



Textual equivalence in the translation of specialized languages: discourse adherences and dissimilarities

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Every discourse has its own selfish and biased proprietor; there are no words with meanings shared by all, no words 'belonging to no-one' ... Who speaks and under what conditions they speak, this is what determines the word's actual meaning. All direct meanings and direct expressions are false. (Bakhtin 1981: 401)

INTRODUCTION

The title of this contribution to the Round Table of this workshop betrays my position as a linguist: as I am not a translator I look at the pragmatic, rhetorical, discursive and stylistic features of a translated text in terms of the level of equivalence and, consequently, of the effectiveness of the translation in relation to the prospective users. From my point of view, a translation is "good" if it is "successful", and it is so if it delivers the original message beyond the formal correspondence between the source and the target text. In other words, two texts are equivalent if they, each in its own language, have the same effectiveness and produce the same response.

The leitmotiv of my contribution consists of the "experiences of translation" reported by Umberto Eco in his book "Dire quasi la stessa cosa", particularly in the idea which can be considered the backbone of the volume: texts can be translated, but not systems (Eco 2003: 37).

The topic of the present workshop, translation and re-writing, offers an extremely interesting incentive to shed light on translation purposes and the relevant expressive tools necessary to achieve them. A reflection on this point seems to be absolutely essential considering that all the texts about translation include a first chapter with an attempt to define the term "translation" and each theory supports different norms, strategies and values. In spite of theoretical and pragmatic difficulties,



translation is often necessary and, as Eco says, "... *da millenni la gente traduce*" (italics in the original, Eco 2003:17).

I understand that reasoning about the meaning of equivalence in translation may also be insidious in the light of the current literature. Nida's distinction (1964) between "formal equivalence" (which attempts to render the text word-for-word, if necessary at the expense of natural expression in the target language) and "dynamic equivalence" (also known as "functional equivalence", which attempts to convey the thought expressed in a source text, if necessary at the expense of literalness, original word order, the source text's grammatical voice, etc.) has for the last half century divided the two schools of thought about translation which strive for the objective of literal accuracy and readability of the translation respectively. But the very meaning of the term "equivalence" has also been widely discussed: on the one hand, Jakobson (1959), Nida (1964), Newmark (1981), Bayar (2007), among others, have tried to define the nature and levels of equivalence; on the other hand, Mehrach (1977), Van Den Broek (1978), and van Leuven (1990) have considered the concept of equivalence even as a drawback for the development of translation at a theoretical level.

The principle of the "equivalent effect" introduced by Nida (1964: 159) shifts the focus towards the relationship between the sender and the receiver, and this relationship is equivalent to the original in the case of an effective translation. This principle is still useful to overcome the question of equivalence in a restricted sense, as a symmetrical correspondence between two words in two different languages: as Eco states, "la sinonimia secca non esiste" [an all-out synonymity does not exist] (2003: 35). As a matter of fact, Jakobson (1959: 114) argued for the untranslatability of the word "cheese" from English into Russian;¹ more recently, Sperber (1996: 18-23) bestows an in-depth reflection into the meaning of the word "marriage" and on the significant difficulties in transferring the word, that is, the concept into different languages and cultures with social and legal implications, as the result of anthropological, psychological and biological conditions. All in all, the term "equivalence" can be dangerous if we do not consider the hypothesis that in some cases, for contextual, cultural or social reasons, two equivalent terms might not even exist. Indeed, Mona Baker talks about the "problem of non-equivalence" (1992: 17-26) with particular reference to specific cultural concepts: through grammar equivalence, she deals with equivalence "above word level" at a pragmatic and textual level.

The problem of uncontextualised equivalence has not been solved by electronic means which, in recent years, have given rise to amusing or even ridiculous translations, as in the case reported by Umberto Eco (2003: 32) where, in the translation of the Genesis, "lo spirito di Dio" is turned into "the alcohol of God".

Thanks to the integration of linguistic and translation theories, we can now analyse both the deep and the surface structure of the language in Chomsky's terms,

¹ As Newmark (1981: 97) points out "food is for many the most sensitive and important expression of national culture: food terms are subject to the widest variety of translation procedures".



and we can also focus on the pragmatic use of language in real communicative situations, which include socio-cultural relations. This interdisciplinary integration has gradually allowed for a shift from interest in terminology towards an approach to text, context and a variety of textual genres (see Gotti and Šarčević eds. 2006). Moreover, technological development offers more and more sophisticated tools and products.

We can therefore agree on the impossibility of reaching absolute equivalence, but the construction of large multilingual comparable corpora, based on texts with similar purpose and content, has proved to be a prodigious support to trace models and preferences in language usage so as to build phrases which are similar in different languages, at both a formal and functional level. The systemic application of these corpora enables the finding of elements concerning textual and stylistic, as well as communicative and pragmatic equivalence.

To draw closer to my specific linguistic interests, I now turn to some considerations about languages for specific purposes. Although all specialized languages are involved in the process of translation, as they all share an informative and/or disseminative purpose, I think that there are different driving forces behind the theoretical and methodological study of translation for legal discourse and for the language of management and corporations. These two types of specialized languages belong to communities of practice all over the world: they cover contents and adopt text types which are to be known and divulged in more than one language, so they need a type of translation available for utilitarian purposes, which does not exclude requirements that can be considered “aesthetic”. The texts I am going to analyse illustrate the fundamental distinction between juridical and economic textual focus and organization, the priority in the former being lexical and conceptual correspondence, while in the latter the orientation is on socio-cultural adherence. I will discuss the two specialised languages considering both the communicative needs of the European Union for legal issues and the more general process of globalization developing in business. I am very aware that both the disciplines examined here include such a variety of expressive tools and textual genres that this contribution can in no way be considered exhaustive. However, these two examples can well represent the spread of English in multilingual, multicultural and multiethnic institutional and business communities. They show different rhetorical strategies in adapting the message so much so that some features of glocalization (such as reference to everyday life and local allusions) can be detected in corporate language, whereas the English used in normative EU texts strictly reflects its role as an international means of communication, with no reference to any national legal culture. We will see how English covers different functions in different domains as both a vehicular and an instrumental language.



EQUIVALENCE IN LEGAL DISCOURSE

Interest in legal translation arises from the difficulties resulting from the low level of isomorphism between different legal systems. Research in this highly specialised language has enjoyed a long tradition. I would like to recall the conferences organized by Professor Leo Schena at the “Bocconi” University in Milan: “La Lingua del Diritto: difficoltà traduttive e applicazioni didattiche” in 1995, and “Traduttori e giuristi a confronto. Interpretazione traducente e comparazione del discorso giuridico” in 1998. On those occasions linguists, who produced a variety of research on the relationship between language and law, had the opportunity to share contents and methods with jurists, experts in legal issues and lawyers. An interdisciplinary approach, involving jurists, linguists and translators, proves to be of fundamental importance. Giuseppe Benedetti, professor of civil law and at present professor emeritus in the Faculty of Economics at the “Sapienza” University of Rome, has offered a brilliant contribution to the debate. Over the last two years Professor Benedetti, together with other outstanding colleagues, has promoted a permanent seminar named after Lionello R. Levi Sandri.² The first conference organized within the seminar, “Transnational activities, juridical knowledge and translation science”, was held in November 2009 and the proceedings are now available. As one of the scientific coordinators of the seminar, I have the privilege of being in constant contact with legal experts and perceiving their communicative expectations, first and foremost their need to deal with different legal systems. Apart from the original contributions of many linguists in the proceedings, jurists also discussed the wide themes of translation and interpretation, very often in a comparative perspective and in a multilingual environment. Given the assumption that concepts formulated by a jurist within one legal system may find no correspondence in another legal system (e.g. “settlement” in the law of property has no equivalent in civil law), the specific professional field needs precision and uniformity to transmit legal norms at an international level. This is the real issue at stake for all the experts in legal matters: they want to be sure that what is translated, once transposed into another system, is consistent with the original.

There is no doubt that, whereas a lot of words and phrases related to the language of economics have been directly imported and never translated from English into other languages, legal terminology is much more susceptible to translation problems. Everyday words can also have a specific meaning in the legal field: for example, in European legislation a “directive” is not only a suggestion or a guidance, it is rather a legal rule.

The same word can have different meanings in different legal fields. For example, “subsidiarity” in Italian criminal law is related to the principle by which the

² An expert in labour law, Lionello R. Levi Sandri (1910 – 1991) taught in the Faculty of Economics in Rome. He was also a European Commissioner and in this position he supported the equalisation and harmonisation of work and social rights between EEC states.



application of legal punishment is to be considered as *extrema ratio*, e.g. imprisonment is a subsidiary (sometimes supplementary) penalty in relation to a financial penalty. In EU legislation, instead, the principle of subsidiarity emphasises the autonomous action of low level institutions, that is to say, European intervention is allowed only in cases in which a member state is not able to perform an autonomous action. The similarity of the English terms “directive” and “subsidiarity” with the Italian words can be misleading.

Another example to illustrate the transfer of conceptual correspondence is the Italian phrase “diritto della concorrenza”, which is often considered synonymous with the American “antitrust legislation”, but it does not correspond to “competition law” in EU legislation. In this field the American and the European systems share three areas of regulation, namely cartels and anti-competition practices, monopolies and abuse of a dominant position on the market, mergers and acquisition of companies. But, within the European Union, “competition law” also regulates the intervention of each member state in favour of national companies (the Italian cases are well known). Here the meaning is not dependent on textual genre, but rather on context and co-text. A legislator and a jurist know this peculiarity and feel the duty to attribute the precise meaning to each utterance.

Although terminology in all branches of legal language is of uppermost importance, discourse and genre analysis should also be regarded as indispensable tools supporting the process of translation (Salvi 2011). Taxonomies of decontextualized words are not useful to identify the holistic meaning of a text, which always deserves an interdisciplinary approach in an intertextual perspective. Written texts mediate meaning at three semantic levels: with reference to the writer’s intention, to the receivers’ acceptance and also with reference to economic, social and cultural conditions. This mediation can only materialize within texts.

Let us take the *Principles of European Contract Law*, edited by Castronovo, as a textual example. The *Principles* do not aim to transfer juridical elements of the common law system into the EU legislation, but the contrast between common and civil law could not be avoided, and it determined problems not only in translation, but also on the grounds of legal transfer. Castronovo took part in the original English draft so, as a translator, he looked for “legal equivalence” in the context of European legislation, where the objectives of harmonization and integration are paramount. In the introduction, however, the lack of a common uniform terminology is frequently underlined.

It is easy to perceive from a quick glance at both the English and the Italian version that a literal translation is not suitable in this context: “relevant rules of private international law” is translated as “norme proprie di diritto internazionale privato” (Art. 1:103); “statements” are “dichiarazioni negoziali” in Italian and in the same article “intention” means “volontà negoziale” (Art. 1: 107).

The same word can even develop a new meaning when included in a new context, where the specific cultural situation affects the original denotation; there are two cases deserving attention in the *Principles*, “good faith” derived from continental



legislation, and “reasonableness” of Anglo-Saxon origin, which have acquired a new connotation in European regulations.³

Therefore, it is not surprising that Article 1:301 of the Principles deals with Meaning of Terms (“Definizioni” in the Italian version) reporting six explanations of words which can breed ambiguity at both an intra-linguistic and inter-linguistic level.

Section 3:
Terminology and Other Provisions

Article 1:301
Meaning of Terms

In these Principles, except where the context otherwise requires:

- (1) 'act' includes omission;
- (2) 'court' includes arbitral tribunal;
- (3) an 'intentional' act includes an act done recklessly;
- (4) 'non-performance' denotes any failure to perform an obligation under the contract, whether or not excused, and includes delayed performance, defective performance and failure to co-operate in order to give full effect to the contract;
- (5) a matter is 'material' if it is one which a reasonable person in the same situation as one party ought to have known would influence the other party in its decision whether to contract on the proposed terms or to contract at all;
- (6) 'written' statements include communications made by telegram, telex,

Sezione terza:
Terminologia e altre regole

Articolo 1 :301
Definizioni

Salvo che il contesto induca a ritenere altrimenti:

- (1) «atto» significa anche omissione;
- (2) «giudice» significa anche arbitro;
- (3) ai comportamenti posti in essere «dolosamente» sono equiparati quelli gravemente colposi;
- (4) «inadempimento» si riferisce a qualsiasi mancanza della prestazione dovuta in base al contratto, che sia fonte di responsabilità o no, compreso il ritardato e l'inesatto adempimento nonché la violazione dell'obbligo di cooperare al fine di dare piena esecuzione al contratto;
- (5) un aspetto è «rilevante» quando una persona assennata nella stessa posizione di una parte avrebbe dovuto saperne la rilevanza per l'altra parte in ordine all'accettazione delle clausole proposte o alla decisione di concludere il contratto;
- (6) la forma «scritta» si intende

³ Good Faith and Fair Dealing. 1. Each party must act in accordance with good faith and fair dealing. 2. The parties may not exclude or limit this duty. *Buona fede e correttezza. 1. Le parti devono agire nel rispetto della buona fede e della correttezza. 2. Le parti non possono escludere o limitare questo obbligo.* (Art. 1: 201). Reasonableness. Under these Principles reasonableness is to be judged by what persons acting in good faith and in the same situation as the parties would consider to be reasonable. In particular, in assessing what is reasonable the nature and purpose of the contract, the circumstances of the case and the usages and practices of the trades or professions involved should be taken into account. *Ragionevolezza. E' da ritenersi ragionevole ciò che chiunque in buona fede e nella stessa situazione delle parti dovrebbe considerare ragionevole. Nella valutazione di ragionevolezza si dovrà tenere conto, in particolare, della natura e dell'oggetto del contratto, delle circostanze del caso e degli usi e pratiche dei traffici o delle professioni interessate.* (Art. 1: 302)



telefax and electronic mail and other means of communication capable of providing a readable record of the statement on both sides.

riferita ai telegrammi, telex, telefax, posta elettronica e ogni altro strumento di comunicazione in grado di produrre un documento suscettibile di lettura dall'una e dall'altra parte.

Figura 1. *Principles of European Contract Law*

The two juxtaposed versions give rise to several considerations. Among the intralinguistic features, we can note that, in drafting a new regulation, it was necessary to define words such as “act”, “court” or “written statements”, which would appear to have a straightforward meaning. As a matter of fact, “act includes omission”, so the word expresses a new concept. It was also necessary, for instance, to explicitly indicate “electronic mail” in the category of “readable record”. “Intentional” assumes a negative connotation. “Material” can be considered as a form of catachresis, which in any case needs a definition, whilst a new cultural model emerges in the definition of the behaviour of a “reasonable person” (par. 5). Textual coherence and cohesion are guaranteed by the specific genre of a normative text and by the implications connected with the knowledge of the issues involved.

As far as the interlinguistic features are concerned, the comparison between the two versions suggests that the Italian text was in some way re-written rather than literally translated, as we can see in no. 3 (an intentional act includes = ai comportamenti posti in essere dolosamente sono equiparati) and 6 (‘written’ statements = la forma “scritta”). “Material” is translated into Italian by “rilevante”, as legal English adopts the meaning of “relevant and significant” as so important as to affect the outcome of a case or the validity of a legal instrument. Paragraph 3 also offers an interesting example in terms of the organization of the sentence and the distribution of information in the two languages.

Another similar instance is:

“When a rejection of an offer reaches the offeror, the offer lapses”. (Art. 2:203)
La proposta perde efficacia quando il rifiuto di essa perviene al proponente.

The hypotactical sentence structure is different in the two languages; Bice Mortara Garavelli (2001: 89) argues that the ante-positioning of time phrases reflects the logical sequence of events, as in English, whereas the Italian version follows the theme/rheme scheme.

As Gotti and Williams suggest,

Examples abound of linguistic and cultural discrepancies in texts relating to the process of harmonization between different legal systems when trying to build a common legal framework: this task is much more complex than the simple rendering of common normative documents in all the languages of the countries involved, because this newly created framework is meant to be interpreted within the contexts of a diversity of individual legal systems and tongues. (Gotti – Williams 2010: 17)



Comparisons and contrasts in texts are thus to be analysed beyond terminology, and in an intercultural perspective. My short overview of legal institutional texts is limited to written documents, which represent a challenge for many scholars as well as professional people. Other relevant areas, such as courtroom language or forensic linguistics, cannot be discussed here.

EQUIVALENCE IN BUSINESS DISCOURSE

Like legal language, business discourse adopts such a large variety of genres and text types as to make any generalization impossible. I will just make some observations about translation equivalences as they appear on the websites of corporations operating in different countries and using English to develop their identity, image, and products. This area of research has been fruitful in the last few years, producing interesting findings, some of them very recent (see Salvi and Tanaka eds. 2011).

We assume that the language of a website has only partially an informative scope. Its lexical choices, rhetorical devices and the whole multimodal apparatus reveal a persuasive purpose and a promotional function aiming to build corporate identity and reputation which require a wide use of evaluative language. The extensive use of superlatives, for instance, and a generalized emphasis in the discourse produce an effect of exaggeration very similar to the language of advertising. A website, now considered a genre in itself, is actually made up of several sub-genres, which are the web pages that are organized differently according to their content (information about the company, history of the company, description of products, etc.), but generally confined to one visual display, so as to be subjected to some linguistic restrictions (considering the need to leave space for pictures). The interpretation of the messages relies on the concurrent decodification of two types of discourse, the social and the institutional, which link the corporate identity with the public image the company wants to project.

Let us compare briefly now the Italian and English versions of a text from a multinational company.⁴

The homepage of Nestlé Italia is rich in suggestions.

⁴ Websites accessed in March 2011.



Figura 2. Nestlé Italia homepage: logo and slogan

The logo (birds in a nest) can represent a family, thereby drawing attention to the commitment of the founder⁵ for good nutrition. Words are aptly selected to confirm the concept. The images in the homepage show children and sports champions. We also find recipes for preparing homemade cakes, articles on fitness, and a section “Wellness News”, with the title in English. A popular product is presented in English (Have a break, have a kit kat!) which is the result of globalization and the company’s international vocation.

The home page of Nestlé USA is very similar in its presentation.



The picture on the same page shows a family (but parents and children have different somatic features to represent an ideal multiethnic community) and the words “nutrition, health and wellness” accompany the picture, thus perfectly reflecting the Italian version. Surprisingly, the first piece of information on the page does not concern products, but appeals to the American life style:

WORKING AT NESTLÉ

At Nestlé, we don't offer jobs – *we offer possibilities*. Nestlé is a place where you can shape your own career, get exposure to unique and challenging experiences and be part of a bright, energetic and dedicated team.

Real Possibilities, Real People make Nestlé a great place to work.

Moreover, the collection of recipes is in Spanish, implying that the Spanish community is more involved in cooking than the average American family.

Even the simple metadiscursive Italian phrase “*clicca qui per ...*” has several equivalences in the American site: “see in detail”, “learn about”, “find out”.

⁵ “The Nestlé Company was founded in 1867 by Henri Nestlé, who, at a time of high infant mortality, developed a milk-based food for babies unable to feed from their mothers. Since then nutrition has been at the very heart of the Nestlé business” (from “History of the Family”).



Apart from the corresponding basic concept “Nutrirsi bene, vivere meglio/ Good food, good life”, it does not seem appropriate to talk about translation in a traditional sense in this context. Linguistic elements are not translated from Italian into English or viceversa; instead, they are geared towards local expectations, at different communicative levels. An articulated geo-semiotic system prevails (R. Scollon and S. Wong Scollon 2003), in which socio-cultural factors emerge and the company challenges a local/global relationship. We witness a direct example of re-writing, a process of adaptation used to overcome the danger which every company is afraid of, the “Not Invented Here (NIH) syndrome”, an unpleasant feeling for the consumer who does not recognize himself/herself in the company and its products.⁶

In the Lavazza website, instead, an attempt at translation has been made, although it is not completely successful.

Lavazza oggi	Lavazza today
Un mondo di esperienza	A World of Experience
Portare l'aroma e la qualità dell'espresso italiano nel mondo è da sempre il nostro principale obiettivo.	Spreading the aroma and quality of Italian espresso around the world has always been our aim. To achieve it we strive for excellence and innovation, drawing strength from our experience established over more than a century of activity.
Per questo puntiamo all'eccellenza e all'innovazione, traendo forza dalla nostra esperienza che si è consolidata in più di un secolo di attività, da quando, all'inizio del Novecento, Luigi Lavazza inventò il concetto stesso di miscela, l'arte di mescolare differenti origini di caffè per ottenere un prodotto armonico e gustoso.	In the early 1900's Luigi Lavazza first invented the concept of the blend, the complex art of mixing coffee of different origins to obtain a harmonious and tasty product in the cup.

Tab 1. Lavazza website: Italian and English version

As Turnbull (2007: 30) argues, the almost word-for-word translation of the first paragraph does not meet the English reader's expectations in that the sentence presents an inversion of the theme/rheme structure.

⁶ “Translation forms domestic subjects by enabling a process of ‘mirroring’ or self-recognition: the foreign text becomes intelligible when the reader recognizes himself or herself in the translation by identifying the domestic values that motivated the selection of that particular foreign text, and that are inscribed in it through a particular discursive strategy. The self-recognition is a recognition of the domestic cultural norms and resources that constitute the self, that define it as a domestic subject” (Venuti 1998: 77).



The second very long Italian sentence has been divided into two parts in English, thus omitting the adverbial phrase “da quando” and its potential affective meaning. The omission does alter the equivalence of the discursive strategies, and probably affects the reception of the informative and persuasive purposes of the message.

In any case, a website is addressed to a very heterogeneous, often not highly specialized audience. The surface structure is maintained in the two texts to deliver the corporate culture based on an ancient family tradition, according to the pattern adopted by many companies which exploit the binomial tradition/innovation as a pivot of their reputation.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

I have tried to show that whereas jurists and legal experts are interested in searching for “translation norms”, standard patterns and taxonomies, substantially a codified language which can be easily recognizable, the language of corporations looks for “operational norms” (Toury 1995: 59), that is, different ways of presenting linguistic material, moving it from one text to another and transforming concepts into styles that are more suitable to the language norms of local communities, with appropriate lexicon and rhetorical choices.

Speaking of norms, however, implies that deviations can exist and that we are able to identify and accept them. We are now ready to perceive phenomena of contamination as a result of globalization:

Words cannot remain perpetually independent in their patterning unless they are either very rare or specially protected (for example by being technical terms if indeed that status offers the protection that is often claimed for it). (Sinclair 1996: 82)

In the case of professional languages different cultural contexts have to be observed, closely compared in both original texts and in translations. Since the end of the 1980s translation studies have focused on what Bassnett and Lefevere defined as the “cultural turn”; they affirmed that “neither the word, nor the text, but the culture [has become] the operational ‘unit’ of translation” (1998: 8).

At the crossroads between language and culture the function of interpretation emerges, allowing the linguistic transfer into new cultural environments. Whatever the prevailing purpose of a text (informative, expressive, vocative), adjustments and modifications from one language into another should be made bearing in mind their inter-linguistic and inter-cultural impact.



Far from exacerbating cultural gaps and social conflicts⁷, interpretation can recover and develop as many as possible cultural elements, personal, collective as well as expressive. The re-wording, re-writing and rephrasing of concepts, also including significant ones belonging to other languages and cultures, have a high degree of educational value.

In Giuseppe Benedetti's words

La traduzione diviene il luogo della cultura di un mondo globalizzato che, nel rispettare e valorizzare le culture regionali, intende tuttavia accomunarle nella reciproca comprensione-traduzione, armonizzando regole fondamentali di convivenza. La traduzione non si esaurisce dunque nella soluzione di un problema pratico e tecnico; implicando la comunanza spirituale e umana comprensione, assume rilievo di principio sostanziale: e acquista respiro simbolico sul piano culturale, etico, politico, proprio perché esalta il valore del dialogo e dell'uguaglianza, quale rispetto della pari dignità dialogica. In questo quadro si avverte la funzione altamente educativa della traduzione per la formazione della coscienza europea. (2011: 55)

A dialogical perspective implies the interaction between the sender and the receiver; it involves not the single word or phrase, but rather a communicative chain which includes non-verbal factors; it requires a search for lexico-grammar equivalence in pragmatic terms. Given the present heterogeneity of discursive communities, the hybridization of genres and text types, the unpredictability of the audience (especially on the net) and all the different forms of hypotaxis which a globalised language has to provoke in different cultures and in multimedial and multimodal channels, a text – either translated or re-written – has to achieve a degree of functional equivalence so as to produce the same effect as the original.

I have restricted my survey to a very small portion of text types of institutional discourse, as they belong to communities of practice which have shared knowledge and common linguistic resources to negotiate meaning.⁸

⁷ "Translations ... position readers in domestic intelligibilities that are also ideological positions, ensembles of values, beliefs, and representations that further the interests of certain social groups over others" (Venuti 1998: 78).

⁸ "Forse la teoria aspira a una purezza di cui l'esperienza può fare a meno, ma il problema interessante è quanto e di che cosa l'esperienza possa fare a meno. Di qui l'idea che la traduzione si fondi su alcuni processi di negoziazione, la negoziazione essendo appunto un processo in base al quale, per ottenere qualcosa, si rinuncia a qualcosa d'altro – e alla fine le parti in gioco dovrebbero uscirne con un senso di ragionevole e reciproca soddisfazione alla luce dell'aureo principio per cui non si può avere tutto" (Eco 2003: 18).



So, it only remains for us to accept Eco's hypothesis according to which "non si dice mai la stessa cosa" and in any translation we run the risk of missing "un riverbero ultravioletto, un'allusione infrarossa" (Eco 2003: 94).

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