated as *nu pot* (I cannot).

Also, the presence of the verb *to suppose* relates to insufficient information processed so as to result in an unreliable conclusion, which further enhances the idea that the speaker has no reason to take the information for granted or *"suppose the truth of it possible.*"

iii. modal adverbs. They fulfil an epistemic function similar to that of modal verbs, and, though they are not predicative in English, some of them can form predicates on their own in Romanian**:** *perhaps, possibly, probably, practically, likely, presumably, virtually, apparently*:

Example

*E: I **certainly** will not persuade myself to feel more than I do. I am **quite enough** in love. I **should be sorry to** be more.* (E.: 931)

*R: N-am de ce să mă conving să simt mai mult decât simt. **Ajunge cât sunt** de îndrăgostită, **nu e nevoie** de mai mult.* (1992:187)

Comment: *Certainly* is not translated by an equivalent epistemic adverb in Romanian. Self-confidence and self-assuredness are rendered by the Romanian phrase *N-am de ce* (*I have no reason)*, an intentionally placed epistemic marker with great discourse value in enriching translation and making it flow naturally. *Quite enough in love* is another hedge used to demonstrate some feeling instead of emotional plenitude and is translated by the verb a *ajunge* (to suffice). Also, the epistemic possibility phrase *I should be sorry* is translated as a deontic lack of necessity *nu e nevoie* ("there is no need").

2.4. Approximates of degree, quantity, frequency and time can occur under the form of adjectives and/or adverbs the purpose of which is to weaken the meaning of the speech part they accompany: *somewhat, somehow, a lot, much, little, about, approximately, roughly, hardly, scarcely* etc. Such hedges are employed when the exact amount is not known or is irrelevant, when the speaker wishes to render fuzziness about quantity in the cases when undecided numbers or amounts are used etc.

Example

E: "*I know **so many** who have married in the full expectation and confidence of **some one** particular advantage in the connection, or accomplishment or good quality in the person, who have found themselves entirely deceived […]*"

*"Depend upon it, **you see but half.** You see the evil, but you do not see the consolation. There will be **little rubs** and disappointments everywhere, and we are all apt to expect **too much**; but then, if one scheme of happiness fails, human nature turns to another.*" (M.P.: 499)

R: - *Cunosc **atât de mulți** care s-au căsătorit plini de incredere şi speranță **într-un anumit** avantaj din acestă legătură,* *sau în desăvârşirea şi calitățile unei persoane apoi aflându-se în împrejurarea de a fi cu totul amăgiți [...]*

- *În mod sigur* ***nu observi decât o parte****. Vezi răul dar nu şi consolarea. Mereu vor fi Ø dificultăți şi dezamăgiri şi cu toții suntem înclinați să cerem* **prea mult***; dar dacă un plan de fericire dă greş, firea omului este să se îndrepte spre altul.* (1993:37)

Comment: Some of these hedges present an event as general on the basis of it being repeated on an indefinite number of occasions (*so many, but half, too much*). The result of using these hedges is not to diminish quantities but rather that the speaker expresses *certainty* and *trust* in what he is saying because the sentence is based on a number of previous experiences.

Little is not rendered in Romanian as it was probably considered redundant, though its translation would have increased the persuasive content of the utterance by diminishing the difficulties and disappointments spoken of.

2.5. Discourse epistemic or evidential phrases. They are used to mark the source of knowledge as indirect or hearsay (*People say, It has been said that*), the author's doubt and hesitation regarding the truth of what follows (*I dare say, To tell the truth, I have a notion*) or, on the contrary, a high degree of certainty and commitment about the utterance (*Upon my word, To our knowledge, To be sure, I can tell you, It is our view that, We feel that*):

Example

E: To be sure it *will.* ***Indeed, to say the truth,*** *I am convinced within myself that your father had no idea of your giving them any money at all. The assistance he thought of,* ***I dare say****, was only such as* ***might be reasonably expected of you****. (S. & S.: 7)*

R: Aşa cred şi eu. Ba, drept să-ți spun, *sunt convinsă că tatăl tău nici nu s-a gândit să le dai bani. Cred că ajutorul la care s-a gândit el Ø trebuia să fie ceea ce pe bună dreptate se putea cineva aştepta de la tine...* (1995: 11)

Comment: In this dialogue between the new Mrs. Dashwood and her husband she is trying to persuade her husband to keep most of his father's inheritance to himself. The text is spiced up with many phrases aimed at increasing her *persuasiveness* and *certainty* in what she is saying so that he may be convinced things stand as she is saying. *To be sure it will* is translated as *Aşa cred şi eu. (I think so too*) rendering a weaker degree of epistemic commitment, a statement of personal opinion with a slight reservation as compared to the English expression which renders certainty. *Indeed, to say the truth,* is perfectly equivalent to *Ba, drept să-ți spun* as statements of certainty and assertiveness. *I dare say* is not translated because it is followed by another epistemic possibility marker, *trebuia* (*was supposed to*) provided as the equivalent of the English *might*.

2.6. If clauses render hypothetical meaning, so they imply *uncertainty* along with any other epistemic markers which may occur inside an If clause to enhance the speaker's distrust in the truth of the utterance. If clauses are the preferred option in rendering hypothetical meaning with actions which are deemed possible only if certain conditions are met. The reason why they play an important role as hedges is that speakers can use if clauses to invoke potential barriers in the way of their future or past actions which could help them disclaim responsibility for the absoluteness of their statements. Typical conditional clauses may contain explicit or implicit conditions: *If true…, If anything…, Unless…, Should one…etc***.**

Example

E: If *therefore* ***she actually persists*** *in rejecting my suit,* ***perhaps*** *it were better not to force her into accepting me, because* ***if liable*** *to such defects of temper, she* ***could*** *not contribute much to my felicity*. (P.&P.: 303)

R: Dacă *deci Ø persistă* ***într-adevăr*** *să-mi respingă cererea, ar fi* ***poate*** *mai bine să n-o siliți să mă accepte ca soț, căci,* ***dacă are o tendință*** *spre asemenea defecte,* ***n-ar putea face*** *mare lucru pentru fericirea mea.* (2009:125)

Comment: In this example, the if-clause plays an important role in expressing *distrust* in what the people are saying about Elisabeth's character. Apart from the conditional clauses which are translated by equivalent conditional forms in Romanian to express *possibility that X under certain conditions,* we encounter a hedge expressing the speaker's disbelief that X condition will be fulfilled, i.e. *actually* formally rendered in Romanian as well by its equivalent phrase *într-adevăr***,** and a hedge expressing epistemic *uncertainty* in the main clause, *perhaps it were better (ar fi* ***poate*** *mai bine).* This hedge is underlining the speaker's polite hesitation in turning down Elisabeth as a wife unless his conditions are met and is translated with an almost identical meaning.

2.7. Negative constructions (litotes)- In rhetoric, the term *litotes* designates a figure of speech in which understatement is employed for rhetorical effect when an idea is expressed by a denial of its opposite, principally via negating the negative. For instance, rather than saying that something is attractive (or even very attractive), one might merely say it is "not unattractive." Litotes is a form of understatement, therefore the effect obtained by using this figure of speech is that the resulting appreciation is more reserved, more cautious and it hedges the speaker against expressing praise too enthusiastically.

Our corpus has provided us with a number of contexts in which the use of negative prefixes with adjectives or of verb negation functions as a diminisher of statements quality, therefore as hedging devices:

Example

E: "*He was* ***not an ill-disposed*** *young man, unless to be* ***rather cold hearted****, and* ***rather selfish****, is to be ill-disposed: but he was,* ***in general****, well respected; for he conducted himself with propriety in the discharge of his ordinary duties.*"(S & S: 4)

R: Nu era un tânăr rău la suflet*, în afară de cazul în care rău la suflet înseamnă* ***a fi nesimțitor*** *şi* ***cam egoist****: dar,* ***în general*** *era un om stimat; căci se comporta cu bună-cuviință în îndeplinirea îndatoririlor sale obişnuite.* (1995: 6)

Comment: Instead of asserting that the person in question was a *kind-hearted man*, which would not have been entirely true, the negative of a negative feature *(He was* ***not an ill-disposed*** *young man****)*** is preferred as a polite strategy aiming to avoid direct criticism. This hedging device allows the speaker to render the information as close to a positive feature as possible without overlooking the person's share of defects.

Also, the adverbial phrase **in general** shields the speaker from asserting that he was **well respected** in every way possible.

2.8. Compound and multiple hedges also referred to as **harmonic combinations** (Lyons 1977: 807, Coates 1983: 45) describe combinations of a modal auxiliary and another modal word expressing the same degree or type of modality. A *harmonic phrase* can refer to an element in the context of the modal verb that *reinforces, echoes or disambiguates* (Coates 1983: 41). *Harmonic combinations* refer to two forms with the same modal meaning, which are mutually reinforcing (Halliday 1970: 331, Coates 1983: 45). Modally harmonic adverbs make a particularly important contribution to the modal meaning comprised in the sentence in the sense that the stronger the harmony, the less ambiguous the modal meaning is. In fact, Huddleston & Pullum (2002:180) distinguish between strong, medium and weak harmony between modal elements:

The meeting **must surely** be over by now (strong modal harmony)

The meeting **should probably** be over by now (medium modal harmony)

The meeting **may possibly** be over by now (weak modal harmony)

The most common types of compound hedges are:

iv. modal auxiliary + lexical verb/ modal adverb: **It would seem/appear; it would indicate that**;

v. lexical verb followed by a reinforcing hedging adjective/ adverb

Multiple hedging refers to the presence of more than one hedge, not necessarily inside the same construction, but within the same utterance.

Example

*E: Miss Smith is **a very good sort of girl**; and I **should be happy** to see her respectably settled. I wish her extremely well and, **no doubt**, there are men who **might** not object to. Every body has their level **but as for myself (1), I am not, I think (2), quite so much(3) at a loss**. (E.: 847)*

*R: Domnişoara Smith **e o fată foarte bună** şi **aş fi fericit** s-o văd bine măritată. Îi doresc tot binele, şi, **fără îndoială**, există bărbați care Ø să nu obiecteze la anumite lucruri. Fiecare îşi are rangul său, **dar în ce mă priveşte (1), cred (2) că eu nu am ajuns într-o situație atât de (3) disperată**.* (1992: 95)

Comment: The first part of the example contains two expressions of praise *(a very good sort of girl, I should be happy)* meant to soften the criticism of *there are men who might not object to*. The accumulation of hedges in the second part of the example is aimed at demonstrating the speaker's certainty (by the assertive verb *I think – cred*) that a person in his position, not any person in general (*as for myself – dar în ce mă priveşte)* does not have much to lose by not marrying the young lady in question (*I am not quite so much at a loss- nu am ajuns într-o situație atât de disperată).* The hedge *quite* is an attempt to reduce the importance rather than the extent of the loss, and in Romanian this is rendered by the paraphrase "*I am not in such a desperate situation*."

Triple hedging (It seems reasonable to assume that…) and even quadruple hedging constructions, though rare, are possible: *It would seem somewhat unlikely that…, It may appear virtually unlikely that* etc.

Conclusions

In this paper we have attempted to identify the most important means by which epistemic modal elements can function as hedging devices to shield the speaker and the hearer against aggressions to the concept of *face*. We have also tried to determine whether hedging strategies which are applied in English function with an equally hedging role in Romanian. The analysis has been carried out on a corpus made up of Jane Austen's novels and their translated counterparts. Our analysis has identified the epistemic markers in the English text, their hedging role and function and investigated whether the Romanian translation has realised the hedging process by using identical or similar epistemic markers. For instance, we have discussed whether the English modal auxiliaries *may, might, can, could, should, would* in their epistemic senses have been translated into Romanian to render the same degree of *tentativeness, counter-factuality, indirectness, uncertainty* or *lack of commitment* as they do in English as epistemic markers with hedging powers.

- we have been particularly interested to investigate the social dimension of epistemic modality represented by the presence of hedges in conversational exchanges and by their functionality as politeness markers both in English as well as in Romanian. In this section, our analysis has focused on a number of complementary directions;

- we have set a few theoretical milestones in defining hedges as discourse markers;

- we have supported our analysis and classification of hedges with corpus examples demonstrating how speakers have applied hedging strategies consisting of epistemic markers to shield themselves and their interlocutors against face aggressions;

Our analysis has indicated that the appropriate use of hedges reflects a high degree of efficiency in social interaction by demonstrating the ability to express degrees of certainty and mastering rhetorical strategies required under conversational circumstances both in English as well as in Romanian.

Additionally, hedges have been studied in their function of avoiding absolute statements and acknowledging the presence of alternative voices of the speaker in projecting several possible universes with varying degrees of probability. It has been demonstrated that by means of hedged statements speakers express caution in delivering criticism, show confidence and commitment in a proposition and mark involvement and solidarity with the interlocutor or the reader.

In fact, the notions of hedging and epistemic modality are not mutually exclusive but rather complementary as modal elements with epistemic meanings fulfil the function of hedges in discourse while representing the notional category of epistemic modality. Thus, despite the fact that epistemic modality assesses commitment and hedges are used as protective devices against *face* offences, when they render hesitation of the speaker, regardless of the intended purpose, the two notions can coexist within the same lexical item.

Starting from Coates' assumption (1983: 49) that "*epistemic modality is always a hedge*," we have considered all epistemic occurrences in our corpus to have hedging power and hedging intentionality. With this assumption in mind, we have analysed these occurrences of epistemic modal markers in English by identifying the motivations and expressions of hedging strategies. That is to say, we have tried to find the lexical means by which the hedge was expressed (modal verb, adverb, the conditional etc.) in English as well as in Romanian and the reason for using that particular hedging strategy.

Moreover, we have interpreted the Romanian translation to show whether the same intentionality of the hedge and the same or similar lexical realization take place in Romanian as well.

We have found that English and Romanian employ similar epistemic elements as hedging devices and, most commonly, hedges can be expressed under the form of modal auxiliaries, modal-lexical verbs, adjectival, adverbial and nominal phrases, approximates of degree, quantity, frequency and time, discourse epistemic phrases, If clauses, negative constructions.

Our corpus examples have indicated that some hedges soften, diminish the potential aggressiveness of the terms used to make demands, requests, criticism etc. Such examples of hedges can be considered the use of questions to make demands, the use of the negative to praise or to criticize somebody.

In the case of litotes as a hedging device, where English does not allow more than one negative item, Romanian favours multiple negated terms in order to render a hedged meaning. This tendency of employing reinforced negation when hedging is desired is probably due to the fact that negating just the verb or just the adjective / pronoun / adverb is not sufficient in Romanian to render the desired hedged meaning.

Additionally, some hedges weaken the certainty / probability with which an action is expected to occur. In this respect, while English will allow two or more hedges expressing the same degree of certainty, in Romanian only one is translated as sufficiently representative of the probability degree desires. For instance, we have discussed a number of examples in which *perhaps* and *may* or *can* and *may* functioning as reinforcing hedges for one another were translated as *poate*, thus deleting one of them in translation.

We have been able to conclude that in cases of multiple hedging, modals expressing weak epistemic values are not translated. For instance, the modal verb *might* is often deleted in translation when it appears with other elements (other modal verbs, adverbs, adjectives) marking weak epistemic possibility because it plays a supporting role. We believe this is due to the fact that the Romanian modal system only retains those epistemic modal elements which are able to account for their own modality. In other words, we may compare this phenomenon to a case of "survival of the fittest" modal element since in Romanian the modal system is rather poor in comparison to its English counterpart and only allows for a limited number of modal elements to express a certain type of modality.

In Romanian, tentativeness is present to a higher degree than in English. Our corpus-based analysis has revealed that Romanian demonstrates a higher degree of caution with respect to the amount of certainty to attribute to epistemic elements functioning as hedges.

When a spoken utterance or a sentence in written form is hedged, the interlocutor must be able to understand the degree of commitment the speaker has charged his utterance with and act accordingly. We have observed how the use of hedges is motivated, for instance, by the fear of being proved wrong or by the desire to save the face of the speaker or of the hearer.

We believe that epistemic modality is often used for being imprecise or mitigating one's commitment to the truth-value of a proposition and makes it possible to say, if proved wrong, that the claim was only tentative or was released only as an approximation. And we have demonstrated that this observation applies to both languages, different as they may be in cultural values and social behaviour norms.

English modal verbs are, to a large extent, translated into Romanian by equivalent modal verbs or modal adverbials. In the case of reinforcing modals, i.e. two or more modals reinforcing one another in the same epistemic value, the Romanian translation deletes the redundant modals. This has led us to conclude that epistemic stance in Romanian is sufficiently marked once, unlike English, which seems to favour reinforced epistemic modality.

Thus, despite the fact that fewer epistemic markers are used, the Romanian translations we have studied rendered an *increased dubitative attitude* and a higher degree of epistemic *uncertainty* and *tentativeness* associated with the English modal verb(s). Our corpus-based analysis has revealed that Romanian demonstrates a higher degree of caution with respect to the level of certainty to attribute to epistemic elements functioning as hedges. For instance, epistemic modals expressing high certainty have been rendered in translation by a weaker verbal or adverbial equivalent: ***I am sure you think… – Cred că-ți închipui*** (*I think you can imagine*), ***must – cu siguranță*** (*with certainty*), **must certainly – probabil** (*probably*).

Our corpus study has revealed that the politeness strategies employed in English are, to a large extent, translated into Romanian by similar lexical and grammatical devices. It is, nonetheless, evident that the occurrence of a politeness strategy in translation is not evidence of its use in real life conversation, but it has provided us with a tool for comparison between the two languages regarding the way in which English and Romanian use markers of epistemic modality. In other words, we have been primarily interested in whether both languages use epistemic modal markers with the functionality of hedges and triggers of politeness.

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Museums as Learning Spaces

Andreea Bratu[1]

Abstract: This article focuses on the educational role of museums, many of which function today not only as places of display of collections and thematic exhibitions, but also as research laboratories for future scholars, very often in a direct partnership with prestigious universities. At the same time, through various programmes designed in partnership with the local administration, but also with independent bodies, museums play an important role in the community's efforts of social integration of various disfavoured groups, by enabling them to participate in cultural activities, not only as members of the audience, but also as creators.

Keywords*: museums, educational platform, cultural activities, cultural policy, audience participation.*

The primary role of a museum, as a cultural institution, has always been to collect, preserve and display various items. While the first two components would make it a mere, lifeless deposit of artistic or scientific exhibits, the third animates it by giving it a voice to transmit knowledge. It also brings in a public for which labels, catalogues and special didactic exhibitions are designed to the purpose of informing and educating. The educational component has acquired new meanings and taken new shapes, to match contemporary needs, tastes and means.

As highlighted by Luc Benito (2001: 33), the structure of the public of cultural events is usually related to the type of programme and the level of prices and arrangements offered. Still, a very important factor is represented by the cultural habits of the people. In France, for example, the stronger representation of the intellectual categories (teachers and students) is related to the higher number of free days they have, as well as to their interest in cultural activities, and not so much to their material possibilities, which are weaker than those of other categories. Luc Benito's conclusion is that the level of education is decisive for cultural consumption, much more than profession and social background: "Culture is reserved to a certain social 'elite', but which is made up of initiated people rather than of materially sufficient persons." (Benito, 2001: 33)

Other factors that determine the choice of one or another type of cultural event to attend is the social and professional background

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of the audience members. In general, the higher the level of education, the higher the interest in events labelled more ‘elitist’ than popular: opera, ballet, classical music and jazz concerts, museum visits. This made some analysts conclude that the public may be perceived as a sign of artistic quality, as, in the eyes of the professionals of culture, the events that are more representative from the point of view of their quality are appreciated only by educated people (Leveratto, 2000: 88). In this respect, Pierre Bourdieu, cited by Leveratto (2000: 90), also noted that the consumers of a cultural event are indicators of the degree of cultural profitability of consumption, through their monthly revenue, profession and age. He also made a distinction between the legitimate culture of the dominant classes and popular culture, and between the choice by necessity that operates in the case of popular classes and the choice by liberty that is characteristic of the dominant classes (Fleury, 2006: 86).

Still, there are limitations to the extent to which artistic quality is directly related to the social image of the public, as very often cultural products that are designed for a popular public may also be appreciated by an educated one, and vice versa. In addition to this, there is also the educational purpose of such manifestations that needs to be taken into account: besides the aim to attract the public by offering people what they want to see and hear, the programme often includes activities that are indented to shape the artistic taste of the audience, by making it acquainted with new, original, types of art forms. It is also an occasion to test the audience for future events.

This approach to culture democratisation has developed by manifestations that have tried to make cultural events more available to everybody and by taking ‘high’ art out of the official institutions and into the street and other spaces not related to culture. In this line, current redefinitions and reinterpretations of the museal space and activity have enhanced the role of museums as providers of mass education.

Some cultural management specialists (Dragićević-Šešić and Branimir Stojković, 2002: 188) consider that the pedagogical departments of contemporary museums have more and more oriented their main function – attracting young audiences – towards marketing and advertising activities. In their opinion, the seminars organized in order to develop the public’s artistic judgment and other exhibition-related events (film presentations, lectures, round tables, etc.) would add to the usual activities aimed at promoting the museum’s collections. Museums have gained in popularity, due to this diversification in programmes and to the determined efforts made to promote them. Moreover, their number has increased, as well as that of the visitors.

Social integration through active participation in the cultural life of the community

Besides the activities designed in order to popularize art and to attract young audiences, museums have considered more seriously their social role in the community. By using new approaches and offering fresh perspectives on currently debated issues and topics, they challenge mentalities and encourage people to reconsider their opinions and to reevaluate their social roles and relations. It is the case of several museums that have decided to support the efforts of the local administration focused on the development of actions that would improve the community's social cohesion. In this respect, in France, for example, for many years, the challenge for the cultural institutions has been to rethink the principles of cultural democratisation of which the Ministry of Culture created by Malraux had been founded. In the city of Lille, very active culturally speaking, in the eyes of the team members of the City Hall, culture should be considered "a key activity for the economic and social development of a city, not an additional one" (*Beaux Arts Magasine*, 2009: 92). If many analysts have considered that in France cultural democratisation has been a failure rather than a success, due to the fact that some manifestations of culture are still a privilege of the socially advantaged categories of people, Lille has become an exception. On each occasion, starting with 2004, when the city was one of the European Capitals of Culture, the huge eccentric festivities organised in the streets, borrowing the format of popular celebrations, have had very high quality standards. This has proved that 'culture for the masses' can be elitist (in terms of quality) and can fulfill its educative role.

One of the major events (in terms of organization, artistic importance, length and audience turnout) included in 2009 on the agenda of *Europe XXL* was the exhibition *Miroirs d'Orients*, which offered a surprisingly modern and fresh image of the artistic life in several countries in the Middle East, with special focus on Iran and Turkey. Hosted for four months by *Le Palais des Beaux Arts*, it attracted over 54,000 visitors and was the starting point of several related artistic manifestations organised in partnership with cultural centres from various districts of Lille. The Art Museum in Lille has year-round educational activities designed by its specialized department: painting, drawing and sculpture workshops for different age groups and for people with disabilities, family programmes and tours, visits to similar institutions in the area organized by the association *Friends of the Lille Museums*, internships for arts students, etc. On the occasion of this long exhibition, the museum developed an artistic project aimed at encouraging the inhabitants of a disfavoured area of the city to visit the museum, develop artistic skills and create their own exhibition as part of one week of artistic events hosted by them in the cultural centre of their district. This joint action is just one example of how the local administration has put into practice its policy regarding the active place that culture should have in the development of the community. In this respect, the educational role of culture is enhanced through the direct participation of the public in the cultural life of the city, through a wide range of activities that encourage people's artistic expression and at the same time help their social integration.

Moreover, on the occasion of the *Miroirs d'Orients*, the Art Museum created a special leaflet for children. Designed as a task book, it was meant to accompany them through the exhibition and to draw their attention on details that would make the most representative works of art more approachable and meaningful to such young visitors. By making use of ludic activities enhancing creativity and learning, the initiative of the educational staff aimed to change the image of the museum, from a "serious," unapproachable, "adult" institution, into a place in which learning also means having fun.

Popularizing art

In the past years, this idea of changing the 'elitist' image occasionally associated with museums has lead to the reconsideration of the exhibition space: alternative spaces started to be used, on the one hand out of the need to rehabilitate former industrial spaces and revitalize the area around them, and on the other in order to take exhibits out of the museal space, isolated and strict, and make them more available to the large public.

This rethinking and redefinition of the public space has made important art establishments decide to make good use of it, by taking art out in the streets and parks of the city. It is the case of numerous photography and sculpture exhibitions or of paintings used for promotional reasons. To give an example, *The National Gallery* in London developed such a project a few years ago: high-quality reproductions of masterpieces by artists such as Rubens, Titian, Da Vinci, Van Gogh and Monet were displayed in the streets of central London in an effort to bring art to a new urban audience. A plan of their locations and audio commentaries were available on the museum's site.

This "urban intervention" is part of an initiative called The Grand Tour, which is aimed at "getting the public to look and think about art," according to the gallery. It was also conceived in response to a prank by the graffiti artist Banksy, who had hung his work inside the National Gallery a few years before. Charles Saumarez Smith, the director of the National Gallery, highlighted the gallery's desire to "democratize" art:

> These paintings represent the most popular works in the National Gallery and in bringing them out on the streets, we have sought to democratise the experience of art. It's a way of getting people to look and think about the works of artists outside the gallery. (Akbar, *The Independent*, 2007)

Two years later, the Gallery launched an iPhone and iTouch application which enables the users to view 250 paintings and listen to 200 minutes of audio and video comments, as well as to an interview with the director of the museum and with Tracy Chevalier, author of *The Girl with a Pearl Earring*. The first of its kind to be used by an important institution, the *Love Art application i*ncludes 12 thematic galleries comprising the most representative paintings of the museum.

Museums have to develop activities that should address two types of publics. On the one hand, their focus is mainly on the domestic, local public that has the ability to attend the programmes designed, due to two important factors: geographical proximity and temporal flexibility. The fidelity of the local public puts some strain on the members of the museums' educational departments, whose creativity is challenged to invent new projects (the *Branly* museum in Paris, for example, invites its public to consult its programme every three months, in order to discover its new activities). At the same time, as most museums are public institutions, they are responsible to the local authorities for the budget offered each year, which should primarily benefit the community. On the other hand, there is the foreign public: its affluence, mainly during the touristic season (and this especially concerns large cities) plays an important role for both the international prestige and the revenues of the cultural institution. This public, however, does not spend enough time in the city to avail themselves of the long-term educational projects that the museum has to offer. Nor has it the time to thoroughly observe all the exhibits of a huge permanent collection that some of the major museums in the world presently host, and to take in all the related data generously offered by audio guides, captions or computer monitors. Moreover, such large museums have become victims of their own fame and valuable collections. They are daily assaulted by thousands of visitors, and while this may be beneficial to the annual turnover, it is detrimental to the quality of the public's artistic experience.

While this may be a challenge for museums with huge collections, they are on the other hand interested in ensuring the presence of their future public by developing raising awareness activities and by offering incentives to young audiences. The financial aspect is often a factor to be considered. If in England most of the important museums offer free admission for their permanent collections, in many other European countries (France, Italy Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, to mention just a few) there is a significant fee to pay, with deductions according to age group. Recently, in order to encourage the young public to visit the museums more often, France has offered free admission to European Union students and young people under 26. The affluence of the public on free admission days, such as the first Sundays of the month or the popular event *Museum Night* and *Heritage Day* stands proof to the fact that the financial aspect is not to be neglected. It is also a proof of the public's interest in museum collections.

"Internationalisation" of museums – Virtual platforms

Keeping up with modern technologies and with people's new social behavior habits, museums have entered the virtual spaces of communication. Social networks, for example Facebook or Twitter, to name just two of the most popular, are used to promote events, to start discussions and to challenge the public's knowledge by contests and quizzes. As computers are part of everyday life both in the private and in the professional sectors, museums have acknowledged the necessity to make use of this virtual space in order to reach farther and larger audiences, which do not have direct access to their collections and activities on a daily basis. This way, by creating their virtual double by means of a website, museums provide any person in the world that has Internet access with images, data, updated information on exhibits and creators. Visual and audio data banks, virtual tours, related bibliography and conference programmes are stored for quick access and use. The educational aspect is not neglected. In this respect, many museums have redesigned their sites so that they address this important component.

A pertinent example is the newly created site of the Louvre museum, *Louvre educational.* In partnership with the Ministry of Education, the Louvre set up in 2006 a new site completely dedicated to education, in support of the museum site. *Louvre educational* boasts of a new approach to cultural heritage: a multicultural point of view which aims to serve the international dimension of the new site, by going beyond the strictly Western or French point of view. According to Olivier Romanetti (*Culture et recherché*, 2008-9: 32), at the Louvre, the works of art shall be considered not just from the point of view of art history specialists, buy shall also benefit from the opinions of contemporary artists, musicians and choreographers from around the world who have also embraced this heritage. Consequently, the site aims at a more comprehensive presentation of the works of art – not just categorizing them from the point of view of the movements, periods or artists they belong to, but also in relation to major topics of interest in contemporary society: dialogue of civilizations, race mixing, slavery, etc. Audio and video files, short films and animation, educational games and experimentation are just a few of the means used to illustrate the topics on debate. The goal of the new project is to attract not only the usual target of an educational site – teachers and students of all ages – but also parents who are deeply involved in shaping their children’s knowledge. To this purpose, the site will enable its visitors to become active participants, by exchanging information and advice, by posting their opinions, and also by personalizing it: personal galleries and favourite works of art will be an option, as well as the creation of on-line communities and forums.

Tate Modern has also made use of the virtual world, by the creation of the Tate online site. With different pages for kids, young learners, educators and families, it enables its virtual visitors to find out more about the museum exhibitions and real programmes, and to develop their artistic skills and knowledge by participating in numerous online activities designed around museum exhibits.

Moreover, a special site became functional in 2006 – *Tate Media*. It was created to produce programmes addressed to families, children, educators and art professionals. A further development was the addition of a TV department, which makes video programmes for Tate Gallery and for Channel 4. Tate Media operates across the following platforms – online, TV production, major public events and magazine publishing – and works closely with a number of partners, including artists and broadcasters to create the necessary content. *Tate Media* also offers a forum for further collaboration with the Creative Industries. As stated by Will Gompertz, the director of the site, its objective is to capitalise and enhance the potential of Tate's artistic and intellectual assets: collections, programmes, knowledge, connections with artists and the brand Tate itself (Lochon, *Culture et Recherche*, 2007: 33). Tate Media is designed to help make the Collection more accessible and interactive and improve the understanding and enjoyment of it. At the same time, one of the main purposes is also to increase the audience of Tate Online, the first English site created for visual arts, with 1.5 million visitors monthly, as compared to the 6 million annual visitors of the four Tate galleries. The organisers admit that the site is also a major advertising tool: it issues 14 bulletins and info letters sent monthly in 400,000 copies. (Lochon, *Culture et Recherche*, 2007: 33)

The latest development in this line is the launching, on 1st February 2011, of the *Google Art Project*. In partnership with 17 important museums, such as MoMa, the Met, Tate Britain, Reina Sofia, or Chateau de Versailles, to name just a few, the public can enter the virtual spaces and have a close view of the most famous works of art. Moreover, each museum has chosen a significant painting which can be examined in detail by means of high resolution photographs. If the Prado and the Louvre are the major absentees (the latter having its own virtual platform, as mentioned above in the article), the other museums offer extensive tours and brief presentations of their collections.

Platforms of education

Making education one of its core purposes, *Tate Modern* has also designed a Community programme, aimed at various adult groups**:** Adult Community Groups (e.g. women's groups, homeless groups and learning disability groups), Community Group Leaders, Community Group Advocates and Senior Citizens.

A similar strong interest in the educational aspect of its activity has influenced the agenda of the *Prime Arts Museum* in Paris. Opened in 2006, the *Branly Museum*, as it is commonly called, has underlined from the very beginning its educational role, by establishing a multifaceted programme designed for the general mass of young learners (pupils of different age groups), as well as for future specialists in fields related to its collections (anthropology, social sciences, arts, ethnography, language and cultural studies).

The programmes created for the young public are developed around the temporary and permanent exhibitions of the museum. They range from guided tours focusing on specific topics to artistic or scientific workshops which put to the test the imagination and curiosity of the participants (starting with those of the age of three!). At the same time, they present them with contemporary issues and teach them about customs, realities and challenges of various communities living on the five continents. The museum has also developed various activities for families and children with special needs, among which meetings with specialists who can guide them through the museum or animate workshops.

The Branly website provides pedagogical materials that enable teachers to prepare their group visits, while training classes are also offered, which aim at familiarizing the future visitors with the museum environment and the activities it hosts. In addition to this, each year, the popular university has several topics debated upon in a series of conferences which can also be heard on line.

As far as the programmes designed for future specialists are concerned, these address MA and PhD students, as well as researchers. As stated in the *Education and research* leaflet of the museum (2010-11), the strong partnership with eight top universities in the area (École des hautes études en sciences sociales, École du Louvre, Université Paris I Panthéon-Sorbonne, Université Paris III Sorbonne Nouvelle, Université Paris VIII Vincennes-Saint-Denis, Université Paris X Nanterre, Université Paris-Sud XI faculté Jean-Monnet and INALCO – Institut national des langues et civilisations orientales) focuses on:

> the oranisation and development of the educational programme of the museum, internships, participation and animation of workshops,

cultural and scientific activities, organization of conferences and colloquia, participation in joint research activities.

PhD and postdoctoral scholarships are offered each year to a number of students, in support to their research activity within the museum and to the writing of their thesis.

The research programmes developed by the museum focus on anthropology and sociology, art history, linguistics, ethnomusicology and cultural technology. Moreover, in partnership with CNRS, the museum is building a network of interdisciplinary scientific research, dedicated to the development and diffusion of anthropological studies.

Numerous internships are also offered by the *Bilbao Guggenheim Museum* to professionals in the visual art field, as well as job exchanges. In the same line, the *Learning through art* programme is designed in support of the school curriculum, by bringing teaching artists into the school environment to collaborate with teachers; through its cultural exchange programme, it enables cultural and artistic exchanges with partner institutions from other countries.

Learning by doing

A "learning by doing" approach has been adopted especially by science museums, where a public of all ages has the opportunity to take part in experiments, science shows, demonstrations and workshops set up with the purpose of making science more comprehensible and amusing. Activities organised for families, galleries focusing on various topics, cinema halls hosting scientific documentaries, presentations and debates, training programmes for educators and classroom resources, or school visits of the educational teams are just a few of the choices offered by the *Science Museum* of London, for example. Moreover, this museum has also developed an artistic component of its programme, out of the wish to prove that artistic creativity and scientific rigour are complementary to each other.

Such programmes have proved to be extremely successful in terms of public affluence and appreciation. They also won the museum several important awards, among which: Best Family venue in 2010 and Visitor Attraction of the Year, as well as Best game at Southwest Interactive festival in 2008.

In the same line, to end on a Romanian note, the *Bruckenthal Museum* in Sibiu is also worth mentioning. It is an example of how the approach to museal activity has changed in Romania, although at a slow pace. Bruckenthal is the oldest museum in the country and comprises several branches – History, Romanian Art, Contemporary Art, Pharmacy and Natural science museums. Modernised so as to host important exhibitions throughout the year 2007, when Sibiu was a European Capital of Culture, the Bruckenthal National Museum strengthened its educational department and placed education at the core of its activities. More specifically, between 2006 and 2008 the museum underwent a spectacular transformation: all the buildings were renovated and 85% of the exhibitions reconsidered by taking into account the educational aspect. Education activities halls were opened in the Natural History Museum in 2007, followed one year later by those of the Bruckenthal Palace itself and the building that hosts the History Museum. In 2008 the educational programme *Discovering the museum* was launched, which included 57 themes developed in eight projects. As stated in the presentation of the programme (*Strategies in Museal Education*), their aims were: to encourage pupils of various ages to see the museum as a familiar environment; to discover it step by step; to learn, be creative and relax at the same time. The museum also designed projects which focused on the training of teachers, of future trainers and on artists-to-be, as well as on families and Roma population. In June 2010 in Istanbul, on the occasion of the *Europa Nostra* Cultural Heritage award ceremony, the programme *Discovering the museum* was awarded a prize for best educational programme in the category “Education, Training and Awareness.” The jury appreciated the pedagogical approach used in the development of the activities aiming to attract young audiences.

Conclusions

Museums turn more and more into cultural centres – many of them are included in clusters of similar institutions (*Museum Quartier* – Vienna, *Centre Georges Pompidou*, Paris, *South Bank*, London) which offer activities for a wide range of public (professionals and professionals-to-be, connoisseurs, average consumers of art, various age groups).

Through their educational programmes, especially those developed for young audiences, which have a strong ludic characteristic, the current mission of museums is to popularize art and to educate, in order to ensure the affluence of their future adult public.

Another current mission of museums is to fulfill their social role, by their presence in the life of the community; thus, the strengthening of the educational component of a museum's activity is important not only in order to reestablish the role that art and culture have in people's life, but also to enhance the direct participation of the public in the cultural life of their community, through a large range of activities that would encourage their artistic expression.

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Negotiating Attitudes within Systemic Functional Framework

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Abstract: Within systemic functional linguistics, negotiation is concerned with MOOD system which is interpreted from a discourse perspective as a resource for negotiating meaning in dialogue. The MOOD system negotiates information and attitudes. In this paper we will analyze the negotiation of attitudes that have to do with evaluating things (affect), people's character (judgement) and their feelings (appreciation). In the first part we will look more closely at these three types of attitudes. In the second part we will discuss the amplification of attitudes.

Keywords: *negotiation, attitude, appraisal, MOOD system.*

General remarks

In order to understand the concept of negotiation which is concerned with MOOD system (the interpersonal system of language), we have to unpick the boundary between grammar and semantics as it was understood by Halliday's systemic functional framework. This is an important step in the interpretation of a dialogue because we have to create a relation between general grammatical classes and the role they play in structuring a discourse.

From the MOOD system the most negotiated realizations are the demands for goods and services, namely information and attitudes. In this paper we analyze the negotiation of attitudes grouped in the system of appraisal. According to Martin and Rose (2003: 22) "Appraisal is concerned with evaluation: the kinds of attitudes that are negotiated in a text, the strength of the feelings involved and the ways in which values are sourced and readers aligned."

The system of appraisal is used to negotiate the way in which people see or feel things (evaluation). These evaluations can be divided into three basic kinds according to what is being appraised: the value of things, the people's character and the people's feelings. These attitudes are amplified and attributed to sources. In functional terms the resources for valuing things are called *appreciation,* the

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resources for expressing feelings are called *affect*, and the resources for judging character are called *judgment*.

I. Kinds of attitudes

In this part of our paper we will analyse the most important characteristics of the three kinds of attitudes we have enumerated above:

I. a. Affect (expressing our feelings)

Generally, in a discourse, the feelings are of two ways: positive or negative. On the other hand, these feelings can be expressed directly or they can only be implied, without being said.

e.g. *We were happy for finishing our task in time.*
(Positive feeling)
He envied them for their success.
(Negative feeling)

As stated above, people express their feelings directly or in an implied manner. When expressing their feelings directly, people use words describing emotions, such as: *satisfaction, pain, happy, socked, sadness, worry, anxiety* etc.

e.g. *He had an expression of satisfaction all over his face when he realized he won the project.*
I tried to hide my anxiety because I didn't want anyone to notice the strong emotions I felt.

Another means of expressing feelings directly is to describe them physically, to describe the behaviour that also expresses emotions in a direct manner:

e.g. *He shook his head, trying to overcome his sadness.*
She pressed her face into her hands and started to cry.

We can also note that metaphor plays an important role in construing emotions.

e.g. *Her hands were ice cold.*

We can conclude that there are a lot of resources to build up affect: direct expressions of emotional states and physical behaviour, and implicit expressions of emotions with the help of unusual behaviour and metaphor. These resources work together. The result of this work reflects the prosodic nature of attitude and the interpersonal meaning in general. As we know, the interpersonal meanings are often realized at the level of discourse, forming a "prosody" of attitude (Halliday, 1985).

Summing up, affect can be positive or negative. It can be realized directly or implicitly. The direct and implicit realizations work together in order to establish the mood of discourse (the interpersonal meaning).

I. b. Judgement

Like in the case of affect, judgement can be either positive or negative. Judgement can also be expressed explicitly or implicitly. Nevertheless, there is a difference between judgement and affect. According to systemic functional framework, there are two types of judgements: personal judgements (admiration or criticism) and moral judgements (praise or condemnation).

Personal Judgements

The positive personal judgements imply admiration and negative judgement imply criticism. We comment on the people's behaviour; this means that we suppose how people feel emotionally, and we evaluate their character.

Judgements can be expressed explicitly by using direct words, generally adjectives such as: *beautiful, sad, strong, popular, weak, amazing* etc.

e.g. *I can't explain what I felt when I saw what remained from that beautiful intelligent woman.*

Judgements can be also expressed implicitly, metaphor plays an important role in judging people's character.

e.g. *He was working as a top executive in the most important security structure.*

Criticism (negative positive judgements) can also be expressed directly or implicitly:

e.g. *What's wrong with him? I can't stand him any more* (directly)
I can't explain my attitude whenever I meet him (implicitly)

Moral Judgments

As with positive and negative personal judgements, moral judgements can also be made directly or implied. For example, when talking about political leaders, one can say *I respect the leaders that fight for authentic freedom*, one is telling us how she or he feels emotionally; but this emotion implies something praiseworthy about the character of the leaders. In the same way, one can condemn people who are against the idea of freedom, without explicitly judging their character: *While some leaders fight for freedom, others are determined to maintain all their privileges.*

I. c. Appreciation (valuing things)

From all these three types of attitudes, appreciation is the only one which expresses attitudes towards non-personal issues, such as TV shows, films, book, paintings, homes, public buildings, spectacles, performances of any kind; towards feelings about nature. Like in the case of affect and judgements (which tell us how people feel about other people and the way they behave), things can be appreciated positively and negatively. When a narrative is about people rather than things, it foregrounds affect and the judgement, but it can also contain evaluations of relationships among people involving appreciation.

e.g. *a **strong** relationship*
*a **successful** marriage*

Although relationships and qualities of life are abstract notions, they can be evaluated as things. When we make a positive appreciation, these appreciations have to do with improving communal life; on the negative appreciation we use terms concerning the damage that had already been done:

e.g.	***improve*** *broken relationships*	(positive)
	broken *relationships*	(negative)

II. Amplifying attitudes

One important characteristic of attitudes is the fact that they are gradable. This means that we can say how strongly we feel about someone or something. For example, if we say *She is amazingly beautiful*, we place her beauty on a scale and we rank it in relation to other beautiful women.

e.g.	*amazingly beautiful*	High grading
	really beautiful	
	quite beautiful	
	fairly beautiful	
	somewhat beautiful	Low grading

According to Martin and Rose (2003), there are two kinds of resources for amplification within systemic functional grammar:

those for “turning the volume up,” and those for “turning the volume down.” If we look at the scale above we can notice that in English there are more resources for turning the volume down than resources or turning the volume up. Both these resources include words which intensify meanings, i.e. *amazingly, very, somewhat,* and vocabulary items that include degrees of intensity, i.e. *happy, delighted, ecstatic* (Martin and Rose, 2003: 38). This kind of amplifying is referred to as *force*. The second kind involves ‘sharpening’ or ‘softening’ categories of people or things and we can achieve this by using words such as *about, sort of, kind of.* This kind of amplifying is referred to as *focus.*

II. a. Amplifying the force of attitudes

The most used words for amplifying the force of attitude are: *very, really, extremely.* These types of words are known as intensifiers.

e.g. *This is a very serious issue.*
Their relationship was extremely difficult.

Intensifiers help us compare things, expressing how strongly we feel about someone or something by comparison to something else:

e.g. *She has always wanted the **best** for her all her family, and still wants **better** and gets it.*

The best is implicitly compared with *the worst*. And *best* is also compared with *better*. These comparisons are possible because the worth of things is gradable: *best/better/good/bad/worse/worst.*

Quantity, manner and modality are areas of meaning that also involve grading:

e.g.	*some/ few/ none/ all*	quantity
	slowly/ fast/ intensively	manner degree
	must/would/might	modality

Apart from the intensifiers we have discussed above, there are also some vocabulary items that include degrees of intensity, namely *happy, delighted, ecstatic.* These vocabulary items are known as “attitudinal lexis.” The intensifiers we have discussed previously are called “grammatical items” due to the fact that their meanings depend on the words they are combined with.

The line between categories can be hard to draw and it is not always clear. Generally, the words which do not belong to the core vocabulary are considered attitudinal lexis and they will be defined in dictionaries with intensifiers such as *very* (Carter, 1987).

As well as lexical items, attitudinal lexis also includes metaphors and swearing. Although metaphors are closely related to affect, they also have an amplifying affect:

e.g. *Her eyes were dull like the dead.*
Their attitude was ice cold.

II. b. Sharpening and softening focus

Sharpening and softening are experiential categories. So far we have discussed only the resources that adjust the volume of gradable items. By contrast, focus is based on the resources for making something that is non-gradable become gradable.

e.g. *I have met another doctor.*

Experientially, this sets him up as having one special job which is different from other jobs. Such classifications are categorical ones. Later, we can say *He is a real doctor.* This is not a categorical classification, but a gradable one.

We can conclude that amplifying attitudes involves resources for adjusting how strongly we feel about people and things. Technically, we refer to these resources as force, and we use them to turn the volume up and down. "Grading experiential boundaries involves resources that sharpen or blur apparently categorical distinctions. They make distinctions negotiable." (Martin, 1992: 43)

Conclusions

Negotiation is strictly related to the interpersonal system of language, involving both grammar and semantics. The most negotiated realizations are information and attitudes. Negotiation is an important step in the interpretation of a dialogue because we have to create a relation between general grammatical classes and the role they play in structuring a discourse.

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Translating the French *Imparfait* into English: Losses and Gains

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Abstract: In the present paper I attempt to illustrate that the French *imparfait* and the English simple past, far from standing in contrast to one another as is generally claimed, in fact share many common features in terms of complexity, polysemy and ambivalence. Consequently, translators tend to erroneously associate the past progressive with the French *imparfait* only because they both express durativity. Actually, the French *imparfait* is semantically more complex than the English past progressive, as it has three possible meanings: imperfective (ongoing action in the past with out-of-focus endpoints), iterative (habitual events as well as repeated events), and durative (states of being). For our contrastive analysis, we will use as corpora the texts *Vingt mille lieues sous les mers* by Jules Vernes and *Sodome et Gomorrhe* by Marcel Proust with their English translations.

Keywords: *aspectual values, imparfait, simple past, past progressive, translation*.

1. Introduction

In aspectual terms, the French *imparfait* is defined as an imperfective form, characterized as making “explicit reference to the internal temporal structure of a situation, viewing a situation from within” (Comrie, 1976: 24). In Culioli’s (1999) enunciative model, the *imparfait* is described as a back-shifted present (*«présent translaté»*), whereby the situation is viewed as open-ended and is located in relation to a reference point or locator of point of view (*«repère de point de vue»*), that is disconnected from the moment of speech by a back-shifting operation (“translation”). Unlike the *passé simple*, which both disconnects the process from the present and constructs its own reference point in the past, the *imparfait* requires a preconstructed locating point to which it can be related, whether the disconnection from the present be of a temporal or a hypothetical nature (as in conditional uses of the *imparfait*). As a consequence, its non-autonomous character (as described in Guillemin-Flescher 1981)

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leads to its interpretation as a qualitative (subject-based) comment on a pre-existing reference point. As such, the *imparfait* would appear to contrast not only with the French *passé simple* but also with the English simple past, typically viewed as a form that is unrelated to any point of view and aspectually perfective, a marker of aoristic value combining disconnection from the situation of speech and a viewing of the situation “as a single whole, without distinction of the various separate phases that make-up the situation” (Comrie, 1976: 16).

In terms of its discourse function, the *imparfait* is traditionally described as a backgrounding tense expressing a comment on events, in contrast with the foregrounding function of the *passé simple*. Films offer a convenient comparison for understanding the meaning of the *imparfait*. When the images follow each other on the screen there is narration and consequently, if we transpose the image into words we choose between the *passé simple* and the *passé composé* since the action is in the past. But if the director lingers over an image, if the image stays frozen on the screen without any new action, if it is blown up to let us see a detail, then our description will be written in the *imparfait*.

At first sight, the French *imparfait* does not appear to present any major obstacles to translation into English; it is usually possible to identify the contextual factors guiding the translator towards one or another of the tense-aspect or modal forms of English that can be deemed its equivalents, with varying degrees of constraint. However, contrastive observation shows that it is not always possible to render all the shades of meaning expressed by the *imparfait* into English: either some specific feature is lost in translation, causing some degrees of stylistic “neutralisation,” or on the contrary the translator chooses to offer an explicit interpretation of the *imparfait* through aspectual, modal or lexical alterations and additions.

2. *Imparfait* vs. Past Progressive

English-speaking learners of French often start from the following misleading equivalencies:

Passé Simple = Simple Past

Imparfait = Past Progressive

However, the past progressive cannot always be used to translate the *imparfait*. Comparing the incidence of the *imparfait* to the incidence of the past progressive we can notice that the *imparfait* can be used in non-singulative sentences (1a) and in sentences describing permanent states or properties (2a), whereas in the vast majority of cases, the Past Progressive presents one single eventuality as "going on" at a given moment in time (singulative use):

> (1a). Je n'avais plus envie de la voir ni même cette envie de lui montrer que je ne tenais pas à la voir et que *chaque jour*, quand je l'aimais, je me **promettais** de lui témoigner quand je ne l'aimerais plus. (*Sodome et Gomorrhe*, p. 113)
> (b) I had no desire now to see her, not even that desire to shew her that I did not wish to see her which, *every day*, when I was in love with her, I **vowed** to myself that I would flaunt before her, when I should be in love with her no longer. (*Sodom and Gomorrha*, p. 88)

> (2a) Là **croissaient** des éponges de toutes formes, des éponges pédiculées, foliacées, globuleuses, digitées. (*Vingt mille lieues sous les mers*, pp. 261-262)
> (b) There **grew** sponges of all forms: pediculate, foliaceous, globular and digitate. (*Twenty thousand Leagues under the Sea*, p. 210)
> (c) Sponges of all kinds and shape **grow** here. (*Twenty thousand Leagues under the Sea*, p. 244)

Thus, if the French *imparfait* applies to all situation types, the English progressive is, generally, incompatible with stative situations. This is the explanation of the use of the simple past tense in the translation of the following excerpt which contains verbs of perception ("to see") and of cognition ("to forget"):

> (3a).Accoudé sur l'angle d'une précieuse table de mosaïque, il ne me **voyait** plus, il **oubliait** ma présence. (*Vingt mille lieues sous les mers*, 128)
> (b) Leaning on his elbow against an angle of costly mosaic table, he no longer **saw** me, he **had forgotten** my presence. (1992: 46)
> (c) Leaning on the corner of a precious mosaic table, he no longer **saw** me, he **forgot** that I was there. (1998: 88)

In the examples below, the imperfective form «*regardait*» is translated into English by using either the simple past form of the catenative *to keep* + followed by the gerund of a perception verb "kept looking" (in order to point out the progressive meaning of the predication) or the progressive form of a verb which imply deliberate use of the senses (such as “to watch” or “to stare”):

(4a) Le capitaine Nemo me **regardait**. (*Vingt mille lieues sous les mers,* p. 116)
(b) Captain Nemo **kept looking** at me. (1992: 67)
(c) Captain Nemo **was watching** me. (1998: 81)

(5a) Cependant Ned Land **regardait** toujours. (*Vingt mille lieues sous les mers,* p. 389)
(b) Ned Land **kept** his eyes **fixed** on that object. (1992: 181)
(c) Land **was** still **staring**. (1998: 187)

So, the French *imparfait* has a larger distribution than the English Past Progressive. We can account for this if we assume with Swart (1998) that the Progressive is an aspectual operator that maps processes / events onto states that describe the process / event as being in progress, whereas the *imparfait* more generally locates a homogeneous eventuality in the past. This can be either a lexical state or process, or an event that has been coerced into a homogeneous eventuality.

The opposite is true for the relation between the French *passé simple* and the English Simple Past. The *passé simple* is more constrained than the Simple Past, which can be rendered in French by the *passé simple* (6) or by the *imparfait* (7):

(6a) The transmission **tried** to freeze, but the power of the three engines **tore** it apart. What happened was the next thing to an explosion. Jagged pieces **burst** through the safety housing and **ripped** the forward part of the aircraft. Two of the men in the back, who had loosened their seatbelts, **jerked out** of their seats and **rolled forward**. (Red October, p. 374)
(b) La transmission se **bloqua** presque, mais la force des trois moteurs la **fit** littéralement exploser. Des pièces arrachées **s'engouffrèrent** dans l'enceinte de sûreté et **détruisirent** tout l'avant de l'appareil. Deux des officiers de l'arrière, qui avaient desserré leurs ceintures, **jaillirent** de leurs sièges et se **projetèrent** en avant, en position roulée. (p. 351)

(7a) He **stood** erect, the smouldering brier-wood in his clutch, with a smile on his lips and a sparkle in his boyish eyes. I **sat** on the stump of a tree at his feet, and below us **stretched** the land [...] (Lord Jim, pp. 200-201)

(b) Il se **tenait** très droit, sa pipe de bruyère à la main, un sourire aux lèvres, une étincelle dans ses yeux denfant. J'**étais assis** à ses pieds sur une souche d'arbre; en dessous de nous **s'étendait** le pays [...]. (p. 287).

This is possible because the English Simple Past shares temporal, aspectual and discourse features with both *passé simple* and *imparfait*. The Simple Past refers to single completed occurrences in the past as the *passé simple*, but it has also the ability to describe habitual occurrences or states existing in the past as the *imparfait*. Moreover, the English Simple Past can express simultaneous (as the *imparfait*) as well as consecutive events (just like the *passé simple*). At the discourse level, the English Simple Past usually provides foreground information, moving the narrative forward. Nevertheless, one can easily find instances in which the Simple Past renders background information creating a descriptive effect as in (7a) above.

Moreover, the same sentence can, under some circumstances, be translated either through the past progressive or through the simple past as in (8):

(8a) À dix mètres de profondeur, nous **marchions** au milieu d'un essaim de petits poissons de toute espèce [...] (*Vingt mille lieues sous les mers*, pp. 206-207)
(b) At ten yards and a half deep, we **walked** amidst a shoal of little fishes of all kinds [...]. (*Twenty thousand Leagues under the Sea*, p. 86)
(c) At 10 metres' depth we **were walking** through a swarm of small fish of every sort, [...] (*Twenty thousand Leagues under the Sea*, p. 117)

3. Imparfait vs. Simple Past

The similarities and the differences that exist between the French *imparfait* and the English simple past are summarized in the table below:

Table 1: *Imparfait* vs. Simple Past

Imparfait	**Simple Past**
Background information	Foreground information
Descriptive function	Narrative function
Durativity	Punctuality
Imperfective	Perfective aspect
Simultaneous events	Consecutive and simultaneous events
Accepts all situation types	Accepts all situation types

Analysing table 1, we can count more differences than similarities between the two tenses. However, analysing these tenses in context, we can notice that the simple past covers certain features of the French *imparfait*. For instance, as we have already seen above, in excerpt (7) the simple past has the ability to give background information too and to provide description rather than narration. Moreover, it can express punctual as well as durative predications as in (9).

> (9a) C'**était** une bibliothèque. De hauts meubles en palissandre noir, incrustés de cuivres, **supportaient** sur leurs larges rayons un grand nombre de livres uniformément reliés. Ils **suivaient** le contour de la salle et se terminaient à leur partie inférieure par de vastes divans, capitonnés de cuir marron, qui **offraient** les courbes les plus confortables. De légers pupitres mobiles, en s'écartant ou se rapprochant à volonté, **permettaient** d'y poser le livre en lecture. Au centre se **dressait** une vaste table, couverte de brochures, entre lesquelles **apparaissaient** quelques journaux déjà vieux. La lumière électrique **inondait** tout cet harmonieux ensemble, et **tombait** de quatre globes dépolis à demi engages dans les volutes du plafond. (*Vingt mille lieues sous les mers,* p. 121)
>
> (b) It **was** a library. High pieces of furniture, of black violet ebony inlaid with brass, **supported** upon their wide shelves a great number of books uniformly bound. They **followed** the shape of the room, terminating at the lower part in huge divans, covered with brown leather, which **were** curved, to afford the greatest comfort. Light movable desks, made to slide in and out at will, **allowed** one to rest one's book while reading. In the centre **stood** an immense

table, covered with pamphlets, amongst which **were** some newspapers, already of old date. The electric light **flooded** everything; it **was shed** from four unpolished globes half sunk in the volutes of the ceiling. (*Twenty thousand Leagues under the Sea*, p. 53)
(c) It **was** a library. Tall furniture, made of black rosewood and inset with brass, **bore** on its long shelves a large number of books with uniform bindings. The shelves **followed** the shape of the room, with vast settees below them, upholstered in brown leather and offering the most comfortable of curves. Light reading-desks, which **could be moved** around at will, **provided** support for books being read. In the centre **stood** a huge table covered with periodicals, including several newspapers that already **seemed** quite **old**. The harmonious setting **was flooded** with electric light **falling** from four frosted-glass globes recessed in the vaults of the ceiling. (*Twenty thousand Leagues under the Sea*, p. 83)

In the excerpts above, we can easily notice the descriptive function of the simple past which, in this case, provides background information. Moreover, the simple past is associated with verbs that imply both punctuality and duration. Actually, the simple past is not restricted to punctual events, even though it is generally combined with this type of events. With durative eventualities it conveys a global point of view, depicting the event as "over and done with" in the past.

As for the *imparfait*, it does not move the story forward but it does not necessarily block progress in time. This is the case of the so-called "narrative" *imparfait* as in (10):

(10a) *Le 5 février*, nous **donnions** *enfin* dans le golfe d'Aden, véritable entonnoir introduit dans ce goulot de Babel-Mandeb, qui entonne les eaux indiennes dans la mer Rouge. (*Vingt mille lieues sous les mers*, p. 368)
(b) *The 5th of February* we *at last* **entered** the Gulf of Aden, a perfect funnel introduced into the neck of Bab-el-mandeb, through which the Indian waters entered the Red Sea. (1992: 153)
(c) *On 5 February* we *finally* **entered** the Gulf of Aden, a funnel into the bottleneck of Bab el Mandeb that pours Indian waters into the Red Sea. (1998: 179)

The standard contrast between background and foreground that is expressed in French past tense narration by the alternation of the *imparfait* and *passé simple* is traditionally said to be rendered into

English through simple past – past progressive alternation, as is indeed the case in the following examples, where the choice of explicit background marking through *was + v-ing* leaves no room for doubt:

> (11a) Mais un glissement se fit entendre. On eût dit que des panneaux **se manoeuvraient** sur les flancs du *Nautilus*. (*Vingt mille lieues sous les mers,* p. 164)
> (b) A sliding noise was heard: one would have said that panels **were working** at the sides of the Nautilus. (1992: 69)
> (c) We heard a sliding sound. It sounded as though the panels on the side of the Nautilus **were being opened** or **closed**. (1998: 102)

In such cases, translation of the *imparfait* by the past progressive can therefore be considered as a "gain" in aspectual explicitness.

In example (12), the *imparfait* is used consistently throughout in order to provide background information about characteristic features and habitual events relating to characters located in a variety of situations belonging to the past. The translation makes explicit several shades of meaning by resorting to various aspectual or modal forms: the past progressive denoting iterative reading (*were filtering, were slipping*) or focusing on the initial phase of an event (*was beginning*), the simple past conveying a global point of view (*floated* / *was, were brightened / were lit up*), the past perfect indicating retrospective viewpoint (*had dawned*):

> (12a) Je revins au salon. Le Nautilus **émergeait** *toujours*. Quelques lueurs matinales **s'infiltraient** dans la couche liquide. Sous certaines ondulations des lames, les vitres **s'animaient** des rougeurs du soleil levant. Ce terrible jour du 2 juin **se levait**. (*Vingt mille lieues sous les mers,* p. 658)
> (b) I returned to the saloon. The Nautilus *still* **floated**; some streaks of light **were filtering** through the liquid beds. With the undulations of the waves the windows **were brightened** by the red streaks of the rising sun, and this dreadful day of the 2nd of June **had dawned**. (*Twenty thousand Leagues under the Sea,* 271)
> (c) I went back down to the salon. The Nautilus **was** *still* on the surface. A few morning gleams **were slipping** into the liquid strata. As some of the waves went by, the windows **were lit up** by the red of the rising sun. That terrible day of 2 June **was** just **beginning**. (*Twenty thousand Leagues under the Sea,* p. 292)

In excerpt (13), the use of the *imparfait* highlights the process in the manner of a close-up on a significant event, producing a more dramatic narrative than would be the case with the *passé simple*; English has no alternative other than to resort to the simple past here, thus losing the camera-eye effect. Such is the sense in which (12) can be said to gain in meaningfulness and explicitness in translation, while (13) suffers a certain degree of loss.

> (13a) Je revins au salon. Le panneau se ferma, et j'entendis les sifflements de l'eau dans les réservoirs. Le *Nautilus* commença de s'enfoncer, suivant une ligne verticale, car son hélice entravée ne lui communiquait plus aucun mouvement. *Quelques minutes plus tard*, il **s'arrêtait** à une profondeur de huit cent trente-trois mètres et reposait sur le sol. (*Vingt mille lieues sous les mers*, p. 644)
> (b) I returned to the lounge. The hatch closed, and I heard water hissing in the ballast tanks. The Nautilus began to sink on a vertical line, because its propeller was in check and no longer furnished any forward motion. **Some minutes later** it **stopped** at a depth of 833 meters and came to rest on the seafloor. (1992: 338)
> (c) I went back to the salon. The hatch was closed, and I could hear the hissing of water in the tanks. The *Nautilus* began to sink – straight down, for its propeller was not operating and so did not affect its movement. **A few minutes later**, it **stopped** at a depth of 833 metres, and came to rest on the ocean floor. (1998: 285)

> (14a) Au milieu de la masse des eaux vivement éclairées par les nappes électriques, **serpentaient** quelques-unes de ces lamproies longues d'un mètre, qui sont communes à Presque tous les climats. Des oxyrhinques, sortes de raies, larges de cinq pieds, au ventre blanc, au dos gris cendré et tacheté, **se développaient** comme de vastes châles emportés par les courants. D'autres raies **passaient** si vite que je ne pouvais reconnaître si elles méritaient ce nom d'aigles qui leur fut donné par les Grecs, ou ces qualifications de rat, de crapaud et de chauve-souris, dont les pêcheurs modernes les ont affublées. Des squales-milandres, longs de douze pieds et particulièrement redoutés des plongeurs, **luttaient** de rapidité entre eux. (*Vingt mille lieues sous les mers,* pp. 419 – 420) (description effect)
> (b) Amidst the waters, brightly lit by the electric beams, **snaked past** some of those metrelong lampreys which are common in almost every climate. Oxyrhynchous creatures, kinds of five-foot wide rays with white stomachs and ash-grey spotted backs, **appeared** like huge shawls carried off by the currents. Other rays **passed** so quickly that I could not tell whether they deserved the

title of eagle given them by the Greeks, or the epithets of rat, toad, and bat which modern fishermen give them. Dogfish sharks, twelve feet long and particularly feared by divers, **raced** each other. (1998: 199) (narrative effect)

Unlike the French excerpt (14a) where the verbs in *imparfait* convey a descriptive effect (background effect), the English equivalents in (14b) with the verbs in the simple past render a narrative effect (foreground effect). However, in (14b) there is a false narration, a false embedment of events, the gap between the predications being so short that it creates the effect of simultaneity. In French this effect is rendered through the use of the *imparfait*, which marks not only simultaneity of the events but also their static value (the narration doesn't move forward). In English, the use of the simple past tense produces the effect of narration but avoids the tiresome repetition of the construction *be + vb-ing*.

Certain verbs of position, like *to hang*, *to stand, to sit, to lie* and verbs such as *to wear* are more frequent in the Simple Past than in the Past Progressive. As pointed out by Dowty (1979, 1986), they are lexically ambiguous between a stative and a non-stative interpretation. So the Past Progressive is not "needed" in order to obtain a stative reading. In French, on the other hand, the use of the *imparfait* is quite normal (in the French counterparts of these verbs), the *passé simple* being excluded in many contexts:

(12a) Les deux inconnus, coiffés de bérets faits d'une fourrure de loutre marine, et chaussés de bottes de mer en peau de phoque, **portaient** / ***portèrent** des vêtements d'un tissu particulier, qui dégageaient la taille et laissaient une grande liberté de mouvements. (*Vingt mille lieues sous les mers,* p. 59)
(b) The two strangers **wore** sea-otter-skin caps, seal skin sea-boats, and clothes of a peculiar material that sat loosely upon them, allowing them great freedom of movement. (1992: 50)
(c) The two strangers, with caps made from de fur of the sea otter, and shod with sea boots of seals'skin, **were dressed** in clothes of a particular texture, which allowed free movement of the limbs. (1998: 33)

(13a) Et je **restais / *restai**, ne pouvant détacher mes yeux de la raie qui s'obstinait à demeurer sombre; je me **penchais / *penchai** tout entier pour être sûr de bien voir [...]. (*Sodome et Gomorrhe*, p. 129)

(b) And I **sat** there, unable to take my eyes from the strip which persisted in remaining dark; I **bent** my whole body forward to make certain of noticing any change [...]. (*Sodom and Gomorrha,* p. 100)

Conclusion

A close examination of recurring translation equivalents of the *imparfait*, combined with observations of French translations of the English simple past, has led us to question the radical nature of the contrast that is traditionally said to exist between the two tenses. Actually, the two forms have a greater number of common features than is usually claimed, coming together most strikingly in the grey area of indeterminacy, where the linguistic operations underlying both the *imparfait* and the simple past can produce ambivalence between singulative or iterative meaning, between narrative sequence or descriptive effect. As a matter of fact, the French *imparfait* is so versatile in meaning and function that it can share features not only with both past progressive and simple past but even with the present or the past perfect.

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Linguistic Ambiguities in Contracts – A Source of Social, Cultural and Legal Conflicts

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Abstract: During the last two decades legal English has been increasingly used in international trade legislation and policy making, demanding ordinary citizens a higher level of institutional literacy and thus causing a speaker of another language than English to choose English as the language of communication and publication. Considering that the primary functions of law are the ordering of human relations and the restoration of social order, we would then question how far nowadays official drafted or translated documents contain linguistic ambiguities, which could consequently lead to different social and legal disagreements. By investigating typical characteristics of contracts' language the present paper focuses on the occurrence of linguistic ambiguities within this domain. We thus aim at researching various theoretical approaches regarding linguistic ambiguities, how ambiguities are defined and how such linguistic conditions occur. Furthermore we attempt to provide a grammatical classification of linguistic ambiguities from various perspectives. Based on a corpus analysis, we propose a qualitative and a quantitative analysis of the data, attempting to estimate which words, sentences or phrases are possibly ambiguous and which type of ambiguity is the most dominant in contracts. Furthermore, we will attempt to propose reliable solutions in avoiding linguistic ambiguities, and thus future conflicts.

Keywords: *legal English, contracts' language, linguistic ambiguities, lexical density, grammatical metaphor.*

Introduction

Paradoxically, ambiguities that are to be encountered within legal and moreover contractual texts have a double sense. Therefore, in contractual texts we have to distinguish first and foremost between *intended* and *unintended* ambiguities. Such a distinction is mainly necessary as various scholars characterized legal language and similarly contractual language as both extraordinarily precise and vague. Defined by Trosborg (1997) as an instance of LSP which further frameworks sub languages and among them the language of contracts, legal language has been regarded by Tiersma as an "archaic, formal, impersonal, and wordy or redundant" language, which can be relatively precise or quite general or vague, depending

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on the strategic objectives of the drafter" (Tiersma, 1999:1). Similarly Mellinkoff describes the language of the law as being sometimes characterized by an "extraordinary precision" and "ambiguity" (Mellinkoff, 1994: 26). Precision is the driving force for the unique characteristics of contract English, which is critical to reducing the likelihood of misinterpretation. But precision is not necessarily extreme clarity – it may also involve selecting the appropriate level of vagueness or flexibility. Exactitude and completion are achieved by using both the accurate and vague words together. This feature of the contractual language refers mainly to those ambiguous linguistic situations which derive from the strategic intentions of the drafters. Hence, beyond this particular feature displayed by the contractual langue we also have to take into consideration further instances of linguistic ambiguities which are not intended but caused by peculiar linguistic circumstances. In this respect Cao considers that "the English legal language is full of imprecise and ambiguous expressions" which are not necessarily intended (Cao, 2007: 23). This aspect is also emphasized by Crystal and Davy who state that "exactness of meaning is a tricky thing to calculate" (Crystal and Davy, 1969: 2010). This latter approach of unintended linguistic ambiguities also represents the aim of the present paper. We will thus focus on the occurrence of unintended linguistic ambiguities which may occur in contractual texts. However, taking into consideration the numerous research fields of linguistics we aim at establishing our research study within the framework of nominal ambiguities which tend to arise in contracts. Thus under nominal ambiguities we will further refer to noun compound and noun-phrase ambiguities. Subsequently, in the following sections of the present paper we propose a theoretical investigation and a practical analysis of nominal ambiguities at structural levels, though semantic, lexical, morphological and syntactical dimensions of nominal ambiguities are to be taken into consideration.

Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that nominal ambiguities are to be encountered not only within native English contracts but also in the translated variants of such texts. In other words we can talk about nominal ambiguities that are likely to occur not only in source texts but also in target texts. Here a twofold situation may also occur, as ambiguities may be on the one hand simply transferred from the source language to the target language, without even noticing the possible ambiguous situation, thus a linguistic deficit of the translator, and on the other hand, ambiguities may arise during the translation process, an instance generated rather by the translator's lack of skill and competence.

Consequently, ambiguous instances can be regarded on the one hand as linguistic ambiguities occurring in native texts which do not require further translations, and on the other hand in bilingual texts. This approach of unintended ambiguities has also been mentioned by Cao who distinguishes between "intralingual uncertainty" and "interlingual uncertainty," the author using the term *uncertainty* as a component element of *ambiguity* as it will be further demonstrated within the present paper (Cao, 2007: 19). Taking into consideration the situation described previously and adopting Cao's approach to ambiguities we further aim to carry out a detailed analysis of nominal ambiguities that are likely to occur in bilingual contracts. However it is worth taking into consideration that a representative amount of "intralingual uncertainty" can be further transferred into "interlingual uncertainty," thus while investigating "interlingual" ambiguities we will also refer to "intralingual" ambiguities as a source of ambiguities that are possible to occur during the translation process.

It is worth mentioning that, according to the particular features required by each specific linguistic dimension of nominal ambiguities, various analysis methods and investigation models have been applied. Thus within this present research study there have been applied methods of theoretical investigation and practical analysis upon the proposed topic; according to the encountered results various qualitative analysis models have been further applied. Structural *interlingual* ambiguities have been mainly investigated by means of the analysis model proposed by Yule (2006), though theoretical and methodological insights suggested by Plag (2003) and Bauer (1991) have also been taken into consideration. At structural level, we have mainly distinguished between phrase ambiguities and sentence ambiguities. Within phrases, structural ambiguity was mainly investigated according to the bracketed and labeled analysis method proposed by Yule (2006) and further mentioned by Plag (2003) and Bauer (1991). Moreover sentence ambiguities have also been approached in terms of bracketed and labeled analysis method which was further developed by applying the horizontal form diagrams investigation model proposed by Allen and described by Conway (2002).

Having established the two main investigation approaches i.e. *intralingual* and *interlingual* nominal ambiguities, we propose a research corpus consisting of 18 English- Romanian bilingual contracts, containing a total number of 83,448 words, of which English variants totaled 31,868 words and their Romanian corresponding equivalents 51,580 words. We are thus concerned with possible nominal ambiguities that are likely to occur during the translation process from English source contractual texts into Romanian target contracts. Acknowledging that most of the analyzed contracts contain confidentiality clauses we will avoid disclosing such trusted information as contact data, address prices or sums. Moreover due to scope and limitations reasons, we will refer to the analyzed texts by using numerical organization according to their proper names abbreviations accompanied by their drafting or registration date.

1. Nominal Ambiguities: definitions and classifications

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defines the noun *ambiguity* as something difficult to understand; the term *ambiguous,* functioning as an adjective, refers to a notion which reveals more than one meaning, so that it is not clear which is instead (Summers et all, 2001: 39). Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary explains the noun *ambiguity* as "presence of more than one meaning" (Hornby, 1994: 34). Similarly The Oxford Dictionary of Law defines *ambiguity* as "uncertainty in meaning." (Martin, 2002: 24)

1.2. Linguistic Ambiguities

As previously mentioned, ambiguity acquires in legal documents a dual interpretation, i.e. intended and unintended ambiguity. This approach is also revealed by Martin in establishing the multiple connotations of the term *ambiguity*. The author distinguishes between *patent* and *latent* ambiguity (Idem: 25). The two senses of the term *ambiguity*, indicated by Martin, match our previously established distinction between *intended* and *unintended* ambiguities. Hence, defining *patent ambiguity* Martin states that "a patent ambiguity is obvious to anyone looking at the document, for example, when a blank space IS left for a name." On the other hand, "a latent ambiguity at first appears to be an unambiguous statement, but the ambiguity becomes apparent in the light of knowledge gained other than from the document." Throughout the present research study, under ambiguities we will essentially refer to those unintended ambiguous instances.

Scholars such as Lyons refer to ambiguities as forms of misunderstandings that can occur at different linguistic levels: lexical, grammatical or semantic (Lyons, 1995:54). Moreover Chierchia and McConnell-Ginet state that “ambiguity arises when a single word or string of words is associated in the language system with more than one meaning” (Chierchia and McConnell-Ginet, 2000:38). In defining ambiguities Cao considers that “a word, phrase or sentence is ambiguous if it has more than one meaning” (Cao, 2006:74). This approach is also emphasized by Yule who states that both phrases and sentences may reveal two distinct underlying interpretations which “are represented differently in deep structure.” (Yule, 2006:88)

Each of the approaches presented above regards both lexical and structural characteristics of ambiguities, which can be thus categorized according to their particular linguistic features. In this respect Ullmann proposes a classification model comprising three types of ambiguities: *phonetic, grammatical* and *lexical* ambiguities (Ullmann, 1977 cited in Tambunan 2009). Leech distinguishes between *lexical* and *structural* ambiguities, considering that lexical ambiguities are closely related to the semantic meanings of words, while structural ambiguities derive from grammatical and syntactic forms (Leech, 1980). Similarly Cao makes a distinction between “lexical and structural or syntactic ambiguities” (Cao, 2007:74). This point of view is also shared by Lyons who presents various occurrences of lexical ambiguities in terms of semantic homonymy and polysemy, arguing moreover that on the other hand syntactic relations have a decisive significance (Lyons, 1995). Following the same approach Tiersma (1999) and Cao (2007) refer particularly to legal ambiguities which are to be encountered both at lexical and syntactic level, revealing peculiar linguistic occurrences specific to specialized languages as legal English.

Appling the classification of ambiguities established by Leech (1980) and Cao (2007) and taking into consideration Lyons’ approach (Lyons, 1995) towards the relationship between lexical and semantic features of words on the one hand and grammatical and structural features on the other hand, we further propose a theoretical investigation and a corpus-based analysis of noun compound and noun phrase ambiguities that are likely to occur at structural level.

1.2.1. Ambiguities in Legal Translations

According to Cao *interlingual ambiguities* arise during the translation process from the source language into the target language (Cao, 2007).

Alongside with the translation strategies which may lead to the occurrence of linguistic ambiguities within legal documents, Cao states that "the nature of law and legal language contributes to the complexity and difficulty in legal translation" (Cao, 2007:23). In this respect the author establishes a classification of various factors which influence and may even alter the quality of a legal translated document, even if the most appropriate translation strategies have been applied. Thus, Cao refers to the difference between legal systems and laws arguing that even though legal language is a technical language "it is not a universal technical language but one that is tied to a national legal system" (Ibidem). Therefore an important factor which can lead to unintended linguistic ambiguities is the difference between the two legal systems of the source and target language, this aspect being clearly emphasized by Trosborg (1991) as well. Still it is not only the peculiar characteristics of each legal system which may lead to ambiguities, but the cultural differences as well. We could say that it is due to cultural differences that specific legal systems have been developed among different societies as "language and culture or social contexts are closely integrated and interdependent" (Cao, 2007:31). Trosborg also supports the idea that law reflects society and moreover that a legal system of a particular nation or a speech community is a reflection of its culture and its institutional traditions and regularities (Trosborg, 1991:78). Because of this close interaction between the legal system and the culture of a nation, legal translation between two languages becomes more difficult. Moreover Cao states that law is an expression of the culture, which is expressed through legal language. Legal language, like other language use, is a social practice and legal texts necessarily bear the imprint of such practice or organizational background.

The third factor, and an essential one for our investigation, also mentioned by Cao, which could give rise to ambiguities in legal translations is the linguistic dimension. Firstly it is worth taking into consideration that legal language and accordingly contractual language are instances of language for specific purposes thus encoding special syntactic, semantic and pragmatic rules (Sager 1990b in Cao 2007:28). In this respect Trosborg states that "The acquisition of a special language happens through explicit rules which need common language for their introduction [...]" (Trosborg, 1999:66). Concerning linguistic ambiguities that may occur in legal translations, we have further to identify those interdependent linguistic levels which, due to their particular functions in legal language, may lead to ambiguities.

We also have to take into consideration the translators' competences and behavior towards legal documents. In this respect, Cao considers that "often, a translator has to make hard decisions within the constraints of language" (Cao, 2007:81). Supporting the importance of the cultural variable in all kinds of translations in general and in legal translations in particular, Trosborg emphasizes "the importance of cultural awareness on behalf of the legal translator besides his ability to manipulate over the linguistic barriers of the two languages" (Trosborg, 1991:79). Still, Cao argues that ambiguities may occur equally in monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual legal documents, although when translation is involved, errors may and do occur from time to time that can cause additional problems that may have been avoided. (Cao, 2007:82)

Being aware of the significance of all the previously defined factors that influence the translator during the translation process we will focus mainly on the linguistic aspects that may produce ambiguities at the syntactic level.

2. Interlingual Structural Ambiguities: English-Romanian Corpus Based Analysis

Regarding structural ambiguity Yule considers that there are situations when phrases and moreover sentences can have two distinct interpretations and thus they could be analyzed differently in a deep structure representation (Yule, 2006:88). Similarly Cao states that "a sentence may have structural or syntactical ambiguity […] if it is susceptible of more than one reasonable interpretation" (Cao, 2007:74)

2.1. Intralingual Phrase Ambiguity

According to Yule "phrases can also be structurally ambiguous" (Yule, 2006: 88). In demonstrating such situations Yule proposes as an analysis method the labeled and bracketed model of representation. Yule's method consists of placing between brackets each element of a phrase or a sentence, and then brackets around each combination of elements, being thus able to clearly represent different constituents at the word level, phrase level, and at the sentence level (Yule, 2006:80). According to Yule such an analysis method allows us not only to label all the elements of a structure, but also to reveal the hierarchical organization of the constituents, thus enabling a clear description of the structure of both phrases and sentences.

A similar interpretation of possible ambiguous situations is provided by Ullmann cited by Tambunan (Ullmann, 1977:156 in Tambunan, 2009:18). The author mentions the term *equivocal phrasing*, endorsing Yule's point of view in that, even though words are unambiguous, their combination can be interpreted in two or more different ways.

Thus applying the bracketed and labeled analysis model put forward by Plag (2003) and also adopted by Yule in his attempt to demonstrate structural ambiguity at phrase level, we aim at investigating bilingual instances of structural ambiguity that may occur at phrase level. Within this present section we will thus aim at comparing English and Romanian phrases that are potentially ambiguous in the deep structure. Throughout the proposed investigation we intend to carry out a linguistic comparison of the obtained results in terms of qualitative and quantitative forms of ambiguous instances.

Thus, the examples provided below mirror specific instances that have been encountered throughout our linguistic investigation.

(1) 2.1 The SUBCONTRACTOR undertakes to perform the works provided in SUBCONTRACTING AGREEMENT No 477/01.07 […] in compliance with: […] *valid norms and laws* for civil works […]
2.1 SUBANTREPRENORUL se obligă să execute lucrările cuprinse în ACORDUL DE SUBCONTRACTARE nr. 477/01.07 […] în conformitate cu: […] *normele si legile in vigoare* […] (*Ctr. No.180/2009 HTC &Flowtex:1*)

a. $[[[\text{Valid}]_{Adj}\ [\text{norms}]_{N}]_{NP}\ [\text{and}]_{Conj}\ [\text{laws}]_{N}]]_{NP}$
$[[\text{Normele}]_{N}\ [\text{ș i}]_{Conj}\ [[\text{legile}]_{N}\ [\text{în}]_{prep}\ [\text{vigoare}]_{N}]_{NP}]_{NP}$

The first structural interpretation of the noun phrase provided above refers to those *valid norms* and other *laws* specific for the civil works; we can thus further refer to a compound noun *valid norms* and further *laws*, all of them specific for the civil works. If we analyze the Romanian variant we can notice an almost similar situation, even though due to word order we will no longer refer to *valid norms* but to *valid laws* which together with other *norms* are specific for civil works. However, if we apply the previous lexical analysis regarding the use of legal synonyms our phrases would acquire an even higher ambiguity degree. On the one hand the English variant deals with those *norms* which are *valid* and further *laws* for civil works. The Romanian target text, on the other hand, refers to those *valid laws* and other *norms* for civil works. Thus ambiguity arises if we question whether the *norms* or the *laws* are *valid*. Even though we might be inclined to consider the two terms *norms* and *laws* synonymous, we have to take into consideration the previously established differences regarding the meaning of *laws* as society regulating rules and *norms* as functioning rules specific within certain organizations or institutions. Therefore both approaches lead to an ambiguous comprehension of the English variant, ambiguity which deepens if we compare the English source text with the Romanian equivalent.

b. $[[\text{Valid}]_{Adj}\ [[\text{norms}]_{N}\ [\text{and}]_{Conj}\ [\text{laws}]_{N}]_{NP}]_{NP}$
$[[\text{Normele}]_{N}\ [\text{ș i}]_{Conj}\ [\text{legile}]_{N}]_{NP}\ [\text{în}]_{pREP}\ [\text{vigoare}]_{N}]_{NP}$

A more adequate interpretation of the phrase illustrated previously is to regard both the *norms* and *laws* as being *valid*, thus no further uncertainty would arise in comprehending the phrase. Moreover, if we apply the same approach to the Romanian variant we obtain a similar interpretation which does not lead to further uncertainties, misinterpretations.

In example (1) ambiguous interpretations occur both in the source text and the target texts determined primarily by word order at phase

(2) 2.6 The SUBCONTRACTOR will execute and maintain during the period of execution *all the definitive and temporary works* […]
2.6 SUBANTREPRENORUL va executa ș i va întreț ine pe perioada execuț iei *toate lucrările definitive ș i temporare* […] (*Ctr. No.180/2009 HTC &Flowtex:4*)

a. $[[[\text{All}]_{Pron}\ [[\text{the}]_{Art}\ [\text{definitive}]_{Adj}]_{NP}]_{NP}\ [\text{and}]_{Conj}\ [\text{temporary}]_{Adj}$
$[\text{works}]_{N}]_{NP}$
$[[[\text{Toate}]_{Pron}\ [\text{lucrările}]_{N}\ [\text{definitive}]_{Adj}]_{NP}\ [\text{ș i}]_{Conj}$
$[\text{temporare}]_{Adj}]_{NP}$

A first interpretation of the selected phrase denotes that the *Subcontractor will execute* all *the definitive* and other *temporary works*. A similar meaning is perceived from the Romanian text as well

b. $[[\text{All}]_{\text{Pron}}\ [[[\text{the}]_{\text{Art}}\ [\text{definitive}]_{\text{Adj}}]_{\text{NP}}\ [\text{and}]_{\text{Conj}}\ [\text{temporary}]_{\text{Adj}}\ [\text{works}]_{\text{N}}]_{\text{NP}}]_{\text{NP}}$
$[[\text{Toate}]_{\text{Pron}}\ [[[\text{lucrările}]_{\text{N}}\ [\text{definitive}]_{\text{Adj}}]_{\text{NP}}\ [\text{și}]_{\text{Conj}}\ [\text{temporare}]_{\text{Adj}}\ ]_{\text{NP}}]_{\text{NP}}$

However we may also interpret that the *Subcontractor will execute* all the *works*, both *definitive and temporary*. Equally, the same interpretation can be also labeled to the Romanian phrase.

Adopting the same interpretation as in (1) we may treat as ambiguous the selected phrases within the cited excerpts.

(3) 3.3 The Client is responsible to present to the Consultant in good time with all the information and documents […]
3.3 Clientul își asumă responsabilitatea de a pune Ia dispoziția Consultantului, în termenul stabilit, toate informațiile și documentele[…] (*Ctr. No.277/2010 HTC&BDO Tax Srl:2*)

a. $[[\text{all}]_{\text{Pron}}\ [[[\text{the}]_{\text{Art}}\ [\text{information}]_{\text{N}}]_{\text{NP}}\ [\text{and}]_{\text{Conj}}\ [\text{documents}]_{\text{N}}]_{\text{NP}}]_{\text{NP}}$
$[[\text{toate}]_{\text{Pron}}\ [[\text{informațiile}]_{\text{N}}\ [\text{și}]_{\text{Conj}}\ [\text{documentele}]_{\text{N}}]_{\text{NP}}]_{\text{NP}}$

Thus we may assume that *the Client* has to *present all the information* and *all the documents in good time*. This interpretation can also be applied in the Romanian variant, as the two structures reveal the same word order of the constituent elements.

b. $[[[\text{all}]_{\text{Pron}}\ [\text{the}]_{\text{Art}}\ [\text{information}]_{\text{N}}]_{\text{NP}}\ [\text{and}]_{\text{Conj}}\ [\text{documents}]_{\text{N}}]_{\text{NP}}$
$[[[\text{toate}]_{\text{Pron}}\ [\text{informațiile}]_{\text{N}}]_{\text{N}}\ [\text{și}]_{\text{Conj}}\ [\text{documentele}]_{\text{N}}]_{\text{NP}}$

The second interpretation, also applicable in both texts, refers to *all the information* and other *documents* which the *Client* has to *present in good time*. However such an interpretation, though structurally possible, is less appropriate within the context revealed in the cited excerpts.

2.2. Intralingual Sentence Ambiguity

While lexical ambiguity has been approached by various research studies in terms of word classes and synonymous relationships among words, syntactic ambiguity may arise due to the relationship established among different words in a sentence, i.e. due to ambiguous word order of the constituent elements within a sentence. Therefore, under the present section of our research study, we aim at investigating to what extent sentences implying noun phrases may be ambiguously interpreted due to an uncertain word order. Thus, we propose the investigation of ambiguous situations resulting from the relationship among the words used within the sentence, attempting to depict how such relationships affect the meaning of the sentence. In this respect we have also taken into consideration Lyons' approach to the close relation between lexical, semantic and grammatical meaning of words. Authors like Hurford and Heasley also state that "structural ambiguity happens because its words relate to each other in different ways, even though none of the individual words are ambiguous." (Hurford and Heasley, 2007:128)

Regarding terminological reference in describing the uncertain meanings that may occur either at lexical or syntactic level, various research studies adopted two different approaches. Authors like Crystal and Davy (1969), Bauer (1991), Lyons (1995), and Yule (2006) use the term *ambiguity* referring to both situations, while other researchers like Allen (1969) and Cao (2007) prefer to use the term *vagueness* in describing lexical and semantic ambiguity and *syntactic ambiguity* as specific to the uncertainty that occurs at sentence level

Aiming at investigating syntactic ambiguities within the proposed research corpus we intend to apply the bracketed and labeled method of analysis described by Yule. For reasons of accuracy, in our endeavor to reveal syntactic ambiguities as clearly as possible, we will associate Yule's a method with a further analysis model proposed by Allen and described by Conway (Allen, 1969 in Conway, 2002: 11). The analysis model proposed by Allen and described by Conway investigates mainly the logical character of syntactic ambiguities, being thus concerned with the relationship between the constituent elements of the entire sentence and not with the relevant meaning of the individual constituents. In describing this analysis model both authors refer to syntactic interpretations that may derive while applying this method.

Upon the bracketed and labeled structure we will further apply horizontal form diagrams used by Allen to illustrate the "natural-language statements" (Allen, 1969 in Conway, 2002:12).

Allen's model of analysis uses the "horizontal form diagrams" in order to reveal situations of structural ambiguity in nature-language statements, defined by the author as "normalized forms" (Ibidem).

The horizontal form diagrams proposed by Allen contain within rectangular boxes, the text of the natural-language statement, the boxes being joined by straight lines, which represent the language connectors. Even though Allen suggests that parts of the text may be abbreviated or replaced by letters, we attempt to maintain the entire analyzed natural-language text unit that will be displayed within rectangular boxes according to the bracketed and labeled method proposed by Yule (2006).

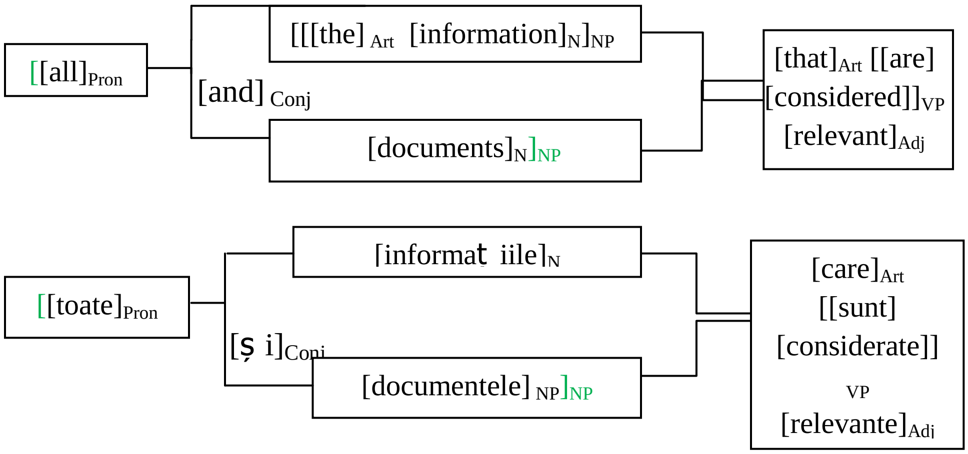
Applying the horizontal form diagrams analysis model, Conway mentions that Allen proposes five steps that are to be followed (Allen, 1969 in Conway, 2002:13). Firstly we have to separate the natural-language statements into their constituents. Then we have to determine whether the statements are conditional (IF→THEN) or bi conditional statements (IF AND ONLY IF → THEN). The third step is to determine which parts of the constituent elements of the natural-language statement represent the condition of the natural-language statements and which the consequences of natural-language statements are. The next step is to arrange the constituent elements into the form of conditional statements or bi-conditional statements. Finally we can rewrite the natural-language statements in a horizontal form diagram. Thus, the clear normalized form must express the same set of ideas as the natural-language statements. Connectors like *and/or/if/then/if and only if/ not* join parts of the language statements. By means of the horizontal form diagrams we aim at interpreting natural-language representations, being mainly focused on interpreting noun-phrase representations within possible ambiguous sentences.

A first example of structural ambiguity at sentence level reveals once again the existence of two possible interpretations caused by word order. Thus if we apply the analysis methods and the investigation models proposed by Allen cited in Conway (2002) and Yule (2006), two possible interpretations arise:

(4) 3.3 The Client is responsible to present to the Consultant in good time with *all the information and documents that are considered relevant* […]
3.3 Clientul îș i asumă responsabilitatea de a pune Ia dispoziț ia Consultantului, în termenul stabilit, *toate*

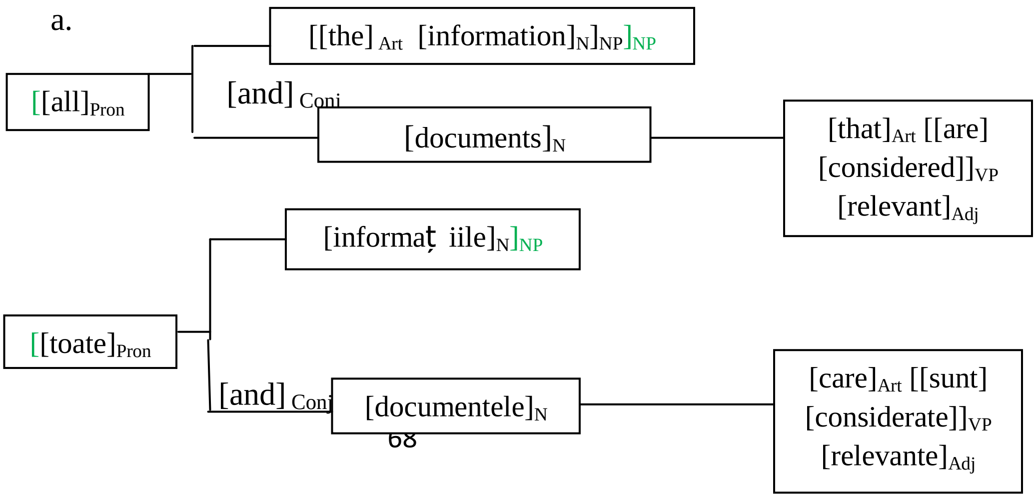
informaţiite şi documentele care sunt considerate relevante [...] (*Ctr. No.277/2010 HTC&BDO Tax Srl:2*)

a.



According to the analysis model applied above, the sentence *all the information and documents that are considered relevant* may be interpreted as referring to *all the information and* all the *documents that are relevant*, thus the NP *the information and* all the *documents* is modified by the pronoun *all* and further more by the premodifying relative clause *that are considered relevant*. It is thus an instance of NP post-modification which has also been transferred into Romanian following the same pattern of realization.

a.

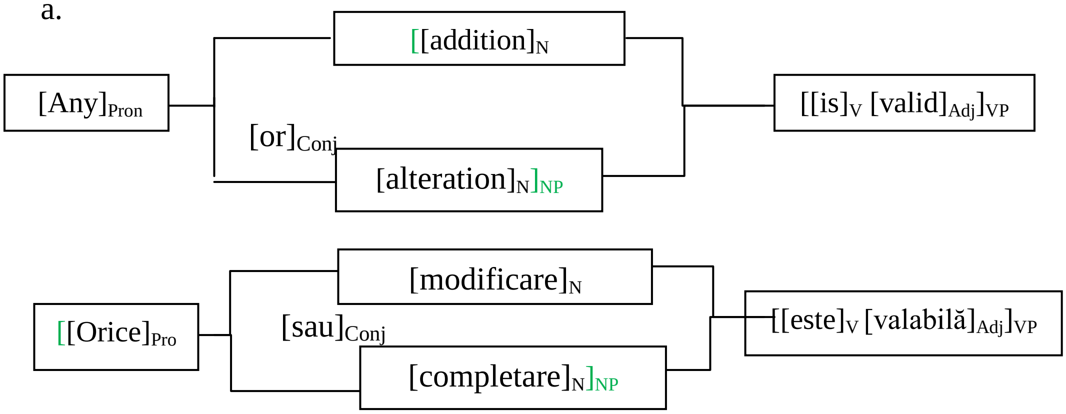


The second interpretation, though less appropriate within the context revealed by our example, leads us to the conclusion that *the Client* has *to provide all* the *information* and furthermore those *documents that are considered relevant*. Under these circumstances, we refer to the noun phrase *all information* and further to the noun *documents that are considered relevant*. Such an interpretation is also applicable in the Romanian variant, as the realization pattern is similar in this situation as well.

Example (5) reveals another instance of structural ambiguity which arises similarly in the source English text and in the Romanian target text as well.

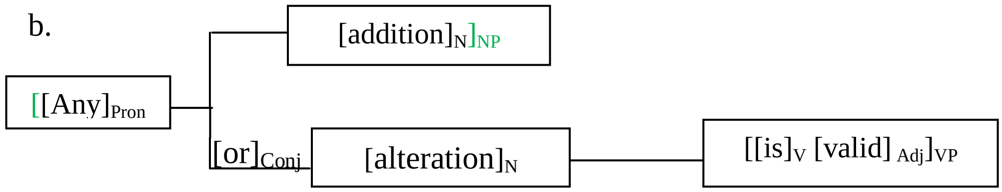
(5) 7.6 Any addition or alteration to this contract is valid only if it is made in writing.
7.6 Orice completare sau modificare a prezentului contract este valabilă dacă a fost făcută în scris (*Ctr. No.277/2010 HTC&BDO Tax Srl:5)*

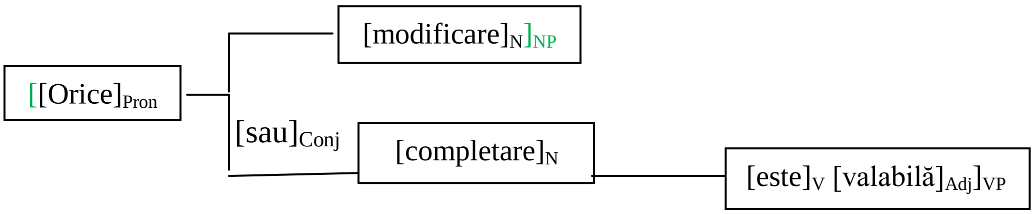
a.



Firstly we may interpret that there are both *additions* and *alterations* which may be applied to the contract. Thus the NP *any addition and alteration* implies legitimacy in both English and Romanian texts.

b.



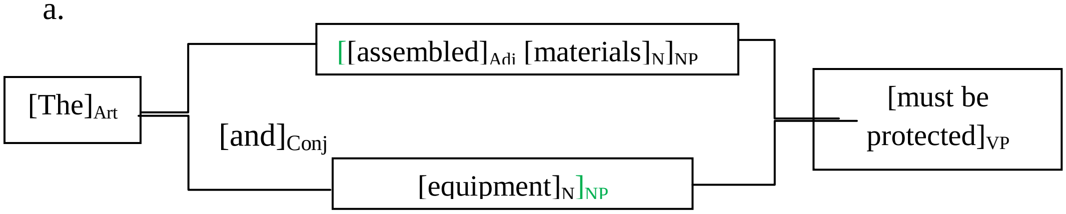


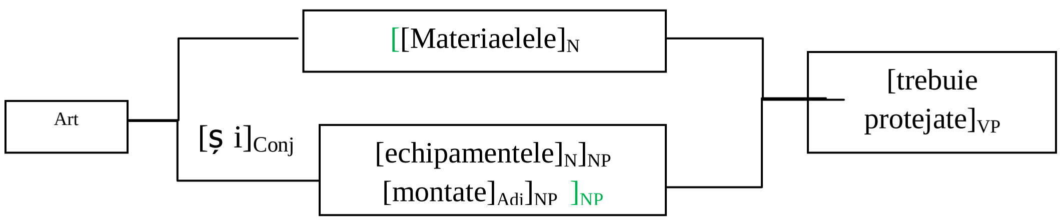
Secondly we could regard the previously analyzed sentence as if only the *alteration* were *valid*, thus referring to the NP *any addition* and furthermore to the noun *alteration*. Similarly, the Romanian equivalent sentence may reveal this interpretation.

Different interpretations, though ambiguous as well, may arise within the following excerpts.

(6) **4.3.** The assembled materials and equipment must be protected until the Civil Reception […]
4.3. Materialele ș i echipamentele montate trebuie protejate pâna la predare, […] (*Ctr. No.236/2010 HTC &Autohton TM: 8*)

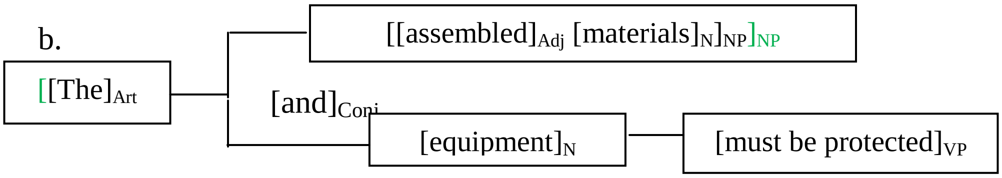
a.

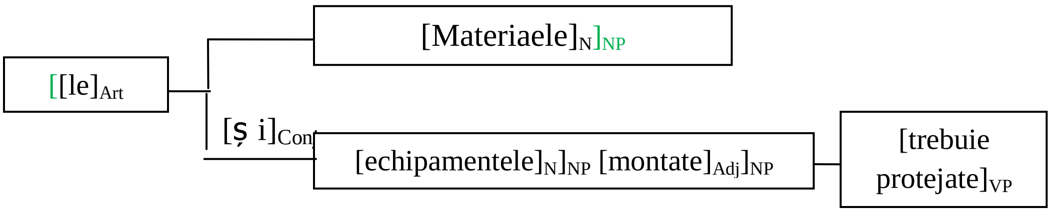




Firstly, *protection must* be ensured for both *assembled materials* and *equipment*, thus the NP is in this situation preceded by the definite article *the*. Slightly different, the Romanian variant informs us that both *materials* and *assembled equipment must be protected*. Even though there appears a modification at phrase level in terms of word order, in the Romanian version as it is *the equipment* likely to be modified and not *the materials*, the meaning of the whole structure is similar to the English variant, both of them being appropriate in our case.

b.





A second variant indicates that only the *equipment* or the *assembled equipment* according to the Romanian variant *must be protected*.

Carrying out a qualitative analysis of structural ambiguities identified within the proposed bilingual corpus, we have encountered further particular situations. By means of a comparison analysis we reached the conclusion that at phrase level, most of the English noun phrases preceded by article determiners have been transposed in Romanian noun phrases to which articles have been attached, for example ***the*** *cost of* ***the*** *samples* – *"cost****ul*** *probe****lor,"*** thus transposition has been frequently encountered due to language grammatical specific features of the two texts. However, ambiguities seemed to occur in this situation as well. Thus either due to already ambiguous English structures or due to ambiguous interpretations of the translator various instances of transposed sentences reveal a multiple meaning, thus causing ambiguity. Further differences between English and Romanian sentence structures were recorded in terms of post-modification types.

Figure 1 below reveals frequency rates of post modification instances in English versus Romanian ambiguous sentence structures from the entire amount of post modification occurrences encountered within the researched bilingual corpus.

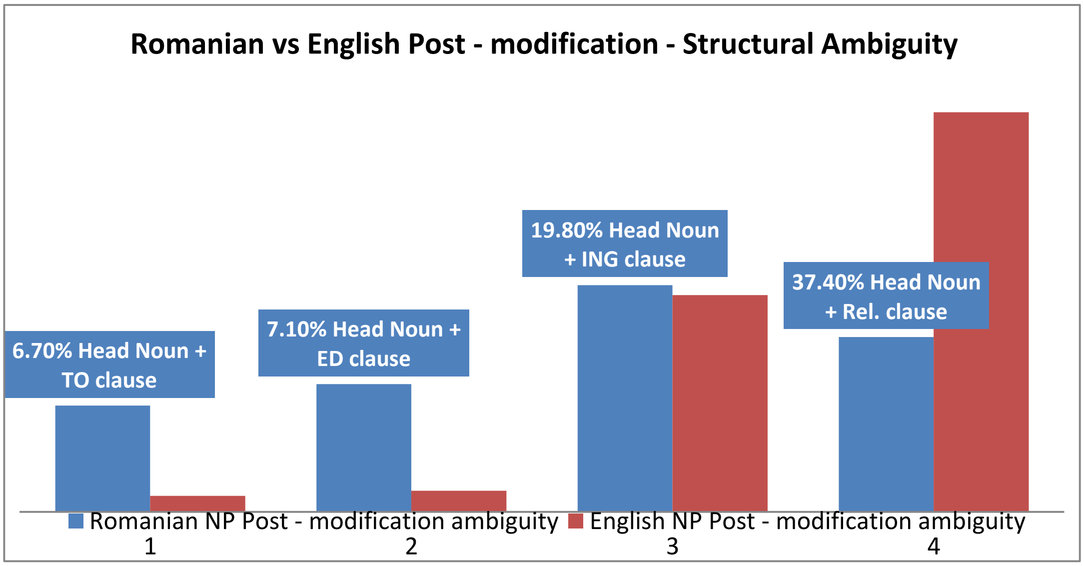


Fig. 1 frequency rates of post modification instances in English versus Romanian ambiguous sentence structures

Conclusions

A first general conclusion regarding structural ambiguities that may occur either at phrase or sentence level during the translation process is that at this linguistic level translation procedures revealed a similar frequency rate as well. Thus the most frequently applied translation procedures were calque, equivalence and transposition. Regarding transposition, further variations were also recorded at this level of analysis, taking into consideration that some of the encountered examples revealed a change of word class through the translation from the source language into the target language.

Structurally speaking, ambiguous interpretation of phrases and sentences seemed to arise due to word order. We have encountered various instances of ambiguous English complex noun phrases whose determiners or modifiers were differently placed in the target language, for example *The assembled materials and equipment* *must be protected – "Materialele ş i echipamentele montate."* Thus by applying the bracketed and labeled analysis model we may reveal different meanings, thus demonstrating the phrases ambiguously understood in an English-Romanian text comparison. Similarly, this situation was encountered in sentences as well. At sentence level, due to a place shifting of NP determiners, ambiguous interpretations occurred in instances of pre-modification or post-modification e.g *The assembled materials and equipment must be protected – Materialele ş i echipamentele montate trebuie protejate.*

We may conclude by stating that unintended ambiguities do occur in contractual texts at various levels, i.e. lexical, grammatical and syntactical. Moreover most unintended ambiguities do not occur due to translating deficits but rather due to the specific features of the contractual language which translators have to take into consideration thus acting cautiously. However, social, cultural and political factors are also to be taken into consideration when drafting or translating contracts.

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Conversation vs. Discussion as Instances of Dialogic Communication

Claudia Pisoschi[1]

Abstract: Considering the universals defining conversational activity, conversation appears as the prototype of dialogic discourse. It is the superordinate level, both structurally and interactionally. Apparently, to average users there is perfect synonymy between conversation and discussion as discourse forms, but they are differentiated by a series of features which are inherent to them (structure, content) or dependent on the situation of communication (speech event, scene) and on the interlocutors (purpose). Conversation appears in various orders of discourse and speech events, being associated to a multitude of social institutions. It can enter various relations with other discourse types, performing an on- or off-stage role, but being based on dialogue history or local linguistic context. It is interesting to analyse to what extent the corresponding terms in English and Romanian designate concepts which are defined by the same attributes.

Keywords: *conversation, discussion, speech event, social institutions, on/off-stage role, dialogue history.*

Introduction

This article is an attempt to establish the dissension points deriving from the multiple definitions of the term *conversation* as a basic concept in pragmatics and, secondly, to compare the terms *conversation* and *discussion*, distinguishing between the general perception on them and their specialised meaning, at the same time, evincing their possible culture-specific semantic features.

The method used is contrastive analysis, starting from the generally accepted standpoints regarding the instances of dialogic communication found in Anglo-Saxon and Romanian literature on this topic.

1. Perspectives on conversation

1.1. Conversation as a product, as a prototypical form

Conversation is often considered synonymous to *dialogue*, the focus being on the product and the perspective combining pragmatics and social psychology:

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> Most of us, despite our best intentions, tend to spend our conversational time waiting for the first opportunity to offer our own comments or opinions. Instead of creating something new, we polarize and fight. Dialogue is a conversation with a center, not sides. It is a way of taking the energy of our differences and channeling it towards something that has never been created before. (Isaacs, 1999: 18-19)

> "tipul familiar, curent de comunicare orală, dialogică" / 'the familiar, current type of oral dialogic communication' (Ionescu Ruxăndoiu[2], 2001: 142)

We selected two definitions which have in common the fact that, implicitly (as in the first quotation) or explicitly (as in the second), specialists in linguistics or psychology and sociology equalize dialogue and conversation, in other words, equalize the process and its prototypical form. The prototype is established starting from the users' practice, performing a generalization after considering factors such as communication mode, frequency and accessibility.

The appearance and status of the conversation derive from the purpose of its use. Isaacs distinguishes between the real purpose and the desirable one. The real purpose has to do with the individual's psychology: the selfish wish of the listener to take the floor and to keep it as much as possible, thus, monopolizing the discussion. If this happened, the dialogue would be nothing more than a sum of monologues, resulting in the failure of authentic and efficient communication. Isaacs highlights the desirable purpose seen from the perspective of social psychology: creativity means accepting our differences and expressing them in thought and in words, each time uniquely. The interaction of various types of subjectivity should not lead to confrontation.

The considerations above prove to be cross-cultural since they consider the conversation relationally and not strictly linguistically; they reflect the same line of thought as the syntagm through which a Romanian pragmatician, Rovența-Frumușani (2005: 40) characterizes conversation metaphorically calling it "architecture of intersubjectivity," following Goffman in imagining a verbal exchange as an edifice gradually built by the interlocutors. This implies

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[2] *Dicționar de științe ale limbii*, Bucureşti, Editura Nemira.

considering it a system, in her view “the most spread and subtle that a society can have.” (ibidem)

Concluding this part, the definitions presented include the criterion of frequency as being the basic one in defining conversation as prototypical; on the other hand, it is interesting how accessibility, implicitly invoked by some linguists when using the terms “familiar,” “common” etc, does not exclude subtlety in meaning; in our view, subtlety is not a constant linguistic feature, but it has to do with the pragmatic potential exploited by the users depending on their purposes and abilities. Therefore, subtlety is a secondary feature, a consequence of applying the generosity maxim by expressing an indirect illocutionary value; that means minimizing the benefit to self by being rather tentative, vague, and thus not expressing clearly one’s wish.

To other pragmaticians, *conversation* is synonymous to *discourse* in its typical form: conversation is a culture-dependent form of discourse type occurring in various orders of discourse and speech events, associated to a multitude of social institutions. It is placed within a scene, establishes relations with other forms of discourse (complementarity, opposition or mutual exclusiveness relations) and can play an *on-stage* or an *off-stage role*. (Fairclough, 1989: 30)

As far as the two sides of the conversation, linguistic and relational, are kept separate, it is justified to consider the former, i.e. the structure of conversations as culture-specific, at least in some respects, while interactionally the purposes are generally similar cross-culturally. Sharing Ducrot’s view, Rovența-Frumuşani (2005: 224) considers that in the definition of conversation, the common form of social contemporary discourse, one should include the notion of internal purpose which supersedes the external purpose responsible for problem-solving in social practice. Internal purposes depend on the type of relationship (real and/or intended) among the participants in the verbal exchange and can display various levels of politeness. Consequently, conversation can become a simple game, sometimes having no goal other than that.

1.2. Conversation as a process, as an activity

According to Edmondson (1981: 82) a conversation is “a type of communicative event which is double-natured: it represents a social activity and a language,” which implies a succession of verbal acts performed within a social structure which gives them coherence. If in the previous definitions the dichotomy relational/interactional −

structural/linguistic is maintained and each term is approached separately, beginning with Edmondson the two sides are viewed as implying each other, as inextricably linked. The fact that the conversation is firstly a social activity and only secondly a language can be corroborated to Fairclough's statement, who refers to the relationship language-ideology.[3]

The syntagm "communicative event" used by Edmondson comprises both the acts performed and the (linguistic) means used in this respect. As a social act, conversation implies cooperative interaction between interlocutors, and its proper functioning means both control and equal participation to the verbal exchange. From this perspective, many pragmaticians view it as being by definition limited and limiting. We would add that the feature [+limited] can refer to linguistic restrictions, i.e. grammar rules, and to pragmatic constraints, whereas the feature [+limiting] can refer to the need of the users to adjust their communicative goals to the linguistic, situational and social context.

The next definitions prove the cross-linguistic and cross-cultural perspective on conversation as a process; its double nature mentioned above remains a characteristic more or less explicitly expressed. A conversation is "a serious and necessary activity, with a cohesive function, facilitating the most diverse forms of social interaction." (Mey, 1981: VIII-IX)

The pragmatic dimension in analysing conversation prevails in Mey's definition. If we restrict ourselves to this definition without any further analysis of Mey's ideas, it remains unclear whether conversation is implicitly a form of social interaction in itself, or, enlarging the definition of social interactions, it is a mere facilitator as long as the purpose is concrete social practice. The double nature of conversation is visible here in the association of the role of social facilitator with that of cohesive marker (cohesion being linked to grammaticality and semantics).

The next two definitions can be grouped under the same heading since they refer to the process of communication and its most typical form; starting from Ionescu Ruxăndoiu's definition (2001: 142) discussed above, the next statement is its natural consequence „dialogul poate fi considerat prototipul de funcționare a limbii în cadrul

[3] "Ideology is pervasively present in language. [...] Language is the major locus of ideology." (Fairclough, 1989: 3)

societății." / "dialogue can be considered the prototype of language functioning within society." (Vasilescu, 2005: 819)

At the same time, it becomes clear that Ionescu Ruxăndoiu distinguishes between conversation as a product and a process, which is another way of agreeing to its double nature; the syntagm used below, "conversational activity" is a proof in this respect: "există un nucleu de universalii ce definesc activitatea conversațională" / "there is a nucleus of universals which define conversational activity." (Ionescu Ruxăndoiu, 1999: 83)

What is undeniable is the general set of principles governing the way conversation as a process unfolds. [+Universal] is the feature that can be considered characteristic to the general sequencing of the stages making up a conversation viewed as process involving a number of participants; conversation is the result of their encounter (interpretable as synonymous to a social and communicative event) which means interaction: „Conversation is an encounter understood as an ordered stage sequencing." (Edmondson, 1981)

To conclude the analysis of this set of definitions, all consider the double nature of conversation: as a prototypical linguistic process implying a sequence of stages, it can have general characteristics; as a process which is equally social in nature, it is perceived as a form of social interaction in itself or as a social interaction facilitator, which does not diminish its role. Moreover, in contemporary society conversations tend to become ever more encompassing in relation to the social types of interactions reflected.

Final comments on the concept of conversation

The dimensions to be analysed are multiple and only their sum gives a full-fledged description of conversation; summarizing the definitions enumerated above, they correspond to the following dimensions:

- the linguistic dimension: conversation is the prototypical form of spoken language; a language; a set of universals; a typical form of discourse;

- the interactional dimension: conversation means dialogue; a social activity; a facilitator of diverse social interactions;

- the pragmatic dimension (considering frequency of use and accessibility): conversation is familiar and current; a communicative event; a necessary activity; a cohesive factor;

- the psychological dimension: (often) a pretext for monologues to achieve self-assertion; a serious activity.

The contrastive study of the definitions presented results in a series of *dissension points* in the form of binary or multiple semantic oppositions regarding the taxonomies conversation can be included in and the basic features of the concept:

a. *Taxonomies* – the two series below correspond to the double nature of conversation, linguistic and social:

- the prototypical form of spoken language ≠ a typical form of discourse ≠ a form of dialogic communication ≠ a language ≠ a nucleus of universals;

- a type of communicative event ≠ social activity ≠ facilitator of social interactions.

Regarding the first series, the super-ordinate term would be (spoken) language, discourse or dialogue. The three terms don't contradict each other since, for many linguists, discourse refers to spoken language (as opposed to its written form), and it becomes synonymous to dialogue, presupposing the existence of at least two participants. Strictly structurally speaking, conversation is a type of language, i.e. its set of universal features makes it distinct as an instance of dialogic communication.

Regarding the second series, any communicative (speech) event is a social event (above all, some would say) in itself and, as we mentioned before, it further facilitates social interactions at practical level.

b. *Features* – from the definitions selected and analysed, the following features appear to be defining for the concept of conversation (we organized them in the form of antonymic pairs):

[+necessary] [+serious] ≠ [+familiar]

[+current] ≠ [+subtle]

Under 1.1. we commented on these features, but we should underline at this stage that the feature [+necessary] has to do with the purpose of conversation, hence its perception by the users as a serious activity, seriousness meaning "involvement, commitment" on behalf of its users. The feature [+necessary] triggers the feature [+current], i.e. "common, typical," which means that most, if not all, users have acknowledged its utility. The term "familiar" can be considered as synonymous to *common*, *typical*, *current*; in this case, the usefulness of conversations led to their being largely resorted to; familiarity can also refer to the linguistic register used, but, conversations cannot be reduced to a certain type of register, especially nowadays. We already pointed out the apparent opposition *current−subtle*, so we will just emphasize that the former is a general feature implying accessibility, whereas the latter is linked to the communicative potential (of the language and of the user) and is not necessarily instantiated.

Another feature that has to be mentioned and which has no antonymic term is [+cohesion element]. We think that this feature should characterize conversation both structurally (in other words, the maxim of relation is to be observed throughout a conversation, or at least as long as the topic is not changed) and socially. Social cohesion is to be included within the feature [+cohesive], since the interactional function of conversation can be in some cases prevailing. Remaining at the level of social interaction, cohesion can be ensured by what Kerbrat-Orecchioni (1992: 20-25) discussed as being an ideal, *interactional synchronisation.* It makes conversation limited and limiting since it requires each participant to control him/herself and to allow equal participation to verbal exchange.

2. Perspectives on discussion

At first sight, it would seem only logical to approach this term as designating a general pragmatic concept, as we did with the term *conversation*. A comparison would make sense if following this line of thought. But this term is not used in pragmatics as designating such a general concept as conversation; however, if used, it is implicitly a synonym of conversation, from a structural point of view (see Vasilescu, 2005: 852-854). Therefore, we analysed not its specialized meaning in pragmatics but its general meaning as it derives from its use and as it is recorded by dictionaries. What seemed of interest to us was to compare its meanings in English and Romanian, to see the extent to which some general conclusions can be drawn in point of its structural and social features; we had in view the interpersonal and textual rhetoric constraints referred to by Leech (1983: 58) and also the concept of tacit cultural knowledge (Hymes, 1972: 279), a culture-dependent linguistically reflected social behaviour.

Rom. *discuție, discuț ii*

1. Schimb de păreri, de vederi; convorbire, conversaț ie.[4] Schimb de vorbe sau de idei pe cale orală; dialog; convorbire.[5]

2. Cercetare, analiză, examinare, dezbatere minuț ioasă a unei probleme, făcută de obicei în cadrul unui colectiv organizat.[6] Schimb de

[4] DEX (1998)
[5] NODEX (2002)

păreri referitor la o chestiune în vederea unei hotărâri; dezbatere.[7] (*La pl.*) Schimb de păreri, discutare a unei anumite chestiuni; dezbateri.[8] cercetare, examinare minuț ioasă a unei probleme.[9]

3. Conversaț ie animată în contradictoriu; controversă, dispută; ceartă.[10] Schimb de păreri contradictorii.[11] Contrazicere; dispută.[12]

The expressions listed by the dictionaries reflect the typical connotative meaning: loc. adv. *Fără discuție* = fără îndoială; neîndoios, indiscutabil. *Fără* ~ fară a se pune la îndoială; în mod obligatoriu.[13] Expr. *Nu (mai) încape discuție* = desigur.[14] *Fără* ~ = desigur; *nu încape* ~ = în mod sigur.[15] All these examples illustrate a neutral use of the term whereas in cases such as *a pune capăt discuției* cf Eng. e*nd of discussion; ce atâta discuție?! Nu vreau să mai aud discuții/ nicio discuție*, there can be inferred an emotional overtone determined by the antagonistic positions.

Eng. *discussion*

1. an act or instance of discussing; consideration or examination by argument, comment, etc., especially to explore solutions; 2. informal debate. [16]

1. consideration of a question in open and usually informal debate; 2 a formal treatment of a topic in speech or writing.[17]

The analysis of the definitions above led to the following conclusions regarding the word meaning structure in Romanian:

1. general meaning, resulting in the synonymy *discussion-conversation*, as conversation was previously defined. The focus is both on the process and on the concrete form of the verbal exchange: primarily on the former (DEX, NODEX) "'schimb de vorbe/idei," "dialog" or on the latter (DN, MDN) "convorbire," "conversație." For this meaning, the interpersonal side prevails, hence, the synonyms

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[6] DEX (1998)
[7] NODEX (2002)
[8] DN (1986)
[9] MDN (2000)
[10] DEX (1998)
[11] NODEX (2002)
[12] DN (1986)
[13] NODEX(2002)
[14] DEX (1998)
[15] MDN (2000)
[16] http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/discussion
[17] http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/discussion

used *conversație*, *dialog*. “Convorbire” is more formal and its use shows that the level of politeness can vary. The syntagm “schimb de vorbe” is the first used when explaining the term because it reflects the emphasis on the internal purpose, the game involved, the strategies of politeness applied without a concrete objective, just in order to maintain a positive face and make sure that the positive face of the interlocutor is not threatened.

2. specialized meaning, the relevant features being [+concrete purpose, external to the verbal exchange], [+formality], [+organized participants], that is why the synonym of the term is *debate*. These basic features determine the secondary ones: [+/−antagonistic positions], [+attention to details, careful analysis]. This meaning evinces the differences between *conversation* and *discussion*. The morphological criterion is important since NODEX mentions this meaning as the primary denotative meaning of the word when it is in the plural; this tendency of use might reflect the fact that the participants (organized in a structure) are given the right to speak and turn-taking is observed.

3. connotative meaning has become typical and has turned into an independent denotative meaning (in NODEX it is the third meaning enumerated). The other dictionaries considered mark it as a connotative meaning depending on the primary denotative meaning “conversation, dialogue, verbal exchange/exchange of ideas, opinions” (DEX, DN, MDN). The features of the term are in this case: [+antagonistic positions], [+emotional reactions], [−interpersonal rhetoric constraints], all three leading to considering the term as synonymous to *fight*, *quarrel*.

In English the focus is basically on the process, not on the product, and that is what the first meaning reflects. The first denotative meaning found in Romanian is valid in English but more vaguely defined and the third may be found only in idiomatic expressions such as *end of discussion*. The obviously common meaning of the term in the two languages is the second mentioned in Romanian, and one can notice the referential extension occurred in English when reference is made not only to formal speech but also to formal writing. The feature [+formal] itself becomes irrelevant since it can be present or absent in the semantic structure of the English word.

3. Conversation versus discussion

Any pertinent contrastive analysis should imply comparing the specialised meaning of the term *discussion*, designating a purposeful formal verbal exchange, with the meaning of the term *conversation*; their semantic overlapping is rather theoretical since the two terms are not concretely interchangeable in all contexts; on the other hand, the limited connotative meaning of *discussion* can, in our opinion, offer enough reasons to subsume it to the referential domain of *conversation,* given the specific features mentioned when analysing this meaning. Conversation can be, in this case, the superordinate term, *discussion* designating a radical instance of the former.

The table below generally follows the features enumerated by Vasilescu (2005: 853-854), since they are not language-specific or culture-specific. The distinctions between *discussion* and *conversation* systematized below can be compared to the oppositions noticed by Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) when contrasting *conversation* and *interviews, meetings, debates, ceremonies.*

Relevant features	***conversation***	***discussion***
Social characteristics	non-institutionalised, prototypical, different objectives, divergent interests	institutionalised setting of the same type ; interests and objectives can be divergent but that is “camouflaged,” convergent points are stressed in order to achieve interactional synchronisation.
Register	expressing interpersonal relations, [+/−intimacy], [+freely assumed speaker role], [+/− role-type relations]	Formal,[18] expressing [+role-type] [limiting] relations [−intimacy] [−freely assumed speaker role]
Purpose	diffuse, variate, negotiated to reach	pre-established, solving institutional

[18] Not necessarily so in English.

		interactional synchronisation[19]	problems
Topic structure		reduced unpredictable[20] sensitive to the communicative context and creating context[21]	extensive generally predictable insensitive to the situational context which remains stable[22]
Interactional procedure		-	formal
Componential structure	**opening**	greetings, compliments, phatic sequences dependent on cultural conventions	formal greeting, no compliments, phatic sequences are reduced to expressing satisfaction etc.
	negotiation[23]	variate strategies (suspensions, interruptions, digressions etc.); meaning negotiation and context interpretation	observing turn-taking, direct stating, justification and detailing of the topic, possible divagations
	closing	similar to opening	similar to opening, in general phatic sequences expressing promises

In spite of the common structure of the two dialogic instantiations, Vasilescu (2005: 853) acknowledges that various hybrid forms of interaction may appear, within the continuum conversation-discussion. Therefore, they are seen as two poles, separated by the level of formality, but sharing the same dialogic levels which meet the general interactional goals: transaction, verbal exchange, replies, communicative/ conversational movement, speech acts. As it can be seen from the table they also share the same basic componential structure (opening, negotiation, closing).

[19] Conversation is interactionally controlled (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974: 696)
[20] Interlocutors have different objectives and divergent interests (Levinson, 1983: 294).
[21] Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, (ibidem) consider it sensitive to recipient design.
[22] Schiffrin, 1988: 257-258.
[23] Schiffrin, 1988: 262; meaning negotiation implies context interpretation.

Conclusions

- the two terms under discussion have evolved semantically which resulted in the differentiation between general (including connotative) and specialized meanings;
- considering their general meaning, in defining the two terms the focus is both on the process and on the product; *conversation* and *discussion* denote a prototypical form of oral communication and a universal process, having the features [+necessary], [+frequent], [+accessible], [+cohesive], [+/−subtle], [+serious activity];
- this denotative meaning of *discussion* evolved to a connotative value, sometimes considered itself as an independent denotative meaning because of its frequency of use. As a result, *discussion* is defined by the features [+antagonistic positions], [−interpersonal rhetoric constraints], [+emotional reactions] [+informality], all being obvious especially in idiomatic expressions;
- as far as the specialized meaning is concerned, *discussion* can be considered a particular type of *conversation* (which becomes the super-ordinate term if we accept it as the prototype), both in English and in Romanian. While the two terms remain partial synonyms strictly referring to their structural levels, the specific features of *discussion* in English and Romanian are [+concrete purpose], [+attention to details], [+/−antagonistic positions], [+formality], [+organised participants]. The last two features can become irrelevant in English.

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Spanglish, an Effect of Globalization (I)

Vlad Preda[1]

Abstract: Spanglish is a complex phenomenon, involving both loanwords and code-switching. With English having become the lexically dominant language of globalization, it has become very important to study how Anglicisms have been adapted to the system of the Spanish language in terms of both phonetics and morphology.

Keywords: *Spanglish, globalization, Anglicism, loanwords, lexicology.*

1. In her *Aspects on Linguistic Globalization*, Cristina Călăraşu claims that globalization of economy entails that the countries taking part in the process will wilfully accept a unique means of communication in their economic relations. The situation was such that English was chosen for the purpose, being considered a "language of globalization," of international business, of politics and diplomacy, of computers and the Internet.

Unlike *Franglais, Italglese, Romgleza and Denglisch, Spanglish* is a much more complex phenomenon. On the one hand, it refers to the multitude of words borrowed by the Spanish language from the English language and adapted to the Spanish phonology, and, on the other hand, it refers to code-switching, which means that a person will begin a sentence in one language and, at a certain point, will switch to another language. The reverse phenomenon of Spanglish in the United States concerns the possibility of Spanglish corrupting the English language.

With respect to borrowings, Spanish is facing the same issues as the languages listed above: words borrowed by the specialised languages and "foreignisms." Regarding the new technology, we can already speak about cyberspanglish, several words having been already adapted: *butear* (to boot, turn on your computer), *surfear*

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(surf the net, explore the web), *deletear* (delete), *dragear* (to drag, move a file).

As regards code-switching, Ilan Stavans, professor of Latin-American and Latino Culture at Amherst College considers that there are many people that speak English, Spanish and Spanglish. It is a language that, to this day, academics distrust, that politicians only recently have begun to take it more into consideration. But poets, novelists and essayists have realised that it is the key to the soul of a large segment of population (Stavans, 2003). The reverse phenomenon of Spanglish is that Americans worry that Spanglish will corrupt the English language. But Stavans says that its use can be inspiring. Among Spanglish words we can mention: averaje (average), carpeta (carpet), deiof (day off), grochear (to aquire groceries), marqueta (supermarket). Code-switching often involves inserting English prepositions or objective nouns, such as “voy a ir shopping ahora en el supermarket” (I’m going shopping now at the supermarket). Professor Stavans, writing about what caused Spanglish to emerge, states that: “It’s partly the globalization of culture and partly the boom in the Hispanic population in the US, although it could cross over into Europe in a century or two.” (Stavans, 2003)

2. **Anglicisms in Spanish**

The easiest and quickest way to spread English neologisms is, to a great extent, the written press, and, to a lesser extent, radio and television.

Anglicisms which have appeared recently in the written press may be categorised into two kinds of borrowings: necessary and unnecessary (Ichim, 2006). Necessary borrowings are those words or phrases which do not have a counterpart in the borrowing language or which present a series of advantages over the native word (such as precision, shortness, expressivity, international usage), while unnecessary borrowings lack an objective reason or have a negative reason: insufficient knowledge of the resources of the native language, haste, the law of the least effort, which, especially in the case of journalists, do not allow them to take the time to reflect on lexical equivalents in order to choose the most appropriate term.

An effect of globalization is the arrival on the Spanish market of English and American magazines addressing to youth, where there are to be found a variety of articles translated from English – it is here that we most often find unnecessary borrowings, owing to the authors' haste in finding the appropriate Spanish terms.

3. The "necessary" Anglicisms in the language of information technology (IT) have made the object of the first stage of this study. This particular language is characterised by a large number of terms borrowed from English which appear in specialised magazines in an unadapted form, or only partially adapted to the system of the Spanish language.

Most of the English loanwords in the IT language are necessary borrowings, denotative Anglicisms, specialised terms that do not have equivalents in Spanish because they refer to recent realities from various domains. These terms belong to certain terminologies, but their presence attests to the fact that they tend to pervade into the standard language.

Adriana Stoichitoiu Ichim notices that these new terms have a relatively minor impact on the speakers, and implicitly on the national language, by virtue of their limited spreading into the respective professional communications, where both the emitters and the receivers have identical motivation and communication skills (Ichim, 2006).

The four Spanish dictionaries listed below have been used to check the semantic novelty status of each term. Only two words (*hardware*, *software*) have been found to have been registered in all four dictionaries, but only two of them also included their gender information and phonetic transcription. At the same time, no same word appears recorded in any of the three dictionaries, only four words are registered by either two of the dictionaries (*blog, clic, ranking, web*), and seven words appear in any of these dictionaries (*back-up, e-mail, firmware, flash, hacker, link, on-line).*

- Diccionario de la lengua española, RAE, with its latest edition (the 22nd) published in 2001 - the online edition which contains entries from the 23rd edition soon to be published has also been used;

- Diccionario actual de la lengua española (1995);
- Diccionario panhispánico de dudas (2005);
- Diccionario de dudas y dificultades de la lengua española (2008).

4. For the initial part of our research, we have analysed data collected from four different IT magazines, two of which published in Peru (*PC World* 15.06.2012, *Canal TI* 07.10.2013) and two in Spain (*Computer Hoy* 19.07.2013, Personal Computer & Internet 06.2013). As a result, a corpus of roughly 300 entries has been compiled, with the large majority being nouns, while the minority being made up of 7 adjectives (*contactless, flasheable, light, multimedia, online, offline, unibody),* and 8 verbs *(des/rootear* (to un/root), *tunear* (to tune), *hackear* (to hack), *flashear* (to flash), *formatear* (to format), *retuitear/retwitear* (retweet), *chatear* (to chat)).

5. Our initial objective has been to study how English words borrowed by the Spanish language have been adapted in terms of gender assignment so as to determine whether it has been done in accordance to their Spanish equivalents, and of plural formation in order to determine whether the English system was retained.

Following this direction of research, it has been revealed that the majority of the loanwords are adopted in the masculine gender, with a relatively small percentage in the feminine (*la app, la laptop, la smart TV, la webcam, la review, la timeline*), in accordance to their Spanish equivalents (*la laptop – la computadora; la smart TV – la tele; la webcam – la cámara; el link – el vínculo; el e-mail – el correo electrónico ; el smartphone - el teléfono; el smartwatch – el reloj*), while the plural form was entirely the English one *(los emails, los logs, los tablets, los widgets, los tweets, los chips, los ebooks, los benchmarks, los storyboards, las webs, las apps, las reviews*).

Another finding was that although the English loanwords (e.g. *flash*, *light*) are polysemantic, they have been adopted by the Spanish language as monosemantic, by borrowing only one meaning. Their semantic specialization is associated with the functional specialization.

From the point of view of the linguistic norm, the assimilation process of Anglicisms is characterised by two contradictory tendencies (to retain their original spelling or to adapt them to the system of the Spanish language) as well as by the coexistence of varying spellings. (*retuitear – retweet; clic – click, offline* - *off-line, online – on line* - *on-line, retuitear* - *retwitear, plugin – plug-in, cache* - *caché*).

6. The adaptation of Anglicisms to the system of the Spanish language is characterised by the following:

1. with respect to phonetic adaptation:
    a. most of the loanwords retain an etymological spelling: *hosting, chips, feeds, ranking, overclocking, root, kernel, benchmark, widget, phishing, backup, streaming, crowdfunding, developers, roaming, proxy, recovery, hotspot, bugs, modder, hacker, software, hardware, malware, firmware, web, online, blog, app, laptop, ultrabook, notebook, netbook, tablet, kindle, smartphone, smartwatch, smart TV, router, webcam, trackpad, pendrive, switch, flash, stylus, mouse*;
    b. a few words retain an etymological and phonetic spelling: *píxel, (re)tuitear, flas, clic*;
    c. certain words retain two phonetic spellings: *clic* - *click, retuitear* - *retweet, cache – caché, flas* - *flash*;
2. with respect to morphological adaptation:
    a. the majority of the nouns are adopted in the masculine, with only a few in the feminine: *el software, el hardware, el malware, el firmware, el blog, el ultrabook, el notebook, el netbook, el kindle, el smartphone, el trackpad, el pendrive, el switch, el flash, el stylus, el mouse, el benchmark, el hacker, el gadget, el link, el email, la app, la laptop, la smart TV, la webcam, la review, la timeline*;
    b. as concerns the plural form, it has been found that it is entirely the English one: *las apps, los gadgets, los*

netbooks, los ultrabooks, los ebooks, los storyboards, los widgets, los resellers;

c. all the verbs have been found to be have been adopted into the first conjugation "-ar" with an epenthetic "e": *tunear* (to tune), *des/rootear* (to un/root), *hackear* (to hack), *flashear* (to flash), *formatear* (to format), *retuitear/retwitear* (to retweet), *chatear* (to chat);

d. all the adjectives have an invariable form: *unibody, contactless, online, offline, flasheables, multimedia, light*; as do the phraseological units: *pop up, low cost, After Office, photo sharing, happy hours, branding online.*

Similarly to Mioara Avram's opinion on Anglicisms in Romanian, we consider there is a clear tendency to retain the original English spelling of the loanword, as the younger generations who have an increasing command of the English language will not accept a change in the spelling of the English etymon.

7. The conclusion for this initial part of our study is that the Anglicisms adopted into the Spanish language, those pertaining to IT included, present interest both from the lexicological and semantic point of view (from the perspective of their lexical dynamics) and, also from the lexicographical and terminographic point of view (by signalling new terms or new meanings already established in present usage).

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Investigating Through Translation and Recognized Translation in the Romanian Translations of EU Legislation. A Bilingual Corpus-based Analysis

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Abstract: The present paper attempts to analyze the cases in which two translation procedures, *through translation* (*calque*) and *recognized translation*, are used in the official Romanian translations of the English EU legal documents. On the basis of bilingual English-Romanian examples, *through translation* is discussed with regard to specialized collocations and phrases, as well as to acronyms and initialisms, whereas *recognized translation* is investigated in terms of various names of institutions, organizations and other international designations. These two translation procedures are also subject to a quantitative analysis establishing their number of occurrences along with the corresponding frequency values in the bilingual corpus under analysis.

Keywords: *through translation (calque), recognized translation, translation procedures, quantitative analysis, EU legal documents*.

Introduction

This paper is part of a larger bilingual corpus-oriented research study conducted with a view to identifying and analyzing the translation procedures used in the official Romanian translations of the English EU legal documents. Apart from *through translation* and *recognized translation*, our extended research study has taken into account other translation procedures such as: literal translation, word-for-word translation, one-to-one translation, transference (borrowing), modulation, transposition (shift), paraphrase, componential analysis, expansion, explicitation, reduction and implicitation. Therefore, the quantitative analysis presented in this paper shows the frequency values of *through translation* and

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recognized translation among all translation procedures identified and analyzed in our larger research study.

Through translation is also called *calque* or *loan translation*, being generally referred to as the transfer of a SL word of phrase into the TL by means of a literal translation of its component elements (Delisle et al., 1999: 122). It usually applies to nominal groups (Bantaş & Croitoru, 1998: 88). Drawing on Newmark (1988: 84-85), we use the term "*through translation*" and we analyze our bilingual corpus of EU legal documents according to the scholar's classification. This translation procedure is used not only for the translation of names of international organizations and institutional terms, but also for different collocations and phrases, as well as for acronyms and initialisms. They are rendered literally into the TL, when there is transparency.

We point out that, in the present study, the *through translations* of names of international organizations (e.g. "European Parliament" – "Parlamentul European") are regarded as ***recognized translations*** and are dealt with separately. They occur when the translator uses the official or the generally accepted translations of institutional terms (Newmark, 1988: 89).

For the purpose of this paper, we have used a bilingual corpus of EU legal documents, which contains the English versions along with their official Romanian translations available online (http://eur-lex.europa.eu/en/index.htm).

1. Through translation

1.1. Translation of specialized collocations and phrases

In our corpus of bilingual EU documents, we have come across numerous SL collocations and phrases from different specialized areas whose form and meaning are faithfully reproduced in the TL.

1.	The benchmark values should cover all production-related direct emissions, including emissions related to the production of ***measurable heat*** used for production, (...). [1]	Valorile de referință trebuie să acopere toate emisiile directe legate de producție, inclusiv emisiile legate de producerea ***căldurii măsurabile*** utilizate pentru producție, (...). [1]
2.	"***significant capacity extension***" means a significant increase in a sub-installation's initial installed	"***extindere semnificativă a capacității***" înseamnă o creştere semnificativă a capacității instalate

	capacity whereby all of the following occur: (...) [1]	inițiale a unei subinstalații, care produce toate consecințele următoare: (...)[1]
3.	This Decision should be without prejudice to any negotiations and decisions on the next ***multiannual financial framework***. [2]	Prezenta decizie ar trebui să nu aducă atingere negocierilor şi deciziilor privind viitorul ***cadru financiar multiannual***. [2]
4.	Meetings of the Council shall also be convened at the request of at least two ***Contracting Parties***. [3]	Reuniunile consiliului pot fi convocate şi la cererea a cel puțin două ***părți contractante***. [3]
5.	A customs debt shall be incurred at the time of acceptance of the declaration for release into ***free circulation***: (...) [4]	Se instituie o datorie vamală în momentul acceptării declarației de punere în ***liberă circulație***: (…) [4]

In the examples provided above, we observe *through translations* of specialized collocations and phrases such as: "*measurable heat*" – "*căldură măsurabilă*" in (1); "*significant capacity extension*" – "*extindere semnificativă a capacității*" in (2); "*multiannual financial framework*" – "*cadru financiar multianual*" in (3) ; "*Contracting Parties*" – "*părți contractante*" in (4); "*online collection systems*" – "*sistemele de colectare online*" in (7) and "*free circulation*" – "*liberă circulaț ie*" in (5). Most of these *through translations* contain an inevitable *transposition*, which consists in the change in the position of the adjective, trigerred by TL grammar constraints. The only exception is represented by the adjective "liberă" ("*liberă* circulație") which is placed before the noun, having emphatic value. We also notice that the *through translation* "sistemele de colectare *online*" ("*online* collection systems") comprises the *transference* of the noun "online" into the TT. The translator does not have different translation solutions for these cases, but has to apply a *through translation* of the SL phrases and collocations.

6.	At all levels, from ***upstream strategic planning*** to ***downstream project development***, it should be ensured that EIB external financing operations comply with and support Union external policies (...). [2]	La toate nivelurile, de la ***planificarea strategică în amonte***, la ***dezvoltarea proiectelor în aval***, ar trebui garantat faptul că operațiunile de finanțare externă ale BEI respectă şi vin în sprijinul politicilor de relații externe ale Uniunii (...). [2]
7.	The Commission should make available an ***open-source software*** incorporating the relevant technical and security features necessary in	Comisia ar trebui să pună la dispoziție un ***software cu sursă deschisă*** care să conțină elementele tehnice şi de securitate relevante în vederea

	order to comply with the provisions of this Regulation as regards ***online collection systems***. By 1 January 2012, the Commission shall set up and thereafter shall maintain ***open-source software*** incorporating the relevant technical and security features (...). [5]	respectării dispozițiilor prezentului regulament în ceea ce priveşte ***sistemele de colectare online***. Până la 1 ianuarie 2012, Comisia dezvoltă şi întreține un ***program cu sursă deschisă*** care să conțină elementele tehnice şi de securitate relevante (...). [5]
8.	The Agency shall also apply the security principles relating to ***the processing of non-classified sensitive information*** as adopted and implemented by the Commission. The Agency shall not recruit interim staff to perform what are deemed to be ***sensitive*** financial *duties*. [6]	De asemenea, agenția aplică principiile de securitate privind ***prelucrarea informațiilor sensibile neclasificate***, astfel cum au fost adoptate şi puse în aplicare de Comisie. Agenția nu recrutează personal interimar pentru a exercita *atribuții* considerate a avea ***caracter sensibil*** din punct de vedere financiar. [6]
9.	This condition is met when at least 85 % of the income of the ***target company***. [7]	Această condiție este îndeplinită când cel puțin 85 % din venitul ***întreprinderii-țintă***. [7]

The economic terms "*upstream strategic planning*" and "*downstream project development*," in (6), are rendered as "*planificarea strategică în amonte*" and "*dezvoltarea proiectelor în aval*" by means of *through translation*. These are the only possible translations, as specialised Romanian works in the field of economics commonly use the terms "în amonte" and "în aval" as equivalents of the English terms "upstream" and "downstream," respectively.

We notice that for the translation of "*open-source software*" in (7), two variants are given in the same document: "*software cu sursă deschisă*," which borrows the term "*software*" and translates literally the other term and "*program cu sursă deschisă*," which is an integral *through translation* of the English term. We consider that the translator should have used only one variant throughout the document on grounds of coherence and terminology uniformity, either of them being a good solution.

However, there are also instances in which the translator could have chosen a different solution. In example (8), there is a *through translation* of the noun phrase "*the processing of non-classified sensitive information*," namely "*prelucrarea informațiilor sensibile neclasificate*," in which the collocation "*informații* *sensibile*" sounds rather improper. In the same document, the adjective "*sensible*" is translated using a paraphrase as "*(având) caracter sensibil*," which is better taking into account that it refers to "atribuții." Therefore, "*the processing of non-classified sensitive information*" could have been translated as "prelucrarea informațiilor *cu caracter sensibil* neclasificate." But maybe this solution would have led to a too long noun phrase, thus the translator has chosen to use the adjective "sensibile" for reasons of brevity.

In (9), the ST term "target company" is translated as the compound term "întreprindere-ţ intă," which might sound a little strange in Romanian. The noun "target" acts as the premodifier of the noun "company," forming a term which means "the company that is aimed at," which could also have been translated into Romanian as the noun phrase "întreprindere vizată." Nowadays we notice the preference for rendering the English terms that contain the noun "target" as *through translations* in Romanian, such as "target audience" – "public țintă" and "target text" – "text țintă," which are largely used. Likewise, the *through translation* "întreprindere-țintă" is preferred as it is more transparent and it contributes to the terminology uniformity between the ST and the TT.

We have also come across *through translations* of *collocations and phrases belonging to the EU field and organization* in order to achieve better transparency and facilitate communication among EU official languages.

10.	The review of the ***European Neighbourhood Policy*** and the renewed emphasis on differentiation should also be reflected in that assessment. [2]	Revizuirea ***politicii europene de vecinătate*** şi accentul reînnoit pus pe diferențiere ar trebui să fie reflectate de asemenea în evaluarea respectivă. [2]
11.	(...), the EIB should improve its cooperation with the other European financial institutions through agreements such as the ***tripartite memorandum of understanding*** between the Commission, the EIB Group and the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD), (...). [2]	BEI ar trebui să îș i amelioreze cooperarea cu celelalte instituţ ii financiare europene, (...), prin acorduri precum ***memorandumul de înțelegere tripartit*** dintre Comisie, grupul BEI ș i Banca Europeană pentru Reconstrucție şi Dezvoltare (BERD) (...). [2]
12.	***The Information Management Strategy for EU internal security*** aims at finding the simplest and most easily traceable and cost-	***Strategia de gestionare a informațiilor pentru securitatea internă a UE*** urmăreşte să identifice soluțiile cele mai simple, mai uşor de

	effective solutions for data exchange. [8]	urmărit şi mai rentabile pentru schimburile de date. [8]
13.	The effect of Article 12(5) TRLIS is to promote the creation of ***pan-European undertakings***, by putting domestic and cross-border acquisitions on the same footing. [7]	Efectul articolului 12 alineatul (5) din TRLIS este de a promova crearea de ***întreprinderi paneuropene***, asigurând condiții de egalitate pentru achizițiile naționale şi transfrontaliere. [7]
14.	The institutions of the Union shall apply the principle of proportionality as laid down in the Protocol on the application of ***the principles of subsidiarity and proportionality***. [9]	Instituțiile Uniunii aplică principiul proporționalității în conformitate cu Protocolul privind aplicarea ***principiilor subsidiarității şi proporționalității***. [9]
15.	Political parties at European level contribute to forming ***European political awareness*** and to expressing the will of citizens of the Union. [9]	Partidele politice la nivel european contribuie la formarea ***conştiinței politice europene*** şi la exprimarea voinței cetățenilor Uniunii. [9]
16.	A ***blocking minority*** must include at least four Council members, failing which the qualified majority shall be deemed attained. [9]	***Minoritatea de blocare*** trebuie să cuprindă cel puț in patru membri ai Consiliului, în caz contrar se consideră a fi întrunită majoritatea calificată. [9]
17.	***The common foreign and security policy*** is subject to specific rules and procedures. [9]	***Politica externă ș i de securitate comună*** face obiectul aplicării unor norme ș i proceduri speciale. [9]
18.	The ***framework programme*** shall be implemented through specific programmes developed within each activity. [9]	***Programul-cadru*** este pus în aplicare prin intermediul unor programe specifice, dezvoltate în cadrul fiecărei acț iuni. [9]

The collocations and phrases given in the examples above belong to the EU field, being new ones in Romanian, therefore *through translation* is necessary in order to express the SL structures in a faithful manner: "*European Neighbourhood Policy*" – "*politica europeană de vecinătate*" in (10); "*tripartite memorandum of understanding*" – "*memorandumul de înț elegere tripartit*" in (11); "*The Information Management Strategy for EU internal security*" – "*Strategia de gestionare a informaț iilor pentru securitatea internă a UE*" in (12); "*pan-European undertakings*" – "*întreprinderi paneuropene*" in (13); "*the principles of subsidiarity and proportionality*" – "*principiile subsidiarităț ii ș i proporț ionalităț ii*" in (14); "*European political awareness*" – "*conș tiinț a politică europeană*" in (15); "*blocking minority*" – "*Minoritate de blocare*" in (16); "*The common foreign and security* *policy*” – “*Politica externă și de securitate comună*” in (17); “*framework programme*” – “*Programul-cadru*” in (18).

19.	The same should apply to recipients of healthcare seeking to receive healthcare provided in another Member State through other means, for example through ***eHealth services***. [10]	Aceleași dispoziții ar trebui să se aplice beneficiarilor de asistență medicală care doresc să primească asistență medicală într-un alt stat membru prin intermediul altor mijloace, cum ar fi ***serviciile de e-sănătate***. [10]
20.	(b) guidelines supporting the Member States in developing the interoperability of ***ePrescriptions***; [10]	(b) orientări care să sprijine statele membre în dezvoltarea interoperabilității ***e-prescripțiilor***; [10]

Moreover, “*eHealth services*,” in (19), and “*ePrescriptions*,” in (20), have been translated as “*serviciile de e-sănătate*” and “*e-prescripții*,” respectively, which might sound rather strange and ambiguous in the TL, although they have been used under this form in several Romanian texts lately. The prefix “e-” stands for the word “electronic,” referring to online services. The term “eHealth” (“e-health”) is considered to be fairly recent, designating the healthcare practice supported by electronic processes and communication and the term “ePrescriptions” (“e-prescriptions”) refers to computer-generated prescriptions created by one’s healthcare provider and sent directly to one’s pharmacy. Readers who are not aware of the original English form, would ask themselves what “e-” stands for, therefore the translator could have chosen to replace the “e-” with the adjectives “online” or “electronic,” in order to make it clearer (“serviciile *online*/*electronice* de sănătate;” “prescripții *online*/*electronice*”). However, the *through translation* of such English terms is welcome, as it complies with the rules of transparency, uniformity and concision.

We have also encountered two cases when *through translation* is applied to a ST catchphrase and to an ST idiom.

21.	SHARE-ERIC is expected to become an important asset to other major European research and innovation initiatives on population ageing such as the proposed Joint Programming Initiative ***more years — better lives***, (...), [3]	Se preconizează că SHARE-ERIC va deveni un atu important pentru celelalte inițiative majore europene în materie de cercetare și inovare în ceea ce privește îmbătrânirea populației, cum ar fi Inițiativa privind programarea în comun “***Ani mai mulți, vieți mai bune***,” (...), [3]

22.	Finally, the Commission has already examined, ***in the light of*** the Merger Regulation [30], many Spanish cross-border operations that could have benefited from the contested measure. The Commission must consider that, ***in the light of*** the above-mentioned case law and the specific features of the case, Article 12(5) TRLIS constitutes a State aid scheme (...). [7]	În cele din urmă, Comisia a examinat deja, ***în lumina*** Regulamentului privind concentrările economice [30], numeroase operaţ iuni transfrontaliere spaniole care ar fi putut beneficia de măsura contestată. Comisia trebuie să considere că, ***având în vedere*** jurisprudenţ a menţ ionată anterior ş i caracteristicile specifice ale cazului, articolul 12 alineatul (5) din TRLIS constituie o schemă de ajutor de stat (...). [7]

The catchphrase "*more years – better lives*," in (21), is translated as "*Ani mai mulţ i, vieţ i mai bune*" preserving the same concise form, in order to be close to the original, and conveying the same idea. In English the emphasis is on the adjectives in the comparative degree of superiority "*more*" and "*better*," whereas in Romanian the emphasis falls on the nouns "*ani*" and "*vieţ i*," since they are placed at the beginning of each structure. This is the only way in which the Romanian translator could have rendered this catchphrase; even if the first part of it could have followed the English order ("mai mulți ani"), the second part would have been forced and inappropriate ("mai bune vieți"). Consequently, the solution used by the translator is the best one.

In example (22), there is a *through translation* of the idiom "*in the light of*" ("*in the light of* the Merger Regulation" – "*în lumina* Regulamentului"), which in this case means "in accordance with" – "în conformitate cu." The translator has preferred to use the closest possible TL form of the SL idiom, since in Romanian the phrase "*în lumina*" is used in combination with a noun in the genitive. We notice that later on in the same document the idiom "*in the light of*" is no longer rendered into Romanian as "*în lumina*," but as "*având în vedere*," because the first variant would have been unusual in this case ("*în lumina* jurisprudenței menționate anterior").

1.2. Translation of acronyms and initialisms

According to Newmark (1988) acronyms preserve their English form, but they often change, following a *through translation* in other languages. We have come across both cases in our bilingual corpus of EU legal documents.

23.	(...) contrary to what has been claimed, it follows from the proceedings in the ***USA*** that there is a clear dividing line distinguishing web rolls from CFP. [11]	(...), spre deosebire de ceea ce s-a afirmat, din procedurile din ***SUA*** reiese că există o distincț ie clară între rulourile pentru tipărirea cu hârtie în sul ș i HCCS. [11]
24.	(...) through agreements such as the tripartite memorandum of understanding between the Commission, the ***EIB Group*** and the *European Bank for Reconstruction and Development* (***EBRD***), in respect of cooperation outside the Union and through allowing the ***EIB*** *Group* and the ***EBRD*** to act in a complementary way by relying on their respective comparative advantages. [2]	(...) prin acorduri precum memorandumul de înț elegere tripartit dintre Comisie, ***grupul BEI*** ș i *Banca Europeană pentru Reconstrucț ie ș i Dezvoltare* (***BERD***) privind cooperarea în afara Uniunii ș i prin posibilitatea acordată *grupului* ***BEI*** ș i ***BERD*** de a acț iona în mod complementar, bazându-se pe avantajele lor comparative. [2]
25.	(b) tasks relating to training on the technical use of SIS II, in particular for ***SIRENE***-staff (***SIRENE*** – *Supplementary Information Request at the National Entries*) and training of experts on the technical aspects of ***SIS*** II in the framework of Schengen evaluation. [6]	(b) atribuț ii legate de formarea privind utilizarea tehnică a SIS II, în special pentru personalul ***SIRENE*** (***SIRENE*** – *cerere de informaț ii suplimentare la intrările naț ionale*), ș i de formarea experț ilor privind aspectele tehnice ale ***SIS*** II în cadrul evaluării Schengen. [6]
26.	(...), Article 12(5) ***TRLIS*** constitutes a State aid scheme within the meaning of Article 107(1) ***TFEU***, also to the extent that it applies to extra-***EU*** acquisitions. [7]	(...), articolul 12 alineatul (5) din ***TRLIS*** constituie o schemă de ajutor de stat în sensul articolului 107 alineatul (1) din ***TFUE*** în măsura în care se aplică achiziț iilor din afara ***UE***. [7]
27.	***Europol*** and ***Eurojust*** should each be able to appoint a representative to the SIS II Advisory Group established under this Regulation. [6]	***Europol*** ș i ***Eurojust*** ar trebui să poată numi fiecare un reprezentant în cadrul Grupului consultativ SIS II instituit în temeiul prezentului regulament. [6]

On the one hand, we have encountered both English acronyms and intialisms switched into Romanian according to the *through translation* of the words they designate, therefore: "*USA*" ("United States of America") becomes "*SUA*" ("Statele Unite ale Americii") in (23); "*EIB* Group" ("European Investment Bank") becomes "grupul *BEI*" ("Banca Europeană de Investiții") in (24); "*EBRD*" ("European Bank for Reconstruction and Development") becomes "*BERD*" ("Banca Europeană pentru Reconstrucț ie ș i Dezvoltare") in (24); "*EU*" ("European Union") becomes "*UE*" ("Uniunea Europeană") in (26) and "*TFEU*" ("*Treaty on the Functioning of the European*

Union”) becomes “TFUE” (“*Tratatul privind funcționarea Uniunii Europene*”) in (26).

On the other hand, we have also come across examples when the acronyms or the initialisms preserve their English form in the Romanian translation: “*SIRENE*” (“Supplementary Information Request at the National Entries”) in (25), which, according to its *through translation* (“*cerere de informaţ ii suplimentare la intrările naţ ionale*”) should have been “CISIN;” “*SIS*” (“Schengen Information System”), in (25), coincides with its Romanian acronym “*SIS*” (“*Sistemul de Informații Schengen”*); “*TRLIS*,” in (26), stands for the Spanish “*texto refundido de la Ley del Impuesto sobre Sociedades*,” this initialism being preserved as such in the English document as well as in the Romanian translation.

In example (27), the official names of two European Union organizations, *Europol* and *Eurojust*, have been kept under their original form in Romanian. The name *Europol* stands for “European Police Office,” which in Romanian is referred to as “Oficiul de Poliţ ie al Uniunii Europene,” and the name *Eurojust* stands for “The European Union’s Judicial Cooperation Unit” translated into Romanian as “Unitatea Europeană de Cooperare Judiciară.” These words are formed by joining two truncations: *Europol* (“euro” obtained from “European” and “pol” from “Police”) and *Eurojust* (“euro” obtained from “European” and “just” from “justice”). They are preserved as such in Romanian, not only because they are part of a common EU culture and they facilitate communication between the Member States, but also because they are transparent in Romanian too (“euro” – “Europa” / “(Uniunea) Europeană ;” “pol” – “poliţ ie;” “just” – “justiţ ie”).

2. Recognized translation

In our bilingual corpus of EU documents ***recognized translations*** are sometimes ***through translations*** of names of different international organizations, institutions, bodies, systems, codes and even positions held by officials, which represent officially accepted translations.

1.	The Union’s institutions shall be: - **the European Parliament,** - **the European Council,** - **the Council,** - **the European Commission**	Instituţ iile Uniunii sunt: - **Parlamentul European;** - **Consiliul European;** - **Consiliul;** - **Comisia Europeană** (denumită în

	(hereinafter referred to as "the Commission"), **- the Court of Justice of the European Union,** **- the European Central Bank,** - the Court of Auditors. [9]	continuare "Comisia"); **- Curtea de Justiție a Uniunii Europene;** **- Banca Centrală Europeană;** - Curtea de Conturi. [9]
2.	***The High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy*** shall take part in its work. [9]	***Înaltul Reprezentant al Uniunii pentru afaceri externe și politica de securitate*** participă la lucrările Consiliului European. [9]
3.	It communicated that report to the ***European Food Safety Authority*** (hereinafter the Authority) and to the Commission on 11 August 2009. [12]	Raportul a fost comunicat ***Autorității Europene pentru Siguranța Alimentară*** (denumită în continuare "autoritatea") și Comisiei, la 11 august 2009. [12]
4.	As regards SIS II, the ***European Police Office*** (Europol) and the ***European Judicial Cooperation Unit*** (Eurojust), both having the right to access and search directly data entered into SIS II (...). [6]	În ceea ce privește SIS II, ***Oficiul European de Poliție*** (Europol) și ***Unitatea Europeană de Cooperare Judiciară*** (Eurojust), ambele având dreptul de a accesa și de a consulta direct datele introduse în SIS II (…). [6]
5.	In addition to its core mission of financing investment in the European Union, the ***European Investment Bank*** (EIB) has since 1963 undertaken financing operations (...). [2]	Pe lângă misiunea sa principală de finanțare a investițiilor în Uniunea Europeană, începând din 1963, ***Banca Europeană de Investiții*** (BEI) a derulat operațiuni de finanțare (...). [2]
6.	The measures provided for in this Regulation are in accordance with the opinion of the ***Standing Committee on the Food Chain and Animal Health***. [13]	Măsurile prevăzute în prezentul regulament sunt conforme cu avizul ***Comitetului permanent pentru lanțul alimentar și sănătatea animală***. [13]
7.	This Directive respects the fundamental rights and observes the principles recognised in particular by the ***Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union***, as referred to in Article 6 of the Treaty on European Union. [8]	Prezenta directivă respectă drepturile fundamentale și principiile recunoscute în special de ***Carta drepturilor fundamentale a Uniunii Europene***, astfel cum se menționează la articolul 6 din Tratatul privind Uniunea Europeană. [8]

In the examples above the names of EU institutions or bodies, the names of different positions held by EU officials and the names of EU official documents represent official *recognized translations*. The Romanian translators must use these official translations as they are indicated in the *Romanian Style Guide for the Use of Translators of the Acquis Communautaire*.[2]

We notice that some of these Romanian official *recognized translations* are actually *through translations* which follow closely the structure of the English names. They also contain different *transpositions*, such as the change in the position of the adjective ("the *European* Parliament" – "Parlamentul *European*" in (1); "the *European Central* Bank" – "Banca *Centrală Europeană*" in (1); "*European Judicial* Cooperation Unit" – "Unitatea *Europeană* de Cooperare *Judiciară*" in (4)), a "*word-class*" *transposition* in which the noun becomes an adjective in the translation ("European *Food* Safety Authority" – "Autoritatea Europeană pentru Siguranţa *Alimentară*" in (3); "Standing Committee on the *Food* Chain and Animal Health" – "Comitetului permanent pentru lanţul *alimentar* şi sănătatea animală" in (6)) and a change from singular to plural ("European *Investment* Bank" – "Banca Europeană de *Investiţii*" in (5)).

8.	Therefore, the appropriate ***Harmonised System (HS) code of the World Customs Organisation*** for cooked eggs, namely 04.07, should also be referred to (...). [13]	(...) ar trebui să se facă, de asemenea, o trimitere la codul corespunzător pentru ouăle preparate, şi anume 04.07, din ***Sistemul Armonizat (SA) al Organizaţiei Mondiale a Vămilor.*** [13]
9.	For that purpose, certain treatments for egg products recommended in the ***Terrestrial Animal Health Code of the World Organisation for Animal Health (OIE)*** as standards for international trade should be taken into account (...). [13]	În acest scop, anumite tratamente pentru produsele din ouă recomandate de ***Codul sanitar pentru animale terestre al Organizaţiei Mondiale pentru Sănătatea Animalelor (OIE)*** trebuie să fie luate în considerare (…). [13]

We have also come across cases of *recognized translations* of names of international organizations and international systems or codes which do not belong to the European Union sphere.

Likewise, in these examples, we notice two types of *transpositions*, such as the change in the position of the adjective ("*Harmonised* System (HS) code of the World Customs Organisation" – "Sistemul *Armonizat* (SA) al Organizaţiei Mondiale

[2] http://www.ier.ro/documente/Ghid%20stilistic/ghid_stilistic_2008.pdf

a Vămilor" in (8); "*Terrestrial* Animal Health Code of the World Organisation for Animal Health (OIE)" – "Codul sanitar pentru animale *terestre* al Organizaţ iei Mondiale pentru Sănătatea Animalelor (OIE)" in (9)) and "*word-class*" *transpositions* in which the noun becomes an adjective and the adjective becomes a noun in the translation ("*World* Customs Organisation" – "Organizaţ ia *Mondială* a Vămilor" in (8); "Terrestrial *Animal Health* Code of the World Organisation for *Animal* Health (OIE)" – "Codul *sanitar* pentru *animale* terestre al Organizaţ iei Mondiale pentru Sănătatea *Animalelor* (OIE)" in (9)).

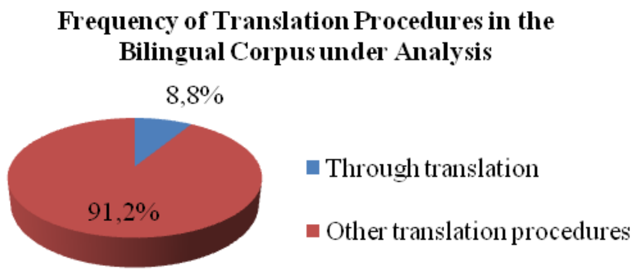
In (8), apart from *transpositions*, we also notice an *implicitation* by the omission of the noun "code" in the TT ("Harmonised System (HS) *code* of the World Customs Organisation" – "Sistemul Armonizat (SA) al Organizaţ iei Mondiale a Vămilor").

Conclusions

In this paper we have discussed ***through translation*** (*calque*) with respect to SL collocations and phrases and SL acronyms and initialisms, which contain semantically transparent words.

Our quantitative analysis has revealed that the procedure of *through translation* is well-represented, showing approx. 453 counts and reaching the value of approx. 8.8% of all translation procedures investigated in our extended research study.

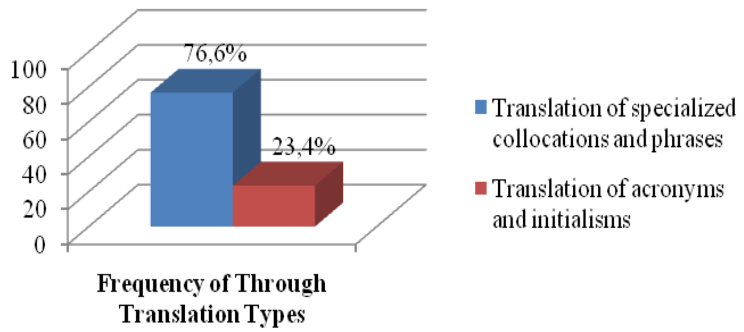
Translation procedure	**Number of occurrences**	**Frequency (%)**
Through translation	453	8.8



***Through Translation* Types**	**Number of occurences**	**Frequency (%)**

Translation of specialized collocations and phrases	347	76.6
Translation of acronyms and initialisms	106	23.4

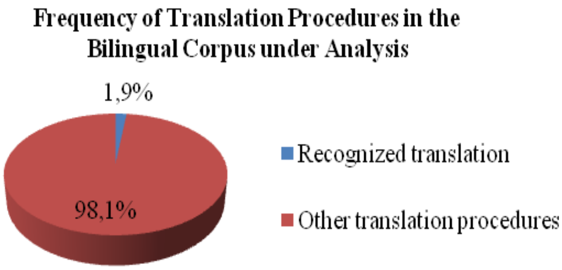
From the total of *through translations* identified in our bilingual corpus of EU legal documents, the most prevalent category is represented by “the translation of specialized collocations and phrases” (which includes collocations and phrases from different specialized areas and from the EU field as well as idioms) with approx. 347 counts and a frequency of approx. 76.6%. The other category, which contains “the translation of acronyms and initialisms” (both English acronyms and initialisms switched according to the Romanian translation and English acronyms and initialisms that preserve their form in the Romanian translation) displays a much smaller number of occurrences, namely approx. 106, which accounts for approx. 23.4% from all *through translation* instances.



The cases of ***recognized translation*** that we have identified encompass translations of names of EU institutions and other EU designations, as well as names of international organizations and other international designations, some of them being *through translations*.

Our statistical analysis has revealed that *recognized translation* is less encountered, having a number of approx. 96 occurrences, which determines a frequency of approx. 1.9% of all translation procedures taken into acount for our extended research study.

Translation procedure	Number of occurrences	Frequency (%)
Recognized translation	96	1.9



To conclude, our quantitative analysis has revealed that *through translation* occupies a good position among all translation procedures analyzed in our extended research study, since the majority of the ST specialized collocations and phrases are translated by faithfully reproducing their form and meaning in the Romanian translations, thus contributing to terminology uniformity and enabling communication and transparency among EU official languages. On the other hand, *recognized translation* displays one of the lowest frequency values, as it occurs only in the case of names of international organizations, institutions, bodies, systems, etc., which are not too numerous in our bilingual corpus.

Acknowledgment

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Bilingual Corpus

[1]. 2011/278/EU: Commission Decision of 27 April 2011
Decizia Comisiei din 27 aprilie 2011 (2011/278/UE)

[2]. Decision No 1080/2011/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 25 October 2011
Decizia nr. 1080/2011/UE a Parlamentului European şi a Consiliului din 25 octombrie 2011

[3]. 2011/166/EU: Commission Decision of 17 March 2011
Decizia Comisiei din 17 martie 2011 (2011/166/UE)

[4]. Council Implementing Regulation (EU) No 464/2011 of 11 May 2011
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[5]. Regulation (EU) No 211/2011 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 16 February 2011
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[6]. Regulation (EU) No 1077/2011 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 25 October 2011
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[7]. 2011/282/EU: Commission Decision of 12 January 2011
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Negotiating a Common Syntactic Approach: Comparative and Degree Relative Clauses

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Abstract: This paper aims at finding a syntactic approach that would accommodate the derivation of some comparative constructions and degree relative clauses in Romanian. In the first part of the paper, we examine the main proposals in Carlson (1977), Heim (1987) and Grosu&Landman (1998), giving an overview of the main syntactic derivations proposed in the literature for the analysis of relative clauses: head raising vs. matching. In the second part, we analyse some Romanian comparative clauses with a possible amount interpretation and compare them with the degree relative clauses analysed in the first part. The unified syntactic approach refers to adopting the head-matching analysis combined with DegP raising that would better explain their syntactic properties.

Keywords: *degree relative clauses, comparative constructions, degree phrase (DegP) raising, matching*.

Introduction

In his article dedicated to amount relatives,[2] Carlson (1977) adopted a syntactic derivation similar to that of the comparative clauses. The arguments brought in favour of this approach were certain similarities, syntactic and semantic, that Carlson observed in comparing the two types of clauses. He analysed, among others, the following construction with degrees (d-many) in *there* insertion contexts:

(1) a. the (books) that there were __ on the table
b. the (books) that there were (d many books) on the table
c. {d: Эx[BOOK(x) and |x| = d and ON-THE-TABLE (x)]}

An equivalent construction in Romanian would be:

(2) a. cărțile câte sunt_ pe masă

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[2] In 1977, Carlson published an article called "Amount Relatives" in which he proposed that there was a third type of relative clause besides the traditionally recognised appositive and restrictive relatives – *amount relatives*, renamed *degree* (in Heim 1987) or *maximalizing* (in Grosu & Landman 1998) relatives. We will use the term *degree* throughout this paper.

b. (cărțile) câte sunt (d many/ de multe cărți) pe masă

Carlson made the following suggestion (taken up subsequently by Heim (1987)): at this point the degree relative interacts with the rest of the sentence in the same way as *comparatives* do. In essence, this means that (1a) repeated here under (3a) and (3b) are given the same interpretation:

(3) a. the books that there were (d many books) on the table
b. as many books as there were on the table

(4) a. cărțile câte sunt (d many cărți) pe masă
b. la fel de multe cărți câte sunt pe masă

However, for this account to work, the nominal (*books*) has to make a contribution in two places: inside the relative clause and in its surface position. According to Carlson's analysis, the nominal originates inside the amount relative and raises to its surface position. He did not comment on the fact that it needs to be interpreted in both positions. (cf. Szczegielniak, 2012: 256)

Another degree relative construction that would resemble the comparative is the one analysed in (5) taken from Heim (1987). Heim points out that (5a) permits a reading which requires only identity of quantity, not identity of substance. (5c) and (5d) make the same point with a count noun (Grosu&Landman, 1998):

(5) a. It will take us the rest of our lives to drink the champagne that they spilled that evening.
b. It will take us the rest of our lives to drink as much champagne as they spilled that evening.
c. We will never be able to recruit the soldiers that the Chinese paraded last May Day.
d. We will never be able to recruit as many soldiers as the Chinese paraded last May Day.

The relative in (5a) can be either a restrictive or a degree relative. When it is the latter, we get the identity of quantity reading (6a).

(6) a. # It will take us the rest of our lives to drink the champagne that they spilled beer that evening.

b. It will take us the rest of our lives to drink as much champagne as they spilled beer that evening.

The above contrasts indicate that interpretation of the head noun inside the CP is incompatible with a degree of amount reading in this kind of degree relatives. That is the reason why in this paper we adopt an analysis in which degree relative clauses are derived via head noun matching. The internal NP does not raise outside the CP, and what is pronounced is an identical copy outside the CP. This approach follows the analysis proposed in Sauerland (1998, 2003) and Szczegielniak (2012) and accounts for the lack of head noun reconstruction effects.

1. Two competing proposals: head raising vs. matching

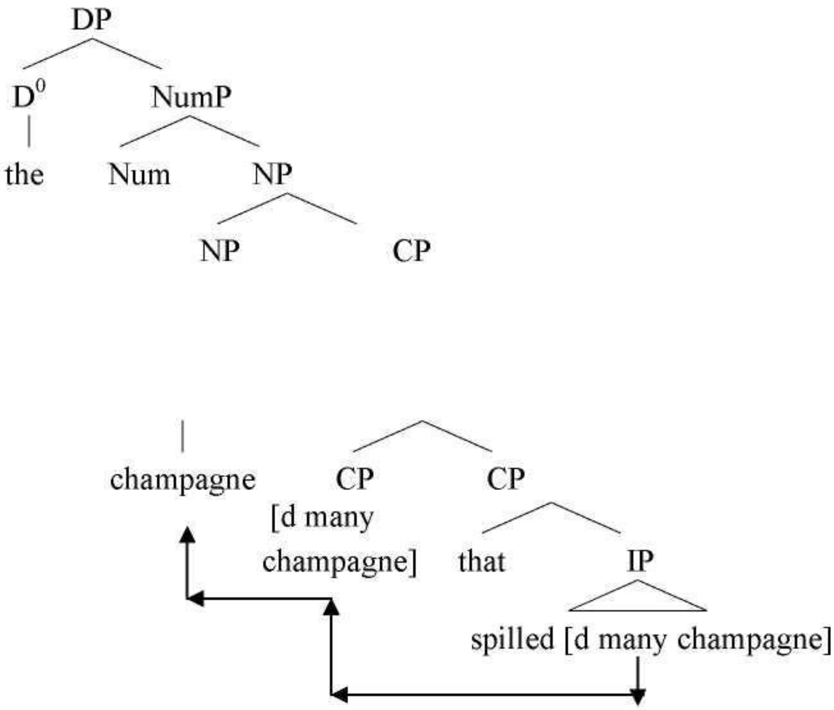
There are two major competing approaches to the derivation of relative clauses: a matching derivation vs. a head noun raising one. The difference between them is whether the head noun in externally headed relative clauses is related with the gap inside the clausal modifier via movement, or via ellipsis, of an identical copy (Szczegielniak, 2012: 257).[3]

1.1. Head raising analysis

As already mentioned, the approach adopted for degree relative clauses in Carlson (1977), Grosu & Landman (1998) is that degree relative clauses are derived via head noun movement. The central idea is that the *head* NP originates inside the Relative Clause CP and it is A'-moved to an operator position within the relative clause to become adjacent to the external determiner. The external determiner selects a CP. The final structural position of the head NP varies in different instantiations of the head raising analysis. Since the *head* NP originates inside the relative clause CP, it is possible to reconstruct it inside the relative clause and interpret it in a relative clause-internal position.

[3] For examples of raising and matching theories of relative clauses, see Vergnaud (1974), Carlson (1977), Chomsky (1977), Kayne (1994), Sauerland (1998, 2003), Bianchi (1999), Aoun and Li (2003). For comparatives, see Kennedy (2002, 2003) and Fults (2005) among others.

(7) The *Head raising Analysis* for 5a (following Grosu&Landman, 1998)



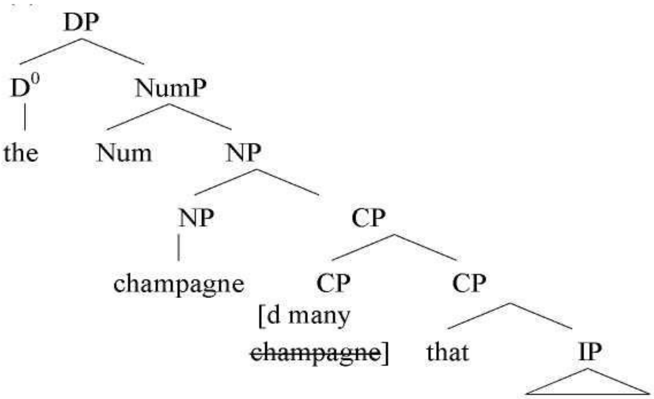
Grosu & Landman (1998) propose that DegP raises with the head noun to a CP peripheral position, and then the head noun raises further out of the CP in a fashion similar to the one proposed in Kayne (1994).

The tests for noun reconstruction inside the CP (idioms, reflexives) led to the claim that that the head noun cannot be interpreted inside the CP if it is part of a degree relative clause like the one under (7). Instead, the tests point to a matching derivation.

1.2. Matching analysis

Matching refers to the derivation in which the relative clauses are adjoined to the head NP. At the same time, there is a representation of the external head inside the relative clause, the internal head. The internal head is generated as the complement of the relative operator (which may be zero) in an argument position; the entire relative DP undergoes movement to Spec, CP. Subsequently, the internal head NP is deleted under identity with the external head. Importantly, external head and internal head are not part of a movement chain as in the raising analysis. Rather, they are related via ellipsis.

(8)



The crucial difference between the two approaches is that in the Matching Analysis, there are two instances of the head of the relative clause: an external one and an internal one, and in the Raising Analysis, there is only one instance of the head: the internal one, which appears in an external position in the surface form.

This raises a number of questions, mainly related to whether the relative clauses are derived in the same way (Kayne, 1994) or there are differences between the various construction types (Carlson 1977; Grosu & Landman 1998; Sauerland 1998; 2003) that would argue for multiple possible analyses (Sauerland, 1998).

2. DegP Raising and head-noun matching (Szczegielniak, 2012)

In a paper published in 2012, Adam Szczegielniak argues that modal degree relative clauses, as those illustrated in (5a), are derived via overt DegP raising. He shows that this kind of degree relative clauses could be analysed according to the nature of DegP, thus arguing for the possibility that the syntactic and semantic differences of the classes of degree constructions can be reduced to the type of lexical item that is raised out of the CP (Szczegielniak, 2012: 255).

The paper argues that relative clauses can be derived via overt raising of the Degree Phrase (DegP) out of the CP. Szczegielniak concentrates on two types of degree relative clauses: modal degree of amount relatives as in (9) (similar to the Heim constructions exemplified in 5a with the difference that the modal *would* is used), and Spanish adjectival degree clauses (10), as discussed in Gutiérrez-Rexach (1999, cf. Szczegielniak, 2012: 255). It is shown that both types of constructions are derived via overt DegP raising. Differences between (9) and (10) are based on the differences between the dual nature of DegP which can behave like a modifier in Spec-XP or as a head taking an AP as its complement. (Neelman, van de Koot and Doetjes 2004, cf. Szczegielniak, 2012: 255)

(9) It would take us all year to drink the champagne that you spilled at the party

A. the amount of champagne.

#B. the actual champagne.

(10) Juan no entendió lo hermosa que era la novella.

Juan not understood the-neut.beautiful-fem.sg. that was the-fem.sg. novel- fem.sg.

“Juan did not understand how beautiful the novel was”

A. Juan did not understand the extent of the beauty of the novel

#B. Juan though the novel was not beautiful.

The derivation of both (9) and (10) involves DegP moving overtly out of its base position inside the CP. DegP raises to Spec-CP where it undergoes Maximization, in fashion similar to comparatives. Unlike in comparatives, this movement is overt, and, unlike in comparatives, DegP overtly raises out of CP.

In other words, Szczegielniak claims that (9) and (10) differ from (11) below in two respects: in relative clauses: (i) DegP raises overtly, and (ii) DegP raises out of the CP to a position within the extended DP.

(11) It would take me all year to drink as much champagne as you spilled beer at the party. (Grosu & Landman, 1998)

Szczegielniak comes to the conclusion that the interpretation of the head noun inside the CP is incompatible with a degree of amount reading in modal degree relatives and therefore he proposes that modal degree relative clauses are derived via head noun matching. The internal NP does not raise outside the CP, and what is pronounced is an identical copy outside the CP.

He further postulates a DegP raising operation. DegP is generated in a position modifying the internal NP, for example Spec-NP. Instead of NP raising out of the CP, he suggests that DegP is raised out of CP and shared between the internal and external NP. This means that the structure of the external DP is built "dynamically" via movement of material from inside the CP.

After DegP raising, the inner NP is deleted under identity as is assumed in standard matching accounts.

This is in contrast with comparatives where, as Grosu and Landman (1998) point out, the sortal NP's can be different.

(12) *It would take us all year to drink the champagne that you spilled beer at the party

(13) It would take us all year to drink as much champagne as you drank beer at the party.

An analysis involving DegP raising out of CP also captures the fact that degree relative clauses do not stack. The example below is impossible if we are talking about the amount of soup and not the actual substance.

(14) *It would take us a year to drink the soup that you spilled that your boyfriend cooked.

Grosu and Landman (1998) argue that the lack of stacking is an indicator that the semantics of the relative clause are computed CP internally. However, this cannot be correct since in languages like Polish stacking is impossible in restrictive relative clauses and, as far as we are concerned, in Romanian as well.

This analysis is relevant for the interpretation of the comparatives with an amount relative interpretation in Romanian, which will be discussed in the next part of this paper.

3. Possible "amount reading" constructions in Romanian

In this section, we deal with constructions like (15) and (16) below. In these examples, the CPs modify the amount/degree expressions, such as *jumătate* "half" and *dublu* "twice:"

(15) Ion câştigă într-o lună dublu decât câştigă Maria.
"John earns in a month twice as much as Maria does.

?Ion câştigă într-o lună dublu cât câştigă Maria.
"John earns in a month twice as Maria does"

(16) Ion foloseşte la pariuri jumătate din cât plăteşte Radu pe chirie.
"John uses at bets half of which Radu pays for rent"

We might consider the properties of the subordinate CPs exemplified in (15-16) as being similar to those that characterize the degree relatives in English that we presented in the first section.

The comparative clauses of this type show degree relative-like properties, and may be treated as an instance of the relative clauses involving the null-operator movement, because the amount/degree expressions (the head) modified by the comparative clause are nominal.

Unlike other relative clauses, this type modifies not an individual entity, but an amount or degree. It may be considered a counterpart of Carlson's (1977) amount relatives in English. If we compare the two constructions, we observe that they are semantically similar. Both of them are potentially ambiguous between a restrictive relative (RR) reading and an amount (AR) reading.

(9). It will take days to drink the champagne that they spilled that party.

a. the same amount of champagne that they spilled that evening AR reading
b. the very champagne that they spilled (on the floor) RR reading

(16). Ion foloseşte la pariuri jumătate din cât plăteşte Radu pe chirie.

a. cât jumatate din suma pe care Radu o plăteşte pe chirie (valoare) Comparative with an AR reading
b. jumătate din banii pe care Radu ii plăteşte pe chirie (cealaltă jumătate o plăteşte Radu la chirie) RR reading

In the examples with a RR reading, the DP which involves the relative clause as a whole denotes the same entity as the relativized DP which is base-generated within the relative clause. Out of the context, the sentences in (9b) and (16b) are infelicitous. Maybe in a certain context, these RR readings are acceptable.

On the other hand, with an AR reading, the relative clause CP denotes properties of amounts or degrees, and the DP which involves the relative clause is interpreted as denoting amounts or degrees, not individual entities.

The question that might arise is: Could these sentences be treated as a kind of relative clause?

The reason we ask this question is that the noun modified by the relative clause is not the Head of the relative clause (the head can be covert; for example, the head of the amount type of RC is "SUMA"[4]):

(17) a. Jumătate din **suma** pe care o plăteşte Radu.
Half of the AMOUNT that Radu pays.
b. Jumătate din cât plăteşte Radu
half the AMOUNT Radu pays

The relativization of AMOUNT/SUMA is illustrated in (18).

(18) $[_{CP}[d\text{-many N}]$ $that_C$ $[_{TP}$ ….<*d*-many N>…]] Amount relatives

$[_{CP}[d\text{-Op}]$ $than_C$ $[_{TP}$ ….<*d*-many x> ADJ…]] Comparatives

A possible solution could be to adopt the syntactic approach described in section 2, namely a head/matching interpretation. The comparative clause with an AR reading is derived in the same way as the equative comparative construction. Both the comparatives and the ARs involve A'-movement of the *d* (degree operator) or of the phrase which involves *d* and modify the degree/amount expression.

Another solution, would be to analyse the relative clause in (17) that may have the structure/interpretation of the amount as being similar to partitive constructions: *jumatate din suma*. Thus, the supposed covert noun may be replaced with the common noun. However, we leave this approach for further research.

Thus, we could solve the problem of what syntactic analysis to adopt. The interpretation of the relative clause is not identical to that of the "reconstructed" sentences. A head raising/promotion analysis involves reconstruction of the moved constituent inside the relative clauses, and therefore this analysis would be ruled out.

A second problem could be the identity requirement of the head (consequence of the headed relative analysis). Grosu and Landman (1998) observe that what the English ARs denote is not just

[4] Kayne (2005) considers these heads as being small nouns, semi-lexical items with functional meaning, which may be covert in various languages.

the property of degrees or amounts, as shown in (20b), but also involve identity of substance.

(19) a. It will take us the rest of our life to drink as much champagne as they spilled that evening.

b. It will take us the rest of our life to drink as much *champagne* as they spilled *beer* that evening.

(20). a. It will take us the rest of our life to drink [the champagne that they spilled that evening].

b. *It will take us the rest of our life to drink [the champagne that they spilled beer that evening]

In the ARs the head noun *champagne* must be interpreted internally and provides a sort on the degree. This is shown by the infelicity of (20b). Because the head is *champagne* the sort on the degree cannot be *beer* inside the relative clause. The identity-of-sort requirement is not imposed on the comparative as in (19).

While it is imposed in ARs, the identity-of-sort requirement is not imposed in the Romanian comparative clauses discussed here, as shown in (21):

(21). Ion a băut vin dublu cât a băut Radu bere.
"John drank wine twice as much as Radu drank beer"
(22) Să-mi crească barba măcar jumătate cât ai tu părul.
"to grow a beard at least half as your hair"

(21) and (22) involve the sort on the degree *beer/hair* which is different from the sort of the head *vin/beard*. The presence of a different sortal does not cause problems here because the sortal is not part of the head. The head can be the semi-lexical covert noun. The comparative clause in (21) has the covert noun AMOUNT/CANTITATEA.

At the same time, there would not be any conflict if we adopt a head-matching analysis, since according to matching (see also Fults, 2005:74) there are two sortals: one sortal is base-generated in the correlate position and a second sortal is base-generated in the head position.

Conclusions

The aim of this paper has been to present some similarities and differences between certain types of comparative and amount relative clause in Romanian that can be analysed as involving a common syntactic approach. This approach involved DegP raising and head-noun matching as proposed in Szczegielniak (2012). Evidence for such an approach comes from head noun reconstruction facts.

However, it would be interesting to analyse how maximalisation applies in the case of the sentences exemplified in the last section, since in Romanian *cât* triggers both abstraction and maximalization over the relative clause it introduces, and is, thus, an overt maximalization operator. (cf. Kotek, 2009; Rett, 2006)

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Semantic Relations within Medical Terms: Hyperonymy, Hyponymy

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Abstract: Our paper focuses on the most frequent semantic relation within medical terminology, namely *hyponymy*. Its existence is determined on the basis of hierarchical ordering principle of terms depending on their semantic content – assigning a term that designates a specific, precise notion with another term which designates a more general notion in relation to the first, but it is subsumed to the same class. Hyponymy relations are very often encountered in specialized vocabulary because they represent a hierarchical lexical ordering of concepts. Medical terminology is a rigorously organized assembly based on hypo-hyperonymic relations in which medical terms are listed in very well defined hierarchical systems. In our analysis we have observed *monolexical hyponyms* but also *syntagmatic constructions* contributing to highly precise definitions of certain diseases, disorders, symptoms. Thus, medical terms are classified according to their domains (*medicină*), subdomains (*dermatologie*), classes (*boală de piele*) into: hyperonyms, hyponyms, co-hyponyms (*acarioză, acnee, alopecie*).

Keywords: *semantic, hyponyms, hyperonyms, co-hyponyms, medical terms.*

Introduction

Hyponymy is a very common semantic relation frequently met in medical terminology. Its existence is determined on the basis of a hierarchical ordering principle of the terms according to their semantic content – assigning a term which designates a specific, precise notion – with another term that designates a more general notion in relation to the first, but is subsumed to the same class. Nevertheless, Béjoint and Thoiron (2000: 32) estimate that hyponymy is for terminology exactly what polysemy represents for general vocabulary. Hyponymy is often met in specialised language because it is a way of lexical ordering of concepts.

This type of semantic relation takes the shape of a hierarchic structuring of some lexical subassembly where the hyperonym is the higher element within a class, whereas the hyponyms are the

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subordinate ones (Bidu-Vrănceanu, 2007: 121). This relation is the basis of lexicographic and terminographic definitions and contribute to the formulation of proximate genus and to specific differences, because it is a relationship of *inclusion* or *unilateral implication* (Bidu-Vrănceanu, Forăscu, 2005: 92).

The notion of hyponymy is quite old and has been recently recognized as one of the "constitutive principles in organizing the vocabulary of all languages" (Lyons, 1995: 507).

Hyponymy is equally manifested as monolexical (both the hyperonym and the hyponym are lexicalized in one unit), as well as polylexical (the case when the hyperonym or hyponyms are syntagmatic lexicalizations).

Medical terminology is a rigorously organized assembly based on semantic relations of hypo/ hyperonymy, in which the terms are listed in well defined hierarchical systems.

In medical terminology we have come across plenty of examples meeting the same situations: monolexical and polylexical hyponymy (hyperonymic collocations).

Simple terms

Taking into account the *simple terms* defining basis concepts, we consider the term SIMPTOM (SYMPTOM) as being a hyperonym for MANIFESTARE, STARE, TULBURARE, SEMN, INDICIU, because it can subordinate all the syntagmatic possibilities produced by its hyponyms, as well as all lexicalizations leading towards analysed medical grading status.

The hyperonym NEVROZĂ (NEUROSIS) has been registered in specialized medical texts having the following hyponyms: ANXIETATE, DEPRESIE, ANGOASĂ, STUPOARE, SUICID, AGRESIVITATE.

In its turn, the medical word ANXIETATE (ANXIETY) can be a hyperonym for the following specialized terms: FOBIE, OBSESIE, IMPULSIVITATE, DISFUNCȚIE.

DURERE (PAIN), the commonest symptom within medical literature, is the hyperonym of the following medical terms selected from neurology: CEFALEE, MIGRENĂ, HEMICRANIE, NEVRALGIE, each of them being in turn, a hyperonym for other specific terms. For example, NEVRALGIE can attach several hyponyms located within the same medical domain, rheumatology:

NEVRALGIE CERVICOBRAHIALĂ, ~ SCIATICĂ, ~ CRURALĂ, ~ INTERCOSTALĂ etc.

> „Nevralgia sciatică (L5-S1) se însoţeşte de lombalgii cu atitudine antalgică în flexie contralaterală leziunii. Mobilitatea coloanei vertebrale în flexie-extensie este redusă, rotaţia laterală fiind posibilă" (Sîrbu, 2007: 128).
> „În nevralgia intercostală hiperproducţiile discoosteofitice şi interapofizare pot irita nervii intercostali, generând o simptomatologie de tip nevralgic." (Sîrbu, 2007: 127)
> „Cefaleea poate fi episodică sau continuă, uşoară sau severă şi este declanşată de poziţiile vicioase şi eforturile fizice. Acest fenomen poate fi explicat prin conexiunile nervului trigemen cu măduva cervicală, filetele C1, C2, C3 participând la formarea contingentului oftalmic al nervului V." (Sîrbu, 2007: 122)

But not only anatomy is a rich source of hyperonyms and hyponyms. Within physical therapy and reumathology domains we have come across many hyponyms of the medical term MIŞCARE (MOTION), subordinating classes of specific motion nouns correlated to each anatomic organ (hand, fingers, leg, spine, hip, shoulder etc.), or to a single segment of organ (thumb, forehand, elbow, thigh etc.). For example, hyponyms of the term MIŞCARE, used in physical therapy, related to motion such as, ADDUCŢIE, ABDUCŢIE, CIRCUMDUCŢIE, EXTENSIE, FLEXIE, PREHENSIUNE, PRONAŢIE, SUPINAŢIE, ROTAŢIE, AMPLITUDINE etc. can be identified within medical texts as follows:

> „Examinarea mobilităţii tuturor articulaţiilor piciorului prin cercetarea mişcărilor posibile în aceste articulaţii (flexie plantară, flexie dorsală, adducţie, abducţie, eversie sau pronaţie, inversie sau supinaţie) este absolut obligatorie în examenul clinic al piciorului dureros." (Sîrbu, 2007:163)
> „Muşchii manşetei rotatorilor sunt reprezentaţi de un grup de muşchi cu origine scapulară, ale căror tendoane se inseră pe tuberozităţile humerale, astfel: muşchiul supraspinos (abducţie), muşchiul infraspinos (rotaţie externă) şi rotundul mic (adducţie şi rotaţie externă) se găsesc pe faţa anterioară a scapulei şi se inseră pe marea tuberozitate humerală, spre deosebire de muşchiul subscapular (adducţie şi rotaţie

internă), care se găseşte pe faţa posterioară a scapulei şi se inseră pe mica tuberozitate.” (Sîrbu, 2007: 66)

It should be mentioned that hyponymic semantic relations can be established not only within noun terms, but also within verbs.

The factitive verbs that define the action of A INTRODUCE (TO INTRODUCE) in medical terminology are hyponyms subclassed to this specific hyperonym. During our analysis we have distinguished the followings: A IMPLANTA, A INFECTA, A INFESTA, A INGERA, A INJECTA, A INOCULA, A INSEMINA, A INSERA, A INUNDA, A INTUBA, A INVAGINA, A INFILTRA.

Complex constructions

For the second case, it is recorded that the hyperonym is a simple term, whereas, the hyponyms are *complex collocations*. For the medical term SIMPTOM (SYMPTOM) we have identified in medical dictionaries 49 constructions with nouns, adjectives, but also proper names, from which we select the followings (DM, 2007: 967-968): SIMPTOM ACCESORIU, ~ ACCIDENTAL, ~ CARDINAL, ~ CONCOMITENT, ~ CONSECUTIV, ~ CONSTITUȚIONAL, ~ ECHIVOC, ~ INDUS, ~ LOCAL, ~ DE LOCALIZARE, ~ OBIECTIV, ~ PATOGNOMONIC, ~ REFLEX, ~ SUBIECTIV, ~ ALICE ÎN ȚARA MINUNILOR, ~ PSEUDO-CUSHING, ~ REMAK, ~ VAN-GOGH etc.

The hyperonym NEVROZĂ (NEUROSIS) has subordinated the following collocational hyponyms selected from the medical dictionary: NEVROZĂ DE ABANDON, ~ DE ANGOASĂ, ~ ANXIOASĂ, ~ ASTENICĂ, ~ CARDIACĂ, ~ DOBÂNDITĂ, ~ FOBICĂ, ~ DE OBOSEALĂ, ~ SPASMOFILICĂ, ~ TAHICARDICĂ, ~ VASCULARĂ, ~ VEGETATIVĂ etc.

The term DURERE (PAIN) can attach the following hyponyms as constructions having two or three members: DURERE ABDOMINALĂ, ~ ACUTĂ, ~ CUTANATĂ, ~ DIFUZĂ, ~ GENERALIZANTĂ, ~ LOMBARĂ, ~ ÎN CENTURĂ, ~ NEVRALGICĂ, ~ PAROXISTICĂ, ~ CU/ FĂRĂ IRADIERE, ~ DE DINȚI, ~ POSTOPERATORIE, ~ PULSATILĂ, ~ REUMATISMALĂ, ~ ARTICULARĂ, ~ SIMPTOMATICĂ etc.

> „Durerea articulară, de obicei de intensitate moderată, este mai vie în artrozele activate. Ea apare în special după efort fizic (durere mecanică) şi poate să se atenueze prin repausul articulației. Odată cu progresia bolii poate să apară şi în repaus. Frigul şi vremea umedă pot să agraveze durerea (meteorodependentă)." (Sîrbu, 2007: 98)

There are some hyponyms subordinate to the medical term AFAZIE (APHASIA) registered as syntagmatic units by the specialized dictionary: AFAZIE AMNEZICĂ, ~ BROCA, ~ DE CONDUCȚIE, ~ FLUENTĂ, ~ MOTORIE, ~ NOMINALĂ, ~ OPTICĂ, ~ SEMANTICĂ, ~ SENZORIALĂ, ~ SINTACTICĂ, ~ TOTALĂ, ~ TRAUMATICĂ, ~ VERBALĂ, ~ VIZUALĂ, ~ WERNICKE.

SCLEROZĂ (SCLEROSIS) has expanded syntagmatic constructions with two members, such as the hyponyms: SCLEROZĂ AORTICĂ, ~ CEREBRALĂ, ~ HEPATICĂ, ~ INFLAMATORIE, ~MIOCARDICĂ, ~ PROLIFERATIVĂ, ~ TUBEROASĂ, ~ ALZHEIMER. Having the same hyperonym, the specialized dictionaries highlighted collocations with three members or prepositions: SCLEROZĂ CORTICALĂ DIFUZĂ, ~ PULMONARĂ DIFUZĂ, ~ SISTEMICĂ PROGRESIVĂ; SCLEROZĂ ÎN PLĂCI, ~ DE PENETRAȚIE, ~ DE ÎNCERCUIRE.

The term SINDROM (SYNDROME) may have various collocational hyponyms within the same medical branch, such as the following examples selected from neurology, each of them subordinating other specific constructions: SINDROM/ SINDROAME DE ARTERĂ CEREBRALĂ MEDIE, ~ ISCHEMICE CAROTIDIENE, ~ DE ARTERĂ CEREBRALĂ ANTERIOARĂ, ~ DE ARTERĂ CEREBRALĂ POSTERIOARĂ, ~ BULBARE, ~ PROTUBERENȚIALE, ~ MEZENCEFALIC etc.

> „*Sindromul unilateral superficial de arteră cerebrală anterioară* se caracterizează prin asocierea tulburărilor neurologice, a tulburărilor funcțiilor superioare, precum şi a tulburărilor de comportament şi a tulburărilor instinctuale." (Sîrbu, 2008: 28)
> „*Sindromul unilateral profund de arteră cerebrală anterioară* se caracterizează prin hemipareză predominant facio-brahială contralaterală însoțită de pareza vălului şi a limbii, disartrie, uneori tulburări vegetative." (Sîrbu, 2008: 29)
> „*Sindromul unilateral total de arteră cerebrală anterioară* se manifestă prin hemiplegie severă contralaterală, tulburări de limbaj

> de tip expresiv, apraxie ideo-motorie a membrelor stângi." (Sîrbu, 2008: 29)

An interesting construction that captured our attention is SINDROM DE RESTAURANT CHINEZESC which means, according to Medical Dictionary "syndrome due to ingestion of important quantity of sodium glutamate, sweetener widely used in Chinese cuisine, which occurs in less than half an hour after eating, characterized by numbness of the upper half of the body, feeling the tension in the masseters and face areas, facial vasodilation and deep feeling of fatigue, accompanied by neurovegetative symptoms." (MD, 2007: 982)

SINDROMUL ALICE ÎN ȚARA MINUNILOR is a cliché syntagmatic expression used to define the so called metamorphopsia, "a delusional state manifested by depersonalization, alteration in the sense of the passage of time, distorted perception of objects, hallucinations, and other delusions or illusions. It may be associated with schizophrenia, epilepsy, migraine, diseases of the parietal lobe, hypnagogic states, or the use of hallucinogenic drugs." (DIMD, 2003: 1809)

If we select the noun LEZIUNE (LESION), commonly used in all medical fields, we notice its wide distribution in many combinatorial expressions of the type noun + adjective, all of them being collocational hyponyms: LEZIUNI BACTERIENE (bacterial), ~ FUNGICE (fungal), ~ TEGUMENTARE (skin), ~ MUCOASE (mucous), ~ DUREROASE (painful), ~ VEZICULARE (vesicular), ~ NEURO-VASCULARE (neuro-vascular), ~ NERVOASE (nervous), ~ INTRA-CRANIENE (intra-cranial), ~ TERITORIALE (territorial), ~ NEUROLOGICE (neurological), ~ OSOASE (bone), ~ ULCERATIVE (ulcerous), ~ VISCERALE (visceral), ~ EXTRAARTICULARE (extraarticular), ~ HISTOLOGICE (histological), ~ DISTRUCTIVE (destructive) and so on. It should be noted that lesion as a medical term with syntagmatic partners may form paradigms indicating *function*, as in LEZIUNI HEPATICE (liver lesions), ~ NERVOASE (nervous lesions), ~ NEUROLOGICE (neurological lesions); precise *location*, LEZIUNI INTRA-CRANIENE (intra-cranial lesions), ~ EXTRAARTICULARE (extraarticular lesions); or *certain medical typologies*, as in LEZIUNI BACTERIENE (bacterial lesions), ~ TEGUMENTARE (skin lesions), ~ DUREROASE (painful lesions).

In our medical texts we have come across noun + noun (in G.) combinatorial hyponyms which include the noun LEZIUNE, as in: LEZIUNI ALE SCALPULUI (skull lesions), ~ ALE MEMBRULUI (limb lesions), ~ ALE FEȚEI (face lesions), ~ ALE COLOANEI VERTEBRALE (spine lesions) etc.

In our medical corpus of texts we have identified the hyperonym ZGOMOT (MURMUR) in certain cliché phrases of the type noun + adjective, frequently used in heart and lungs auscultation, which very accurately describe symptoms or dysfunctions having the following hyponyms: ZGOMOT ALB, ZGOMOT HIPOCRATIC; or in constructions of the type noun + prep. + noun: ZGOMOT DE GALOP, ZGOMOT DE MOARĂ, ZGOMOT DE TUN.

Co-hyponims

But a hyperonym might have in many cases several hyponyms, which, in turn, can be located graphically in the horizontal plane, gaining a status of *co-hyponyms*.

For example, HEPATITĂ, GASTRITĂ, ULCER, DIABET are subordinate to the generic term BOALĂ, which is, in fact, a hyperonym. Each of the diseases listed above may be hyperonyms and hyponyms for other medical terminological units.

The term HEPATITĂ is registered in the Medical Dictionary (MD, 2007: 548-549) having 24 hyponyms: HEPATITĂ A, ~ ALCOOLICĂ, ~ AUTOIMUNĂ, ~ B, ~ C, ~ CIROGENĂ, ~ COLESTATICĂ, ~ COLOSTATICĂ, ~ CRONICĂ, ~ CRONICĂ ACTIVĂ, ~ CRONICĂ AGRESIVĂ, ~ CRONICĂ NEAGRESIVĂ, ~ CRONICĂ PERSISTENTĂ, ~ D, ~ E, ~ EPIDEMICĂ, ~ FULMINANTĂ, ~ F, ~ G, ~ LUPOIDĂ, ~ MEDICAMENTOASĂ, ~ NON A - NON B, ~ SERICĂ, ~ VIRALĂ.

For medical terminology the two-layer marks are those that differentiate the terms in relation to the specialties they belong to and direct the definition to the specific field, such as: (med.), (anat.), (histo.) etc. Starting from the general hyperonym, MEDICINĂ, we try to list the hyponyms within a medical field, according to a vertical hierarchical scale. Thus, the *domain* MEDICINĂ subclasses, on an inferior level, the *sub-domain* REUMATOLOGIE, which is, in fact, the hyponym of the domain, but, as the same time, it can be considered the hyperonym for BOALĂ REUMATISMALĂ, defining the *class* or the *generic term*.

The medical collocation BOALĂ REUMATISMALĂ is the hyponym in relation to the term REUMATOLOGIE, but it can be a hyperonym for the following syntagmatic items BOALĂ ARTROZICĂ, POLIARTRITĂ REUMATOIDĂ, PERIARTRITĂ SCAPULOHUMERALĂ etc., the last constructions being considered *specific terms* of the class, but also *co-hyponyms* for BOALĂ REUMATISMALĂ. If we select from the hierarchical scale the specific term BOALĂ ARTROZICĂ we may identify other hyponyms in relation to this hyperonym, as in: COXARTROZĂ (PRIMITIVĂ, SECUNDARĂ), GONARTROZĂ (PRIMITIVĂ, SECUNDARĂ), SPONDILOZĂ (CERVICALĂ, DORSALĂ, LOMBARĂ) etc., denoted as co-hyponyms for this collocation (BOALĂ ARTROZICĂ).

> “În cursul menopauzei apar uneori artroze cu alură evolutivă deosebită, desemnate sub denumirea de artroză hipertrofică generalizată sau de poliartroză. În momentul instalării menopauzei are loc un dezechilibru hormonal (o hipersecreție de hormon STH şi o secreție scăzută de estrogeni) ce favorizează leziunile de tip artrozic.” (Sîrbu, 2007: 97)
>
> “Uneori coxartroza se poate traduce numai printr-o durere izolată a genunchiului. Pentru precizarea diagnosticului, pensarea interliniului nu este absolut necesară, osteofitoza fiind net suficientă. Trebuie să se precizeze dacă coxartroza este primitivă sau secundară, deoarece în cazul unei coxartroze secundare este posibilă o intervenție chirurgicală.” (Sîrbu, 2007: 104)

During our analysis we have identified several collocational co-hyponyms directly subordinate to the nearest hyperonym SPONDILOZĂ CERVICALĂ, denoting the level of pain: CERVICALGIE CRONICĂ, CERVICALGIE ACUTĂ, CEFALEE CERVICALĂ, MIGRENĂ CERVICALĂ, NEVRALGIE CERVICOBRAHIALĂ, MIELOPATIE CERVICARTROZICĂ.

These co-hyponyms are subordinate vertically to one and the same hyperonym, having within their semantic structure all the semantic components of that specific hyperonym, and one or more additional components, but in a horizontal scale, differentiating between them through distinctive semantic components. The hyper- and hyponymic semantic relations are very frequently used within medical terminology.

Terms having various degrees of specialization

Focusing on the inventoried and analyzed corpus of texts in this paper we did not spot a discourse embodying only ultra-specialized terms (*concept-terms*) of a certain medical field, on the contrary, we noticed the circulation of terms in several specialized fields, even their migration towards the common lexicon. For example, one can notice in the following fragment the contextual use of medical terms with various degrees of specialization:

> În cadrul *sindromului unilateral al teritoriului superficial* întâlnim frecvent o *hemianopsie homonimă* contralaterală cu conservarea *vederii maculare*. Uneori apar doar *hemianopsii în cadran* (superior) sau *scotoame hemianopsice*. Bolnavul mai poate prezenta şi diferite forme de tulburări de percepție (halucinații vizuale, *metamorfopsii*, *poliopie*, persistența anormală a imaginilor după îndepărtarea stimulului). (Sîrbu, 2008: 29)

We have often met contexts having a higher degree of closed code, untranslatable for non-specialists of the analysed field, with a rigid language where concept-terms are predominant and subordinate to the hyperonym HEMIPLEGIE:

> "Tulburările de sensibilitate obiectivă constau în *hemihipoestezie* contralaterală leziunii cu afectarea, în special, a sensibilității proprioceptive. Afectarea sensibilității profunde determină *astereognozie*. Tulburările de schemă corporală se manifestă prin *hemiasomatognozie*, *anosognozie*, *anosodiaforie*." (Sîrbu, 2008: 30)

During the analysis there was a higher number of *lexeme-terms* (Toma, 2006: 333), intra-and extra-field, with a lower degree of specialization used in the medical field of neurological recovery or rheumatology, but also in other medical areas, or even in the common lexicon. We can say that the exclusive existence of the *concept-terms* (Toma, 2006: 332-333) in the formation of a specialized text is almost impossible to spot, being necessary to call upon lexeme-terms too, as a liaison between multiple disciplines.

Taking into account the descriptive linguistic analysis of terminology, anyone can admit the "dynamics of medical terms in usage," their permanent flow towards and from other specialized areas or common language (Cabré, 1991: 21, 31; Bidu-Vrănceanu, 2007: 25-28). From the following example one can notice the lower degree of message codification due to abundant use of lexeme-terms, among other high-specialized terms, used in a smaller number:

> "În ceea ce priveşte bilanţul motor global, mişcările sunt mult mai complexe şi se urmăreşte participarea simultană a mai multor muşchi sau grupe musculare, putând interesa fie numai unul din membrele *plegice*, fie *hemicorpul* în întregime." (Sîrbu, 2008: 38)

Conclusions

Examining the connections established between hyperonyms and hyponyms within medical language, we have noticed that typological characterizing pattern of environmental specialized context, is defining for the precise description of a lexeme in a certain medical context.

With our approach we have tried to prove the systematic nature of medical vocabulary interrelations, special approaches in which constituent terms of this terminological unit update their meanings, both at the level of Romanian language vocabulary, considered as a well-defined system, in continuous innovation and at the dynamic level of syntagmatic relations between component elements of this lexical unit, where specific contextual achievements of medical terms is strongly outlined.

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Raising Cultural Awareness through Metaphorical Thinking. A Contrastive Lexicographic Study on English and Romanian Metaphorical Conceptualisations in *the Cognitive Domain of Hand*

Ana-Maria Trantescu[1]

Abstract: Thinking metaphorically means building bridges across domains, across cultures, finding the convergent aspects of different cultural systems. Cultural awareness through metaphorical competence can play an important role in the process of teaching and learning a foreign language. All aspects of idiomaticity present a high degree of difficulty in teaching- learning process; that is why some teaching strategies which rely on the metaphorical basis of these fixed expressions could help learners with the acquisition of idioms and would also make learning more enjoyable. Our study attempts to prove that even many figurative idiomatic structures are specific for each language; the conceptual framework which motivates them is generally common. The paper analyses from a cognitive perspective a series of English and Romanian idioms belonging to the conceptual domain of *hand*. The study applied to a lexicographic corpus is based on the cognitive hypothesis according to which idioms are motivated by metaphorical conceptual structures. Examining idioms across languages helps us to understand the way people think and gives us invaluable insights into human psychology.

Keywords: *intercultural awareness; metaphorical thinking; idiom; cognitive domain; cross-cultural conceptual motivation; conceptual metaphors.*

1. Introduction

In the traditional rhetoric, a metaphor (from the Greek *metapherein*) is defined as the transfer of a term from one object to another on the basis of a perceived similarity. Through metaphorical thinking, different meanings are unified into the underlying patterns that form our conceptual system. Unlike, traditional poetics, cognitive linguistics states that metaphors are not primarily a problem of language, but of thought. Thus, George Lakoff and Mark Johnson (1980: 3) in their seminal book, *Metaphors We Live By,* argue that "our ordinary conceptual system in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature…The way we think, what we experience, and what we do every day is very much a matter of metaphor."

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Cognitive linguistics defines metaphor as understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain. Lakoff (1993: 203) considers that the study of literary metaphors is an extension of the study of conventional or conceptual ones. Everyday metaphor pervades everything and is characterized by a system of thousands of cross domain mappings and it is this system which is made use of in the novel metaphor. Neagu (2005: 65) considers that the term metaphorical linguistic expression refers to a linguistic expression that is only the surface realization or instantiation of a cross-domain mapping.

Thinking metaphorically combines reason and intuition in a complex way. Metaphorically thinking entails attending to similarity, to relationships and involves identifying conceptual categories that may not be obvious at first sight. It also implies cutting across boundaries by making knowledge in one domain a guide for comprehending knowledge in another, with some transfer of meaning taking place in both directions. Comparison is its essence. To be a metaphorical thinker is to be a bold, creative and constructive learner, one who actively builds bridges from the known to the new (Pugh et al, 1995: 5). If it is true that metaphors create bridge from one experience to another (Mc Bride and Mullen, 1984: 149) we should use them to create bridges from one culture to another. Since our metaphorical understanding is first of all reflected in our linguistic behaviour, it may become an important tool in teaching a foreign language.

Our study is an attempt to apply the main principles of cognitive linguistics to the figurative language, considering that raising cultural awareness through metaphorical thinking can be successfully used in understanding and, consequently in teaching idioms.

2. The cognitive approach to idioms

Describing idioms and idiomaticity is a very complex problem which should be looked at from the formal, functional as well as from the semantic point of view. In *Longman Idioms Dictionary* (2001: VII) an idiom is defined as a "sequence of words which has a different meaning as a group from the meaning it would have if you understand each word separately."

While the traditional linguists study mainly the formal and the functional aspects connected to idioms cognitive linguists have a completely different view. The major representatives of experiential realism discuss aspects concerning the nature of meaning, the role of metaphor and metonymy, the process of categorization and the relationship between form and meaning. It is natural within the new theoretical frame founded by them, based on the way people perceive, conceptualize and categorize the world around them, that the complexity of idioms should occupy an important place.

Without totally denying the traditional view according to which the meaning of an idiom cannot be completely inferred from the meaning of its components, these linguists consider that there exists a systematic conceptual motivation for a large number of idioms. Most idioms are products of our conceptual system and not only a matter of language. An idiom is not just an expression that has a meaning somehow special in relation to the meanings of its constituent parts, but its meaning arises from our more general knowledge of the world embodied in our conceptual system. In other words, the majority of idioms are conceptual, and not linguistic, in nature (Kövecses and Szabó, 1996:330). Idioms are conceptually motivated in the sense that there are cognitive mechanisms such as metaphor, metonymy and conventional knowledge which link literal meaning with figurative idiomatic meaning, connecting the concrete with the abstract areas of knowledge. This view is also shared by Gibbs et al. (1997:142): "idioms do not exist as separate semantic units within the lexicon, but actually reflect coherent systems of metaphorical concepts." The authors consider that metaphorical competence plays an important role in the way people use and understand language, emphasizing the interaction between metaphoric patterns of thought and different aspects of language use and understanding. Several kinds of empirical evidence from cognitive linguistics and insights of psychology support these ideas. Their goal was to examine whether pre-existing conceptual metaphors affect immediate idiom comprehension. Even if we cannot apply the cognitive mechanisms to all idioms, the cognitive frame provides an adequate explanation for body parts idioms. Idioms which make use of parts of the human body are more predictable than others, simply because as human beings we are more familiar with our perception of the shape, size and functions of individual parts of our own bodies, since we experience them every day. Bílková (2000: 6) argues that the idiomatic language is mostly anthropocentric, i.e. it is focused on people, on their behaviour, perceptions of their environment, on their physical and emotional states. Idioms can be more easily analysed within a certain conceptual domain and not in isolation. In this respect Gibbs et al. (1997:142) claim that one of the advantages of not simply looking at isolated cases , but instead examining groups of idioms, especially those referring to similar domains, is that it is easier to uncover the active presence of conceptual metaphors i.e., metaphors that structure the way we conceptualize a certain domain of experience.

The implication of these hypotheses for teaching idioms is that the cognitive motivation could facilitate the process of teaching and learning idioms. By providing the learners of foreign languages with cognitive motivating strategies, learners should be able to learn the idioms faster and retain them in memory. In this respect, Irujo (1993:207) states: "Teaching students strategies for dealing with figurative language will help them to take advantage of the semantic transparency of some idioms. If they can figure out the meaning of an idiom by themselves, they will have a link from the idiomatic meaning to the literal words, which will help them to learn the idiom."

Starting from these aspects, we shall analyse a series of English and Romanian idioms belonging to the conceptual domain of *hand* from a cognitive perspective. The analysis is based on the cognitive hypothesis according to which idioms are motivated by conceptual metaphoric structures. Since in the process of deducing the meaning, the speakers activate first of all the idiom key words, the total figurative meaning can be anticipated from the meanings of its components. It would also be interesting to notice whether the speakers of English and Romanian have many common elements in the way they metaphorically conceptualize this very important part of the human body - *hand* - and in the way this conceptual structure is reflected in the idiomatic expressions.

3. Metaphorical conceptualizations in the cognitive domain of hand

CONTROL IS HOLDING IN THE HAND

The experiential hypothesis shows that this metaphor is based on the conventional knowledge of our everyday experience.

- *get out of hand/ be out of one's hand* has the idiomatic meaning "to be out of somebody's control." The Romanian correspondent is *a scăpa din mână.*

English: *Counsellors said that male students are usually reluctant to discuss their personal problems before they* **get out of hand**.

That's my one regret that the situation **got out of hand** (LID, 2001: 150).

Romanian: *Simțea că fiii săi îi* **scăpaseră** *complet* **din mână**.

- *take something in hand* means "to assume responsibility for something." There are similar expressions in Romanian: *a lua frâiele în mâini*; *a-şi lua viața/destinul în mâini*.

English: *If there was trouble with lads misbehaving, the local policeman* **took it in hand** *and sorted it out* (LID, 2001:152).

Romanian: *S-a hotărât să ia frâiele în mâini şi să rezolve problema*.

fall/get into somebody's hands has the figurative idiomatic meaning "to be, to get in somebody's possession." It has a negative connotation. Yet, the Romanian equivalent *a-i cădea/încăpea/pica cuiva ceva în mână/mâini* has not always a negative meaning:

English: *Some gun dealers have stopped selling replicas, because they're worried about them* **getting into the wrong hands** (LID, 2001:153).

Romanian: *Din păcate, toate documentele* **au căzut în mâinile** *unor oameni necinstiți.*

Mi-a căzut în mână *o carte interesantă.*

The idiomatic meaning of such *hand* idioms is also motivated by conventional knowledge and by the conceptual metaphor POSSESSION IS HOLDING IN THE HAND.

POSSESSION IS HOLDING IN THE HAND and CONTROL IS HOLDING IN THE HAND also motivate the following expressions:

- *in the hands of somebody.* There is also a Romanian similar expression: *a fi în mâinile cuiva and a fi la mâna cuiva or a avea pe cineva la mână:*

English: *I'll leave the matter* **in our hands***, but if you need anything, just ask (*LID, 2001:154).

Romanian: *Soarta lui* **era în mâinile** *acestor oameni.*

Il avea la mână *şi de aceea îl şantaja.*

Era la mâna lui *şi nu putea să spună nimic.*

The opposite expression, *out of somebody's hands*, meaning 'to have no control over a person or a situation', has no Romanian idiomatic counterpart.

If the city council can't control their budget, it will be taken **out of their hands** (LID, 2001: 154).

play right into somebody's hands has the meaning "to do exactly what your enemy wants you to do, but you are not aware of it." In our language there is no equivalent.

The other two factions **had played right into his hands***; too busy destroying each other to notice him* (LID, 2001:154).

Here the motivation seems to be more complex. The conventional knowledge may have an important role (the image of a cards game metaphorically extended to any dispute and competition) and also the metonymy HAND STANDS FOR THE PERSON.

The prototypic case of possession is to hold the object in your hand, which seems to lead to the metaphor POSSESSION IS HOLDING IN THE HAND:

get/lay your hands on something has a Romanian counterpart with an identical structure *a pune mâna pe ceva :*

English: *I'd buy a new car if only I could* **lay my hands on** *the money.* (LID, 2001 :15).

Romanian: […] *spânul pune mâna pe cartea, pe banii şi pe armele fiului de crai şi le ie la sine* (Duda, G. et al. 1985:391).

get/lay your hands on somebody has a Romanian equivalent: *a pune mâna pe cineva.* In English the idiom is used especially in threats, in Romanian it does not always have a threatening meaning, since it can also mean "to find the person you need."

English: *Just wait until* **I get my hands on** *the person who stole my bike* (OID, 2003: 155).

Romanian: *Ioane, nu ştii tu unde-aş putea* **pune mâna pe** *lăutari?* (DLRLC, 1957: 100)

The conceptual motivation is achieved through the metaphor CONTROL IS HOLDING IN THE HAND and, for the Romanian expression, also through POSSESSION IS HOLDING IN THE HAND. The conventional images have an important role, too.

have time on your hands with the figurative meaning "to have a lot of time at your disposal" has no Romanian equivalent.

If you find that you **have too much time on your hands** *when you retire, take up a new interest* (LID, 2001: 352).

According to the cognitive hypothesis, another metaphorical conceptual structure is at work here: TIME IS A VALUABLE COMMODITY. Time is conceptualized as a limited and valuable resource both in the Romanian and Anglo-American culture.

RESPONSIBILITY IS HOLDING IN THE HAND motivates the idiom *take somebody/something off somebody's hands* ("to take somebody's responsibility for something in order to give him/her the chance to have a rest"). In Romanian there is no idiomatic construction with the same lexical structure.

We helped by running errands and **taking the younger children off their mother's hands** *for an hour or two.*

It was becoming harder to manage the shop, and I wished my son would come home and **take it off my hands** (LID, 2001: 154).

The Romanian expression a-*şi lua mâna de pe cineva* means "to stop protecting, helping somebody:"

Nu mai voia să stea, da din mâini şi spunea că **şi-a luat mâna de pe copii lui**. (Marin Preda, *Delirul*, 65 in DELLR, 390).

- *somebody/something is off somebody's hands* has no Romanian counterpart.

Your kids **will be off your hands** *in a few years, so what will you do when you're not a full-time mom any more?* (LID, 2001: 154)

RESPONSIBILITY IS HOLDING IN THE HAND together with the other two conventional metaphors: CONTROL IS HOLDING IN THE HAND and POSSESSION IS HOLDING IN THE HAND form a coherent system.

COOPERATION IS HOLDING HANDS

go hand in hand with has the Romanian counterparts: *a merge mână în mână* and *a fi mână în mână.*

English: *Youth* **doesn't** *usually* **go hand in hand** *with experience*. (LID, 2001: 151)

Romanian: *Mă şi mir că nu v-ați rupt gâtul până acum, sunteți* **mână-n mână** *cu jandarmeria!* (OID, 2003: 391).

work hand in hand with has a Romanian equivalent: *a lucra mână în mână*.

English: *Wildlife conservation groups* **have been working hand in hand** *with the government to save the elephants*. (LID, 2001:152)

Romanian: *Au lucrat* **mână în mână** *şi acum vor trebui să răspundă împreună*.

The Romanian expression has a negative connotation.

FREEDOM TO ACT IS HAVING THE HANDS FREE

give somebody a free hand or *have a free hand*. There is an identical Romanian idiom: *a da cuiva mână liberă* or *a avea mână liberă*.

English: *The President relied on his personal secretary to make his life easier and* **gives her a free hand** *in arranging the details of his life* (LID, 2001:151).

Romanian: *Şeful i*-**a dat mână liberă** *ca să rezolve problema*.

somebody's hands are tied ("to prevent somebody from acting freely") has the following Romanian counterparts: *a avea mâinile legate; a fi cu mâinile legate; a lega (pe cineva) de mâini şi de picioare* (or *a lega, a fi legat de mâini şi de picioare*).

English: *We would like to grant Mrs. Maguire a pension but the law is very clear and our* **hands are tied** (LID, 2001:153).

Romanian: *A doua zi, în zori, a mers cu noi la orezărie şi ne-a luat barca. Atât a fost de-ajuns ca* **să ne lege de mâini şi de picioare** (Duda, G. et al. 1985:335).

- *do something with one hand tied behind your back* has the meaning "to try to do something in spite of some unfavourable conditions."

The motivation of this idiomatic meaning derives from three cognitive strategies: conventional knowledge, the metonymy THE HAND STANDS FOR THE ACTIVITY and the above mentioned metaphor. There is no Romanian idiomatic counterpart.

Police are fighting car crime with few officers and **one hand tied behind their backs**.

The President promised that he wouldn't send soldiers **to fight with their hands tied behind their backs** (LID, 2001: 150).

ATTENTION IS HOLDING IN THE HAND

Kövecses and Szabó (1996: 343) consider that this metaphor is likely to be a submetaphor of the more general one according to which the mind is regarded as some kind of workshop and mental activities as direct physical manipulation. Thus, in English, attention is materialized through possession.

the matter at hand: **The matter at hand** *was very important and difficult to solve.*

TO BE HONEST IS TO HAVE CLEAN HANDS represents the classical case of metaphor based on conventional knowledge. Thus, English idioms *have somebody's blood on your hands; have (got) clean hands* have a Romanian equivalent: *a avea mâinile curate.*

English: After years of corrupt government, we want politicians **with clean hands**. (OID, 2003: 58).

Romanian: *Era un om* **cu mâinile curate**, *cu o conduită ireproşabilă*.

- *wash your hands of somebody/something* with the figurative meaning 'to refuse to assume responsibility for something ' has a Romanian correspondent: *a se spăla pe mâini*.

English: *Jim got into trouble so many times that after a while his parents* **washed their hands of him**.

The school seems **to have washed its hands of its** *responsibilities towards disabled students* (LID, 2001:154).

Romanian: *În schimb, când veneau ordine de la Maxențiu, Lică se trăgea la o parte ca unul care* **se spală pe mâini**. (Hortensia Papadat-Bengescu, ap. DELLR, 392).

Three cognitive mechanisms function here: conventional knowledge (the biblical scene), the metonymy THE HAND STANDS FOR THE ACTIVITY and the conceptual metaphor TO BE HONEST IS TO HAVE CLEAN HANDS.

ETHICAL/MORAL IS UP and UNETHICAL/AMORAL IS DOWN

A relevant example is *to do something in an underhanded way* with the Romanian equivalent *a lua/ a da ceva pe sub mână*, where we have two cognitive sources, one for the lexeme *hand*, motivated by the metonymy THE HAND STANDS FOR ACTIVITY and another one for the lexeme *under*, motivated by the above orientational metaphor.

As we can notice, the conceptual metaphors together with metonymies and conventional knowledge link the concrete domains with the abstract ones. People conceptualize control, responsibility, freedom to act, possession, cooperation and morality on the basis of the metaphorical extensions of the word *hand*. These metaphorical extensions have actually become lexicalized meanings of the word *hand*.

4. Conclusions

This analysis shows that English and Romanian have much in common regarding their phraseological potential regarding *hand* *i*dioms, and also emphasizes a considerable degree of correspondence between English and Romanian, since there are idiomatic expressions in both languages which share the same figurative meaning, as well as the same underlying conceptual strategies. (Trantescu, Pisoschi, 2006: 192-3)

Examining idioms across languages helps us to understand the way people think and gives us an invaluable insight into human psychology. This can lead to the conclusion that languages are more easily learnt when the most obvious similarities between them are highlighted. Cultural awareness through metaphor can play an important role in the process of teaching and learning a foreign language. Developing metaphorical competence may become a main instrument for cultural understanding. Highlighting our own conceptual metaphors and comparing them with metaphors of other languages mean promoting multicultural awareness.

Although, it is impossible to generalize with confidence about language in general, from a restricted study such as this one, the fact that cognitive mechanisms are at work in English and Romanian would suggest that metaphorical thinking may also function in other languages. If people are made aware of the conceptual metaphors and metonymies which underlie most of language, and idiomatic language in particular, they will be able to make much better use of them, whether as a native speaker or as a second-language learner.

Furthering these, several fundamental questions can be posed for the study of idomaticity, leading us to a Universalist perspective on language (Kövecses and Szabó, 1996). If we consider that some idioms are partly semantically transparent, and also that their meaning can be determined by means of conceptual mappings between source and target domains, we can describe and analyse in detail the idiomatic structures in any language. Are there idiomatic structures common to several languages? Are there conceptual metaphors, metonymies and conventional knowledge present in all languages? Is there a common conceptual framework resulting from the way people conceptualize the surrounding environment all over the world? The present analysis can also be a partial answer to a question whether or not we may speak about cross-cultural concepts in people's minds. If people in various cultures did not share many similar concepts of the world around them, and if their experience were not conceptualized in a similar way, they would hardly be able to make themselves understood, or to translate from a language into another. As Taylor (1995:41) points out "since certain experiences are presumably common to all normal human beings, it comes as no surprise that we find both considerable cross-language similarity in metaphorical expression, as well as cross-language diversity." Cross-cultural and cross language similarity have been, at least partially, demonstrated in this study.

We, also plead for an integrative and an interdisciplinary perspective on the figurative language, that is for an approach which should bring into a harmonious synthesis the insights provided by the three disciplines which claim the most direct and general interest in meaning: linguistics, philosophy and psychology.

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Knowledge Management, Professional Competence and Quality Assurance in Translation

Titela Vîlceanu[1]

Abstract: The paper focuses on framing a multidimensional model of translation competence. Several definitions and approaches of *competence* – behaviourist, generic, cognitive and functional - are advanced so as to achieve a feasible and viable framework applicable to the translation profession, thus securing its status, and implicitly, the translator's, in the new millennium. A host of definitions and checklists are critically examined in an attempt to derive a common core of significance and raise awareness of the complex profile of the translator's competence while also positioning ourselves in relation to mainstream literature and translation practices. The paper may be considered an open question about the (competent) translator of the future as well as about the future of the (competent) translator.

Key words: *competence, quality assurance, translation practices.*

1.1. Competence – framing the concept

As early as 1933, Carr-Saunders and Wilson envisage *competence* from a granular perspective as "special competence, acquired as a result of intellectual training" and as "specialized intellectual techniques, acquired as the result of prolonged training" (quoted in Eraut, 1994:164). It is obvious that competence may be described as a continuum, ranging from knowing how to do something (*savoir* and *savoir faire*) to knowing how to do something effectively.

The notion has generated controversy being often interchangeable with "ability" or "capability" in ordinary language. As a technical term, it is used as an all-inclusive item referring to a general domain, e.g. translation, or, conversely, in a narrower meaning, to an observable skill (e.g. "can translate metaphor").

Competence may be analyzed from both a quantitative and qualitative point of view. From the quantitative point of view, it refers to what a translator is competent in, the range of roles, tasks and situations, i.e. task-orientation and executive effectiveness. From the qualitative point of view, the new/unexperienced translator is

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placed at the end of the cline as someone who is not yet able to manage a particular task, and the experienced person/expert at the other end as someone who is (widely) acknowledged by colleagues/community of practice as successfully and creatively dealing with the task.

The question arises what type of tasks are deemed to be important in the definition of competence and of professional qualification and what components of competence are amenable to specification in terms of socio-professional rather than personal assets.

Therefore, in line with Debling (1990), we discard atomistic approaches and advocate a holistic definition of *competence*, summing up "the ability to transfer skills and knowledge to new situations within the occupational area. It encompasses organisation and planning of work, innovation and coping with non-routine activities (all of which depend on an adequate knowledge and understanding." (Debling, 1990: 22).

Furthermore, we need to be aware that the use of *competence* should go beyond low-level-skills to high-level mission statements and professional achievement as suggested by Edwards and Nicoll (2006:115): "to be merely competent rather than to strive for excellence…relocates what it means to be a professional or to work professionally."

1.2. Competence and quality standards

Mainstream literature (notably, Norris, 1991) identifies three main schools of thought - subsequently, of training and education - in the definition of competence and quality standards:

- the behaviourist tradition underpinning competency[2]-based training (in terms of observable behaviour);
- the generic competence tradition, and
- the cognitive competence tradition.

[2] We should distinguish between *competence*, which is a blanket term, referring to a person's overall capacity, and *competency*, which has a narrow meaning, indicating specific capabilities.

The author (1991:332) claims that “the most prevalent construct of competence is behaviourist” and that “it rests on a description of behaviour...that is capable of demonstration and observation.”

Nevertheless, the model should incorporate the functional approach to competence in order to thoroughly describe (and prescribe) the professional translator’s expertise and conduct.

1.2.1. The behaviorist model of translation competence

In what follows, we shall dwell on standards of practice for the professional translator, by examining development models:

- The translator diagnoses the clients’ expectations (as translation specifications);
- The translator identifies and/or specifies translation goals and objectives based on client’s needs;
- The translator chooses the translation method as appropriate to goals and objectives;
- The translator implements translation method(s) and procedures that are consistent with plan;
- The translator demonstrates good communication skills;
- The translator demonstrates cultural awareness;
- The translator shows a repertoire of translation skills;
- The translator shows adequate knowledge of subject matter, i.e. of specialism;
- The translator designs and implements evaluation procedures (editing as internal quality assurance procedure), which focus on achievement and effectiveness;
- The translator demonstrates analysis of one’s own professional fitness for purpose. (Adapted from Houston, 1985: 903)

Another analytical model may be designed taking into consideration the macro, meso- and micro-levels of performance. Admittedly, we have the following guidelines understood as “can do” statements:

- Sensitivity to clients and action-orientation
  - The translator demonstrates sensitivity to all clients’ needs and interests;
  - The translator is dedicated in his/her efforts to achieve client satisfaction.

- The translator treats all clients equitably and with respect;
- The translator provides an environment for co-learning that encourages clients to be lifelong learners and contributing members of a changing society.

* Professional knowledge
  - The translator is a bilingual/multilingual, showing perfect command of his/her native language and mastery of one or several foreign language(s) (as working languages);
  - The translator masters the subject matter/specialism;
  - The translator knows a variety of effective translation methods and procedures;
  - The translator knows a variety of project management strategies – for instance how to set feasible objectives, what are the adequate means for achieving the objectives, how to identify and allocate resources, how to meet deadlines, etc.
  - The translator knows and shows regard to the translation ethics and intellectual property rights.
  - The translator knows what factors influence achievement and is able to derive intrinsic motivation.
* Translation practice
  - The translator uses his/her professional knowledge and understanding of the market, professional ethics, legislation, translation practices and task management strategies to meet the demands of their clients;
  - The translator communicates effectively with clients, monolingual experts in the field, terminologists and other translators;
  - The translator conducts ongoing assessment of his/her progress, evaluates his/her achievement and actively seeks professional development opportunities;
  - The translator adapts and refines his/her translation practices through continuous learning and reflection, using a variety of sources and resources;
  - The translator uses appropriate technology in his/her translation practices and related professional responsibilities.
* Leadership and networking
  - The translator collaborates with other stakeholders to create and sustain communities of practice;
  - The translator works with professionals and members of the translation community to enhance the status of translation and of the translator.

- Lifelong professional learning
  - The translator engages in ongoing professional learning and applies it to improve his/her translation practices.

1.2.2. The generic approach to competence

This approach is concerned with what enables professionals to fulfill a requirement. Boyatzis (1982) carried out research on an aggregate sample of over 2000 managers in 41 different jobs in 12 organizations, resulting in 12 characteristics of top ranking management performance, out of which, to our mind, 11 may also describe successful translators:

- Concern with impact;
- Diagnostic use of concepts;
- Managing group processes;
- Efficiency orientation;
- Use of socialized power;
- Proactivity;
- Perceptual objectivity;
- Conceptualization;
- Self-control;
- Self-confidence;
- Stamina and adaptability.

Otter's (1992) claims that the model needs to be context-embedded; we agree in the sense that the model should be flexible enough to allow for implementation in different contexts (the European and Romanian ones, included). The author's checklist runs as follows:

- Initiative;
- Leadership;
- Persistence;
- Influence skills;
- Creativity;
- Self-confidence;
- Planning Skill;
- Interpersonal diagnosis;
- Critical thinking;
- Responsiveness;
- Restraint.

1.2.3. The cognitive approach to competence

According to Wood and Powers (1987: 414), education and training rely on knowledge acquisition, knowledge and cognitive skills structuring and restructuring. We add the metacognitive skills to fully round the proposed model. It secures successful adaptation showing how specific competencies are integrated at a superordinate level and how patterns of salience map these skills and abilities.

1.2.4. The functional approach to competence

Eraut (1994: 184 ff) puts forward the professional competence assessment grid – in accordance with the National Council for Vocational Qualifications. The grid comprises 5 levels of performance, which represent descriptors rather than norms:

- Level 1

Competence in the performance of a range of varied work activities, most of which may be routine and predictable.

- Level 2

Competence in a significant range of varied work activities, performed in a variety of contexts. Some of the activities are complex or non-routine, and there is some individual responsibility or autonomy. Collaboration with others, perhaps through membership of a work group or team, may often be a requirement.

- Level 3

Competence in a broad range of varied work activities performed in a wide variety of contexts and most of which are complex and non-routine. There is considerable responsibility and autonomy, and control or guidance of others is often required.

- Level 4

Competence in a broad range of complex, technical or professional work activities performed in a wide variety of contexts and with a substantial degree of personal responsibility and autonomy. Responsibility for the work of others and the allocation of resources is often present.

- Level 5

Competence which involves the application of a significant range of fundamental principles and complex techniques across a wide and often unpredictable variety of contexts. Very substantial personal autonomy and often significant responsibility for the work of others and for the allocation of substantial resources feature strongly, as do personal accountabilities for analysis and diagnosis, design, planning, execution and evaluation.

The functional approach is premised by “the clarification of a “key purpose” (i.e., the overall social “function”) (see also Winter, 1996) for the occupational area, followed by a sequential analysis of details of the activities for the achievement of the requirement. The statements follow a hierarchical level, with performance criteria at the bottom. Within this framework, professional competence embeds the following bipartite model:

- Practical qualities
  - practical;
  - hard-working;
  - administratively well organized

as opposed to

  - impractical;
  - complacent;
  - disorganized.
- Emotional qualities
  - positive/supportive;
  - approachable;
  - assertive

as opposed to

  - negative/undermining;
  - isolated;
  - withdrawn.
- Intellectual qualities
  - understanding;
  - clear thinking;
  - perceptive;
  - well-informed;
  - able to identify relevant issues

as opposed to

  - missing the point;
  - narrow-minded;
  - dismissive;
  - ill-informed;
  - not able to identify relevant issues.
- General qualities
  - professional;
  - objective;
  - open;
  - informed and careful;

- giving careful consideration;
- flexible;
- enthusiastic;
- resourceful;
- holding back from precipitate action;
- positive;
- gaining confidence by seeking information, researching, learning;
- good listener;
- communicative;
- sensitive

as opposed to

- unprofessional ;
- subjective;
- dogmatic;
- holding extreme views;
- adamant;
- rigid;
- entrenched;
- bureaucratic;
- acting on ill-assimilated policy or new fashion;
- vague;
- overconfident ;
- poor listener ;
- non-communicative
- lacking sensitivity.

(Adapted from Winter, 1996: 48-49)

1.3. Concluding on the translator's competence – a multidimensional approach

In a globalised, multilingual working environment, the translator has to meet the growing needs for the development and updating of the competences, equally aiming at the enforcement of a performance-based distinction, capitalisation of expertise and building of communities of practice. The translator should be equipped with the appropriate toolkit (knowledge, skills, attitudes and values) in order not only to demonstrate professional behaviour (fit for purpose), but also to be able to analyse and evaluate current work practices in different contexts.

Needless to say that it becomes crucial for both non-experienced and experieced translators to acquire and further develop critical thinking about translation, about their translation practices and about the process of lifelong learning in the career building. The holistic approach underpinning the definition and understanding of professional competence focuses on global capability, i.e. optimisation and harmonisation of translation strategies and of quality standards with respect to experiential learning and professional development, and individual accountability, translated as (self-)monitoring, (self-) assessment and strategic planning.

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Conflict Integration and linguistic Reconciliation: An NLP Approach to Negotiating Strategies

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Abstract: Within any type of business negotiation, a well-defined strategy always aims for a positive outcome reflecting our beliefs and values in a specific context. When we struggle with our outcomes, almost always there is some hidden inner conflict that needs resolution. In Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP), a fascinating new research field, the two aspects of ourself, also known as conflicting parts or the "two minds" on an issue, often reveal different intentions and function independently. The present paper aims at analyzing ways of how to address and resolve conflicts occurring both internally and interpersonally. Linguistically, a parts conflict is expressed through the words we use. Phrases like "the weight of my argument," "a part of me agrees with you," or "I feel torn about this" show that a negotiation is framed as a search for a solution. The paper will also explore the contribution of NLP to business negotiations by means of the techniques of matching-pacing-leading. The attempt to reach agreements with others often brings up issues related to hierarchies of criteria, behaviour, values, beliefs, or representational systems. Parallel to these strategies, we shall attempt to study ways of identifying "meta outcomes" that will generate solutions to satisfy the needs of all the parts involved to some degree in the negotiation.

Keywords: *business negotiations, conflicting parts, linguistic cues, meta outcomes, NLP.*

1. Negotiation, Human Communication and Interaction

In a very general sense, the negotiating process is absolutely fundamental to human communication and interaction. Negotiation typically involves a dialogue between two or more parties intended to reach a mutually acceptable solution, resolve points of difference to produce an agreement upon course of action and craft outcomes to satisfy various interests. Parties usually start from differing positions, values, desires or outcomes. Because the act of negotiating is so central to our lives, the common theme running through all definitions is that these parties, who have both common and conflicting interests, interact with one another for the purpose of reaching an understanding.

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Building relationships requires that negotiators take time to understand, as fully as possible, the goals, values and beliefs of the negotiators on the other side since both sides ”have a stake” in the outcome. As mentioned earlier, people who stand to benefit from bringing the process to a successful conclusion also share different cultures, attitudes, morals, behaviours and linguistic styles, all of which can greatly affect the outcome of the negotiation.

The word “negotiation” has a Latin origin, being derived from the expression *negotiatus*, past participle of *negotiare* which means “to carry on business,” which in turn comes from *negotium* whose literal meaning is “business” (*neg* = “not” and *otium* = “leisure”). Webster’s Dictionary defines negotiation as meaning ”conferring with another so as to arrive at the settlement of some matter,” and “arranging for or bringing about through conference, discussion, and compromise.”

2. The Process of Negotiation and the “three Ds”

Being skilled at negotiating in any context entails being a good planner, problem solver, and, at times, conflict mediator. It is a well-known fact that the process of negotiations addresses the “three Ds:” desire, data and doubt. The central point is that success in initiating any type of negotiation is directly related to the notion of “desired outcome.” Simply put, people get involved in the negotiation out of a *desire* to reach particular goals. In Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP), the notion of a “desired outcome” refers to the desired state that a person or organization aspires to achieve. In short, desired outcomes are the answer to the question “What do I want?” and a fundamental feature of all NLP techniques and strategies. The extent to which the negotiating process progresses towards stated purposes is determined by the *data* available. Because of their significance, it is important that the participants are able to establish meaningful outcomes by answering the questions “How can I get it?,” or “What resources are available?.” The *doubts* the participants in the negotiation have about the data, as well as about one another, can bring about conflicting and limiting beliefs that need resolution. In this situation, the problem frame places an emphasis on “What is wrong?,” “Why is it a problem?,” “What caused it?” In NLP view, all problems can be perceived as challenges, or opportunities to change, grow or learn. Seen in this way, all “problems” presuppose desired outcomes. If a manager says, “The problem is that profits are down," it is assumed that there is an implied goal to "increase profits and balance the budget." NLP skills, models and principles can help to address these "three Ds" and promote successful negotiations in a number of ways.

3. The Origins, Definitions and Purpose of NLP

The term Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) was first used by Bandler and Grinder (1976) with reference to human communication. NLP studies deal with the various definitions, processes and techniques, patterns, skills and thinking strategies with an insight into the attitudes and values that help reshape our own perceptions of reality.

Widely based on the contributions of Richard Bandler and John Grinder's (1975) *modeling of a number of successful communicators* such as Fritz Perls (originator of the Gestalt School of therapy), Virginia Satir (family therapist) and Milton Erickson (the world-famous hypnotherapist), NLP is a behavioural model and a set of skills and techniques that enable people to develop effective communication methods. As Molden and Hutchinson (2006) point out, Bandler and Grinder started modelling effective therapists, but moved on to sales executives, negotiators, trainers and leaders.

According to O'Connor and Seymour (2002: 1), "NLP is the art and science of personal excellence." They emphasize the differences between *NLP as an art* and *NLP as a science*. In defining NLP as an art, they take into consideration the fact that "everyone brings their unique personality and style to what they do," and when they consider NLP to be a science, emphasis is laid on the fact that "there is a method and process for discovering the patterns used by outstanding individuals in any field to achieve outstanding results" (O'Connor and Seymour, 2002: 1). The latter definition is based on acquiring knowledge of a set of patterns used in communication to make it flexible and clear.

NLP has a great deal to offer linguists, culture and communication, as the original definition (Dilts, 1980: 2) of the discipline illustrates: "'Neuro' stands for the fundamental tenet that all behaviour is the result of neurological processes. "Linguistic" indicates that neural processes are represented, ordered, and sequenced into models and strategies through language and communication systems. "Programming" refers to the process of organizing the components of a system to achieve a specific outcome."

From the NLP perspective, the identification of verbal and non-verbal communication patterns provides the building blocks for negotiations of all types. Staying solution focused and thus, maintaining an "Outcome Frame" helps the parties involved in the negotiation to stay oriented toward future positives and their "desire" to reach a settlement. Meta Model and Precision Model questions help to clarify the necessary "data," and recover problematic generalizations, deletions and distortions which can occur in verbal interactions. The success of any negotiation highly depends on the individual's ability to "Calibrate" by noticing patterns in human behaviour and using sensory acuity to detect non-verbal cues associated with incongruencies or "doubts."

4. The Techniques of Matching, Pacing and Leading

The primary NLP approach to negotiation is that of "pacing and leading." According to Dilts and DeLozier (2000: 837): "*Pacing* involves the process of understanding and matching another person's behaviour or map of the world. It is a powerful way of establishing rapport, reducing "doubt" and reaching agreement. *Leading* is the process of adding to or changing another person's behaviour or map of the world in order to move closer to some desired outcome."

Thus, as regards the ways of guiding people towards more ecological and acceptable settlements, *pacing* before *leading* makes it easier to understand the world view of the other sides involved in the negotiation.

In NLP, "*pacing* is establishing the bridge, through rapport and respect." (O'Connor and Seymour, 2002: 21-22)

Leading means delivering your message in terms that are likely to be followed and respected. The outcome might be to negotiate a pay rise / job offer, delegate work to a subordinate, influence your customer's decisions or make a profitable sale (McLaren, 2000: 31). According to O'Connor and Seymour (2002: 22), leading will fail in the absence of rapport; if the bridge is built, the other person will unconsciously follow our lead as s/he has felt that his/her state has been considered and respected. Building upon this premise, having established rapport by pacing, we can slightly modify and adjust, in successive stages, the other person's state of mind and voice mode to a more resourceful attitude with a view to obtaining agreement. Gregory Bateson (1973) pointed out the importance of *meta communication* and *meta messages*, emphasizing the significance of *context* in verbal interactions. In the transmission of messages, information is a key element of the communication process. This involves a variety of techniques through which people interact and interpret (decode) messages.

It should be pointed out that NLP is basically about communication. As a matter of fact, it is often described as a *model of communication*. The NLP techniques of *creating and developing rapport, matching representational system predicates* and *non-verbal cues, pacing present states* and *leading to desired states* make NLP a powerful *instrument for facilitating effective communication*. According to McLaren's (2000: XII) approach, communication with people includes "informing them, influencing them, selling to them, leading them and helping them. It also means hearing them, learning from them, loving and respecting them."

As the foundation stone of NLP, matching can be effectively applied to *business*. *Sales managers* tailor their approach to the needs of the various customers, enter their world and share the *sensory-based language* which their prospective *clients* are most *attuned to*. Matching people's words by using their language cues (visual, auditory, kinesthetic patterns) consists in the ability to connect with them both behaviourally and cognitively, or, as Knight (2004: 228) puts it, "the ability to appreciate one another's *point of view*, to be *on the same wavelength* and to *understand and accept* one another's *feelings*."

Whether dealing with issues of leading or negotiating, the degree of success depends on how naturally the people involved can establish rapport.

4.1. Pacing – a type of "active listening"

Strictly speaking, maintaining and encouraging rapport involves having the flexibility to go along with people's model of the world through their own way of thinking, and in their own language, doing a type of "active listening." As already pointed out, this is known as *pacing*, the process of "<u>establishing the bridge</u>, through <u>rapport</u> and <u>respect</u>" (O'Connor and Seymour, 2002: 22, emphasis added).

The term *pacing* can be applied to both relationship and task. When *applied relationally,* pacing is a method to *establish rapport quickly* by *matching and mirroring another person's linguistic, non-verbal and mental patterns*, i.e. reflecting back language, gestures, attitudes. When *applied to a task*, pacing involves *using a person's mental strategy*, i.e. presenting the content of the task in such a way that it fits the sequence of the person's thinking strategy (Dilts and DeLozier, 2000: 909). That is to say, it means *keeping pace* with the other person, with a view to leading (bringing about change) in the other person (Alder, 2002: 86).

From a linguistic point of view, it involves reflecting back key verbal cues from the other person, in order to match his/her map of the world. It also involves having the flexibility to pick up and incorporate other people's vocabulary (their words and phrases) into one's own vocabulary. For example, one can pace his/her interlocutor by actively listening to the language patterns they use. Thus, one can match some of the other person's words and strengthen rapport. If somebody says *I haven't* ***got a*** *good* ***grasp on*** *this situation*, you might say *I understand you need to* ***get a handle on*** *this. Let's go more deeply into it. How does that* ***grab*** *you?* In this way, you experience his/her model of the world, by communicating with them in their own language and through their own way of thinking.

4.2. Leading – influencing a desired outcome

Leading involves shifting to a new perspective and a new resourceful state, and in so doing subtly attempting *to influence* another person's orientation in the desired direction. Both pacing and leading stand for matching harmoniously posture, energy and words at first, and then gradually enlarging the individual's model of the world (Dilts and DeLozier, 2000: 910-911).

Leading means using the influence that you have built up from pacing. As we have seen in the previous section, we need to understand a present state, i.e. to pace the other person, in order to build a more empowering desired state, i.e. to lead our interlocutor towards the outcome we want to achieve. Or, as O'Connor (2001: 278) points out, "leading is changing what you do with enough rapport for another person to follow."

4.3. The matching-pacing-leading sequence

Paying particular attention to the language patterns used in a *win-win type of negotiation*, the participants in the dialogue engage themselves in a process of reciprocal influence (*the matching-pacing-leading sequence*) until one of them succeeds in directing the other to a new pattern of thinking and acting. An example could be the negotiation between the Commercial Director of a car manufacturer and the General Manager of a business equipment firm. The *manager's* purpose is to get the director to concede on a 15%

discount because the director's company represents the preferred supplier whose sales discount of 12% is considered too low. The *director's* purpose is to state his position, find areas of agreement and prepare his concessions for no more than 14% of the sales price. He will prepare his strategy to *pace* and *lead* the manager:

Manager: *I **feel** we need to go more deeply into the down payment.*
(client)
Director: *I understand you **have a feeling** that we need to **talk about** this.*
(seller)
We're willing to give you a 12% discount on our list price if you buy 30 vehicles. It'll mean you'll be paying just under £14,500 for each vehicle.
Manager: *Well, I'd rather you weren't so **sharp** with figures. I reckon the costs are too high. We got stunned when we **heard** the overall cost. We do not place an order for standard models, but for comfort line ones. So we think your discount is too low.*
Director: *You know we have recently introduced this comfort line to meet our clients' needs. These models belong to a higher technology, and, as compared to the old models, they are good value for money.*
*Nevertheless, the comfort line models are our top-of-the-range products in service delivery. I am willing to find out how we can **shake off** this sting – tell me, what would **make** you **feel more comfortable** with the proposal?*

● The two participants in the dialogue match kinesthetic and auditory predicates, pace the past and future. The director uses an embedded suggestion: "*we can shake off this sting.*" He ends by asking a question: "*What would make you feel more comfortable with the proposal*?" that leads him to find the manager's answer, and also anchors a "feel good" state.

Manager: *Drop the price by 20%.*
Director: *I appreciate your sense of humour. How would you **feel** about a drop to 13.5%? If there is someone to want an adjustment to the original design, we'll offer you 11% on that car. Do you **get the sense** of what I'm saying?*

Manager: *I **get your drift**, but I was hoping for more than 13.5%; can you **push** this limit **ahead**?*

● The manager is persistent, optimistic about a favourable solution and lets himself led by the director who establishes a good rapport.

> Director: *Mmm, let's* ***firm up*** *on this. I can* ***push*** *this limit* ***ahead****. We always gave satisfactory solutions in the past, didn't we? Let's see what we've got. You want a reduction of 13.5%, but I am ready to offer you 14% right now if you buy over 40 vehicles by the end of next week. Can we* ***clinch*** *the deal on this now?*

● The director starts to lead when he begins to summarize: "*Let's see what we've got*.," "let's firm up on this." Both the manager and the director match/pace kinesthetic predicates, and the effect of the tag question "didn't we" at the end of the sentence is produced with the intention of getting the manager to say "yes" and, consequently, be in an agreement state.

5. Meta outcomes in conflict resolution

Another key contribution of NLP to negotiation is the presupposition that every behaviour has a "positive intention" – an important principle for addressing "doubts." A large part of the NLP "conflict integration" process during a negotiation is to keep "chunking up," from "meta position," to find a higher level "positive intention" that both parties share. This is known in NLP as identifying "meta outcomes" (the outcomes of other outcomes). Finding them implies exploring higher processes which underlie certain behaviours, i.e. values, beliefs and identity issues (Dilts and DeLozier, 2000: 837). Meta outcomes are typically the desired effects of a particular outcome or goal and their exploration is fundamental in conflict resolution. Achieving a meta position (a position of "above and between' the two in conflict) in negotiations that is dissociated from either of the conflicting parts can also create something new. While conflict is defined as a state of disharmony between antithetical persons, ideas, or interests, the new perspective that meta position brings about can allow the incompatible/conflicting parts to co-exist in harmony.

6. Basic Steps of the NLP Approach to Negotiation and Their Linguistic Expression

The following is a worksheet of the basic NLP approach to effective negotiation:

Context: *Person A wishes to buy something from Person B, but is short of money at the moment. Person A is eager to purchase anyway and is thinking of proposing a down payment. Person B is worried about his cash flow needs and has not done business with Person A before*.

1. Identify the key issues involved in the negotiation. These issues are typically related to the level of environment and behaviour and are rendered by collocations such as *make a purchase / an investment*, *time money*, verbs expressing action like *extend*, *manage*, *generate*, phrasal verbs such as *focus on*, *work out*, *draw up*, or noun phrases like *payment plan*, *cash flow*. Specific wh-questions – *what*, *where* and *when* – help identify the positions of both sides.

e.g. *Person A: making a purchase by focusing on an extended payment plan* /vs/
Person B: timing money coming into the company to generate cash flow.

2. Establish an unbiased "meta position" that is distinct from either of the parties involved in the negotiation.

3. Clarify the intentions / criteria ("meta outcomes") behind the issues related to each party (including your own if you are one of the parties involved in the negotiation). Questions like *why*, *who*, *for whom*, *for what* are used to clear up the intentions and criteria which are at a higher level than the issues involved in the negotiation.

e.g. *Person A: betterment (satisfaction) and evolution within means;*
Person B: preservation (stability) and survival.

In this case, the meta outcome points out the behaviour level conflict (Person A: *betterment and evolution* = spending money → "growth;" Person B: *preservation and survival* = feeling safe → "security") in terms of general, long-term goals, like "preservation and survival," "betterment and evolution" of the individual or organization. These meta outcomes are the source of what are known as "positive intentions" in NLP, and are also an example of what Aristotle referred to as "final causes."

From a linguistic point of view, they are considered nominalizations, a way of taking a verb, an action word, and turning it into a noun, an abstract notion (Knight, 2002). Nominalizations like *betterment, satisfaction, evolution, preservation, stability* and *survival* are among those linguistic patterns which could be included in the category of general terms indicating values. Linguistically, the mechanism supposes turning a process into an event. The above nominalizations are achieved by adding the suffixes ***–ment*** to the verb *better*, ***-(act)ion/-(ut)ion/-(at)ion*** to the verbs *satisfy, evolve, preserve*, ***-ity*** to the verb *stabilize*, and ***–al*** to the verb *survive*. Their role is to strengthen a person's belief in and commitment to the value itself:

e.g. **Betterment** *is important and desirable* ***because*** *I need to improve my economic position.*

Growing *is important and desirable* ***if*** *I want to be productive and economically viable*.

Stability *is important and desirable* ***so that*** *I can maintain an adequate cash flow*.

As it is clearly seen, all the above examples follow the pattern:

Value	important desirable	→	connective + subordinate clause

One can connect the respective value to the outcome necessary to accomplish it. To put it differently, having explored the range of beliefs to bring values into action, one develops a strong motivation to the value. The different *connectives* at the end of each value statement introduce a larger picture of supporting reasons. They are represented by subordinating conjunctions like *because, if, so that* which introduce reason, purpose or conditional clauses, their function being to give us a real insight into the causes of a specific value.

It would be desirable that each new sentence prompted by subordinating conjunctions begins with the first personal pronoun "I" to ensure the individual's full association with the experience.

One can practice forming meta outcomes for negotiating situations using the formula below, and filling in the blanks with "–ing patterns" introducing purpose clauses with a view to stating some desired behaviour or response:

"I specifically want the outcome of ________ , for the purpose of "

e.g. "*I specifically want the outcome of purchasing this on an extended payment plan, for the purpose of being able to obtain something I want at an affordable cost.*"

The "purpose" will be a "meta outcome." According to Dilts and DeLozier, "If the various *meta outcomes* of the individuals involved in the negotiation *do not match or complement each other*, have each party *repeat the process again*, this time *substituting the meta outcome* each has come up with in the previous statement as the specific outcome of the new statement" (Dilts and DeLozier, 2000: 838, emphases added):

e.g. "*I specifically want the outcome of being able to obtain something I want at an affordable cost, for the purpose of feeling satisfied and evolving within my means.*"

By repeating the newly generated meta outcome we can arrive at a statement of the various criteria or intentions whose desired effects are understood and acknowledged by each party.

4. Make sure that each party recognizes and accepts the positive intent of the other. This does not mean that either party has to accept the method with which the other is attempting to satisfy the positive intention, nor does it mean that either party has to compromise his/her position and concede his/her goal.

5. From 'meta position', keep chunking up until a common intention has been identified and shared by both parties. At this stage, positive intentions will typically not be opposites or polarities. They will rather be complementary and beneficial systemically as opposed to individually.

e.g. *The meta outcome of apparently conflicting objectives, such as "betterment & growth"* (Person A) *versus "stability & survival"* (Person B), *for instance, may be the same:"PRESERVING AND OPTIMIZING RESOURCES IN A CHANGING BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT"* (for both Person A and B).

“***Meta Outcome***”
“*Preserving and optimizing resources in a changing business environment*”

Outcome A ***Outcome B***
“Betterment/Growth”
“Stability/Survival”

Conflicting outcomes can share the same meta outcome. The “Meta Outcome” also helps to establish that “any *conflict* between the negotiating parties is counterproductive to the achievement of meta outcomes and specific outcomes, and to have all the parties agree that it should be resolved as quickly as possible” (Dilts and DeLozier, 2000: 839). It is true that people have differences of opinion about the specific strategies that lead to mutually acceptable outcomes. This is due to the fact that they have different mental maps and assumptions related to a situation.

Meta outcomes are elicited by asking the questions “What do you want?,” “What will getting that outcome do for you?”

e.g. *What do you want?*
I **want** to make this purchase on an extended payment plan.
What will getting that do for you?
If I get that, then I will guarantee future payments with a credit card or other collateral .
What will getting that do for you?
If I get that, then I will find a business partner and make sound investments.
What will getting that do for you?
If I get that, then I will learn effective financial planning to preserve and

optimize resources.

By asking the question “What will getting that do for you?” several times, we discover some new outcomes. The answer to each question will be the anticipated outcome of the outcome. This procedure expressed by a sequence of *1st type conditional clauses* leads to successively higher level meta outcomes.

Conclusions

Identifying meta outcomes creates the possibility of having more choices in both decision making and negotiation. This is due to the fact that NLP strategies and objectives, Meta-Model questions, representational systems greatly contribute to the successful achievement of a meta outcome. Moreover, the same meta outcome can frequently be reached through diverse paths.

The merit of NLP is to help us become more aware, through the diversity of techniques and strategies, of some of our own hierarchy of criteria, and our core outcomes, as well as the new understandings we get about our own values. Observing the various strategies for decision making used by each party involved in the negotiation will provide information about what to ”pace and lead” to reach a successful resolution.

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