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UMI®
AN ARGUMENTATION-CENTRED APPROACH TO
TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT

by

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Thesis submitted to
the Faculty of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies
of the University of Ottawa
for the degree of Ph.D. in Translation Studies

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AN ARGUMENTATION-CENTRED APPROACH TO TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT

By Malcolm Williams

ABSTRACT
Translation quality assessment (TQA) types may be divided into two main types: (1) models with a quantitative dimension, such as SEPT (1979), Sical (1986) and GTS (2000), and (2) non-quantitative, more textological models such as Nord (1991) and House (1997). Because it tends to focus on microtextual (lexical, syntactic) analysis, sampling and error counts, Type 1 suffers from major shortcomings. First, because of time constraints, it cannot assess, except on the basis of statistical probabilities, the acceptability of the content of the translation as discourse. Second, the microtextual analysis inevitably hinders any serious assessment of the content macrostructure of the translation. Third, the establishment of an acceptability threshold based on a specific number of errors is vulnerable to criticism both theoretically and in the marketplace. Type 2 cannot offer a cogent acceptability threshold either, precisely because it does not propose error weighting and quantification for individual texts. Another drawback of Type 2 is that it is applied almost exclusively to literary and advertising texts.

What is needed is a model that combines the quantitative and textological dimensions, along the lines proposed by Bensoussan and Rosenhouse (1990) and Larose (1987, 1998), and targets instrumental (pragmatic) translations. The goal of this thesis is to develop an argumentation-centred model to meet this need. With Toulmin’s argument macrostructure (1984) as a starting point, a set of argumentation parameters are developed: macrostructure, propositional functions (Widdowson 1978) and reasoning structure (Thomas 1986), conjunctives and inference indicators (Halliday and Hasan 1976; Roulet et al. 1985; and Thomas 1986), argument types (Corbett and Connors 1999), figures of speech, and narrative strategy (Ouellet 1992). These parameters provide a framework for assessing the degree to which translations preserve the argumentation, coherence and cohesion of the message of the source text, for determining critical passages for TQA, and for proposing a new breakdown of errors based on three levels of seriousness. A weighting grid is then added to the model to enable evaluators to take account of conventional parameters such as target-language errors. Finally, a new set of quality standards is proposed for instrumental texts produced by professionals and students alike.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQA terminology</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part I: Review of the literature, hypotheses and methodology</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The present state of TQA: a review of the literature</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1. Existing TQA approaches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.1. Models with a quantitative dimension</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.1.1. Sical</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.1.2. CTIC</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.1.3. GTS</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.1.4. SEPT</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.1.5. Bensoussan and Rosenhouse</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.1.6. Statistical method</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.1.7. Larose</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2. Non-quantitative models</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2.1. Nida, Taber and Brislin</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2.2. Darbelnet</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2.3. Newmark</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2.4. Berman's &quot;Critique productive&quot;</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2.5. Reiss</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2.6. Nord's Skopostheorie model</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2.7. House</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2.8. Hatim and Mason</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2.9. Dancette</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2. Investigations and definitions of translation norms</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.1. Problems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1. Problems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.1. TQA models</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.2. The relational norm and the problem of meaning</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.2. Hypotheses
  2.2.1. TQA models
  2.2.2. The translation unit and categorization of errors
  2.2.3. Textological TQA and training
  2.2.4. Definition of translation standard

2.3. Objectives

Chapter 3
Methodology I: Overview and argument macrostructure
  3.1. Logic, rhetoric and argument
  3.2. Potential contribution of other approaches
    3.1.1. Structural semantics
    3.1.2. Interpretative semantics
    3.1.3. Macrostructure theory
  3.3. Features of an argumentation-centred TQA model
  3.4. Argument macrostructure
    3.4.1. Claim/discovery
    3.4.2. Grounds
    3.4.3. Warrant
    3.4.4. Backing
    3.4.5. Qualifier/modalizer
    3.4.6. Rebuttal/exception/restriction
    3.4.7. Example
    3.4.8. Generic framework
    3.4.9. Field dependency: typology of argument macrostructure elements
  3.4.10 Preliminary application of model
  3.4.11. Argument macrostructure vs. form of argument

Chapter 4
Methodology II: Rhetorical topology
  4.1. Elements of the topology
  4.2. Organizational relations
  4.3. Conjunctives and other inference indicators
    4.3.1. Causal conjunctives
    4.3.1.1. Example instrumental translation
    4.3.2. Adversative conjunctives
4.3.2.1. Example in instrumental translation 123
4.3.3. Additive conjunctives 124
4.3.3.1. Example in instrumental translation 125
4.3.4. Temporal conjunctives 126
4.3.4.1. Example in instrumental translation 128
4.3.5. Frequency and variety of conjunctives:
   a translation error case study 129
4.3.6. Other inference indicators 130

4.4. From inference indicators to propositional function 132

4.5. Types of argument 142
4.5.1. Overview 142
4.5.2. Definition 147
4.5.3. Comparison 150
4.5.4. Relationship 160
4.5.5. Circumstance 164
4.5.6. Testimony 165
4.5.7. Argument structure and TQA grid 166

4.6. Figures 170
4.6.1. Overview 170
4.6.2. Examples in instrumental translation 175
4.6.2.1. Metaphor 175
4.6.2.2. Metonymy 179
4.6.2.3. Synecdoche 181
4.6.2.3. Irony and other figures 183

4.7. Narrative strategy: argumentation strategy 185
4.7.1. Depersonalization 190
4.7.2. Qualifiers 194
4.7.3. Argument structure and TQA grid 195

Chapter 5
Methodology III: Defining major error, testing procedure,
 defining the quality standard, and anticipated results 200

5.1. Defining major error 200

5.2. Testing of hypotheses regarding textological model 204
5.2.1. Industry texts 204
5.2.2. Trainee-translator texts 207

5.3. Defining the translation quality standard 208
7.3.2. Assignment B
7.3.2.1. Text 10
7.3.2.2. Analysis
7.3.2.3. Preliminary observations
7.4. Full-text translation
7.4.1. Text 11
7.5. Student corpus: observations

Chapter 8
Reframing the model
8.1. Introduction
8.2. Comparative summary of results
8.3. Overall and parameter-specific TQA
8.3.1. Reiteration of Hypothesis 1 and General Objective 1
8.3.2. Findings
8.4. Comparison of ARTRAQ and quantitative TQA
8.4.1. Reiteration of hypotheses 2 and 3 and General Objective 2
8.4.2. Findings
8.5. Applicability to student translation assessment
8.5.1. Reiteration of Hypothesis 4 and General Objective 3
8.5.2. Findings
8.6. Refinements
8.6.1. Parameters and grid
8.6.2. Seriousness of error
8.6.3. Full-text assessment versus sampling
8.6.4. The revised model
8.6.5. Development of a rating scale

Chapter 9
Argumentation-centred TQA and development of a standard
9.1. Introduction
9.2. Norms and conventions
9.3. From norm to standard 416
9.4. Translation quality standard 420
9.5. Standard conflict and resolution 428

Conclusion 430
1. TQA model 431
2. Definition of error 435
3. Definition of translation quality standard 436

Bibliography 438
THE APPLICATION OF ARGUMENTATION THEORY TO TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT

The assessment of translator performance is an activity which, despite being widespread, is under-researched and under-discussed.

(Hatim and Mason 1997: 1997)

INTRODUCTION

Translation quality assessment (TQA) is not a new field of inquiry. Moreover, it has the distinction of being one that interests a broad range of practitioners, researchers and organizations, whether their focus is literary or instrumental (pragmatic) translation. Concern for excellence in literary translation or translation of the Scriptures dates back centuries. Quality in instrumental translation as a subject of discussion is a more recent phenomenon, but as far back as 1959, at a FIT international conference on quality in Paris, E. Cary and others were already debating the requirements of a good translation. More recently still, with the advent of globalization, the coming of age of translation as part of the language industries, and the concomitant emphasis on "total quality" and ISO certification in private industry at large, special issues of Circuit (1994) and Language International (1998) have been devoted to quality assurance processes, professional standards, and accreditation, and German and Italian standardization organizations have issued national translation standards.

The reasons for people’s interest in quality and TQA have, of course, evolved: where they were once primarily aesthetic, religious and political, they are now primarily pedagogical, administrative (e.g., evaluation of students) and economic and legal (e.g., predelivery quality control/assurance; postdelivery evaluation to ensure that terms of contract have been met by supplier). Hönig spells out why various groups need TQA:
Users need it because they want to know whether they can trust the translators and rely on the quality of their products.

Professional translators need it because there are so many amateur translators who work for very little money that professional translators will only be able to sell their products if there is some proof of the superior quality of their work.

Translatological research needs it because if it does not want to become academic and marginal in the eyes of practising translators it must establish criteria for quality control and assessment.

Trainee translators need it because otherwise they will not know how to systematically improve the quality of their work. (1994: 15)

In short, the relevance of, and justification for, TQA is stronger than ever. Yet whereas there is general agreement about the requirement for a translation to be "good," "satisfactory" or "acceptable," the definition of acceptability and of the means of determining it are matters of ongoing debate and there is precious little agreement on specifics. National translation standards may exist but, as the organizers of a 1999 conference on translation quality in Leipzig noted,

there are no generally accepted objective criteria for evaluating the quality both of translations and of interpreting performance. Even the latest national and international standards in this area—DIN 2345 and the ISO-9000 series—do not regulate the evaluation of translation quality in a particular context. [...] The result is assessment chaos. [Our emphasis]

(Institut für Angewandte Linguistik und Translatologie: 1999)
What are the problems and issues that stand in the way of consensus and coherence in TQA? What do practitioners and theorists disagree about?

(a) Subject field and research interest
Many TQA models have been developed with literary, advertising and journalistic translation in mind. The principles underlying them do not necessarily apply to other types of instrumental translation.

Furthermore, the focus of the designers of a number of models has been on highlighting cultural differences reflected in translations and in showing how high-quality translation may be "literal" or "free," depending on the cultural and linguistic constraints involved. Discussion of errors caused by other factors (inadequate linguistic or encyclopedic knowledge, failure to use context) is overshadowed by their interest in cultural issues of translation.

(b) Deadlines
The time constraints imposed on the translator may be such, or may be claimed to be such, that application of a uniform quality standard is deemed unjustified. Furthermore, the "deadline" parameter is often the prime indicator of "quality" for many clients.

(c) Difficulty of source text
Translators, particularly those in the scientific and technical fields, often complain that assessment of their work has not been sufficiently weighted to account for the difficulty of the source text. But how do you establish the level of difficulty of a text? Scientific and technical concepts and terms are not the only causes of difficulty.

(d) The evaluator
Another contentious issue is the competence of the evaluator to assess a given translation. Does the person have the linguistic or subject-field knowledge required? The client, whose knowledge may be limited, inevitably evaluates the finished product too. Indeed, the client's assessment
may be the only one. Further, a number of translation researchers, including Höög and other functionalists, Dyson (1994) and Kingscott (1996), have implicitly or explicitly given precedence to the reader's response or requirements, not the translator's definition of an adequate translation, as the yardstick for gauging quality.

(e) Adaptation to end user
The translation service's notion of quality may not match the requirements of the client/end user/reader, particularly regarding style, vocabulary and level of language. For example, the use of standard French, or "le français universel," might well be considered inappropriate in a text for technicians with the Canadian Armed Forces, yet the standard-language translation could still be rated satisfactory in vacuo, without consideration for the end user's sociolect.

(f) Level of target language rigour
Perhaps the most contentious issue in TQA is the lack of uniformity in assessment of language errors. Elegant style is considered essential by some evaluators, but not by others. Some evaluators consider typos and spelling and punctuation errors to be peccadillos and ignore them in their overall assessment, while others will regard them as serious because they are precisely the errors that the client/end user will detect. Scientific and technical translators often contend that negative assessments of their work based on language errors do not reflect the true quality requirements of their field. In short, the personal preferences, or the idiolect, of the evaluator may impinge on the objectivity of the assessment process.

The issue of the standard written language is relevant here too. A cursory perusal of recent issues of leading journals on the English language suffices to show how writing about the problem of standard spoken English has become an industry in itself. Yet, on the matter of the written language, a contributor to the first issue of English Today in the new millennium concluded that guides to good writing "did not address the question of an international written standard English"
(Gaskell 2000: 49). So the following questions remain relevant today: Is there a standard written English? What are its rules and conventions? Who writes it? What is the status of other written Englishes? If the standard is unstable, the assessment of language error in an era of trade globalization and internalization of the English language becomes a risky exercise.

(g) **Seriousness of errors of transfer**
The same inconsistency is apparent in the assessment of level of accuracy. Some evaluators will ignore minor shifts in meaning if the core message is preserved in the translation, while others will insist on total "fidelity," even if an omission of a concept at one point is offset by its inclusion elsewhere in the text. It is the issues mentioned here and in (f) that have provoked the most intense debate, even outcry, over the validity, reliability and usefulness of TQA and have engendered accusations of subjectivity on a regular basis.

(h) **Sampling versus full-text analysis**
TQA has traditionally been based on intensive error detection and analysis and has therefore required a considerable investment in human resources. It takes time. One means of obviating the problem has been sampling—the analysis of samples of translations rather than of whole texts. Yet this approach has shortcomings. First, as mentioned above, the evaluator may not take into account any "compensatory" efforts that the translator has made in unsampled parts of the text. Second, the evaluator may not have taken into account the co-text in order to grasp the meaning of the text as a whole. Third, not only may the evaluator do an injustice to the translator and the translation because he has not absorbed the whole text, but he may also overrate the translation. This, in Daniel Gouadec’s opinion, is what makes the validity of sampling for TQA purposes debatable: "There is always a risk that the most serious errors may lie outside the samples. This is especially true of the work of established translators, who are capable of dramatic, uncontrolled deviations from the meaning of the source text" […] il reste toujours un risque que les erreurs les plus lourdes échappent à l’échantillonnage. Ceci est particulièrement vrai pour les traducteurs confirmés qui demeurent susceptibles de dérapages mal contrôlés mais fulgurants] (1989: 56).
We would also contend that analysis of samples inevitably encourages a microtextual, even subsentence approach to TQA and that, as a result, problems of overall logic, coherence and cohesion in the translation cannot be systematically detected.

(i) Quantification of quality
Microtextual analysis of samples has been used extensively not only because it saves time but also because it provides error counts as a justification for a negative assessment. Translation services and teachers of translation alike have developed TQA grids with several quality levels, or grades, based on the number of errors in a short text. It is felt that quantification lends objectivity to the assessment. The problem lies with the borderline cases. Assuming that, in order to be user-friendly, such a grid does not allow for many levels of seriousness of error, it is quite possible for a translation containing one more error than the maximum allowed to be as good as, if not better than, another translation that contains exactly the maximum number of errors allowed and yet be rated unsatisfactory.

(ii) Levels of seriousness of error
One way to circumvent the drawbacks of quantification is to grade errors by seriousness: critical/major, minor, weakness, etc. The problem then is to seek a consensus on what constitutes a major, as opposed to a minor, error. For example, an error in translating numerals may be considered critical by some, particularly in financial, scientific or technical material, yet others will claim that the client or end user will recognize the slip-up and automatically correct it in the process of reading.

(k) Multiple levels of assessment
Darbelnet (1977: 16) identifies no fewer than nine levels, or parameters, at or against which the quality of a translation should be assessed: accuracy of individual translation units; accuracy of translation as a whole; idiomaticity; correctness of target language; tone; cultural differences;
literary and other artistic allusions; implicit intentions of author; adaptation to end user. Other models provide for an assessment for accuracy, target language quality and format (appearance of text).

The problem is this: Assuming you can make a fair assessment of each parameter, how do you then generate an overall quality rating for the translation?

(1) TQA purpose/function

The required characteristics of a TQA tool built for formative assessment in a university context may differ significantly from one developed for predelivery quality control by a translation supplier. According to Hatim and Mason, "Even within what has been published on the subject of evaluation, one must distinguish between the activities of assessing the quality of translations [...] translation criticism and translation quality control on the one hand and those of assessing performance on the other" (1997: 199).

Within the industry itself, the characteristics of a scheme designed to assure quality before delivery to the customer may be different from one developed for cyclical quality audits by a central auditing agency. Within training institutions, the characteristics of a TQA scheme may vary depending on whether the purpose is formative assessment (to provide feedback in support of the learning process) or summative evaluation (to provide evidence of translation competence in order for a student to be awarded certification, pass a course, etc.).

Clearly, "the devil is in the detail." It is not surprising that it has proved impossible to establish a quality standard that meets all requirements and can be used to assess specific translations. Hence, as noted above, DIN 2345 follows in the footsteps of the ISO 9000 series, erring on the side of caution and proposing guidelines for quality control. It does not establish a standard of acceptability or levels of quality, nor does it provide a TQA tool. The search for translation quality standards and measurement tools modelled on ISO quality standards and methods of industrial quality control is a worthwhile endeavour because it responds to the need for
objectivity (through precise measurement and quantification) and for instruments that will enjoy widespread approval. However, a translation is an intellectual product and, as such, is a complex, heterogeneous one, not a physical unit, a piece of software or hardware, each part of which can be replicated exactly by a machine thousands of times. This is why TQA has proven to be so difficult and why TQA models have so many detractors.

The problems are legion. Our purpose here is not to attempt to resolve them all. Our main interest is in issues (f) to (j): sampling, quantification and the level of seriousness of error. The TQA models that have actually been put into practice in the translation industry are microtextual: they are applied to short passages of texts (e.g., Canadian Government Translation Bureau, Council of Translators and Interpreters of Canada). While this fact does not prevent the evaluator from detecting shortcomings and strong points in that text, microtextual models are not designed to assess each passage as an integral part of a whole, to take account of the fact that the translation of the short passage is, in principle at least, determined in part by, and in its turn influences, the text as a whole, or to evaluate the logic and coherence within the sample passage itself. A number of researchers, including House and Larose, have proposed elements of discourse analysis as a means of bridging the gap between, on the one hand, the microtextual approach of professional TQA systems and, on the other hand, the theoretical and practical need to enhance TQA validity and reliability by integrating a macrotextual, discourse (textological or text-linguistic) perspective, along with relevant aspects of pragmatics, into the assessment process. However, models of this type have not been fully developed and tested on instrumental translations; they have generally been applied to journalistic and literary documents in a student-training context.

Thus the first and prime goal of this project is to explore the application of elements of discourse analysis to TQA and to develop an assessment framework to complement existing microtextual schemes, with specific reference to instrumental translation in a production as well as a training context.
Second, we will try to show how the application of discourse analysis to TQA can serve to remove some of the subjectivity and randomness from decisions on the acceptability of translations. As stated above, the challenge of setting and defining levels of acceptable and unacceptable quality and determining the acceptability threshold—the level of tolerance of errors—is a daunting one. Whatever criteria and factors quality is judged against, TQA models can generally demonstrate convincingly that a translation is very good or very bad. However, the hardest, and perhaps the most interesting, part of the evaluator’s task is deciding on the borderline cases, because a grade based only on the number of errors may not be a fair reflection of translation quality. Our arguments here will focus on the relationship between level of seriousness of error and full-text analysis.

Third, the definition of acceptability threshold leads us to that of the translation quality standard itself. Only recently has there been any discussion in translation studies of what exactly translation quality standards are. For example, Nord and Chesterman have developed a concept of translation "norms" on the basis of theories of linguistic and social norms proposed by linguists and philosophers. But how does the broad concept of a translation norm fit in with the more practical features of a TQA scheme? Does the current mantra of "zero defects" suffice to constitute one’s quality standard? Or can discourse analysis provide us with a more precise standard without exposing us to the perils of quantification? What is the basis for, and what are the characteristics of, a translation quality standard? These are important questions, particularly since the development of translation as an industry has legal ramifications such as financial penalties for nonperformance of contracts and disqualification of translators. On the basis of the model to be developed and the results of testing of that model, we will explore and exploit any potential for defining a textological translation quality standard, with reference, among other things, to ISO standards and certification.

Fourth, the development or refinement of a textological TQA framework could be a valuable contribution not only to professional TQA but also to the arsenal of tools available to trainers in industry and at university. Many "serious" errors committed by trainees may be the result not of
shortcomings in linguistic knowledge but of a failure to make a logical connection between microtext and macrotext or between surface meaning and implied meaning. We therefore intend to test the model as a tool not only for assessing trainee performance but also for characterizing and explaining shortcomings and integrating a textological approach into the training process. In other words, the focus will be the etiology of the translation error from a discourse analysis perspective.

The project is thus an ambitious one. Referring to the assessment typology matrix developed by Martinez Melis (2001), we can say that the material below covers two of the three broad areas of translation activity: professional translation and translation teaching. We can also say that the object of the study is both professional translator competence and student translator competence and that, in both cases, the type of assessment will be that of the product, not the process. The function of the planned assessment model will be both summative and formative: it will serve not only to assess the quality of product and thereby translator (including trainee translator) competence for administrative purposes but also to explain error and identify areas for improvement. In this context, the model should serve as a tool for assessment as a means of learning, as proposed recently by Canadian educational theorists:

Quality assessment is the provision of accurate information about student learning regarding specific expectations that is manageable, understandable and effective. Simply stated, quality assessment involves assessing an area of learning in a manner that improves student learning and teaching. (Harper et al. 1999: 19)

The challenge is daunting: the model must ensure at one and the same time accuracy, effectiveness and user-friendliness. As such, the aims of the model will be both economic-professional and academic-pedagogical. Finally, the model will incorporate assessment/evaluation criteria and grading scales as means of conducting TQA. To a certain extent, it will also include a
correcting scale, in that the parameters for textological TQA will have to be identified and thus "textological" error types defined. This will open the door to exploring the model's potential as a docimological tool, i.e., for testing and examinations.
TQA Terminology

In light of the foregoing, it is clear that consistency and uniformity are of paramount importance if progress is to be made in TQA. As a first step in that direction, we propose to use established quality measurement and assessment terminology where relevant and acceptable. Here are some of the important TQA-related terms. An asterisk denotes a term and a definition taken from ISO 9000 standards. An underlined term in a definition is one that is itself defined in this section.

*Accuracy of measurement
Closeness of the agreement between the result of a measurement and the (conventional) true value of the measurand.

Assessment (in education)
Task of gathering information about student performance using a variety of tools and techniques (Harper et al. 1999: 179).

Authentic (test, in educational assessment)
Faithfully representing the contexts facing workers in a field of study or the real-life “tests” of adult life, involving tasks that are either replicas of or analogous to the kinds of problems faced by adult citizens or consumers or professionals in the field, requiring the student to produce a quality product and/or performance, and marked on the basis of transparent or demystified criteria and standards (Wiggins 1993: 229).

Backing
Overarching principle, law or value without which a warrant would possess neither authority nor currency (Toulmin 1964:103).
Claim (discovery)
Conclusion whose merits a writer or speaker is seeking to establish (Toulmin 1964: 97).

Coherence
Property of a text or utterance created by the logical, semantic and syntactic interdependence of its constituent elements. In contrast to cohesion, which relates to language, coherence relates to conceptual interrelatedness within the text (Delisle et al. 1999: 124).

Continuity of the meaning of a text from one idea to another and plausibility of such meaning (Brunette 2000: 175).

Cohesion
Linguistic property of a text or utterance created by grammatical and linking words used to connect words within a sentence or sentences with each other (Delisle et al. 1999: 124).

*Conformity
Achievement of specified requirements.

Context
Non-linguistic circumstances surrounding the production of the discourse to be assessed. For assessors of general or pragmatic texts, these circumstances include the end user of the target text (in its relation to that of the source text), the position of the end user, the author [...], the time and place in which the translation will be used, the life span of the translated text, the text type, the medium used to disseminate the text, the social situation (e.g., multilingualism) and ideological circumstances (e.g., political) surrounding production of the target text (Brunette 2000: 178-79).
Co-text
The text to which a sample is attached.

Criterion-referenced assessment
A type of measure that does not compare individuals within a specific population but measures achievement against specific, distinguishable criteria (Harper et al. 1999: 22).

*Defect
Nonfulfilment of an intended usage requirement or reasonable expectation [...].

Diagnostic assessment (in education)
Means used to determine what students know and can do and providing direction for planning instruction based on strengths and areas of difficulty (Harper et al. 1999: 20).

Discourse
A connected series of utterances or a text (Delisle et al. 1999: 135).

Evaluation (in education)
Integration of information from a variety of sources and placing of a judgment of “value” on that information (Harper et al. 1999: 179).

Evaluation (in translation)
Placing of a value on a translation, i.e., awarding a mark (McAleester 2000: 231). Determination of the quality of a translation or a check after the fact for management purposes. A rating is assigned (Brunette 2000, 173).

Formative assessment
Monitoring learning and providing ongoing feedback on instructional effectiveness and student progress (Harper et al. 1999: 20-21).
**Generalizability**

Degree to which information collected on an assessment can be expanded to a wider domain. For example, if a student does well on one translation test, can one conclude accurately that the student “knows how to translate”? Since individuals usually cannot be assessed on a whole domain, samples of performance provide the basis for generalizability (Harper et al. 1999: 54).

*Grade*

Category or rank given to entities having the same functional use but different requirements for quality.

"Grade" reflects a planned or recognized difference in requirements for quality. The emphasis is on the functional use and cost relationship. A high-grade entity can be of unsatisfactory quality and vice versa.

**Grading**

Symbolic representation of the evaluative judgment (Harper et al. 1999: 179).

**Grounds**

Information, matters of common knowledge, well-known truisms or commonsense observations presented in support of a claim or assertion (Toulmin 1964: 97).

**Instrumental translation**

Text designed for utilitarian communication, of generally immediate, short-term use, which imparts some information of a general nature or specific to a domain, and for which aesthetics play a very secondary role (Delisle et al. 1999: 169). For the purposes of this study, excludes translation of literature, religious works and philosophy. Also known as pragmatic translation.

**Language error**

An error that occurs in the target text and can be ascribed to a lack of knowledge of the target language or of its use (Delisle et al. 1999: 150).
*Measurand
A quantity subjected to measurement.

*Measurement
The set of operations having the object of determining the value of a quantity.

*Measuring instrument
Device intended to make a measurement, alone or in conjunction with supplementary devices.

*Model for quality assurance
Standardized set of quality system requirements combined to satisfy the quality assurance needs of a given situation.

*Nonconformity
Non-attainment of specified requirements.

Norm-referenced assessment
Type of measure that is “normed” or compares individuals within a specific population. It measures differences between the individuals being assessed (Harper et al. 1999: 22).

Performance assessment
Examination of students’ ability to solve problems or perform tasks that closely resemble authentic situations (Harper et al. 1999: 23).

Qualifier
Linguistic element that enhances or mitigates the force of an argument (Toulmin 1964: 100-101).
*Quality

Totality of characteristics of an entity that bear on its ability to satisfy stated and implied needs. The term "quality" should not be used as a single term to express a degree of excellence in a comparative sense, nor should it be used in a quantitative sense for technical evaluations. To express these two things, a qualifying adjective should be used, e.g.,

relative quality, where entities are ranked on a relative basis in the degree of excellence or comparative sense (not to be confused with "grade").

quality level, in a quantitative sense (as used in acceptance sampling)

In some references, quality is referred to as "fitness for use" or "fitness for purpose" or "customer satisfaction" or "conformance to the requirements." These represent only certain facets of quality [...].

Quality assessment (in education)

Provision of accurate information about student learning regarding specific expectations that is manageable, understandable and effective. Simply stated, quality assessment involves assessing an area of learning in a manner that improves student learning and teaching (Harper et al. 1999: 19).

*Quality assurance

All the planned and systematic activities implemented within the quality system, and demonstrated as needed, to give adequate confidence that an entity will fulfil the requirements for quality.

*Quality control

Operational techniques and activities that are used to fulfil requirements for quality. Quality control involves operational techniques and activities aimed both at monitoring a process and at
eliminating causes of unsatisfactory performance at all stages of the quality loop in order to achieve economic effectiveness.

**Quality control (in translation)**

Verification to ensure that the product to be delivered or already delivered complies with requirements, language norms and established criteria, with the ultimate goal of saving time and resources. The quality control of a translation can range from a partial monolingual reading to a bilingual reading of samples (Brunette 2000: 173).

**Quality measure**

Level of quality, where precise technical evaluations are carried out.

**Quality system**

Totality of organizational structure, procedures, processes and resources needed to implement quality management.

**Rating**

Symbolic representation of, or descriptive label or numerical value for, a level of quality.

**Rebuttal (restriction)**

Statement indicating circumstances in which the general authority of the warrant of an argument would have to be set aside (Toulmin 1964: 101).

**Reliability**

Extent to which an assessment produces the same results when repeatedly administered to the same population under the same conditions (Harper et al. 1999: 51).

A TQA system is reliable if the evaluator's decisions are consistent and if the assessment/evaluation criteria are stable. Verification of reliability would involve a search for
defects in the measurement procedures themselves, defects that could lead to biases or undue variations in TQA findings over a period of time. For TQA purposes, are procedures in place to ensure that the evaluators do not fluctuate between excessive rigour and extreme flexibility? Are requirements for quality clearly enough defined for decisions on borderline cases to be made with consistency and ample justification? Is the TQA expert always objective? (Williams 1989: 15).

*Requirements for quality

Expression of the needs or their translation into a set of quantitatively or qualitatively stated requirements for the characteristics of an entity to enable implementation and examination.

It is crucial that the requirements for quality fully reflect the stated and implied needs of the customer.

The term "requirements" covers commercialized and contractual as well as an organization's internal requirements. They may be developed, detailed and updated at various planning stages. [...]

Requirements for quality should be expressed in functional terms and be documented.

*Requirements for society

Obligations resulting from laws, regulations, rules, codes, statutes and other considerations.

Source language

The language from which a translation is made (Delisle et al. 1999: 180).

Source text

The text on which a translation is based (Delisle et al. 1999: 181).
*Stability
Ability of measuring instrument to maintain constant its measurement characteristics with time.

Standard
A document, established by consensus and approved by a recognized body, that provides for common and repeated use, rules, guidelines or characteristics for activities or their results, aimed at the achievement of the optimum degree of order in a given context (Delisle et al. 1999: 182).

Standards-referenced assessment (in education)
Version of criterion-referenced assessment, in which there is less emphasis on the specification and analysis involved in describing and assessing criteria for performance. It relies on verbal descriptions and exemplars (typical of designated levels of performance) to help specify standards that designate levels of quality in performance (Harper et al. 1999: 22).

Summative assessment/evaluation (in education)
Process usually conducted at the end of a period of instruction or term to provide feedback about progress and achievement, often resulting in the assigning of marks, and informing decision making around appropriate placement, program or status for students (Harper et al. 1999: 21).

Target language
The language in which the text is written (Delisle et al. 1999: 184).

Target text
Any text that is the product of translation activity (Delisle et al. 1999: 185).

Test (vs. assessment)
An instrument or a measuring device, in contrast to an assessment. It is a standardized procedure for eliciting the kind of behaviour we want to observe and measure. A test, be it performance or
otherwise, yields a score. An assessment yields a more comprehensive judgment about the meaning of a score or performance (Harper et al. 1999: 15).

Text
A written document of variable length that constitutes a whole when viewed from a semantic perspective (Delisle et al. 1999: 187).

Translation error
Any fault occurring in the target text, ascribable either to ignorance or to inadequate application of translation principles, rules or procedures, and resulting from the misinterpretation of a source text segment or methodological error (Delisle et al. 1999: 189).

Validity
In education, the extent to which an assessment measures what it is designed to measure. There are several types of assessment validity, including the following:

Construct validity—whether an assessment adequately measures the underlying skill (construct) being measured;
Concurrent validity—whether the assessment gives substantially the same results as another test of the same skill;
Content validity—whether an assessment covers the skills necessary for performance, e.g., whether the content of a translation test is an appropriate sample of the content of the course;

In philosophy, validity also refers to the degree of support that evidence gives for a given claim or the degree of justification or explanation that reasons provide for a conclusion, assuming that the evidence or reasons are true (Thomas 1986: 135). Thus the validity of an assessment of the quality of a translation would depend on the degree to which the evidence (seriousness and/or
number of errors detected) supports the rating given, assuming that the assessment of individual error is accurate. Thomas defines "moderate" and "strong" degrees of validity as follows:

Moderate. If the reasons are true, they do not establish the truth of the conclusion, but they make it "a good bet"; however, more would be required to establish the conclusion beyond any reasonable doubt. Example: It is "a good bet" that a 400-word translation containing 15 errors is of unsatisfactory quality and cannot be delivered without revision, but a determination of the seriousness of the errors is required to put the issue beyond doubt.

Strong. If the reasons are true, they make the truth of the conclusion extremely likely, certain beyond any reasonable doubt. Example: If, in the same translation, one or more errors prevent the target-language reader from understanding the central message of the source text, the translation may be deemed unsatisfactory beyond any reasonable doubt.

In translation, validity refers to the degree to which TQA findings permit inferences about the target population (the whole text or a corpus). TQA validity is the extent to which the translation samples evaluated are representative of the whole translation, the translator or the service and the degree to which the evaluator is then able to make judgments about the level of quality, the strong points and the weak points of the entity concerned on the basis of those samples (Williams 1989: 16). For purposes of translation teaching, the construct validity (adequate measurement of underlying skills) and predictive validity (adequate measure of future performance) of the proposed model will be of particular interest.

Our goal is to develop a model in which error is defined, in terms of seriousness and/or quantity, in such a way that the overall judgment (conclusion) on the quality of the translation may be considered accurate beyond any reasonable doubt.
Our contention will be that a textological approach to TQA will generate a strong degree of validity and support for overall judgments, or at least a stronger degree of validity than do existing approaches.

Warrant

Rules or principles authorizing the step from grounds to claims in an argument (Toulmin 1964: 98).
PART I

Review of the Literature, Hypotheses and Methodology
Chapter One

The Present State of TQA: A Review of the Literature

We will divide our review of the literature into two parts: (1) existing and proposed TQA approaches; (2) investigations and definitions of translation standards or norms.

1.1. Existing TQA approaches

Existing TQA models, whether they have actually been put into practice or have merely been proposed, all have one feature in common: categorization of errors lies at the heart of each approach. That being said, their concept of categorization differs, according to whether or not they incorporate quantitative measurement, and they can be divided into two schools on that basis.

1.1.1 Models with a quantitative dimension

1.1.1.1. The Canadian Language Quality Measurement System (Sical), the TQA model developed by the Canadian government’s Translation Bureau, is the best known one, at least on the Canadian scene. It was developed both as an examination tool and to help the Bureau to assess the quality of the 300 million words of instrumental translation it delivered yearly. Initially based on a very detailed categorization of errors—over one hundred types were identified and could be assessed by evaluators—Sical had evolved by 1986 into a scheme based on the quantification of errors and on a twofold distinction between (1) transfer and language errors and (2) major and minor errors. In this third-generation Sical, texts were judged to be of superior, fully acceptable, revisable, or unacceptable quality depending on the number of major and minor errors in a 400-word passage:
The grid was designed for all TQA activities. In the case of contractors' work, quality controllers could give one of two ratings: satisfactory (Sical A and B) or unsatisfactory (Sical C and D). However, the individual manager in Bureau operations could set a more specific qualitative requirement: for example, no more than 6 minor errors in 400 words. In addition, a slight modification was permitted for recruitment examinations: a D+ rating (<3 major/ <25 minor errors) was considered a pass, but here too the hiring manager could set a more stringent requirement.

A significant difference between Sical III and its predecessors was the fact that consequence of error for the client was now a determining factor in assessing errors, specifically in characterizing an error as major and thereby giving the translation an "unsatisfactory" rating. The major error was defined as follows:

Translation: Complete failure to render the meaning of a word or passage that contains an essential element of the message; also, mistranslation resulting in a contradiction of or significant departure from the meaning of an essential element of the message.
Language: Incomprehensible, grossly incorrect language or rudimentary error in an essential element of the message. (Williams 1989: 26)

The key word is *essential*. It was left up to the quality controller to determine whether an essential element of the message was at issue.

Another significant difference was that, in order to increase the number of "officially" satisfactory translations, the maximum number of minor errors in a fully acceptable product was changed from 8 to 12. Furthermore, to help evaluators (known as quality controllers) in translation service points to assess the quality of contractors' work, the Bureau's central evaluation service issued guidelines on how to assess and characterize errors. The objective was twofold. First, the guidelines were designed to help the quality controllers to justify their assessments in dealings with contractors by using a more precise terminology than vague words such as "meaning," "idiom," "syntax" and "language." Second, they were supposed to promote moderation in TQA. If the nature of a given weakness could not be precisely defined, the controller should refrain from counting it as an error.

In theory, then, a fully acceptable translation of 400 words could contain as many as 12 errors of transfer. However, the designers of Sical III predicated the lowering of the tolerance level on the statistical probability that a translation with 12 such errors would also contain at least one major error.

The typology of errors established in this context—a typology modelled on that of Horguelin (1978)—is indicative of the fact that the quality system by and large focussed on the word and the sentence, not on the text as a whole. Larose sums up the approach as follows:

The Sical grid is based mainly on the syntactic and semantic aspects of the text, not on its discursive dimension, which lies beyond the statement and between statements. [La
grille Sical porte principalement sur les aspects syntaxique et sémantique des textes. Elle n’est pas axée principalement sur leur dimension discursive, c’est-à-dire ce qui est au-delà de la proposition et entre les propositions]. (Larose 1998: 175)

Issues of coherence and cohesion are not apparent in the guidelines, even though the primacy of consequence of error and the relationship of major error to text message and recognition of the importance of adapting material to the reader would seem to open the door for a discursive, or textological, approach.

For purposes of recruitment and promotion examinations, evaluators could prepare source texts of 400 words or multiples thereof. For the purpose of assessing the quality of professional translators’ work before delivery to the client (quality assurance or control) or after (evaluation), evaluators were required to select one or more representative 400-word samples of texts. Thus the essential or nonessential nature of a word or passage was necessarily determined on the basis of the word or sample, not the text as a whole.

Notwithstanding the good judgment and competence of the evaluators and quality controllers involved and the greater flexibility and precision afforded by Sical III, the application of a quantified standard continued to spark debate and dissatisfaction among translators inside and outside the Bureau. Working conditions, deadlines, level of difficulty of the source text and the "overassessment" of target language errors were regularly cited by opponents of the Sical-based quality system.

The year 1994 signalled a major shift in the Translation Bureau’s approach to TQA. Implicit in the application of Sical and the quantification of errors was recognition of the fact that translations assessed as deliverable contained errors—officially as many as 12. Since the Bureau was to enter into direct competition with the private sector in 1995, management concluded that a "total quality" approach was necessary. Thenceforth "zero defects" was the order of the day; the Bureau was committed to delivering error-free translations to its clients. There was no longer
any question of a tolerance threshold and of determining whether that threshold had been
crossed in one or more samples. The quality of contractors' work is still vetted by sampling, but
a quantified tolerance level is no more and translations should, in principle, be examined in their
entirety before delivery. Sical continues to be used for examinations as well as for predelivery
and performance assessment purposes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY ELEMENTS OF SICAL</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of TQA: standards-referenced</td>
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<tr>
<td>Error analysis: microtextual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text length: sample of 400 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of measurement: quantitative</td>
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<tr>
<td>Model demonstrated: yes</td>
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In general, other translation organizations in Canada have adopted Sical or adapted it to their
specific circumstances and requirements.

1.1.1.2. The Council of Translators and Interpreters of Canada (CTIC), for example, uses a
comparable model for its translator certification examinations, except that "no single repeated
error will be considered sufficient to fail a candidate" (CTIC 2001: 2.2). Each type of error is
given a quantitative value (-10, -5, -3) and the total of the values of errors in the candidate's
paper is subtracted from 100: the candidate with an average of 70% or higher in two translations
of about 175 words each passes. Unlike Sical, the definition of major and minor error does not
relate error to an essential part of the message:

Translation (comprehension)

Major mistakes, e.g., serious mistranslation denoting a definite lack in comprehension of
the source language, nonsense, omission of a phrase or more
Language (expression)

Major mistakes, e.g., gibberish, unacceptable structure

Thus it is fair to say that the definition of major error under both Sical and CTIC leaves considerable room for judgment and, some would contend, subjectivity on the part of the evaluator.

1.1.1.3. The Ontario Government Translation Services (GTS) revised their quality assessment procedures in 2000. The Ontario government contracts out most of its translation work, and contractors’ drafts are assessed by a group of experienced in-house translators (called coordinators) before delivery to the client ministries and agencies. Their assessments are used to give clients an indication of individual translation quality and of any need for revision as well as to update a database on contractor performance.

The revised procedures combine a sampling, Sical-based approach with other considerations, and they include the following steps for evaluation of the individual translation:

- do visual verification (e.g., titles, index, sections, paragraphs, format, layout, font)
- spot-check target text/quick read through whole text for problems
- select sample(s) for analysis; closely compare source and target texts for message accuracy (number of samples consistent with length of text, i.e., approximately 400 words minimum or between 5 and 10% of text)
- identify translation and language errors (use Sical for documentation and justification purposes) and record on supplier evaluation sheet
- for borderline unsatisfactory cases, take another sample from same text and assess
- record assessment of absolute quality rating [...] 
- taking context into account, determine relative quality rating and record overall assessment of job on supplier evaluation sheet
where 2nd/3rd samples confirm a poor assessment, co-ordinator can report results to translation centre [of client] for possible revision/editing of text [...] (GTS 2000: 1)

Note that the whole target text must be read through to identify potential problems but that no criteria are given for sample selection. Note also that a distinction is made between absolute and relative quality ratings. In establishing the relative rating, the co-ordinator is to consider a number of external factors: tight deadline (inability to check terminology and clarify problems), highly technical text (limited number of suppliers, limited circulation), background material and/or contact person unavailable, purpose of text, target readership, end use (publication, internal distribution) (2000: 3).

Note also that, in applying Sical, the co-ordinator is required to treat errors of transfer (translation) and target language errors separately. The detailed analysis procedure includes the following steps for transfer:

- using Sical, identify major and minor errors
- identify as major errors only those that seriously impede the main message
- consider major errors of language that impede an understanding of the meaning of the text as translation errors (major or minor, depending on impact)
- note failure to use official terminology (official titles) and program terminology separately

For language, only one step is listed:
- using Sical, identify major and minor language errors (2000: 2)

Note that major language errors are recharacterized as (possibly major) transfer errors and that no definition of "seriously impede" or "main message" is offered—it is presumably left to the co-ordinator’s discretion.
The co-ordinator must then use the results of the analysis to make separate overall assessments of "quality of translation" and "quality of language used, style of text" without reference to context. For transfer of meaning, the co-ordinator must

• make assessment reflect accuracy and understanding of the message
• use number of transfer errors and significance of identified errors or lack thereof to determine the absolute quality of work
• consider usability of whole text, existing translation errors notwithstanding
• guideline: a short text containing a 400-word sample with more than 5 minor errors or 1 major error could be considered unusable without revision (at evaluator's discretion); total length of document should be considered

For language quality, the co-ordinator must

• make assessment reflect the quality of language and style [...]  
• use number of language errors or lack thereof to determine quality of work (total length of document should be considered)
• consider choice of diction, syntax/structure, level of language, coherence of overall text, etc. (2000: 2-3)

The co-ordinator must also determine whether the delivery deadline was met and assess quality of layout and appearance before making a combined overall assessment covering all four factors (transfer, language, deadline and layout/appearance) and taking the context into account.

Note once again that much is left to the discretion and experience of the co-ordinator/evaluator: for example, how to determine usability notwithstanding errors and how to pool the four overall assessments into one. Furthermore, at a technical level, one might question whether coherence is a feature of language rather than transfer. Finally, there is no explanation for the approximate
quantitative value of the "usable" text (no more than 5 minor/1 major translation errors) as a replacement for Sical A and B and no clear indication as to whether the same value also applies to language errors.

The co-ordinator expresses the context-based, combined overall rating for the individual translation both descriptively and as a percentage. It is the percentage that is entered in the database of suppliers, which is designed to help clients select appropriate contractors.

90–100% Superior
80–89% Very satisfactory
70-79% Satisfactory
60-69% Unsatisfactory
0-59% Very unsatisfactory (2000: 6)

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<tr>
<th>KEY ELEMENTS OF GTS PROCEDURES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of TQA: standards-referenced</td>
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<tr>
<td>Error analysis: microtextual</td>
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<tr>
<td>Text length: samples of 400 words</td>
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<tr>
<td>Type of measurement: quantitative</td>
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<td>Model demonstrated: yes</td>
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1.1.1.4. The Système d’évaluation positive des traductions (SEPT) was developed for the Translation Bureau by Daniel Gouadec in the late seventies, but it was never put into practice, probably because of its complexity: SEPT is based on 675 parameters, requiring a great number of linguistic and statistical operations and judgments on the part of the evaluator.
SEPT is complex because it is perhaps the most comprehensive TQA model devised so far. For example, it is designed to take the level of difficulty of the source text and any particularly good translation solutions into account in establishing the quality level of the translation. It is designed to ensure the objectivity of the TQA process even more firmly than Sical. "Instead of the evaluator having to determine the seriousness of errors each time," writes Gouadec, "the system has to do it" [Au lieu qu’il appartienne à l’auteur de l’évaluation de peser à chaque fois la gravité des erreurs, c’est au système qu’il revient de fixer cette gravité] (1979: 3). His aim is to provide a "neutral" system that would control ("prendre en charge") the evaluator and, through linguistic analysis and statistics, determine the source, nature and effect of each error.

Gouadec maintains that the traditional categorization of errors such as major mistranslation, minor mistranslation, shift in meaning and ambiguity may be appropriate for revision but is inadequate for quality control, particularly in a training context. He recognizes that errors can be microtextual and/or macrotextual: they can be linguistic (formal), semantic (affecting the sentence) and contextual (affecting the content of the text). By means of identifying and weighting translation units, Gouadec incorporates into his system a measurement of the degree of difficulty of the source text, which evaluators take into consideration in rating the target text. A specific number of "penalty" points are assessed for each type of error, and the total number of points is subtracted from 100 to give an initial percentage score, which may be revised upwards following another set of calculations reflecting source text difficulty and bonus points for strong points in the translation. Percentage ranges correspond to specific Sical II quality levels.

For Gouadec, the translation unit, or TU (Gouadec, SEPT: 28), varies in length from one text to another: it may be the whole text or just a part of a clause. For practical TQA purposes, he favours a TU composed of the word combined with any other elements forming a syntactic unit, plus any syntactic or lexical network in the text of which it is a part—a concept paralleling that of the isotopy exploited by Greimas (1969) and others. As a result, the formal, semantic and contextual aspects of the unit can be assessed and, in particular, its impact on and role in the text as whole evaluated.
In a subsequent work (1989), Gouadec adds to the notion of consequence of error the need for clearly established quality criteria against which any translation is to be produced and assessed. He proposes three levels of acceptable quality:

- publishable—zero defects
- deliverable—full accuracy for information purposes
- revisable—some weaknesses in transfer of meaning and terminology

The three levels are comparable to the three Sical III quality levels A, B and C, except that no specific number of errors is assigned to a level. Indeed, it is unlikely that Gouadec's notion of "full accuracy" would extend to the 12 translation errors tolerated under Sical.

In the same work the author questions the validity of sampling for TQA purposes because of the risk of overlooking critical errors elsewhere in a text (Gouadec 1989b: 56).

1.1.1.5. Using works by Searle (1969), Halliday and Hasan (1976), Widdowson (1979) and van Dijk (1980) for the theoretical underpinnings of their model, Bensoussan and Rosenhouse (1990) propose a TQA scheme for evaluating student translations by discourse analysis. The tool would serve to assess students' comprehension of English in a TEFL context. This pedagogical tool is based on the premise that translation operates on three levels of
understanding: "surface equivalence, semantic equivalence (propositional content, ideational and interpersonal elements), and pragmatic equivalence (communicative function, illocutionary effect) […]. Thus a truly equivalent translation […] would reveal the translator/student’s understanding on all three levels" (1990: 65).

A student’s translation is to be graded according to its fidelity on linguistic, functional and cultural levels. In this regard the authors make a distinction between errors based on lack of comprehension and those resulting from other shortcomings or problems. Comprehension is assumed to happen simultaneously on the macro level and the micro level. Accordingly, they divide errors into (1) macro-level misinterpretations and (2) micro-level mistranslations under the discourse model below:

1. Macro-level structures—frames, schema
2. Micro-level structures
   2.1 Utterance-level structures
      2.1.1 Propositional content
      2.1.2 Communicative function (explicit and implicit)
   2.2 Word-level structures
      2.2.1 Vocabulary/expressions
      2.2.2 Parts of speech/verb tense
      2.2.3 Pronoun agreement
      2.2.4 Cohesion
      2.2.5 Acceptability and register

(Bensoussan and Rosenhouse 1990: 71)

To demonstrate the model, the authors subdivide a chosen (literary) text of approximately 300 words into units ranging from one to three sentences in length and proceed to identify and characterize errors at the macro and micro levels, giving points for correct translations of each unit. They then generate frequency tables for each category of error.
For evaluation purposes, the unit "included a single concept or function: most units were a single sentence, but some contained as many as three consecutive sentences" (1990: 68).

Note that translations are not graded against a defined standard; a single mark is given for the number of utterances correctly rendered. The model is therefore criterion-referenced: Did the trainee achieve a specific translation objective?

They conclude, among other things, that mistranslations at the word level do not automatically lead to misinterpretations of the frame or schema. In other words, the overall message may be preserved in translation, notwithstanding microtext error. This prompts them to present an interesting hypothesis:

In this study, discourse analysis was applied to student translations. One inconvenience of evaluating translation is its cumbersomeness. Evaluating according to misinterpretations may solve this problem. Research with different kinds of texts and students of different linguistic backgrounds may contribute to the development of a technique of evaluation by translation.

(Bensoussan and Rosenhouse 1990: 80)

Would it be possible to modify the hypothesis and use macro-level TQA for assessing the translations of professional practitioners as well as students?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY ELEMENTS OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS MODEL</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of TQA: criterion-referenced</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Error analysis: microtextual and macrotextual</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Text length: full text in principle; demonstration sample of 300 words</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Type of measurement: quantitative</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Model demonstrated: yes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purpose: university training</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parameters/features: textological</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Text genre: literary</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>TU: one or more sentences</strong></td>
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1.1.1.6. Given the perceived interconnection between science and objectivity, the more a TQA model exploits the tools of mathematics, statistics and science, the more it will give an appearance of objectivity, validity and reliability. In presenting a statistical method for translation quality assessment, Shouyi Fan (1990) proposes a TQA model based on "fuzzy logic" as a means "by which a work of translation can be evaluated quantitatively instead of being given a mere qualitative label" (1990: 54). While admitting that the model may not be immediately feasible in practice, the author claims that it could be of theoretical value in developing a new TQA methodology. A numerical value is assigned to four quality levels (excellent, good, fair, poor), and each translation unit (usually a sentence) is then rated against three major criteria, which are subdivided into three minor criteria, as follows:

Factual information, or central message (information content; imagery shift; dummy, reserved for special parameters)
Affective information, or accompanying message (stylistic levels; affective elements; dummy)
Structural information or message (metalinguistic aspects; rhetorical devices; metrical qualities)

The above criteria are weighted according to their importance in each text. Sentences are then rated and final scores for any given translation can be computer-generated on the basis of the numerical values and assigned weights.

Note that the author selects isolated sentences (second sentence in third paragraph of each of 30 chapters in the illustrative source text). The demonstration of the model is therefore microtextual.
1.1.1.7. Larose (1987), one of the few Canadian theorists to focus on TQA, makes explicit a quality factor that is only implicit in Sical and SEPT: the objective of the translator. Aware of the dangers of subjectivity and hypercriticism in TQA, Larose issues a salutary warning to the evaluator: "Every translation must be assessed in terms of the appropriateness of the translator's intention to that of the author of the original, not of the appropriateness of the translator's intention to that of the evaluator" [Toute traduction doit être évaluée, en tant que traduction, en fonction de l'adéquation entre le but du traducteur et celui de l'auteur, et non entre le but du traducteur et celui de l'évaluateur] (1987: 223). In making this statement, he is contending that TQA cannot be a closed system, as it has tended to be in literary translation criticism; it must take as its starting point the client’s and other requirements and goals that the translator has endeavoured to meet.

Larose also considers that TQA is hampered by experts’ failure to circumscribe the translation unit (TU) and that the establishment of the "traductème" is a prerequisite for progress in this area. He proposes a multilevel grid for textological TQA, covering microstructure, macrostructure (isotopes, theme/rheme, logemes (Rado 1979)—in short the overall semantic structure), superstructure (narrative and argumentative structures) and "peritextual" or extratextual factors including the conditions of production, intentions, sociocultural background, etc., all of which would have to be taken into account in the definition of a "traductème."

Furthermore, the higher the level of the translation error is (microstructure being the lowest), the more serious it will be. The grid is meant to be the basis for the development of a "traductométrie," or tool for measuring (quantitatively) quality.
Note that Larose cuts a wide swath through the whole gamut of contemporary literary and linguistic theories, so his application of any one of them to TQA is necessarily cursory: for example, his treatment of argumentative structures is limited to the syllogism. Note also that the model is not demonstrated.

In a more recent article (1994), Larose elaborates on the idea of a "teleological" TQA model. Attacking an article by Friedrich Sixel (1994) on the subjectivity of the translator’s understanding of a text, the primacy of creativity in translation and, accordingly, the relativity of evaluation, Larose contends that TQA can be objective and reliable if the real objectives of the translation contract issued by the client are taken into account. Once the objectives are established, the evaluator is in a position to determine the criteria (referential meaning, concision, etc.) and constraints (time, cost, the client’s implicit and explicit quality requirements, even social values and requirements) against which one or more translations of a source are to be assessed. The approach is a very pragmatic one: "Assessment basically involves comparing the goals of the translator with the resulting translation, in light of pertinent criteria and constraints" [L’évaluation consiste essentiellement à comparer les fins visées et les fins réalisées en fonction des critères et des contraintes] (1994: 369). Larose then proposes a grid for a multicriteria analysis in which translations are evaluated against each quality criterion separately and the value of each criterion is weighted according to its importance for the contract. Larose illustrates the grid with translations of literature, each rendering of lines from Aristophanes’ Lysistrata being rated against seven criteria: referential meaning, poetic character, humorous imitation of Spartan speech, expression of contrast between Athenian and Spartan speech, rhymes and concision. The criteria may be far removed from those of instrumental translation, but it would certainly be possible to devise a relevant set of criteria for instrumental TQA. For recruitment purposes, the evaluator could make a comparative assessment of several translations of the same source text, with each candidate’s individual solutions being given a score—for example, on a scale of 1 to 5—which would then be multiplied by the weighting
factor. The best translation is the one with the highest cumulative score (such a model could be used for competitions). He points out that the number of criteria must be limited (fewer than Gouadec’s 675!) if the model is to be workable.

Larose’s model is thus the macrotextual counterpart of Shouyi Fan’s microtextual TQA method, in that both are multicriteria-referenced and use weighting factors to generate numerical values for performance against each criterion. At the same time he distances himself from a Sical-type model based on error count.

In another article (1998), Larose relates TQA to the concept of total quality and elaborates on the open TQA system and the importance of factoring in the client, the reader and the communication context in TQA and determining the specific criteria for each translation. The evaluator should work from the outside (the external factors of production) to the inside, from the pragmatic to the microtextual, so that every level of the text, from the subsentence upwards, is related to the whole communication situation. He encapsulates the client-centred approach to quality in the following equation:

\[
\frac{\text{quality}}{\text{client expectations}} = 1
\]

Of course, explicitating those expectations and relating them to professional standards is not an easy task.

Referring to the fact that the Translation Bureau has distanced itself from Sical, he notes that there is a fundamental contradiction between sampling for TQA purposes and the contemporary focus on total quality and zero defects. At the same time, he points out that the objective of zero defects is probably unrealistic—hence the Bureau’s return to systematic revision of the whole translation (Larose 1998: 181).
Larose concedes that the creation of a truly comprehensive TQA grid is probably impossible, because of the number of parameters or criteria, the complexity of their relationships, and the time and resources required to implement it:

Ideally, the evaluator would have to assess all the semantic and semiotic elements of the text against all the norms governing translation at a given time and place. However, no such grid exists, and it probably never will, because it would not only have to incorporate all the pragmatic constraints on the linguistic makeup of the text but also have to rate them, in order of importance for assessment purposes, in order for it to be possible to make coherent translation and assessment decisions.

[Idéalement, il faudrait recenser à la vitesse de la lumière tout le sémantisme et le sémiotisme du texte en fonction de la totalité des normes qui régularisent [sic] la traduction dans un milieu précis à un moment précis. Une telle grille n’existe pas. Et elle n’existera sans doute jamais, car non seulement faudrait-il que cette grille intègre l’ensemble des contraintes pragmatiques qui s’exercent sur le tissu linguistique du texte […] mais qu’elle les gradue par ordre d’importance et d’évaluation afin de rendre possible et cohérente chacune des prises de décision en matière de traduction et d’évaluation]. (1998: 175)

Accordingly, any grid is necessarily reductionist and based on the most relevant parameters and criteria.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY ELEMENTS OF LAROSE TEXTOLOGICAL TQA MODEL</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of TQA:</strong> criterion-referenced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Error analysis:</strong> microtextual/macrotextual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Text length:</strong> full text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of measurement:</strong> quantitative, but no error count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model demonstrated:</strong> no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purpose:</strong> industrial, literary TQA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parameters/features:</strong> textological</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Text genre:</strong> broad range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TU:</strong> not defined</td>
</tr>
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</table>
1.1.2. **Non-quantitative models**

1.1.2.1. Nida and Taber (1969), followed by Brislin (1976), propose several "testing procedures" for determining the appropriateness of a translation for a particular readership: the cloze technique, selected target readers' reactions to alternatives, selected target readers' explanation of the content of the translation, reading the translation aloud, and publication of a test sample. These tools serve to gauge the usefulness and acceptability of the translation in the target culture, but they do not constitute a model as such.

1.1.2.2. While conceding that it is impossible to circumvent individual judgment in translation, Darbelnet (1977) maintains that it is possible to set parameters serving to "counter the impressionistic approach that too often undermines the credibility of translation assessments" [corriger l'impressionnisme qui trop souvent nuit à la crédibilité des appréciations portées sur les traductions] (1977: 16). The parameters he proposes take the form of questions that the evaluators must ask:

1. Have the overall meaning of the text and the meaning of its individual parts overall been rendered accurately?
2. Is the target language idiomatic and is correct vocabulary used?
3. Is the tone of the source text rendered?
4. Are cultural differences taken into account?
5. Are literary and other cultural allusions handled well?
6. Are the author's implicit intentions taken into account?
7. Is the translation adapted to its readership?
Geared to literary translation, Darbelnet's "levels" of analysis are interesting in that they reflect an early attempt (well before Shouyi Fan and Larose) to structure quality assessment according to specific criteria and to go beyond a closed system by factoring in authorial intent and the end user's situation and needs.

1.1.2.3. In *A Textbook of Translation*, a work that draws heavily on discourse analysis, Newmark (1988) devotes a chapter to "Translation Criticism." After presenting a five-stage "plan of criticism," he highlights the importance of determining the source-text (ST) author's purpose and ST function. From this the critic can establish criteria against which the translation, or target text (TT), can be assessed; multi-criteria-referenced TQA is preferred to standards-referenced TQA since "taste" plays a large part in translation and consequently standards are relative. Discussion of the relative merits of the translator's solutions and motivations for them is a key component of ST/TT comparative analysis, and a positive assessment of appropriate "contextual re-creation" (Newmark refers to Delisle here) is as much a part of criticism as is characterization of errors (1988:190-191).

Newmark does not propose any model for judging the overall quality of a text, limiting himself to general statements: "A good translation fulfills its intention; in an informative text, it conveys the facts acceptably; in a vocative text, its success is measurable, at least in theory, and therefore the effectiveness of an advertising agency can be shown by results [...]" (1988: 192).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY ELEMENTS OF &quot;TRANSLATION CRITICISM&quot;</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of TQA: criterion-referenced</td>
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<tr>
<td>Purpose: industrial, literary TQA</td>
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<tr>
<td>Error analysis: microtextual/macrotexual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and textological</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text length: full</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of measurement: positive assessments included, overall judgment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TU: on a continuum between word and sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model demonstrated: no</td>
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1.1.2.4. Berman (1995) proposes a "critique productive" model which, like Newmark's, incorporates a positive assessment of (literary) translation. Rejecting what he sees as an ideology-based, judgmental model of TQA, in which the evaluator is intent only on highlighting defects in the TT or in demonstrating how norms in the target culture condition it, Berman advocates an assessment that brings out not only the shortcomings but also the qualities and originality of the translation as a work of art. He then proposes a general procedure. The key step is the selection of significant passages in the translation that encapsulate its essence and comparison of these "zones signifiantes" (1995: 70) with the original. The ensuing "confrontation" may well bring out differences between ST and TT, but they may be assessed as strong points contributing to the originality of the translation.

Berman's is a closed system, and his approach, an empirical one with no specific assessment criteria. His overarching purpose is to demonstrate the superiority of a translation approach that brings out the essence of the original. In this, he opposes Toury and Brisset and their focus on translations embedded in the target culture and determined by target culture and language norms.

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<tr>
<th>KEY ELEMENTS OF &quot;CRITIQUE PRODUCTIVE&quot;</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Type of TQA:</strong> criterion-referenced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Error analysis:</strong> microtextual</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Text length:</strong> full and sampling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of measurement:</strong> positive and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negative criticism of individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>points, overall judgment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TU:</strong> not specified</td>
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1.1.2.5. In an attempt to counter what she sees as arbitrary, subjective criticism of literary translations, Reiss (1971; 2000), an early and leading exponent of the functionalist theory of translation, proposes a method of translation criticism based on text type and goals. After isolating two main translation methods—text-oriented and goal-oriented—Reiss goes on to contend that the critic must assess quality against the standards or criteria appropriate to the
method applied. This will involve consideration of the linguistic elements of, and extra-
linguistic elements affecting, a given text type and the "special function or readership which the
translation is intended to serve" (2000: 114). Thus, well before Larose, Reiss brings out the
prime importance of the textological and teleological (goals, end use of translation) aspects of
TQA. At the same time, she underscores the influence on TQA of the subjective conditions of
the hermeneutical process and the translation critic's personality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY ELEMENTS OF REISS'S TRANSLATION CRITICISM</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of TQA: criterion-referenced</td>
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<tr>
<td>Error analysis: micro- and macrotextual</td>
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<tr>
<td>Text length: full</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of measurement: overall judgment of quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TU: not specified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose: translation criticism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parameters/features: linguistic and textological</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text genre: literary</td>
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<tr>
<td>Model demonstrated: no</td>
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(1981) premise of translation as intentional, interlingual communicative action and proposes an
analytical model based on the function and intention of the target text in the target culture and
applicable to pragmatic as much as to literary documents.

A text—and a fortiori a translation—is provisional until received: "Meaning is assigned to a text
by the recipient in light of given function" (1992: 93). This approach necessarily relativizes the
primacy of the source text and the debate over equivalence. The translation is not equivalent to
the source text; it is an "offer of information about" it. However—and this is important for issues
of TQA—Nord by no means downgrades the criterion of accuracy, notwithstanding the
criticisms levelled at Skopostheorie. Introducing the principle of "functionality + loyalty"
(1991: 39), she sees the translator as being committed to both source and target texts and having
to analyse both ST and TT in situation; depending on the function of the target text, the
translator may intend to preserve all semantic and formal features of the original or adapt the ST
material extensively. Thus, she envisages the possibility of establishing grades of required types of translation on a scale running from extreme fidelity to extreme liberty (1991: 28). That being said, Nord insists on the impossibility of functional identity between ST and TT.

Note that Nord’s notion of "grades" of translation quality is not comparable to those of Sical or SEPT. Her grades are based on a conscious decision to produce a relatively "literal" or relatively "free" translation and does not encompass a tolerance level for errors unwittingly committed by the translator.

Furthermore, Nord’s approach necessarily takes the purpose of the translation and other variables into account. Recognizing the need to overcome the problem posed by recipients and possible translations, Nord presents the idea of translation instructions (specifications) specifying what type of target text is required (the idea was in fact formulated in the eighties by Sager and Simpson). It is on the basis of the instructions and the TT skopos expressed therein that the translator proceeds. The translator makes a judgment as to what in the ST is relevant to the TT skopos and produces a "grade" of translation along the fidelity/liberty continuum.

It is the "initiator" of the translation project who issues the translation instructions and defines the skopos, or prospective target situation (1991:8). Thus Nord’s approach closely parallels that of Larose, who emphasizes the need for TQA to factor in reader expectations and the requirements set by the client in the contract.

The evaluator must take the TT skopos as the starting point for TQA, assess the TT against the skopos and the translator's explicit strategies, and then do an ST/TT comparison for inferred strategies. Nord emphasizes that error analysis is insufficient: "[I]t is the text as a whole whose function(s) and effect(s) must be regarded as the crucial criteria for translation criticism" (1991: 166). This is a key qualification, for on the basis of a selection of relevant ST features, the translator may eliminate ST items, rely more heavily on implicatures, or "compensate" for them in a different part of the text. Indeed, as Van Leuven-Zwart points out in developing an
interesting corollary of translation-oriented analysis, the "shifts in meaning" that account for many "unsatisfactory" ratings in professional translation should perhaps not be considered as errors at all, given that equivalence is not feasible (1990: 228-29). In short, microtextual error analysis is insufficient.

Nord's proposed "unified" model of text analysis is valid whatever the characteristics of the source and target texts may be. Hers is an open, situation-based system that takes account of many extratextual factors, and the resulting grids present the relationships between those factors (sender, intention, recipient, medium, etc.) and intratextual factors (content, presuppositions, style, etc.).

Nord's functional approach prompts her to follow Reiss in making a clearcut distinction between three types of error: pragmatic (failure to reflect text function); cultural (failure to recognize and render cultural differences); and linguistic (insufficient competence in language combination).

However, in the examples of translation-oriented text analysis presented to illustrate the model, Nord's judgments are generally parameter-specific, and when there is a judgment, it is not definitive. Indeed, in one case, she states that there "will be no overall evaluation of the translated texts" (1991: 226). For example,

In spite of some imperfections, the English version seems to meet the requirements of the translation scope much better than the German version. (1991: 197) [Our italics]

Neither translation gives a true impression of the ironic effect produced by the particular features of theme-rheme structure, sentence structure and relief structure. (1991: 217).

[...] the literal translations [of a specific term] are not an accurate description of the subject matter dealt with in the text. (1991: 22)
She does, however, make a definitive, overall judgment on the sample texts as a whole: "[N]one of [the translations] meet the requirements set by text function and recipient orientation" (1991: 231). But how does she generate an overall assessment from the parameter-specific comparisons, particularly when her judgment is based on the nature of the errors, not their number?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY ELEMENTS OF SKOPOS TQA</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of TQA:</strong> criterion-referenced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Error analysis:</strong> macrotextual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Text length:</strong> full</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of measurement:</strong> overall judgment of quality</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>TU:</strong> not specified</td>
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More recent exponents of functionalism and Skopos-theorie, such as Höng, have used the communicative or TT-reader-centred thrust of their approach to call in question TQA in general:

The problem with any TQA [...] is that it tacitly implies an assessment of a supposed reader’s reaction. However, the empirical basis of the reader’s putative reaction is often unclear. (Höng 1998: 29)

Höng’s premise is that the weaknesses detected by the translation evaluator may well be of no value or consequence to users of the translation.

1.1.2.7. In her update of a model first proposed in 1977, House (1997) presents a detailed non-quantitative, descriptive-explanatory approach to TQA. Like Bensoussan and Rosenhouse, she uses the functional text features explored by Halliday and Crystal and Davey (1969). She does, however, takes issue with the functional approach proposed under Skopos-theorie because, in her view, it relativizes the importance of the meaning of the source text in favour of the primacy of target culture norms and purpose. She rejects the principle enunciated by Reiss and Vermeer (1984: 96) that "Der Zweck (ders Translationshandeln) heiligt die Mittel" [The purpose
of translation determines the means]. Indeed, she prefaces her presentation of the model with a clear statement of her belief in autonomous meaning of the text and, consequently, the importance of equivalence, although her notion of equivalence is tempered by communicative and pragmatic considerations.

Adequate translations are of two kinds: overt (source-text-oriented) and covert (text adjusted to target reader's expectations and a different discourse frame through application of a cultural filter so that the translation is semantically and pragmatically equivalent to the original). House conceives of a cline between the extremes of overt and covert translations, so in this respect her model parallels that of Nord.

Like Larose and Nord, she calls for a textological approach to TQA:

> The importance of textual aspect of meaning has often been neglected in evaluations of translations, although the necessity of achieving connectivity between successive sentences in another language while at the same time retaining the semantic meaning conveyed in the original is important, especially in covert translation.

(1997: 31)

House's analytical grid draws on register categories. She identifies two types of mismatches: overt errors (at the ideational level, failure to render denotative meaning and breach of target language norms); and covert errors (at the interpersonal and situational level, mismatches in genre, field, tenor and mode), relating to functional equivalence, which is difficult to achieve because of differences in the language norms of the cultures concerned. For example, the target-culture readers' knowledge of texts and their intertextuality would determine their expectations/norms regarding genre. (Note that House does not define norms specifically.)

Armed with her notion of equivalence and a grid based on established linguistic theory, House dismisses the idea that TQA is by nature too subjective. At the same time, she does not
underestimate the "immense difficulties of empirically establishing what any 'norm of usage' is," especially for the unique situation of an individual text (1997: 18), and of meeting the requirement of knowledge about differences in sociocultural norms (1997: 74). She also concedes that "the relative weighting of individual errors . . . is a problem which varies from individual text to individual text" (1997: 45).

House demonstrates the model, establishing overt and covert mismatches in a number of sample texts and making statements about the relative match/mismatch of the ideational and interpersonal components of the ST and TT. Like Bensoussan and Rosenhouse, Nord and Larose, she proposes to make parameter-specific comparisons of ST and TT. In her case, the parameters are structured as follows:
We have listed all House's parameters because, while text-based, they are different from those selected by the other proponents of multicriteria schemes.

However, she stops short of making a judgment on the text as a whole, stating that "[i]t is difficult to pass a 'final judgment' on the quality of a translation that fulfils the demands of objectivity" (1997: 119). She ultimately sees her model as descriptive-explanatory, as opposed to a socio-psychologically based value judgment:

Unlike the scientifically (linguistically) based analysis, the evaluative judgment is ultimately not a scientific one, but rather a reflection of a social, political, ethical, moral or personal stance. (1997: 116)
In other words, TQA should not yield a judgment as to whether the translation meets a specific quality standard, even though House castigates the functionalists for their supposed relativism.

Here is a "statement of quality" of a translation of a commercial text used to illustrate the model:

The comparison of ST and TT along the eight dimensions shows that there are mismatches on all dimensions of language use but Medium; however, by far the greatest number of mismatches occur on the Social Role Relationship parameter, rendering TT in the specified instances less flattering to the addressees, less diplomatically polite and deliberately non-committal, i.e., blunter and more direct. [...].

From this configuration of mismatches, it becomes clear that, while the ideational component of ST’s function is violated to a minor degree only, ST’s interpersonal function is violated to a considerable extent, as evidenced by the pattern of mismatches along the dimension of Social Role Relationship. Thus, we may say that with regard to the addressee’s implicit attempt at giving the addressees a feeling of importance and his desire to be non-committal, indirect, and diplomatic about the consequences of the changes in his company, TT has serious shortcomings [...]. (1997: 57)

Like Nord, House relates error to established discourse analysis and research criteria and analyses translation against those criteria in a series of discrete comparisons. In addition, both researchers focus their attention on errors due to differences of culture and language convention, and less on errors reflecting insufficient encyclopedic knowledge and failure to take account of context/co-text—recurring problems in instrumental translation.
1.1.2.8. In their textological model, Hatim and Mason (1997) use the same parameters as House to promote a redirection of TQA from microtextual analysis to an analysis of text-level errors, discussing issues of cohesion, coherence, genre, intentionality, situationality, etc. Indeed, they adopt House's approach to error categorization (overt vs. covert error), preferring to reserve error for significant (unmotivated) mismatches of denotational meaning and breaches of the target language system and to avoid the word altogether for text-level mismatches in favour of relative "(un)acceptability" or "(in)appropriateness" (1997: 203). They go on to relate their textological approach to translator training. They maintain that student assessment tools are by and large geared to overall proficiency assessment (summative evaluation) and not to an evaluation of degree of achievement of specific goals that are set as part of a progressive learning process (formative assessment). Accordingly, like Newmark and Larose, they call for "criterion-referenced" rather than "norm-referenced" assessment as a means of testing students' achievement of those specific goals, and in particular those relating to discourse and pragmatics. In this context they note how important it is to complement the microtextual categorization of error with a classification based on the effect of error in a broader context.
In a doctoral thesis, Martinez Melis (1997) similarly points to a dearth of TQA tools appropriate for formative evaluation and calls for more research in this area.

1.1.2.9. As noted above, all of the models are based on a typology of error. While not venturing as far as to propose a TQA model as such, Dancette (1989) makes some interesting remarks on error analysis. Like Gouadec, she does not find the traditional typology to be adequate for training purposes in that it does not pinpoint the source of the error. She also dismisses the idea of the word being the translation unit; the TU is variable, in that what seems to be a one-word error in meaning may in fact distort the syntactic and semantic relations of one or more sentences (1989: 96).

Viewing text comprehension as an interpenetration of semantic and linguistic analysis at the subsentence level and of a pragmatic, context-based, cognitive activity at a suprasentential level, she contends that errors in meaning will, in many cases, originate in an inability to move from the semantic to the pragmatic level to test prospective interpretations. She proceeds to demonstrate her hypothesis by applying case grammar (Fillmore) and the theory of semantic networks (Mel’cuk).

1.2. Investigations and definitions of translation norms

Our review of the literature has shown that all TQA models are concerned with error typology and that the typology differs according to the approach and linguistic or philosophical theory adopted. In turn, the notion of error is of necessity predicated on a prior notion of acceptability. A number of translation studies experts, all taking an essentially functionalist approach, have focused their attention on defining acceptability and, in so doing, have examined what a translation norm or standard—on which decisions as to acceptability would be based—is and what its sources are, often by drawing on social and philosophical theories of norms.
In keeping with his descriptive-explanatory approach, Toury is critical of translation theorists who endeavour to establish norms, rules or directives on how to translate because their pronouncements are, in his view, based on insufficient empirical data. Normative statements are all prescriptive ("should," "must"), but in actual translation practice may be little more than recommendations: "[...] there is absolutely no certainty that a normative pronouncement would draw on, or even reflect, any kind of behaviour which is truly regular within the culture it purports to represent. Moreover, in spite of the authoritative tone in which it is often presented, ignoring it would not necessarily call for any sanctions. In other words, directives that do not reflect any existing behaviour would not unconditionally create new behavioural patterns either" (1994: 261-2).

In a more recent article, Toury defines norms as "explanatory hypotheses" emerging from regularities in translation behaviour rather than entities in their own right (1999:16) and posits a normative gradation or continuum running from rules (more "objective") through norms themselves to conventions and then idiosyncrasies (more "subjective"). He also maintains that translation-specific norms are distinct from other communication (target language) norms and, in particular, those of translation assessment: "[T]ranslations are the result of a direct application of translation norms, whereas assessments employ first and foremost norms of evaluation and evaluation-presentation, including the norms governing the composition of evaluative texts. As regards translational norms, evaluators just react to them and their results" (1999: 23). Evaluators and translators may favour different blends of adequacy (fidelity to ST) and acceptability (fidelity to TT). In short, TQA and, indeed, any attempt to define or impart the way "good" translations are to be done are fraught with difficulty.

Consequently Toury directs his attention toward translation laws. Laws are probabilistic statements about regularities in translation behaviour and are based on extensive observation of literary translation. He offers a number of examples, including the following "law of interference":

The more the make-up of a text is taken as a factor in the formulation of its translation, the more the target text can be expected to show traces of interference. (1994: 276)

Most translators would agree that this law is based on fact. Toury proposes another law that represents what practitioners generally do to avoid following the law of interference:

In translation, items tend to be selected on a level which is lower than the one where textual relations have been established in the source text. (1994: 269)

In other words, source text textemes—signs whose ad hoc textual functions and relations take precedence over their normal functions in the culture or community concerned—tend to be replaced with repertoremes—signs belonging to an institutionalized repertoire available for nonliterary communication—in the target text. At this stage Toury is not making a value judgment about these translation "regularities" or laws reflecting translation behaviour.

However, "one can be taught how to behave; not only in accordance with the law (which is what one tends to do anyway, otherwise it would hardly have emerged as a law anyway), but also contrary to it, if this is deemed appropriate, be it for sheer exercise or for any other reason […]" (1994: 273). This leads Toury to propose recommendations on how to translate in relation to laws. For example, in order to counteract the law of interference while at the same time aiming to maintain ST textemes—if one wanted to promote textemic instead of repertoremic translation—the following recommendation could be made to trainees:

replace source-text textemes with ad hoc combinations of textual relations equivalent to those found in the text and target-language items capable of fulfilling these functions.

(1994: 274)

Toury will go no further in establishing translation norms or standards. Norms are exerted by the target language and culture in terms of expectations as to what a translation should be and what
its relationship to the source text, i.e., where on the adequacy (fidelity to ST)–acceptability (fidelity to TT) continuum it should be positioned:

[...] it is the norms which determine the actual position of a translation, or a certain corpus of translations, between adequacy and acceptability and the entire concept of literary translation pertinent for the group (whether textual or social) and study. (1981: 24)

What is particularly important for our purposes is the subject of the law, recommendation of norm as conceptualized by Toury. In general, it pertains to only one aspect of the translation process: the translation of metaphors, the rendering of ST textemes, etc.

Several other theorists have elaborated on Toury’s line of thought. Hermans (1991) seeks to apply a general socio-philosophical theory of norms to translation. "Conventions" precede norms: they are a matter of precedent, social habit and mutual expectation and are internalized by the population concerned. Implicit norms at best, they may subsequently acquire a binding character and become official norms (directives, rules, decrees), in which case they rely less on expectation and internalized acceptance and more on the weight of authority. Hermans also notes that norms have two components: a normative force and a norm content (1990: 163). The content is the actual notion of correctness and is culture- and system-bound. Hence the more diversified the system is, the more diverse correctness notions will be and the greater the potential for overlapping, competing norms will be. Norms change as new conventions take hold. All these phenomena, says Hermans, are true of the specific sphere of translation.

Nord (1991) takes a similar tack to that of Hermans, making a distinction between translation conventions, rules and norms and structuring them in a hierarchy. At the top of the ladder, rules are imposed by an authority and are coupled with penalties for noncompliance (e.g., traffic rules). Norms are specific performance instructions within the framework of existing rules, and noncompliance is not punishable by law, although it may have social consequences. Conventions
are neither explicitly formulated nor binding and are based on common knowledge and expectations; they are not enforced by sanctions. As such, Nord’s concept of conventions is not without parallels to Toury’s concept of laws. Applying her hierarchy to translation, Nord identifies grammar rules, stylistic norms, and text type or speech act conventions (1991: 97).

She goes on to discuss translation norms and rules within a broader framework of translation conventions by analogy with Searle’s regulative and constitutive rules (Searle 1969: 33-42):

Regulative translational conventions refer to the generally accepted forms of handling certain translation problems below the text rank (e.g. proper names, culture-bound realities or realia, quotations, etc.), whereas constitutive conventions determine what a particular culture community accepts as a translation (as opposed to an adaptation or version or other forms of intercultural text transfer). The sum total of constitutive conventions forms the general concept of translation prevailing in a particular culture community. (1991: 100)

In terms of hierarchy, the conventional concept of translation, consisting of all the conventions, determines the regulative conventions that translators may have to follow at microtextual levels. This conventional concept reflects the "standards" (not defined by Nord) that both users and translators expect a translation to meet in terms of its relationship with the source text.

Thus, like Toury, Nord sees normative statements, be they rules, norms or regulative conventions, as generally bearing on discrete elements of the interlingual communication process, as directions on how a specific type of ST feature should be handled, rendered, in the TT. Using Skopos-theorie as her reference point and recognizing that such normative statements are often vague, may contradict one another, and as such pose a serious problem for trainees, she proposes a broader "norm of functionality" to which all translations must adhere. The translator must follow the translation instructions—the explicit, detailed requirements regarding the scope and function of the proposed translation—in order to comply with the norm of functionality. The
translation will then "achieve the function or functions required by the target situation, and its form [will] conform to the target culture conventions valid for the text type in question" (1991: 107). Nord is thus proposing a new norm as a broader, "stringent frame of reference" for translation choices.

Toury's and Nord's approaches to norms are prospective (a priori), rather than retrospective (a posteriori): they are intended as much as guidelines for translators as elements of a TQA framework.

Chesterman (1997), like Toury, Hermans and Nord, puts the issue of translation norms in a sociocultural context. His first premise is that a translator decides how to act (translate) on the basis of commonly held cultural values that are part of the world of objective knowledge. Superordinate values, called supermemes, include translation concepts such as equivalence, untranslatability, essentialism, and the dichotomy between semantic and communicative translation. Values at a lower level, called memes, feed into the supermemes: in translation they include clarity, truth, trust and understanding. At a lower level still, norms express those values. At the lowest level, that of praxeological action, the translator’s decision on how to translate serves to preserve or to change these norms and values, and it is from that point that translation values, theories and norms evolve.

He consequently discusses translation-related norms at length, splitting them into professional norms and expectancy norms. The former relate to process, the latter, to product.

Professional norms, based on the behaviour of the best translators, are of three types: accountability (akin to Nord’s principle of loyalty to all parties concerned); communication (the optimization of communication in its widest sense); and relation (maintaining an appropriate relation between ST and TT—akin to Toury’s notion of adequacy).
Expectancy (product) norms pertain to the expectations of the target readership regarding the quality of the target language—its grammaticalness (rules of grammar) and acceptability/appropriateness (norms of usage). These norms may be qualitative (specific stylistic or usage requirements, established by norm authorities such as reputable style guides) or quantitative (generally accepted sentence length or proportion of relative clauses in a scientific text, for example). Failure to observe these "appropriate discourse norms" can be fairly criticized. Note that the professional norms correspond to Toury’s translation-specific norms, which may overlap with, but are nonetheless distinct from, the non-translation communication norms that Chesterman calls expectancy norms.

Chesterman is less specific regarding the relation (meaning) norm: Rather than aiming for perfect equivalence, the translator should take Popper’s negative approach and aim to "minimize misunderstanding" by, among other things, applying Toury’s "translation laws" such as explicitation and the transposition of texteme into repertoreme.

He does, however, take a more normative approach to the notion of law. If a given strategy is used regularly not by translators in general but by competent professional translators who are aiming for compliance with professional and expectancy norms, "it will de facto take on the status of [...] a normative law" (1993: 14). Because they are recognized as being maximally compatible with professional and expectancy norms, they have prescriptive force. Thus Chesterman establishes his own hierarchy: translation laws and strategies, normative laws (norm-directed strategies observed to be used by a large proportion of competent translators), and norms.

The critic will assess quality with reference to the above norms. He considers that a retrospective assessment can be descriptive, and therefore at the very least be intersubjective rather than subjective, in the sense that the critic can evaluate the relation between ST and TT as being better or worse than our expectations. Assessment is "intersubjective insofar as such expectations and requirements exist as observable norms in a given society, and are recognized
as such. However, the assessment is not objective in the sense that there is assumed to be some kind of objective, absolute standard to which all translations must conform, such as 'equivalence,' for instance" (1997: 124).

A judgment of translation conformity is thus deemed possible, with the qualification that the error is relative and that a single standard of conformity does not exist. The relativity of error is an acute problem in pedagogical assessment, where the difficulty of determining the gravity of an error has not, in Chesterman's opinion, been resolved.

TQA also has to take into account the fact that norm may conflict with one another. For example, by meeting the relation norm through fidelity to ST, the translator may break expectancy norms, e.g., through lack of idiomaticity and clarity. As a result, the critic would have to assess a given product against each norm separately or solely against the norm that is considered to override the others.

### KEY ELEMENTS OF INVESTIGATION OF TRANSLATION NORMS

- The terminology for the designation and definition of the translation norm (rule, directive, convention, law) is not fixed
- Norms (rules, conventions, laws) generally concern discrete translation phenomena, not broad quality requirements
- The translation researchers rarely, if at all, refer to "standards," and Chesterman refers to the relativity of any standard

Unlike the theorists, translation practitioners have taken an interest in official, broad "standards" in order to ensure that the translation industry is part of the "total quality" and "continuous improvement" trend that has gained considerable currency both in government and in the private sector (see Circuit 1994; Language International 1998). The focus has been on ensuring that translation production procedures are consistent with those required under ISO 9000 standards. Italy and Germany have gone as far as to issue their own national translation standards. Note,
however, that what is to be standardized is not the level of quality of a translation but a set of procedures for achieving that level. Sturz explains the limits of the new German standard (DIN 2345):

The important issue of measuring the quality of translations by rating them [...] cannot be solved by a standard. However, a standard can provide specific rules for the evaluation process. Such measures [...] include completeness, terminological correctness, grammar and style, as well as adherence to a style guide agreed to between the buyer and the translator. [...] DIN 2345 is not a certification standard. (1998: 19, 41)

In fact, what the new standard offers is a set of "normative statements" about the various parameters of translation, and as such it echoes the concepts developed by the functional translation theorists referred to above.

In short, official translation standards do not as yet specify required levels of quality; they refer only to the parameters to be considered in measuring quality.
Chapter Two
Problems, Hypotheses and Objectives

2.1. Problems

2.1.1. TOA models

Having highlighted the main characteristics of the various TQA models in Chapter One, we can draw a number of preliminary conclusions about the limitations of those models and areas where further research may be of benefit.

(1) Quantitative, standards-referenced models are for the most part microtextual. They are applied to short passages or even sentences (Sical, GTS, CTIC, statistical TQA). Gouadec opposes sampling, but his model, SEPT, is very complex; its effectiveness and user friendliness for full-text TQA has yet to be demonstrated. The Ontario government’s GTS procedures represent an interesting new development, however, in that the first step in assessment is an examination—albeit a cursory one—of the whole target text in order to identify potential problems.

(2) Criterion-referenced models (Bensoussan/Rosenhouse, Newmark, Reiss, Nord, Larose, Hatim/Mason) are based not only on microtextual but also on discourse and full-text analysis and factor in text function, purpose and type.

(3) The conditions surrounding production of a translation can be many and varied. A common, uniform standard that could factor in all the different conditions and be applied nonempirically would therefore be a complex one and would be difficult to apply. For example, the complexity of Gouadec’s SEPT rests partly on the commendable effort to take account of multiple conditions, including the level of difficulty of ST.
Nord's "translation instructions" approach is designed to circumvent the problem of uniform standards by assessing quality against a specific work statement prepared for a specific project and in light of target language norms/conventions/rules. However, the approach assumes that the initiator has the time, interest, and understanding of the translation process and product to produce such instructions for all contracts. In actual fact, translators usually have to contact the client if the requirements are not clear or, if time is limited, make their own assumptions based on their knowledge of the client and the text type. In short, the production of an adequate work statement is not always a realistic option in the translation industry.

(4) Two criterion-referenced and textological models (Bensoussan/Rosenhouse, Larose) combine qualitative and quantitative assessment. However, the first is demonstrated only on a short text, and the second is not illustrated at all.

(5) The theoretical basis for the textological models that are actually demonstrated are taken primarily from Halliday, Crystal and Davey, Van Dijk, Widdowson and Searle. Argumentation theory and aspects of interpretative semantics have not been applied.

(6) None of the textological models proposes clearly defined overall quality or tolerance levels. House refuses to pass overall judgments, and Nord's assessments are not related to a scale of measurable values. As McAllester remarks, "in no case is any suggestion made concerning the amount and gravity of errors that can be tolerated for the total translation to be considered adequate" (2000: 234). Further, as Chesterman points out, the models provide for assessment against specific parameters or functions, not for assessment against all parameters or functions combined. This inevitably militates against global assessment unless translations are found wanting in all departments.
(7) As McAleester again remarks, the models proposed by Nord and House in particular fail to pass the test of practicality for evaluation (2000: 233). For example, Nord devotes some eighteen pages to an assessment of two translations of a 105-word source text. As such, her model may be ill suited to trainee or "industrial" translation assessment.

(8) The evolution of Sical illustrates above all the problems inherent in a model that is both standard-based and quantitative. The purpose of quantification is to create a more objective, transparent and defensible assessment, but its very transparency opens the door to (a) calls for greater (quantitative) latitude (toleration of more errors) to allow for conditions of production that cannot be factored into a uniform standard and (b) accusations of tolerance of defective products and mediocrity. The Ontario government’s GTS model is an attempt to circumvent this problem by producing an initial, context-free assessment and a second, context-based assessment for administrative purposes. However, the weakness in the model lies in the absence of any explanation of how the various assessment parameters (transfer, language deadline and layout) are combined to generate an overall assessment. The evaluator’s "discretion" effectively becomes a catch-all solution to many TQA problems.

Given the above, decisions on borderline cases (acceptable/unacceptable, pass/fail, etc.) should be based on more than error quantity if they are to stand up to scrutiny.

(9) Researchers applying and demonstrating a discourse analysis method use literary, advertising and journalistic texts as examples. Application to other pragmatic genres has not been demonstrated.

(10) No evidence has been adduced that models are reliable for a broad range of texts of varying lengths. Illustrative texts in Translation Bureau material, Bensoussan and Rosenhouse, Fan, House, and Nord are short.
(11) None of the demonstrations cover both professional products and student translations. However, given the differences in purpose between production-related TQA and training-related TQA, and given the distinction between formative and summative evaluation highlighted by Hatim and Mason, development of a comprehensive TQA model would face significant challenges.

(12) Gouadec, Bensoussan, Nord and Larose all recognize and emphasize the interrelationship between the TU and the macrotext, in terms of the impact and seriousness of error. However, no definition of error gravity has been proposed on a scientific, theoretical, textological basis, and evaluators have to rely on ill-defined concepts such as "complete failure to render the meaning" and "essential part of the message." How is the "essential part" to be determined, and can "partial" failure not be just as damaging to an essential part of the massage?

In short, the following questions may fairly be asked about the validity of the models:

_in textological, parameter-specific TQA, the target of the assessment is multiple—subject matter, composition, cohesion, tenor, mode, etc. How can a valid overall TQA be extracted from the individual assessments?_

_in microtextual TQA, how do we prove that the sample is representative of the text in its entirety?_

The following questions may fairly be asked about the reliability of the models:

_in quantitative TQA, how do we prove that the tolerance level is a reliable measure of acceptability in all cases?_
How do we ensure that the level of significance of the major error is comparable in all cases?

(13) As a corollary to (6) above, the theorists do not develop standards as such, preferring to propose or identify norms, rules and conventions pertaining to discrete translation elements and parameters. Likewise, recently issued national standards are not tool for assessing quality but guidelines for ensuring that quality is achieved.

2.1.2. The relational norm and the problem of meaning

The fact that a variety of approaches have been taken and that researchers are in general loath to establish hard-and-fast, quantifiable levels of quality is understandable not only because of the number of parameters or conditions that could be factored into a comprehensive model but also because of the wide range of opinions on what target language usages and what interpretations of meaning lie within/outside the "acceptable" range for any given text.

Arguments on target language rules, norms and convention is an integral part of the profession, and though they are rarely settled to the satisfaction of all parties, the evaluator can at least refer to authorities—respected dictionaries, grammars and style guides—to back up TQA decisions.

Regarding the interpretation issue, however, hermeneutic and other research has shown how difficult it is in any case to determine the "objective" meaning of a text, and it is not without reason that, for Chesterman, the goal in conforming to the "relational" norm is to minimize misunderstanding. Before embarking on the development of TQA tools that will inevitably focus on the degree of accuracy (fidelity, faithfulness) achieved in translations, we must therefore be cognizant of the complexities and pitfalls of any interpretive endeavour and of the approaches taken to meaning and interpretation in recent years.
With particular, but not exclusive, reference to literature, Ricoeur (1986) and Eco (1992) differentiate between the *intentio auctoris*, the *intentio lectoris*, and the *intentio operis*. Schools of literary and philosophical thought differ as to which "intention" predominates and from which one meaning emerges. Ricoeur contends that, in the text (as opposed to the spoken word), a distance is automatically created between author and text once the author's discourse is fixed in writing:

In the case of written discourse, the intentions of author and text no longer coincide [...]. What the text says is more important than what the author intended to say; henceforth, any interpretation of the text functions within a space that no longer has any connection with the author's psychology. [Avec le discours écrit, l'intention de l'auteur et l'intention du texte cessent de coïncider [...]. Ce que dit le texte importe davantage que ce que l'auteur a voulu dire; désormais toute exégèse déploie ses procédures au sein de la circonscription qui a rompu ses amarres avec la psychologie de son auteur. (1986: 187)

The text is thus, to some degree, in a state of autonomy in relation to its author. It loses the intention and effects that the author had in mind; it now has its own objectives and effects. Note that, for Ricoeur, the autonomy and distance are also established in relation to the reader and the social and economic conditions surrounding production of the text.

At the other end of the spectrum, the reader will complete the discourse (dialogue) that was interrupted when the text was fixed in writing. The reader actualizes one or more of the semantic possibilities of the text by interpreting it. However, the process is not anarchical. First, by pooling all the clues in the text and thereby "validating" his/her initial conjectures as to its meaning, the reader circumscribes those semantic possibilities. Second, the intention of the text is the direction in which it wants to take us:
The text wants us to follow the same direction that it is taking. Thus if the intention concerned is the intention of the text, and if that intention is the direction it paves for our minds, then the deep, underlying meaning of the text must be understood in a fundamentally dynamic way. To explain a text is to bring out its structure, i.e., the internal interdependencies making up its static framework; to interpret it is to follow the line of thought pointed out by the text and follow its orientation.

[Ce que veut le texte, c’est nous mettre dans son sens, c’est-à-dire [...] dans la même direction. Si donc l’intention est l’intention du texte, et si cette intention est la direction qu’elle ouvre pour la pensée, il faut comprendre la sémantique profonde en un sens foncièrement dynamique; je dirai alors ceci : expliquer, c’est dégager la structure, c’est-à-dire les relations internes de dépendance qui constituent la statique du texte; interpréter, c’est prendre le chemin de pensée ouvert par le texte, se mettre en route vers l’orient du texte]. (1986: 156)

So, for Ricoeur, there seems to be a semantic foundation underlying the text that mitigates the potential primacy of the *intentio lectoris*. Likewise, for Eco, there is a "textual strategy" underlying the text that guides interpretation in a certain direction and away from wild conjecture (1992: 134). There is thus a balance between the imposition of a single meaning, that of the author, and an unlimited plurality of meanings.

Yet another factor influencing interpretation compounds the already daunting problem of delimiting textual meaning. Nanni explores the *intentio culturae*, a complex of social and cultural values that conditions the critic’s reading of a text as much as the actual content of that text does: "The critic says what he wants to say on the basis of a historically determined intention, which means, strictly speaking, that he says what he *can* say. His absolute intention is conditioned (limited) by, on the one hand, the historical situation (partiality) of the culture that forms him and, on the other, the reality of the work" [Il dit ce qu’il veut selon un vouloir historiquement déterminé, ce qui signifie, à proprement parler, que le critique dit *ce qu’il peut*. Son vouloir [-dire] absolu est conditionné (limité), d’un côté, par l’historicité (la partialité) de la
culture qui le constitue et, de l'autre, par la réalité de l'oeuvre] (1992: 253). Bourdieu develops the similar notion of *habitus* to designate a sense of acceptability and value conditioned by social and economic conditions (1982: 75). Thus external conditions determine what interpretations are possible.

The interpreter's reality is also a major factor in the cognitive theory of relevance adumbrated by Sperber and Wilson and applied to translation studies by Gutt and to discourse analysis by Reboul and Moeschler, although none of them focuses on the sociocritical aspects of the problem. Here, meaning depends not only on the intrinsic syntactic and semantic structures of the text but also, and above all, on the recipient's assimilation of co-text (text preceding and following each statement), grasp of the context of the discourse, and world knowledge. Using all these factors and taking advantage of directions such as "pragmatic connectors" in the text, the reader gradually constructs a meaning as he/she moves from one statement to the next.

The impact on interpretation of the problem of "intention" and the contingencies of sociocultural conditions, context and world knowledge is compounded in translation by the problem of interlingual transfer and doubly compounded in TQA by the presence of the evaluator as interpreter of an interpretation. If we give any credence to Maingueneau's thesis (1984) that discourse itself is misunderstanding, then we must assume a potentially high level of misunderstanding in translation and the evaluation of translation.

In a professional and instrumental translation context, Samuelsson-Brown underscores a similar problem of "quality gaps" caused by different perceptions of the intended use and specifications for a translation—gaps between the client's expectations and the translation manager's perception of what the client wants, between the specifications and the client's actual experience of the translation, etc. (1996: 109-111).
Against this background, it becomes all the more important for the TQA researcher and practitioner to develop and work with models that are theoretically sound and provide for validity and reliability in the field.

That being said, the material on which we will test our hypotheses will be instrumental translations produced in an institutional (government, national organization, university) context. As already stated, Canadian institutions have by and large adopted the Canadian Government Translation Bureau's standards and approach to translation as a reference point, and that approach, as reflected in the Bureau's *Doctrine traductionnelle*, is predicated on the possibility and necessity of accuracy and of a translation that reads as though it was in fact originated in the target language:

render the message of the source text accurately (fidelity to author) in correct, authentic language adapted to the subject and end user. [rendre le message du texte de départ avec exactitude (fidélité à l'auteur), en une langue d'arrivée correcte, authentique et adaptée au sujet et à la destination.] (1978: 10)

"Exactitude", or accuracy, is defined in relation to message and authorial intention, not form:

What is to be rendered is not the words or form of the source text but the message itself, i.e., the constituent parts of the author's intention. The translator is in no way a slave to the language chosen by the author. [Ce que l'on doit rendre, c'est non pas les mots ni les formes linguistiques du texte de départ mais précisément le message, c'est-à-dire les éléments constitutifs de l'intention de l'auteur. Le traducteur n'est nullement esclave de la formulation choisie par l'auteur. (2000: 2)
Clearly, in light of the more philosophical positions reviewed above, the "doctrine" is arguable. Mossop, for instance, has argued that such a doctrine runs contrary to the concept of target-culture-based quality or error assessment (1989: 56).

However, given the instrumental context selected and the objectives of our particular study, the philosophical issues surrounding interpretation and assessment of "fidelity" will not be at issue here. Furthermore, the initiator’s instructions, a cornerstone of Nord’s approach to TQA (1.1.2.6.), are commonplace in the translation industry: translation requests are often accompanied by a work statement detailing the client’s quality and other requirements. If we couple this with the evaluator’s experience in the subject field concerned and familiarity with the client, it then becomes possible to circumscribe the notion of quality from the client’s, and reader’s, perspective and to assess the instrumental translation teleologically, with specific quality goals and reader expectations in mind.

2.2. Hypotheses

2.2.1. TQA models

The hypotheses presented below take into account the preceding outline of problems of TQA and interpretation. In particular, prudence dictates that (a) any establishment of quality levels not be based primarily on the number of errors but on other criteria; (b) that the grid(s) and quality levels be broad and flexible enough to take account of varying conditions of production, but that (c) the grid(s) be user-friendly, i.e., not yield to the temptation of complexity in order to reflect specific conditions; and (d) that the purpose of the translation and the purpose of the evaluation be factored into any model.
Note also that, since our interest lies with instrumental translation, the corpora for analysis will not comprise literary texts. Therefore, the debates over the relative merits of freedom and fidelity in translation and over the problem of establishing meaning in an interlingual and intercultural context will not be focal points.

**Hypothesis 1**

*Discourse analysis has not been sufficiently incorporated into TQA models and has not been broadly applied to instrumental TQA. Given developments in discourse theory, it should be possible, and useful, to develop a textological TQA model for use in industrial and university TQA, with particular reference to argumentation theory. Such a model will yield an overall assessment of translation quality combined with parameter- or criteria-specific assessments.*

**Hypothesis 2**

*The proposed model can be used to test the validity both of a textological approach involving evaluation of the macrotext and, conversely, of the sampling approach, which necessarily focuses on microtextual units. Does the addition of a textological assessment change the end result? Further, from a university (training) perspective, does the textological TQA tell us anything new about translation ability and performance?*

2.2.2. **The translation unit and categorization of errors**

First, the application of discourse analysis to TQA has brought home the fact that the definition of "translation unit" (TU) has not been standardized. For some, it is a word; for others, it is a sentence or more, or both. Discourse analysis has shown how what appears to be a microtextual error can have consequences beyond its immediate context or, conversely, may be a correct translation when set in its macrocontext.

Second, the issue of the TU leads to that of error impact and seriousness. Major and minor errors are defined and characterized at length within the framework of the Sical model, but with an
implicitly microtextual application. The notion of consequence of error was, however, a step forward in this regard.

Third, there is a marked difference of opinion as to the validity of the traditional typology developed for revision purposes by Vinay and Darbelnet, Horguelin, and the Translation Bureau. Gouadec and Dancette propose categorizations aimed at pinpointing the sources of errors, and Dancette’s model is clearly text-based.

Our objective will not be to define the translation unit. What we intend to do is to use argumentation theory for the purpose of refining the concept of major/critical error in instrumental translation. Why argumentation theory? Because it is based largely on reasoning and it is our contention that many of the more serious translation errors are due to a failure to understand and/or render the reasoning underlying overall text content. It is also important to recall Larose’s contention that the higher in the text structure an error occurs, the more serious it is. On that basis, the major error would have to be predicated on textological analysis.

Level of tolerance remains a problem for TQA. Even in a quantitative system like Sical III, borderline cases were decided empirically: the evaluator made a judgment call based on his experience. The "zero defects" standard is in fact an ideal to be aimed for but, in reality, is seldom attained. However, if the major/critical error can be redefined, it may serve a useful purpose in determining quality levels and, ultimately, in outlining a draft standard.

**Hypothesis 3**

*Using a textological approach, the level of seriousness of errors can be defined broadly, systematically and coherently in terms of argumentation theory, and such a definition can form the basis for the establishment of quality levels and defensible decisions regarding the acceptability of instrumental translations.*
2.2.3. Textological TQA and training

It is a truism to say that one of the greatest impediments to the learning process in translation is students’ failure or inability to focus on, understand and use co-text. By taking a solely microtextual, word-for-word approach to interpreting and translating the source text and by failing to approach the text as reasoned discourse, they frequently fail to render the central message of the text and, equally importantly, deprive themselves of a vital tool for grasping the meaning of problematic micotextual elements. In fact, understanding the ST macrostructure gives them a framework, an “orientation” (to borrow from Ricoeur’s terminology), with which to ensure that individual phrases and sentences fit into a coherent whole.

Hypothesis 4

An argumentation-centred TQA model can help to focus both the teacher’s and the students’ efforts on the understanding and use of co-text to ensure quality.

2.2.4. Definition of translation standard

The overview in Chapter One brought out (1) the instability surrounding the concept of norm or standard in the context of translation studies and (2) the fact that official translation standards bear on translation procedures, not the specifics of translation quality.

Hypothesis 5

TQA lacks a clear notion of what a quality standard should comprise, as opposed to a norm, law or rule. It would be possible, and useful, to propose a definition of a translation quality standard of more substance than “zero defects.”
2.3. Objectives

GENERAL OBJECTIVE 1

*Propose textological parameters and grids for instrumental TQA, both in an industrial and in a training (university) context.*

**Specific objective 1.1.**
Demonstrate that a textological approach provides more or better information about TQA than a microtextual one and may yield a different judgment of quality.

**Specific objective 1.2.**
Present an objective basis for tolerance levels and distinctions between quality ratings.
(Note: This will depend partly on results of work on Hypothesis 3.)

GENERAL OBJECTIVE 2

*Propose refinements to the concept "major error."*

**Specific objective 2.1.**
Demonstrate the applicability of argumentation theory to instrumental texts and to TQA.

**Specific objective 2.2.**
Present a definition of major/minor errors in light of discourse analysis research and recent translation theory.
GENERAL OBJECTIVE 3

Demonstrate the applicability of the tools and concepts developed in (1) and (2) to the formative and summative assessment of student performance.

Specific objective 3.1.
Present assessments of students translations using the model developed, highlighting discourse-level errors and, where possible, explaining their source.

Specific objective 3.2.
Propose and develop a set of exercises based on the model.

GENERAL OBJECTIVE 4

Define the concept of "translation standard" in light of recent research on related themes.

Specific objective 4.1.
State the criteria against which translation quality is to be measured and define one or more levels of translation quality in light of textological TQA research.

Specific objective 4.2.
Define translation quality standard as opposed to translation law, norm and convention.
Chapter Three
Methodology I: Overview and Argument Macrostructure

[...] la fonction rhétorique est elle-même transcendante
par rapport aux autres fonctions du langage. L’intention
rhétorique perturbe virtuellement le fonctionnement des
différents aspects du procès linguistique.

(J. Dubois et al.: 1970)

In a work on the pragmatics of discourse, Reboul and Moeschler take the proponents of
discourse analysis to task for what they consider to be an exclusively linguistic approach to the
text and a focus on the intrinsic relations between its different components. Their compelling
argument is that the interpretation of the statements, or propositions, that make up a text or
spoken discourse cannot be based solely on a determination of those intrinsic semantic relations.
Statements, and the relations between them, must be interpreted on the basis of both linguistic
information and nonlinguistic information—specifically, from the context and the receiver’s
own store of knowledge and from procedures on how to interpret messages (1998: 118). In
short, a number of pragmatic processes must be combined with the linguistic information to
understand a text.

A TQA model is designed to evaluate the success of one particular type of interpretation,
Therefore, if we accept Reboul and Moeschler’s contention that contextual, cognitive and
procedural processes are an integral part of the interpretive function, then we must factor those
processes into the development of our model. We propose to do so by testing the contribution
that argumentation theory can make to TQA, given that the purpose of argumentation and
rhetoric is to persuade the reader and that the argumentative text is therefore not just a set of
propositions but also one or more speech acts influencing, and being influenced by, the
communication context. According to McCloskey, the means of argumentation, or rhetoric, is
"the paying attention to one’s audience" (1985: xvii) for the purpose of persuading them. As such, argumentation is an act performed in a specific situation and is closely tied to the sender/receiver dynamic. Its analysis necessarily involves consideration of the overall communication situation.

Moreover, argumentation and persuasion are not the preserve of political, legal and religious discourse alone. Research over the last few decades has shown that rhetoric is an important feature of writing in all fields: psychology (Billig 1987); law (Perelman 1969, 1982; Fish 1989; Goodrich 1986; Rybacki 1995); history (White 1978; Greimas 1983; Megill and McCloskey 1987); economics (McCloskey 1985, 1990, 1994; Klammer 1988); sociology and social theory (Habermas 1984, 1986, 1987; Schrag 1992); logic (Thomas 1986; Walton 1989); education (Andrews 1995; Miller 1991); mathematics (Davis and Hersh 1987); philosophy and history of science (Selzer 1993; Campbell 1989; Baxerman 1986; Gross 1989); environment (Myerson and Rydin 1996); urban studies (Throgmorton 1993; Fischer and Forrester 1993); natural sciences (Ouellet 1984, 1985, 1992; McGuire and Melia 1989, 1991; Gross 1991). It has been demonstrated that, even in writing in the natural sciences and economics, where observation, objectivity and accurate measurement supposedly obviate the need for rhetoric, the tools of argumentation are omnipresent. One of the main reasons for the presence of rhetoric in science, it is suggested, is that information, knowledge and ideas are just as argumentative, and arguable, as beliefs and hopes, particularly in today’s society of information overload.

Note, too, that the modern proponents of argumentation theory do not present rhetoric in a negative light. Whereas the study of rhetoric had since the Middle Ages been restricted to aesthetics and the analysis of figures of speech, the "New Rhetoric" has rehabilitated the argumentation aspect of rhetoric as an integral part of the creation and communication of knowledge:
Why should the latest facts not be persuasive? They will not speak for themselves. Why should theories not be articulated? They will not be heard otherwise. Rhetoric, the approach, looks at rhetoric, the language. It asks what the words are doing, [...] why these words are chosen to convey the facts and theories. [...] Rhetoric is about academic discourse and newspapers, specialist articles and policies, working papers and headlines. The texts are different, and some are scientific; but science also argues and persuades. Rhetoric is centrally about creativity. (Myerson and Rydin 1996: 16)

So even discourse that is strictly informational is arguable; once there is a content to convey, an argument is present and, as the quotation at the beginning of the chapter eloquently puts it, that argument transcends and affects all other aspects of the discourse.

3.1. Logic, argument and rhetoric

Before going further, we should define our terms. Logic involves scientific inquiry into the very structure of argument and its validity: valid premises yielding a valid conclusion make for a coherent, consistent argument at an abstract level. Formal and informal logic are typified by the exploitation of deductive reasoning and the syllogism.

Modern proponents of argumentation theory define argument as reasoned discourse (Billig 1996: 74) that draws on logic, among other means, in order to be effective. At the same time, argument is an instance of social interaction and as such extends beyond the abstractions of logic to human affairs and the exploitation of non-scientific language. Billig and others build on Bakhtin's theories to show that reasoned discourse is essentially dialogical. Echoing Protagoras (1996: 77) and Gadamer (1996:146), Billig maintains that every argument (logos) elicits a counterargument (antilogos) and that every statement presupposes a question. This dynamic applies not only to spoken dialogue (conversation) but also to written discourse.
The fact that argument is dialogical and functions in real-world situations carries other implications. First, once argument goes beyond deductive logic and penetrates the realm of human affairs, whether it be law, economics, literature, ethics or business, conclusions are no longer valid but probable, because truth cannot be ascertained as readily as in science and logic (Corbett and Connors, 1999: 53). Second, each conclusion or argument can be disconfirmed: it is "defeasible." Antaki (1989: 144-45) cites inductive reasoning as the best-known type of defeasible argument in that it can be disconfirmed by new facts.

Argument, as reasoned discourse, is a component of rhetoric, defined by Corbett and Connors (1999: 1) as "the art of the discipline that deals with the use of discourse, either spoken or written, to inform or persuade or motivate an audience, whether that audience is made up of one person or a group of persons." As the art of persuasion, rhetoric (in its classical form) comprises five functions, including the discovery (inventio) of arguments, the arrangement (dispositio) of the parts of the discourse, and style (elocutio). It is with the help of these last two components that arguments achieve their purpose.

Assigning these broad definitions to argument and rhetoric, Billig, Antaki and others contend that all texts are, to varying degrees, argumentative. Andrews reiterates Habermas' point that "any utterance necessarily carries with it a suite of claims which, if accepted, give the utterance legitimacy, and that even what seem to be bald reports will necessarily carry a weight of [...] claims" (1989: 170).

Thomas, for his part, prefers to talk of "reasoned discourses," while allowing "arguments" as a synonym:

These discourses consist of one or more sentences containing some sentences that are set forth as making probable, proving, justifying or explaining other statements in the same discourse. (1986: 10)
Thus it is reasonable to assume that all forms of instrumental discourse—not only argument but also narrative, description, explanation and dialogue—are to some extent grounded in argument because they are instances of reasoned discourse, although the invention of argument will be more prominent in the expository (explanatory) and argumentative modes (Corbett and Connors 1999: 85).

3.2. Potential contribution of other approaches

Having established argumentation theory as the prime tool in proving our main hypothesis that a new textological TQA model can enhance the reliability and validity of judgments on the quality of translations, we will at the same time draw on other approaches to text analysis for specific aspects of TQA:

1. structural semantics (Greimas)
2. interpretative semantics (Rastier)
3. macrostructure theory (Van Dijk and Kintsch)

3.2.1. Structural semantics

Above and beyond demonstrating how the organization of content in "isotopes" can be used for both microtextual and macrotextual analysis and for establishing the semantics of the text, Greimas maintains that his "actantial" model, which he applies in extenso to literary, narrative texts, can also serve to bring out the forces and values at play in an economics text (1969: 182). In another work, he uses the application of speech act theory and modal analysis to show how research writing in the social sciences and humanities can be analysed and interpreted in terms of broad narrative structures. It would no doubt be possible to compare the "narrative" structures of instrumental translations with their source texts in order to determine whether those structures had been retained fully, partly, or not at all.
3.2.2. Interpretative semantics

Directing his research toward the semantics of the literary text, Rastier divides the field into four components: thematic, dialectic, dialogical and tactical.

(1) "Themes" are reflected in the interconnection of words in semantic networks or "isotopes." Thus the "thematic" coherence of the text is based on the sharing of semantic components by lexical elements. A theme can be a physical concept such as "tobacco" or, at a higher level, an abstract concept such as "human," but themes can also take the form of "topics" (in the Aristotelian sense) in a rhetorical context (1989: 58). Within the text, themes are combined to form an "archithématique," or a configuration of the major themes.

(2) The "dialectic" component parallels Greimas's actantial theory. It encompasses the "story" of the text and, in particular, the interaction between the forces, or actors, in the story. "Story" is not to be taken in a restrictive, literary sense, but as the development of the content of the text, and the "actor" is an entity interacting with others, whatever the field, genre or text type may be. Thus in an economics text, "the drop in the value of the dollar" could be the main actor, and the explanation and discussion of its decline could be the story. The "roles" and "functions" of the actors are the specific manifestations of the interrelationships between them; Rastier draws on Propp's typology and on case grammar here.

With respect to the dialectic component of the text, Rastier introduces two notions that are of particular interest from our perspective. First, he views the actor as operating at a macrosemantic level, in that it acquires and loses semantic values as the "story" progresses. Second, he conceives of an "archidialectique," or a configuration of the major events in the story, which also brings out the relationships between the major themes within the "archithématique."
(3) The "dialogical" component is the narration itself and the communication interplay within and outside the text: type of narration, presence or absence of narrator, use of modalizers, etc. This parallels the narrative mechanisms at play in the scientific or cognitive discourse examined by Greimas.

(4) Finally, the "tactical" component covers the linear arrangement of semantic units.

As well as proposing this fourfold structure of text content, Rastier investigates the mechanisms, or instructions, that guide the reader in interpreting the text, dividing them into intrinsic and extrinsic instructions. The intrinsic ones include metadiscourse of the type "Now I am going to discuss ..." The extrinsic ones involve the application of interpretative rules derived from three groups of norms: cohesion, relevance and coherence norms. There are parallels here with the relevance theory developed by Sperber and Wilson, the application of which to translation has been demonstrated by Gutt (1991).

3.2.3. Macrostructure theory

Van Dijk and Kintsch's approach to establishing the macrosemantic structure of the text is to break it down into propositions, or statements representing the events, actions, states and ideas composing it. Propositions can be grouped together at a higher level into macropropositions, which yield the content macrostructure of the text. At the highest level, the macropropositions feed into the text superstructure, a conventional set of major textual divisions associated with each text type. Thus the superstructure for a narrative comprises four components: setting—complication—resolution—evaluation. For an argumentative text, the superstructure is somewhat more complicated, and is best illustrated by a tree diagram:
As we will see shortly, this structure is based on the argument macrostructure developed by the philosopher Stephen Toulmin.

Because the approach is a cognitive one, the authors explore not only how the text is structured but how the reader interprets the context and, specifically, how he grasps the flow of information and the logical connections between propositions at all levels. Like Rastier, they propose "connectives" that contribute within the text to coherence, cohesion and relevance—conjunctions, anaphors, the topic/comment structure, etc. However, the reader himself uses his own world knowledge to interpret content, particularly in the form of frames and scripts, prototypical mental representations of events, situations environments and contexts (e.g., layout and content of a typical office, taking a trip). In short, the reader can relate the propositions in the text to known frames and scripts in order to make sense of it.

Van Dijk and Kintsch propose yet another cognitive process whereby the reader can follow the flow of information—the application of macrorules. In order to establish and retain in his memory the set of macropropositions that form the storyline or argument in the text, the reader
uses three rules: deletion, generalization, and construction. Applying the deletion rule, the reader selects and retains certain propositions as macropropositions and discards others. Using the generalization rule, he combines two or more propositions into a broader macroproposition. In the cases of construction, components of propositions are taken to build the macroproposition.

The authors illustrate their theories on a number of instrumental texts, isolating macropropositions and connectives and building a diagrammatic superstructure to represent the text content.

Our purpose in giving this all too brief overview of three approaches above is that they all present analytical models that capture the key content elements of the whole text and encapsulate those elements in a macrostructure. Note also that the models do not generate macrostructures at the expense of microtextual elements. On the contrary, the models are based on a synergy between macrotext construction and microtextual analysis.

Furthermore, elements of the above can be used within an argumentation-centred TQA model. The "thematics," or development of themes, can be related both to the predominant concepts in a text and the figures used to convey them and to the main point of the argument in any given text. The "dialogical" or narrative structure of the text is a key weapon in the author's arsenal of means of persuasion. Through actantial theory, the presence/absence and the interrelationship of the various themes and characters in an instrumental text may well support and reflect the argument structure of a text.

Van Dijk and Kintsch's macrostructure model is directly applicable to instrumental documents, as the argument diagram shows. But it is given only as one example among others and does not bring out with sufficient acuity the dynamics of the interrelationships of concepts and the argumentative structure of instrumental texts. If we can develop a model that meets such a
requirement at the macrostructural level, i.e., that represents the essential argument(s) conveyed in the text and the relations among its constituent parts, then we may be able to transpose it to a TQA context in an efficient manner.

3.3 Features of an argumentation-centred TQA model

The overall model that we propose to develop draws on two groups of sources: (1) philosopher Stephen Toulmin’s analysis of argument structure and the work of some other philosophers and linguists who have focussed on issues of reasoning, coherence and cohesion in discourse; and (2) the New Rhetoric of Perelman and others, which is a modern application of Aristotle’s analysis and categorization of argumentation and of the underlying values.

In a recent application of rhetoric to the teaching of writing skills, Corbett and Connors (1999) break their subject down into the three forms of classical rhetoric (there are five in all) that are relevant to written discourse: inventio (discovery of arguments), dispositio (arrangement of parts of the discourse), and elocutio (style). These three will form the basis of our model. However, they need to be complemented by other aspects of the study of argumentation.

Vignaux (1976: 66-98) divides his analysis of argumentation in discourse into a number of broad components: lexicological elements (choice of words); narration (narrator, mood, type of speech act); ordering operations (order of propositions, but also syntactic ordering devices such as conjunctives and other features of cohesion, thematization and emphasis); logical operations (including specific types of argument based, among other things, on topoi, popular opinion and common values); and rhetorical order (the dispositio, or order in which arguments are presented in the text as a whole). Adapting this breakdown for our purposes, we propose to develop our model on the basis of the following discourse categories:
1. Argument macrostructure
2. Rhetorical topology
   a) Organizational schemas
   b) Connectives
   c) Types of argument
   d) Figures
   e) Narrative strategy

We have already alluded to the importance of an understanding of co-text and the essential or central message for quality in translation. Accordingly, we will first establish the broad structure of an argument, our premise being that a translation must reproduce that structure to meet minimum criteria of adequacy. The argument structure is related to, but also different from, the dispositio of classical rhetoric and the propositional macrostructure of Van Dijk and Kintsch.

Second, we will examine features, at the macrotextual and microtextual levels, that establish linkages between the various elements of the argument macrostructure, enable the reader to follow the argument, and contribute to its perlocutionary force. In short, they shape the complexities and detail of the argument—hence the pertinence of using Vignaux’s term "rhetorical topology" to group the selected features. Drawing on Vignaux’s concept of ordering operations, we will examine the types of logical relations that form a text and the types of arguments presented in a text: a document of some length will contain a number of arguments based on different logical relations, and some of the arguments will be more important than others in conveying the essential message(s). In this regard, Andrews cites an Ontario educational study (by Freeman and Pringle) that stresses the importance of the logical interrelationships of all the propositions in the text to the quality of students’ writing:
First, the whole piece of discourse must be unified by either an implicit or (more commonly) an explicitly stated single restricted thesis [...] Secondly, the individual points and illustrations must be integrated within a hierarchic structure so that each proposition is logically linked not only to the preceding and succeeding propositions but also to the central thesis and indeed to every other proposition within the whole text.” (Andrews 1995: 7-8)

Andrews notes, further, that students are generally more competent in narrative writing than in argumentative and expository writing, precisely because the logical linkages between supporting arguments and main thesis, which require a considerable intellectual effort to establish, are of less importance or easier to establish in narrative. It will be interesting to see whether this assessment is borne out when we apply the model to student translations and translation analysis.

Third, drawing on Vignaux’s ordering operations, we will consider connectives, focusing on one particular category of ordering or cohesion devices: conjunctives. Our decision to do so is based (i) on the important role of conjunctives in helping the reader make logical connections between propositions and therefore grasp broader content structures, and (ii) on the fact that they are often mistranslated and can therefore, because of their connective function, be a source of significant text-level error—significant because connectives can occur at “key junctures” in the text (Walton 1989: 109).

Fourth, we will focus on the main types of arguments themselves, determining which ones are particularly relevant to instrumental translation and the extent to which translation of specific arguments affects translation quality.

Fifth, we will consider the translation of figures of speech, which, while not a focus of Vignaux’s work, were an integral part of classical rhetoric and have been "rehabilitated" by modern-day proponents of rhetorical analysis as performing more than just an aesthetic function.
In our view, the sixth category, narrative strategy (énonciation), may be of considerable importance for instrumental TQA in light of recent studies showing how narrative voice can contribute to the effect of an argument (e.g., Ouellet 1984, 1985, 1992).

While this breakdown of argument features suits the purposes of our analysis, we should not lose sight of the synergy between the argument macrostructure itself, as presented by Toulmin, and the components of the rhetorical topology and, indeed, among these components themselves. As we will see later, types of arguments function on the basis of logical relations, conjunctives highlight those logical relations, figures are often arguments in and of themselves, and narrative strategy interacts with all these components throughout the text. At the same time, the components of rhetorical topology feed into the argument macrostructure, creating the argument content of the text, bringing out the links between the macrostructural elements and enhancing the effect of the main argument.

At a subsequent stage, we will need to determine what weight is to be attached to these different features.

3.4. Argument macrostructure

Our first step is to determine what an argument (reasoning) structure is.

Toulmin explores arguments in a variety of areas of specialization and draws the conclusion that the components of an argument are essentially the same in all types of text and that the force of claims and assessments made in texts remain the same as we move from field to field. Objects, ideas and situations under discussion can be labelled "good," "appropriate," "satisfactory," "unsatisfactory," whatever the type, genre, purpose or area of specialization of the text. The key differences are the standards and assumptions by which judgments are made: The criteria against which an assessment or claim concerning the "goodness," "appropriateness," "effectiveness" or "correctness" of an object, idea or situation will vary from field to field. In short, "all the canons
for the criticism and assessment of arguments [...] are field-dependent, while all our terms of
assessment are field-invariant" (1964: 38): the generic elements of argument will be invariant
while the specific kinds and content of those elements will depend on the field.

Note
By "field," Toulmin means "area of specialization"—law, science, business, ethics, etc. His
breakdown of texts is thus different from the categories of classical rhetoric (forensic,
deliberative, and epidictic) and the categories commonly used in education, i.e., narrative,
description, argument, explanation and dialogue. However, even theorists working with the last-
mentioned set of categories relate them to argument structure. For example, Andrews makes a
distinction between modes of discourse and function. Thus narrative and argument are different
modes but they share the argument function, in that both can serve to persuade, inform, clarify or

In a later work, Toulmin addresses the subject of argument (and reasoning) in terms of universal
(field-invariant) and particular (field-variant) rules of procedure, and he proposes a set of
elements that are required for an argument in any field—claims/discoveries, grounds,
warrants/rules, and backings—and two elements that may be required—qualifiers/modalizers
and rebuttals/exceptions/restrictions (1984: 25). A brief explanation and illustration of each of
these terms follows.

3.4.1 Claim/discovery (C)

The claim (or discovery) is the conclusion of the argument, or the main point toward which all
the other elements of the argument converge. The following claims are typical of instrumental
texts for translation:

- recommendations in a policy document or discussion paper
- a request for a specific amount in a grant application or Treasury Board submission
- the announcement of a new health program
- a claim of high energy efficiency of natural gas-heated homes in a survey report
- the judge’s decision in an appeal case
- the classification of a newly discovered plant as belonging to a particular order

We can see from this brief list that the areas of specialization are varied. So are the purposes of discourse—to make a recommendation, a request, a public announcement, a claim of superior performance, a legal decision, an announcement of a scientific discovery. In terms of speech act theory, the claim in all cases is the illocutionary point (intentionality) of the text, and justifying the claim through argument and thereby persuading the reader to accept the validity of the claim and act upon it is the perlocutionary point (intended effect).

3.4.2. **Grounds (G)**

Claims are not free-standing; they have to be supported by one or more pieces of information, which form the grounds of the argument. These are facts, oral testimony, matters of common knowledge, well-known truisms or commonsense observations, historical reports and so on, upon which the sender and recipient of the message can agree.

The grounds for announcement of a new health program may be the observation, or report, of overcrowding in emergency departments of hospitals. Note that a claim may be based on more than one ground. For example, the announcement may also be prompted by an infusion of new funds into the national or provincial health budget.

3.4.3. **Warrant (W)**

Warrants are statements indicating how the facts, observations, etc. in the grounds are connected
to the claim or conclusion. In our health program example, the logical connection between overcrowding in emergency departments and the new health program is the requirement for rapid response implicit in the emergency department mandate.

However, warrants are not self-validating; the must draw their strength from other considerations, known as backing.

3.4.4. **Backing (B)**

The backing is the overarching principle, value, law or standard governing the issue at hand. In the health program example, the principle of universality enshrined in the *Canada Health Act*, along with human and social values of caring for the sick, would provide support for all the other elements adduced to justify introduction of the new program.

Note that the warrant and the backing may be implicit; they may be presuppositions underlying the communication situation. It is this fact that makes the argument macrostructure different from the "disposition" of the argument. In terms of speech act theory, the argumentative value or force of a text is different from its propositional content.

3.4.5. **Qualifier (O) / modalizer**

The qualifier or modalizer is a statement or phrase that enhances or mitigates the force of the claim. Thus the new health program may "definitely," "certainly," "probably," or "possibly" be introduced.

Toulmin stresses the importance of qualifying (or modalizing) statements in the argument structure: "Their function is to indicate the kind of rational strength to be attributed to C [claim] on the basis of its relationship to G [grounds], W [warrant], and B [backing]." (1984: 86).
Accordingly, the translation evaluator should pay particular attention to the treatment of qualifiers in the target text, and for the purposes of this study we will have to consider how much weight to place on failure to render qualifiers in TT.

3.4.6. Rebuttal/exception/restriction (R)

This takes the form of a statement of extraordinary or exceptional circumstances that contradicts or may undermine the force of the supporting arguments. It is often introduced for the sake of caution or modesty. Thus, in our example, the new health program will be introduced "unless the government’s fiscal situation worsens."

The elements of Toulmin’s argument macrostructure are very similar to those of Van Dijk and Kintsch. His model is more refined, however, in that it incorporates the additional features of qualifier and rebuttal and details the logical interrelationship of its main elements.
Depending on the complexity of the argument, the claim may be based on several grounds, each of which would require its own B-W-G-C structure. In such an instance, the ground itself becomes a claim that needs to be supported. Furthermore, a long document may contain a number of claims of equal importance, all of which would require support in the interest of sound argument. As a result, the argument structure of the full text will reflect a chain of arguments.
3.4.8. **Generic framework**

Therefore, assuming Toulmin’s premise that texts in all fields present essentially the same argumentative structure, we already have a generic working framework for our TQA model inasmuch as one of the evaluator’s tasks will be to determine whether the basic argument elements \(B, W, G, C, Q, R\) are accurately rendered in TT if they are present in ST. The base grid could take the form below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claim/Discovery</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier/Modalizer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal/Exception</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4.9. **Field dependency: typology of argument macrostructure elements**

We referred above to Toulmin’s distinction between the field-invariant argument macrostructure and the field dependency of the criteria on which to base argument. It is in the kinds of claims, grounds, warrants, backing, qualifiers/modalizers and rebuttals/exceptions that the field-dependent features of argumentation may be found.

More specifically, we can follow Rybacki’s lead (1995) and say that, broadly speaking, arguments revolve around facts (in law and science), values (in social affairs), or policy (in business and politics) and that the features of argumentation will vary depending on which member of the triad is at play.
Grounds and claims

In legal texts bearing on cases before the courts, claims may revolve around evidence as to whether or not the law has been broken or a contract breached, a particular set of conditions for compensation have been met, etc. The grounds will consist of oral and written testimony by witnesses, documents, and physical evidence of various kinds that support or call in question the assertions of the parties; the court's decision is the claim.

In science, the case at issue, or the grounds, may be signs that something in the natural world needs to be accounted for, such as the symptoms of a rare disease or the behaviour of a virus, and the explanation of the signs or the treatment for the disease or virus will be the claim.

In business administration, the grounds may be loss of profits and the need to increase productivity, evidenced in financial reports, and the claim could be a new business plan or a recommendation to downsize. In short, the argument will be about decision making on policy.

In ethical reasoning, the case at issue will be the rightness or wrongness or the degree of desirability of certain actions, procedures or consequences from the point of view of a particular society. Thus the claim will be a judgment that an action is (not) good, desirable or justifiable, and the grounds will be that the action breaks or is consistent with certain ethical rules or principles. As such, the grounds may be difficult to distinguish from the warrant and backing.

Warrant

Warrants in legal reasoning typically revolve around the reliability of evidence and precedent. In science, they take the form of mathematical formulae, computer models, diagrams, graphs, laws of nature and historical regularities that support the progression from grounds to claim. In business administration, the claim of increased profits or efficiency is supported by the warrant that what promotes the viability and survival of the company should be done (a
value). In a more scientific approach to business, this warrant may in turn be seconded by another warrant of the type used in science, reflecting the perceived reliability and primacy of analytical tools. In the field of ethical reasoning, warrants tend to be closely tied to the grounds. Thus a statement of rightness or wrongness as a warrant is likely to be explicitly reflected in the specific grounds: e.g., "It is deceitful for those in public service to exploit their office for personal gain; therefore it was deceitful of Minister X to award the contract to his/her family member."

**Backing**

Backings in the legal context may be laws or historical experience or practice and, above all, the primacy of the rule of law. In science, too, past experience and practice (laboratory tests in this field consistently show that..., Galileo’s analysis showed that...) are typical backings, but the ultimate backing is the common belief in scientific objectivity, accuracy and effectiveness. In management and public policy, computer models and economic and business theory may be used as backing, but the organization’s values and objectives and relationship to society may constitute backing too: for example, the belief that lower corporate and personal taxes boost national economic performance underlies much of today’s discourse on economic policy.

In ethical reasoning, the intertwining of grounds and warrant carries over into backing. "In the course of everyday argumentation," writes Toulmin, "we commonly take the standard ethical maxims as not in dispute and so as needing no explicit backing" (1984: 411). They are commonly held values (doxa), and to demand justification or to question them would in fact change the case at issue.

**Qualifiers and rebuttals/exceptions**

Qualifiers are often framed in the greater or lesser penalties imposed or damages awarded by the court. The concept of "reasonable doubt" is also a source of qualifiers in arguments presented by
defence counsel. At the same time, since the mode of resolution is adversarial, and the court will necessarily render a decision for or against the plaintiff’s claim, there is usually no place for rebuttals in the court’s written decision. Dissenting opinions in Supreme Court rulings would be one of the few examples of rebuttals in a written decision.

Regarding science, the requirement of objectivity and caution means that qualifiers mitigating the force of claims are commonplace: Based on the clinical evidence, condition X was presumably/very possibly/apparently caused by a virus. The corollary of qualifiers is that there is plenty of room for exceptions and possible rebuttals because of alternate explanations and weaknesses in methodology.

In business administration and public policy, pragmatic considerations of the consequences of success and failure of proposed programs and policies frequently lead proponents to qualify their claims; at the same time, the need to appear convinced and inspire confidence may prompt them to bolster the force of their claims: The program is certain to/will clearly/will necessarily attract more customers. Because of the many interests and interest groups in a business administration or social policy context, a writer may need to present possible rebuttals and counterarguments to them.

As Toulmin points out, "Very few ethical considerations can be put forward with any kind of absoluteness. Instead, they are almost always liable to excuses and exceptions and are subject to challenge on that account" (1984: 412). Further, ethical rules and principles are often incompatible: the rule that one should avoid hurting someone else’s feeling may well be incompatible with the rule of honesty. There is therefore considerable scope for qualifying claims and presenting exceptions to them: The abuse in correctional institutions occurred during Minister A’s term of office, so she should presumably/probably/definitely (qualifier) resign, unless she was deliberately misinformed by bureaucrats (restriction).
3.4.10. Preliminary application of model

Let us see how the argument macrostructure can be applied in translation. The source text below is the statement of a decision by the Ontario Social Benefits Tribunal regarding an appeal against an earlier administrative decision to deny disability benefits. The text below is the conclusion of the whole decision document (see appendix) but summarizes the judge’s argument.

Source text

Was the test for being disabled met?
Under section 23(10) of the Act, the onus is on the Appellant to satisfy the Tribunal that the decision of the Director is wrong. After reviewing all of the evidence provided by the Appellant, the Tribunal determines that the Appellant has not successfully discharged his onus in this case. The Appellant has not satisfied the onus of showing that he was a person with a disability at the time of the application under review. The Tribunal found that each part of the criteria in Section 14(1) of the Act were not met. Therefore, the Tribunal finds that the Appellant was not a disabled person within the meaning of the law at the time the Director made the decision.

The Tribunal took notice of the following information. In the course of his testimony the Appellant testified that he spoke to a female adjudicator at the Disability Adjudication Unit’s office, who verbally informed him that his application for ODSP had been approved. He also testified that his family doctor spoke to the same person and was told the same thing. He testified that he tried to re-contact this person many times but she did not return his calls or those of his family doctor. There is a note on file written by hand by the family doctor that related the telephone conversation he had with the Disability Adjudication Unit. The Tribunal does not have the mandate to investigate and therefore can only make a decision based on the written evidence presented by the Respondent, which included the Health Status Report and the Activity of Daily Living Report as well as the sworn testimonies of the Appellant and his witness.

Order

Appeal denied. The Director’s decision is affirmed.
La personne a-t-elle passé le test pour être handicapée?
Aux termes du paragraphe 23 (10) de la Loi, il incombe à l’appelant de convaincre le Tribunal que la décision du directeur est erronée. Après examen de toutes les preuves fournies par l’appelant, le Tribunal juge que l’appelant n’a pas réussi à s’acquitter de son obligation dans ce cas. L’appelant n’a pas réussi à convaincre le Tribunal qu’il était une personne handicapée au moment de la demande en cours d’examen. Le Tribunal conclut que l’appelant n’a pas satisfait à chaque partie des critères du paragraphe 4 (1) de la Loi. Il conclut donc que l’appelant n’était pas une personne handicapée au sens de la Loi au moment où le directeur a pris sa décision.

Le Tribunal a pris avis des renseignements suivants. Au cours de son témoignage, l’appelant a déclaré qu’il avait parlé à une experte médicale du bureau de l’Unité de détermination de l’invalidité qui l’avait avisé de manière générale que sa demande au Programme ontarien de soutien aux personnes handicapées avait été acceptée. L’appelant a également déclaré que son médecin de famille avait parlé à la même personne et qu’elle lui avait dit la même chose. L’appelant a déclaré qu’il avait essayé plusieurs fois de communiquer de nouveau avec cette personne, mais qu’elle n’avait pas rappelé son médecin ni lui. Le dossier de l’appelant comporte une note manuscrite du médecin de famille qui relatait la conversation téléphonique qu’il avait eue avec l’Unité de détermination de l’invalidité. Le Tribunal n’est pas habilité à enquêter et il ne peut donc prendre sa décision qu’en se fondant sur la preuve écrite que l’intimé a soumis et qui comporte le Rapport sur l’état de santé et le Rapport sur les activités de la vie quotidienne, ainsi que sur les témoignages sous serment de l’appelant et de son témoin.

Ordonnance

Appel rejeté. La décision du directeur est confirmée.

Note

The quality of the target language (French) leaves much to be desired. However, language quality is not the focus of our study, at least at this stage. The incorporation of parameters other than argument-related ones will be broached after the testing phase.
Analysis

The first step is to establish the argument macrostructure of ST. Thus,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>claim</th>
<th>= 1. failure to meet criteria 2. denial of appeal (italics)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>grounds</td>
<td>= 1. written evidence 2. sworn testimonies (boldface)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>warrant</td>
<td>= 1. reliability of evidence and testimony; 2. mandate of Tribunal (shadow)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>backing</td>
<td>= relevant provisions of Act (underlining)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qualifier</td>
<td>= N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rebuttal</td>
<td>= specific elements of appellant’s testimony and written evidence of doctor (double underlining)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Part of the warrant is presupposed. The providers of the evidence and testimony are presumed to be honest and reliable, and the statements are presumed to convey the facts accurately. Note also that, in this example, the rebuttal, which is in fact the argument for benefits advanced by the appellant, carries little countervailing weight because of the restrictions on the Tribunal’s mandate (no authority to investigate).

Furthermore, the claim itself is complex and in fact forms an argument chain in itself. The grounds (the evidence) leads to an initial claim (conclusion that appellant does not meet the criteria for benefits under the legislation). This initial claim then becomes the grounds for the second claim (denial of appeal). This accumulation of grounds and claims prompts Mendenhall (1990: 211) to subdivide these elements into primary and secondary reasons (grounds) and conclusions (claims). We can present the structure graphically:
Thomas would term Conclusion 1 an intermediate conclusion in that it becomes a reason for a final conclusion (1986: 38), and he refers to "chains" of this kind as examples of serial reasoning (1986: 57).

The second step is to establish, through comparative reading, to what extent the argument macrostructure is reflected in TT. We find that it does and we complete the TQA grid as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claim 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant 1</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

+ = adequately rendered in TT  
- = inadequately rendered in TT  
0 = component not explicit in ST or TT
At this stage we have been able to identify the argument macrostructure, or what Walton (1989: 114) calls the "semantic core," of ST and TT and establish the degree of correspondence between them. We have not yet developed a means of determining the impact of non-correspondence of one or more elements on an overall assessment of the macrostructure in translation, nor have we considered what kind of assessment, if any, should be made at the microtextual level.

Furthermore, following up on Bensoussan and Rosenhouse's suggestion that assessment of text-level misinterpretations may avoid the cumbersomeness of other TQA tools (see p. 24), we have established a limited set of six elements on which assessment of overall quality is to be based and which can be applied, in theory, to both students' work and the "industrial" product, whatever its complexity may be.

3.4.11 Argument macrostructure vs. form of argument

Whatever the subject, type or field of the source and target texts, we can identify and consider the claims, grounds, warrants, backing, modal qualifiers and rebuttals in ST and determine to what extent they are rendered in TT. In short, the argument macrostructure is invariant. However, there are explicit features of argument structure that, according to Toulmin, vary according to field: degree of formality, degree of precision, and mode of resolution.

Degree of formality

A clearcut distinction must be made between the argument macrostructure outlined and illustrated above and the order of discourse—the progression of the text and the arrangement of the components of an argument within a text or speech. We have already seen that warrants and backing are frequently left unsaid. Yet, even though they are not present in the form of the text, it is they that legitimize and authorize the passage from grounds to claim:
The item that counts as a reason (ground)—and as motivation, justification, explanation, proof, etc.—depends on the underlying argumentative presuppositions. [Ce qui compte comme raison — et comme motivation, justification, explication, preuve, etc. — dépend des présomptions argumentatives.] (Mendenhall 1990: 190)

The presuppositions can be social or human values and principles or rules of conduct, but they are not exclusive to the social sciences and humanities. The presumption of objectivity is itself a backing for an argument in science. Traditionally, a line has been drawn between the argumentation of science, or demonstration, and the argumentation of law, ethics, politics and social affairs, based on social and cultural values. However, once we accept that there are presumptions even in the "hard" sciences, we must also acknowledge that rhetoric and argument are an integral part of scientific discourse and that a scientific explanation is not merely a demonstration of objective fact. This realization prompts Vignaux to make the following categorical statement: “The clearly argumentative aspect of some scientific texts suggests that the distinction between argumentation and formal demonstration is arbitrary” [L’aspect argumentatif incontestable de certains textes scientifiques conduit à juger comme arbitraire la distinction entre argumentation et démonstration de type formel] (1976: 19). And indeed, the work of Greimas, Ouellet (1984; 1985) and others has shown that discourse and, more specifically, argumentation strategies underlie many a scientific text. So we must be wary of categorizing too hastily on that basis.

If warrants and backing are implicit, they cannot be part of the formal arrangement of the text. Moreover, the claim and the other elements of the macrostructure are not in a fixed order. For example, the claim may be at the beginning of the argument, followed by the grounds justifying it, or at the end, as the logical conclusion of the grounds.

At the same time, the formal arrangement (formality) of an argument may be fixed by the conventions of the community concerned, be it a group of specialists or society at large. The archetypal arrangement is, of course, the order (disposition) of a speech established in classical
rhetoric—exordium, narration, confirmation/refutation, and peroration. The form of an argument may be fixed in a legal case, where due process is paramount, or it may be very flexible, as in the case of literary criticism. Van Dijk and Kintsch give a number of examples of argumentation "schemas" (scientific papers, newspaper articles, etc.). However, within these broad schemas, there is room for considerable variation in the order of arguments and their interrelations, and as a result different types of argumentation may be used to make the same argument:

Clearly, it is possible to identify different types of argumentation based on identical arguments, depending on the disposition and order of these arguments, and they then take on other values because of their changed interrelationships. [Il faut bien voir qu’il est possible de définir des types différents d’argumentation sur des argument identiques, selon la disposition et l’ordre dans lequel ont été placés ces mêmes arguments et qu’ils prennent alors d’autres valeurs par les relations ainsi modifiées qu’ils entretiennent de l’un à l’autre.] (Vignaux 1976: 98)

Here, we are broaching the subject of rhetorical topology and the interrelationships of propositions, which we will expand upon later. Suffice it to say, at this juncture, that the evaluator must be aware of, and recognize, two structures—the argument macrostructure and the disposition of arguments—and factor them into TQA.

Degree of precision

"There is more scope for precision and exactitude of argument in some fields of practical reasoning than in others" (1984: 272). Physics and economics are fields in which arguments can be made with mathematical exactitude. In other fields, such as literary criticism or psychology, the success of an argument may depend less on this kind of exactitude and more on the ability to bring out complex patterns and interrelationships of features and signs. That being said, Toulmin concedes that, with the advent of information technology and other tools, most fields have incorporated measurement into argumentation to some extent.
Mode of resolution

Related to degree of formality, the mode of resolution of an argument depends to a considerable extent on its purpose. Thus in a case at law, the mode of resolution will be *adversarial*, with arguments being presented for and against a particular claim and the judge or jury having to render a verdict for one argument or set of arguments and against another. In other fields, such as management, the mode may be one of *consensus* or *compromise*, as in labour–management negotiations. In more scientific endeavours, such as economics or the natural sciences, the mode may be *evaluative*, *selective* and *integrative*: the writer may evaluate existing theories and hypotheses, select the most appropriate for his purposes, and integrate them into his own claim. Alternatively, the mode may be one of *clarification*, where the argument supports an initial claim.

With these refinements, our prospective grid now looks like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal/exception</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of formality (arrangement, <em>dispositio</em>)/precision/resolution</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter Four
Methodology II: Rhetorical Topology

4.1. Elements of the topology

The translation teacher and the evaluator would expect the trainee and the professional to identify, understand and accurately render the macroelements of a text's argumentation (reasoning) structure. We contend that, if the translator meets these requirements, he will have gone a long way toward conveying to the TT readership the central message(s) of the text. However, he will not meet the requirements fully unless he understands and accurately renders not only the macro-elements but also the network that they form, i.e., their interrelationships, and how the writer of the source text brings out those interrelationships and reinforces the argument accordingly.

Graphically, the macroelements are nodes joined by lines (see diagram, 3.4.7). But what do those lines represent? In fact, they are the arguments themselves, the chain of explicit and implicit statements that justify the claims. Unless the translator grasps those arguments or patterns of reasoning and the rhetorical resources harnessed to maximize their persuasive force, he will inevitably distort the argument macrostructure and the central message of the text.

Therefore, our next step in refining our TQA model is to explore the various types of argument in instrumental texts, their foundations, their structures and their interconnections. In so doing, we will be examining the linkages between the macrostructure and textual elements at a more microtextual, but not necessarily sentence or subsentence, level. The linkages are particularly interesting from a training perspective, given our premise that understanding of the macrostructure should facilitate interpretation of ST at a more microtextual level, and vice versa. In other words, by being able to isolate the macrostructure, the trainee may have a particularly effective means of accurately rendering smaller components of the text that, taken
out of co-text, he does not understand. From a TQA perspective, our task will be to determine whether the specific processes of getting from grounds to claim in ST are accurately rendered in TT, including the role of individual arguments and rhetorical devices and their treatment in TT.

What we will be examining are, to use Vignaux’s terminology, "argumentative operations" and "logical operations." For Vignaux, the progression of a text depends on the use of local (microtextual) procedures that combine to form a "rhetorical topology" (1976: 97-98). The use of the word "topology" is particularly interesting in that it focuses our attention on the arrangement of arguments and their interrelationships: the argumentative structure of the text is flexible, like the geometrical shape, and can change with the dispositio of arguments and development and use of various argumentative, logical and other operations in the text:

To a certain extent, arguments can be considered as separate propositions, the sequence of which takes the form of an interaction, and the speaker/writer has the freedom to arrange this interaction within the limits determined by his situation and that in which production of the discourse takes place. [Dans une certaine mesure, les arguments peuvent être considérés comme propositions distinctes dont la consécution se fera sous forme d’interaction, et c’est de cette interaction que le sujet a la liberté de disposer, dans les contraintes déterminées par sa place et la situation de production discursive.]

(Vignaux 1976: 159)

Rhetoric being the art of persuasion, Vignaux points out that the arrangement (dispositio) of arguments is a prime means of affecting the audience or readership. In fact, the topology—the interaction of, and connections between, the propositions making up the text—is the argumentative strategy at play. Thus, from a TQA perspective, we must determine whether the topology present in ST and the rhetorical features within the topology, all of which are designed to achieve, or which tend to achieve, a given effect, are paralleled by a TT topology and rhetorical features tending toward the same or a similar effect. In so doing, we will examine four key components:
the types of logical relations upon which arguments are built and upon which the argument macrostructure is built. Here we will use Widdowson’s model of propositional functions (1978) and Thomas’s reasoned discourse model (1986) to provide a framework for relationships between ST statements.

the manifestation of the linkages between propositions that make up arguments and between arguments that make up texts. In this context, Vignaux refers to "logical operators" such as causal, additive and adversative conjunctions as means of formalizing and signalling to the reader the structure and direction of arguments, and he stresses the importance of the position of these operators in terms of the arrangement of arguments (1976: 55). Reboul and Moeschler, too, emphasize the role of such features, which they call "argumentative connectors," in minimizing the reader's cognitive effort and helping him to interpret the text by determining the contextual effects of statements:

Connectors give instructions on how to build the context and draw contextual inferences from the statement. [En effet, les connecteurs donnent des instructions sur la manière de construire le contexte et sur la manière de tirer les implications contextuelles de l’énoncé.] (1998: 91)

In short, the connectors help the reader to "build" the argument(s) developed by the writer as the text progresses. They take the form of conjunctives and other grammatical structures (including full-fledged clauses such as “It follows that”) called inference indicators.

the types of arguments themselves. Whereas the arrangement of arguments is the strategic dimension of argumentation, the selection of arguments (inventio or techné in traditional rhetoric) is the tactical dimension, in that they are generally designed to achieve a specific effect localized in space and time.
figures of speech. "New Rhetoric" research has shown that figures, consideration of which was until quite recently restricted to literary criticism and aesthetics, are clearly tools of argumentation and persuasion. Aristotle’s particular interests were the metaphor and periodic style as a support to argumentation, as means of "clarifying and of making the speech lively and attractive" (Ryan, 1984: 166), but the work of Angenot, Hamon, Halsall and others who built on the "New Rhetoric" model has brought to light many figures that, far from being merely stylistic or "ornamental," enhance, or are integral parts of, arguments in a wide variety of fields.

Figures usually function at the microtextual, tactical level of discourse, but they can also be macrotextual, as in the case of certain analogies and extended metaphors. One of Ricoeur’s main arguments in La métaphore vive is that the text, not just the word, is the basis of the change in meaning conveyed by metaphor. Some authors regard figures such as analogy and prolepsis as types of argument in their own right, and indeed Dupriez (1980) includes the classical categories of argument such as the syllogism and the enthymeme in his list of macrotextual-level figures.

narrative strategy. Our analysis will focus on the presence/absence of the implicit author and the devices used to present opinion as fact in the text.

Argumentation thus operates through several mechanisms, and in order to transfer the semantic and pragmatic content of the source text, the translator must grasp both the individual argumentative features and the interrelations of the different mechanisms. Note also that the components of rhetorical topology are by no means restricted to the microtextual level: an organizational relation can represent the content structure of the whole text; a single argument from cause can reflect the argument macrostructure of the text; a single figure (an analogy, irony, antithesis) can cover the whole text; and the narrative strategy operates at text level.
Within the argument structure as a whole (not just the argument macrostructure), it is the organizational relations and conjunctives that would seem to be most crucial, in that they constitute and signpost connections between elements of the argument macrostructure (between grounds and claim, between warrant and grounds, between claim and rebuttal/exception, etc.), within and between individual arguments, and within figures of thought such as antithesis and irony.

**Chart**

**Argument Features and Interrelations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Narrative Strategy</th>
<th>Degree of formality (arrangement)</th>
<th>Degree of precision</th>
<th>Mode of resolution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Macrostructure</td>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>Warrant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>OR</td>
<td>OR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>↑</td>
<td>↑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PFRS</td>
<td>PFRS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CJI</td>
<td>CJI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ARG</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ARG</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Legend

OR = organizational relation
PFRS = propositional functions/reasoning structure
CJI = conjunctive/inference indicator
ARG = individual argument
F = figure

Explanation

The propositional functions, the interpropositional reasoning structure, conjunctives and other inference indicators, placed at the centre of the chart, are the lower-level features of argumentative discourse. They combine to build up the higher-level components of organizational relations, argument macrostructure and arrangement (to which the upward arrows point) and individual arguments and figures (below downward arrows), which may be single propositions or words or may cover the whole text. The narrative strategy (top) governs, and is reflected in, all the other components. Note that organizational relations, while generally macrotextual, can also function at the propositional level.

4.2. Organizational relations

A text is not a random collection of speech acts; it is an organized body of acts reflecting the constraints of language, the communication situation and the purpose of the text: to inform, explain, solve a problem, justify a position, evaluate, persuade, etc. In order to achieve that purpose, the speech acts are organized in a particular way. According to Mendenhall (1990: 49), two main organizational frameworks are possible: the conjunctive framework and the hierarchical framework.

In the conjunctive framework, the acts are independent of one another. They nonetheless combine to achieve a purpose. A weather forecast listing the sequence of meteorological events expected in the coming hours or days would reflect such a framework.
The hierarchical framework is more common in instrumental texts. Here, there is a central, independent (nuclear) proposition—corresponding to the purpose of the text or given part of a text—upon which other, dependent (satellite) propositions act on the basis of a specific type of relation. Mendenhall lists the main types (1990: 50):

problem - solution
action - motivation
action - justification
action - means
goal - means
whole - part
abstract - concrete
family - member
process - stage
thing - trait
genus - species
general - specific

conclusion - reason
situation - background
opinion - evidence
thesis - antithesis
thesis - limitation
thesis - development
thesis - concession
situation - circumstance
assertion - proof
statement - denial
question - answer

Organizational relations permeate discourse, between sentences, between paragraphs and between the various parts of a text. As such, they operate at both the microtextual and the macrotextual level. Indeed, at the highest level, they are an integral part of the argument macrostructure in that they represent the specific links between the macrostructural elements. Thus, in the health care example, the relations between ground (delays and overcrowding in emergency departments; availability of funds) and claim (new program) are those of problem–solution and goal–means. The explanatory mode typical of scientific and technical discourse may be reflected in the process–stage or thesis–development relation (report on testing a hypothesis, IT user guide, etc.), but it is also typical of the social sciences and may be reflected in the goal–means or problem–solution relation in a policy document. Texts of a more argumentative nature may be based on the thesis–antithesis relation (see 7.3.1.2.).
Building on these specific types of relation, we can also evaluate the correspondence between ST and TT in terms of broader arrangements that we alluded to with respect to Toulmin's "degree of formality." Such arrangements will comprise chains of statements linked logically in various ways. There is the classical arrangement proposed by Cicero and Quintilian: introduction, statement of facts, outline of part and shape of argument to be made, proof, rebuttal of counterarguments, and conclusion. It is a structure clearly designed for the law court or political arena, but modern variations of it are commonplace. Another arrangement is the introduction-development-conclusion sequence taught in schools (Ministry of Education and Training of Ontario, 1999:12).

Andrews (1995: 36) bases his plea for an argumentation-centred approach to the teaching of English writing on his contention—supported by strong evidence—that students find difficulty in progressing from a narrative (conjunctive) mode of writing to an argumentative or explanatory (hierarchical) mode. As a result, they may produce a variety of flawed arrangements before achieving a full-fledged argument: "heaps" of unrelated facts and ideas, unfocused chain, illogical chain, pseudo-concept, empty formal arrangement, etc. It may be hypothesized that translation students failing to grasp the organizational relations and arrangement of a source text are likely to produce one of these flawed arrangements in their work.

For argumentation-centred TQA purposes, we must determine the arrangement, or pattern of reasoning, in ST and then assess the degree to which TT reflects that arrangement or pattern.

4.3. Conjunctives and other inference indicators

We referred earlier to Vignaux's concept of progression of argument, and in outlining Toulmin's argumentation macrostructure, we noted how that macrostructures can be built on a chain of argument substructures. Perelman talks not, as Vignaux does, of the interrelation of propositions but of the interrelation of arguments, of the convergence of arguments, and of the
"amplitude" of the argumentation in a text or speech. Progression, chains, interrelations, convergence and amplitude will be signposted and enhanced by various means of signalling logical relations between propositions and guiding the reader through the argumentation. The means therefore play a critical role, which needs to be examined in the context of full-text TQA.

Another reason for incorporating conjunctive forms into our study is that they are frequently misinterpreted, even by seasoned translators, with the result that logical connections established in ST are lost and even reversed in TT. In translation between English and French, the following conjunctives, in particular, are a recurrent source of difficulty:

- *Par ailleurs*—can be adversative (*however*) or additive (*moreover*)
- *Or* (French)—can be adversative or additive
- *En effet*—is additive, but if translated by *in fact*, may be misinterpreted as an adversative
- *Ainsi*—can be additive (*for example*) or causal
- *D’autre part*—can be adversative or additive
- *Thus*—can be causal or additive
- *In fact*—can be adversative or additive

What we propose to do here is to focus on one set of such means, labelled "argumentative operators" by Vignaux, as they play a vital role in argumentation. Vignaux identifies three groups of such operators that help to bring out a broad range of logical links between propositions: those signalling cause and effect; those that formalize the logic of demonstration (e.g., *and, or, if*); and those signalling opposition (e.g., *but, however*). He adds that the actual position (*dispositio*) of the operators in the text is important.

Reboul and Moeschler focus not on the organizational role of operators but on the function of "pragmatic connectors" as tools for interpretation:
The function of the connector's instructions is, precisely, to reconstruct the propositional representations required to interpret the statements involved.

This assumption leads to another, namely that connectors, far from structuring discourse, perform an essentially interpretative function: their function in discourse is to guide the recipient of the message through the process of interpretation. In other words, the chosen connector must serve to reduce cognitive effort, not increase it.

[Les instructions du connecteur ont justement pour fonction de reconstruire les représentations à forme propositionnelle nécessaire à l'interprétation des énoncés.

La conséquence de cette hypothèse est dès lors que les connecteurs, loin de structurer le discours, ont une fonction essentiellement interprétative : s'ils ont une fonction dans le discours, c'est de guider l'interlocuteur dans son parcours interprétatif. En d'autres termes, le choix du connecteur doit être tel qu'il doit jouer un rôle dans la minimisation des efforts cognitifs, et non l'inverse.] (1998: 96)

Therefore, if we accept Reboul and Moeschler's hypothesis, an inaccurate rendering of a connector by the translator would increase the amount of cognitive effort required of the reader and quite possibly lead to a misinterpretation not so much of the individual statement/proposition, or the writer's "local informative intention," as of the text as a whole, or the writer's global informative and communicative intention, if the propositions concerned are part of the text's semantic "core."
They refer to the four types of connector established by Reboul et al. (1985: 112):

- **argumentative**—indicates that the proposition following is an argument for the preceding, central proposition. Examples are *car, en effet, d’ailleurs, au moins, puisque, parce que, comme* and *même*. To use Thomas’s vocabulary, they introduce reasons justifying, proving, explaining or reinforcing a conclusion or claim.

- **conclusive/consecutive**—indicates that the proposition following relates, as a logical deduction or effect, to a preceding argument for it. Examples are *donc, alors, aussi, ainsi* and *par conséquent*. They signal a reason–conclusion relation.

- **counter-argumentative**—indicates a counter-argument to the central proposition. Examples are *mais, bien que, quand même, cependant, néanmoins* and *pourtant*. They signal Mendenhall’s thesis–antithesis, thesis–concession and statement–denial relations.

- **re-evaluative**—indicates that the proposition following implies a review or reassessment of the central proposition. Examples are *finalement, en somme, en fin de compte, de toute façon, au fond, décidément* and *bref*. This type introduces a conclusion derived not from the immediately preceding statement but from a review of a cluster of preceding statements.

Reboul and Moeschler’s categorization is invaluable because it brings out the role of the conjunctive in argumentation in the French language. For English, we will base our study in large part on Halliday and Hasan’s detailed breakdown of conjunctive forms (1976). As the list below shows, their categories parallel those of Reboul and Moeschler up to a point: their causal conjunctives are equivalent to the consecutive ones above, and their adversative conjunctives are equivalent to the counter-argumentative ones. However, the argumentative connectors above are either additive or causal for Halliday and Hasan, and the re-evaluative ones can be additive, temporal or adversative. Note also that Roulet et al. include conjunctions linking subordinate and main clauses in their four categories. However, we will be concentrating here on connectors linking sentences and co-ordinate clauses.
According to Halliday and Hasan, the distinctive characteristic of conjunctives is that they are cohesive "by virtue of their specific meaning [...] they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse" (1976: 226). In other words, the nature of the cohesive relation is semantic, as opposed to the relatedness of form generated by substitution and ellipsis and the relatedness of reference caused by pronouns, demonstratives and reiteration. Further, those meanings can be external (connections between "events") or internal (connections between elements of the discourse, or argument)—hence the importance of this particular type of connector to our premises. This does not mean, however, that other types of cohesion cannot play a role in argumentation.

Below is Halliday and Hasan's detailed breakdown of conjunctives, with illustrations of the use of their four major types in translation. We propose to test this breakdown in our TQA model.

4.3.1. Causal conjunctives

The relationships between the various components of Toulmin’s argument macrostructure are mainly causal. The reason invoked for the claim resides in the grounds, the justification for the grounds is the warrant, etc. Examination of the treatment of causal conjunctives in particular must therefore be an integral of an argumentation-centred TQA model.

External/internal

i. Simple causal: so, then, therefore, hence
ii. Emphatic causal: consequently, because of this
iii. Reason: for this reason, on account of this
iv. Result: as a result, in consequence
v. Purpose: for this purpose, with this in mind

Internal

i. Reversed causal: for, because
ii. **Reason:** it follows, on this basis
iii. **Result:** arising out of this
iv. **Purpose:** to this end
v. **Conditional (also external):**
   Simple: then
   Emphatic: in that case, in such an event, that being so
   Generalized: under the circumstances
   Reversed polarity: otherwise, under other circumstances
vi. **Respective:**
   Direct: in this respect, in this regard, with reference to this
   Reversed polarity: otherwise, in other respects, aside from this

4.3.1.1 *Examples in instrumental translation*

Subject: description of the historical development and situation of the co-operative movement in Europe.

ST

De plus, comme l’action du tiers système s’est orientée vers la production de biens et de services, avec des intensités et selon des modalités variables suivant les pays, elle s’est trouvée en relation avec le marché. *D’où* une conceptualisation contemporaine qui insiste sur la dimension intermédiaire des phénomènes désignés sous l’appellation générique de tiers secteur.
TT

In addition, since the third system has focussed, to different degrees and under conditions that vary from country to country, on the production of goods and services, it has established a relationship with the market. The outcome is a concept that emphasizes the intermediary dimension of phenomena referred to collectively as the third sector.

The conjunctive is an external causal: the writer has presented the historical development of the third sector in the economy (co-operatives). In TT, it is replaced with a noun, outcome, exemplifying lexical cohesion.

4.3.2. Adversative conjunctives

This group, too, is of considerable importance to argumentation, as in discussion documents on the pros and cons of actions and policies and in arguments where the writer is endeavouring to highlight a dichotomy (argument by dissociation) between two concepts or situations.

*External/internal*

i. **Adversative "proper"**

- Simple: yet, though, only
- Containing "and": but
- Emphatic: however, nevertheless, despite this

ii. **Contrastive**

- Avowal: in fact, actually, as a matter of fact
- Contrastive (external):
- Simple: but, and
- Emphatic: however, on the other hand, at the same time
iii. Corrective
   Of meaning: instead, rather, on the contrary
   Of wording: at least, rather, I mean

iv. Dismissal
   Closed: in any case, in either case, whichever way it is
   Open-ended: in any case, anyhow, at any rate, however it is

4.3.2.1. Example in instrumental translation

Subject: inventory of sources of information for statistical surveys

ST
Il était convenu dans le cadre de l'entente de 1999-2000 de limiter la révision de
l'inventaire aux fiches jugées prioritaires. Étant donné la date de la dernière mise à jour
complète, il a toutefois été observé que la presque totalité des fiches demandaient à être
révisées, ne serait-ce que pour valider les noms et coordonnées des personnes
responsables des sources inventoriées.

TT
It was agreed in the 1999-2000 agreement to limit the inventory revision to priority files.
Considering the date of the last complete update, *we maintained that* almost every file
needed to be revised, if only to validate the names and addresses of the persons
responsible for the inventoried sources.
Note that the translator fails to provide any equivalent for the external adversative in ST and, by misinterpreting the finite verb in the second sentence, misconstrues the chronology of reported events: the observation took place during the revision of the inventory. As a result, the adversative logical connection between the two propositions is lost.

4.3.3. **Additive conjunctives**

Additive conjunctives should be commonly found in translations of texts where points are explained, exemplified, and emphasized.

*External/internal*

i. **Simple additive**
   - Additive: and, and also
   - Negative: nor, and... not
   - Alternative: or, or else

*Internal*

ii. **Complex, emphatic**
   - Additive: furthermore, in addition, besides
   - Alternative: alternatively

iii. **Complex, de-emphatic**
   - Afterthought: incidentally, by the way
iv. **Apposition**

- Expository: that is, I mean, in other words
- Exemplificatory: for instance, thus

v. **Comparison**

- Similar: likewise, similarly, in the same way
- Dissimilar: on the other hand, by contrast

4.3.3.1. *Example in instrumental translation*

**Subject:** inventory of sources of information for statistical surveys

**ST**

Il est à noter que la source T-YA02 a été incluse même s’il s’agit d’une source américaine car elle contient plusieurs points qui entrent en relation avec la source T-DP09, fiche déjà rattachée à l’inventaire et également d’origine américaine. *De plus,* les données de ces deux enquêtes américaines constituent un point de référence utile pour les données canadiennes.

*D’autre part,* quelques modifications se sont avérées nécessaires dans la mise en forme du site Web, afin d’améliorer la présentation générale de l’inventaire et de clarifier la définition de certains champs.

**TT**

Note that, even though it is American, source T-YA02 was included because it contains many points relating to source T-DP09, another American file already included in the inventory. *Furthermore,* the data in these two American surveys make a useful point of reference for Canadian data.
Moreover, to improve the general presentation of the inventory and to clarify the
definition of certain fields, some changes to the web site format were proved necessary.

The translator renders the additive force of the conjunctives, although D’autre part can be
adversative. It is the translator’s ability to determine the nature of the connection between the
two propositions in this case, not the conjunctive itself, that ensures accurate transfer.

4.3.4. Temporal conjunctives

Commonly associated with narrative documents, this type of conjunctive can also play an
important role in the ordering of ideas in more clearly argumentative material.

*External/internal*

1. **Simple temporal (external only)**
   - Sequential: then, next, after that
   - Simultaneous: just then at the same time
   - Preceding: previously, before that

2. **Conclusive**
   - Simple: finally, at last

3. **Correlative forms**
   - Sequential: first...then
   - Conclusive: at first...in the end
iv. **Complex (external only)**
   - Immediate: at once, thereupon
   - Interrupted: soon, after a time
   - Repetitive: next time, on another occasion
   - Specific: next day, an hour later
   - Durative: meanwhile
   - Terminal: until then
   - Punctiliar: at this moment

*Internal*

v. **Internal temporal**
   - Sequential: then, next, secondly
   - Conclusive: finally, in conclusion

vi. **Correlative forms**
   - Sequential: first…next
   - Conclusive: …finally

vii. **"Here and now"**
    - Past: up to now, hitherto
    - Present: at this point, here
    - Future: from now on, henceforward

viii. **Summary**
    - Summarizing: to sum up, in short
    - Resumptive: to resume, to return to the point
4.3.4.1.  Example in instrumental translation

Subject: inventory of sources of information for statistical surveys

ST
L’inventaire comprenait alors 65 fiches au total. Nous avons fait en premier lieu un appel à tous via le bulletin d’information du Compendium de septembre dernier afin de sensibiliser les gens et de les encourager à valider les données des fiches sous leur responsabilité. Ensuite, nous sommes entrés en communication avec les personnes contacts (our les personnes répondantes, selon les situations) soit par téléphone, soit par courrier électronique, soit par télecopieur. Nous leur demandions alors de vérifier si toutes les informations inscrites dans les fiches décrivant leurs données étaient encore d’usage aujourd’hui et si certaines informations devaient être ajoutées ou modifiées. Nous leur indiquions au préalable les champs pour lesquels nous percevions des changements possibles.

TT
We began by notifying everyone via the Compendium’s September newsletter to inform them of the project and to encourage them to validate the data files falling under their responsibility. Then we corresponded with the contact persons (or respondents, according to the situation) by telephone, e-mail or fax. We asked them to verify if the information describing the data in the files was still accurate and if any information had to be added or modified. We notified them first of which fields we felt possibly required changes.

The propositions in the paragraph are connected by a series of external temporal conjunctives. However, the translation of au préalable by first in the last sentence is confusing. The translator could have incorporated the last sentence in the penultimate sentence in order to clarify the sequence of events, as follows:
We notified them of the fields that, in our opinion, might require changes and asked them to verify if the information describing the data in the files was still accurate and if any information had to be added or modified.

4.3.5. **Frequency and variety of conjunctives: a translation error case study**

Our last example illustrates the use of several types of conjunctives within the same paragraph and the considerable problems that await the ill-prepared translator.

Subject: computer program for processing and displaying statistical data on cars, vans and light trucks in Canada.

**ST**

Le programme indiquera également un problème au niveau des marques JEEP qui n’apparaissent naturellement pas dans le dictionnaire des marques d’automobile. C’est ainsi qu’on a relevé plusieurs erreurs au niveau de la variable de l’ENUVeP qui indique le type du véhicule sélectionné afin de remplir le carnet d’achats de carburant. *En effet,* cette variable a été utilisée, au départ, dans le but de distinguer entre les voitures et les camions légers et de former deux fichiers traités séparément par le programme de fusion. *Or,* il s’est avéré dans certains cas qu’un type de véhicule mal spécifié avait entraîné le placement erroné d’un camion dans le fichier des voitures, comme l’illustre l’exemple précédent, ou vice versa. Une caractérisation adéquate dans les dictionnaires permet donc de valider certaines informations contenues dans les données d’enquête.

**TT**

The program will also indicate a problem of JEEP makes, which, naturally, is not in the dictionary of car makes. *In this way,* many errors were identified in the NaPVUS variable that indicate the type of vehicle selected to complete the fuel purchase diary. *In fact,* this variable was used, at the beginning, to differentiate between cars and light trucks and
vans to form two files that are processed separately by the merge program. It turned out that, in some cases, a type of vehicle poorly specified led to the truck being poorly placed in the cars file, as illustrated in the preceding example, or vice versa. An adequately specified dictionary therefore allows certain information found in the study data to be authenticated.

While the first conjunctive (additive) is correctly rendered, the second (ainsi, additive) is slightly misinterpreted as an external causal, rather than an additive, and the third (en effet, additive) could be misinterpreted as an adversative by the reader. Non-translation of the additive Or is a valid solution for the third conjunctive. However, the fourth conjunctive (donc) is incorrectly rendered as an internal causal, whereas it is in fact a summarizing temporal and should have been translated by in short or to sum up.

What this short case study shows is that the conjunctive's role as an instruction is not sufficient to guide the reader through the text, because in many instances it can be interpreted variously, depending on the logical connection between two or more propositions. Thus Halliday and Hasan's contention that conjunctives do not in and of themselves create cohesion seems to be borne out. Their meaning and the cohesion relation are, in fact, activated by the reader, and by the translator, on the basis of their understanding of the surrounding propositions. Once again, the microtextual is contingent on the macrotextual.

4.3.6. Other inference indicators

Thomas defines a reasoned discourse as "any discourse in which some statement is given as a reason for some conclusion" (1986: 12). He goes on to list words and phrases serving to indicate that one statement is being given as a reason for another; he calls them inference indicators. They include the causal conjunctives identified by Halliday and Hasan, but he adds to them a number of verb phrases and clauses that Joseph Williams categorizes, along with conjunctives, as the "metadiscourse" of writing, in that writers thereby refer to the act of writing or arguing by
explicitly establishing a causal or other relationship between facts, events or concepts (1995: 40). They are thus part of the narrative strategy to be discussed in greater detail in 3.10. They precede either reasons or conclusions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preceding reasons</th>
<th>Preceding conclusions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>as shown by</td>
<td>This, which shows that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>follows from</td>
<td>allows us to infer that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>being that</td>
<td>suggest very strongly that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seeing that</td>
<td>proves that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assuming that</td>
<td>that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may be inferred from</td>
<td>You see that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may be derived from</td>
<td>It follows that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is clear from</td>
<td>In this way we see that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>etc.</td>
<td>etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thomas contends that modal (auxiliary) verbs can be inference indicators too: e.g., "based on these facts, the event must have occurred in 1756." Here, the modal verb acts as a qualifier (modalizer) in the sense given the term in Toulmin’s model. Some of the inference indicators listed above also act as qualifiers. There is, for example, a difference in force between "X proves that," on the one hand, and "X suggests" or "X leads me to believe," on the other.

At the same time, Thomas points out that some reasoned discourse contains few if any inference indicators. The reader then has to base his understanding of the reasoning on propositional content alone. Inference indicators are nonetheless commonplace and, whether they are conjunctives, verb phrases or clauses, they contribute to establishing a chain of reasoning. Their omission or distortion can therefore be of significant consequence in a TQA context.
4.4. From inference indicators to propositional function

The next step in the modelling process is to establish linkages between conjunctives and other inference indicators and the higher-level argument structures described by Toulmin, Mendenhall and other scholars. In other words, we have to find analytical tools enabling us to incorporate in the model the quality of coherence as the logical extension of cohesion.

Both Thomas and Widdowson propose a step-by-step procedure for determining and expressing the propositional development or chain of reasoning that gives a discourse its coherence. Thomas’s procedure is as follows (1986: 66–73):

1. Identify and circle all inference indicators
2. Isolate (in brackets) separate statements (propositions) constituting the discourse
3. Supply and circle any inference indicators that do not appear but are clearly suggested
4. Present propositions in an arrow diagram

Any given reason–conclusion pair of statements can, however, involve more than one reason or conclusion. Thomas’s model provides for this with three types of complex reasoning:

1. Divergent reasoning—same reason given for two conclusions

   Example
   The Quebec government has earmarked $1.5 billion for health care.
   Therefore emergency unit conditions will improve and home care resources will be increased.

2. Linked reasoning—two or more reasons leading to one conclusion, where each reason is necessary but insufficient in itself for the conclusion to be drawn
Example

The Quebec government has earmarked $1.5 billion for health care and has made the hiring of doctors in remote areas of the province a priority.
Therefore the supply of doctors in remote areas should increase.

3. convergent reasoning—two or more reasons supporting one conclusion independently of one another, i.e., each is sufficient

Example

The Quebec government has earmarked $1.5 billion for health care and has offered doctors working overseas tax-exempt status if they come to work in the province.
Therefore the supply of doctors should increase.

Widdowson too uses inference indicators as a means of characterizing propositional development and suggests supplying one, where none exists, as a way of determining or clarifying the logical relationship between propositions. His model differs from that of Thomas, however, in that it applies to all relationships between propositions, not just reason–conclusion pairs. He proposes a broad distribution of propositions into theme and support elements, which are then characterized according to what he calls their illocutionary function (purpose) within the discourse:

generalization (main theme)
clarification (introduced by additive conjunctives such as for example and that is)
elaboration (introduced by additive conjunctives such as in addition and moreover)
consequence (introduced by causal conjunctives such as therefore and as a result)
qualification (introduced by adversative conjunctives such as however and on the contrary) (1978: 130–139)
Note

The other inference indicators listed by Thomas can play the same roles.

We will add a function not explicitly stated by Widdowson, probably because it is closely related to clarification and consequence: explanation. In fact, it is the converse of consequence in that it serves to provide reasons for facts, events and concepts. A typical conjunctive would be for, and all the inference indicators in Thomas's "preceding a reason" list would signpost this function.

The following illustrates how Widdowson's models could be applied to translation analysis.

Example

The function type, in boldface and in square brackets, follows the words it refers to. Explicit inference indicators are in italics; implicit ones are italicized within parentheses.

Le Québec a connu en 1999 une croissance rapide [generalization]: (plus précisément) son produit intérieur brut (PIB) a progressé de 3,8%, la deuxième meilleure performance de la décennie, ne le cédant que de peu à 1994 (+3,9%) [clarification]. L'économie québécoise a évidemment [qualifier] bénéficié d'un environnement nord-américain très favorable : l'ensemble du pays a connu l'an dernier un rythme de croissance de 4,2% égalant à cette occasion la progression enregistrée aux États-Unis [explanation]. Le Québec a donc connu encore une fois une croissance inférieure à celle de l'ensemble du pays [consequence]. Toutefois, si on tient compte de l'évolution de la population, on note que la progression per capita est la même au Québec que dans l'ensemble du Canada, ce qui vaut non seulement pour 1999 mais pour toute la période 1993-1999 [qualification].
Like Thomas, Widdowson represents the propositional development graphically by means of an arrow diagram.

**Theme**

![Diagram of Theme and Support](image)

**Support**

Generalization -> Clarification

Consequence <- Explanation

Qualification

Translation of example

A rapidly expanding economy

In 1999, Quebec experienced rapid growth [generalization]: *(specifically)* the 3.8% rise in GDP was the province’s second best performance of the decade, falling just short of the 1994 mark of 3.9% [clarification]. The Quebec economy *clearly* benefited from a very favourable North American environment: the 1999 growth rate for Canada as a whole was 4.2%, equalling that of the U.S. [explanation]. *Thus* Quebec’s growth rate was once again below the national rate [consequence]. *However*, if we factor in population changes, we find that per capita growth in Quebec equals the national rate, both for 1999 and for the 1993-99 period as a whole [qualification].

Incorporating this type of analysis into our model makes it possible to identify the various elements of the serial reasoning in a discourse—the elements that make it coherent. It is then possible to identify and explain text-level deficiencies in TT, as illustrated below in the analysis of a student’s translation of an economics text.
Source text

Longtemps abritée derrière ses frontières, la France exporte maintenant une partie extrêmement importante de sa richesse nationale [generalization] : (plus précisément) 40 % de sa production industrielle, 17 % de son produit intérieur brut [clarification]. C'est assez dire [inference indicator following reason] à quel point l'amélioration du niveau de vie des Français dépend maintenant des exportations de notre pays [consequence].

Les économistes ont calculé cette dépendance [generalization]. (Et) Ils sont arrivés à la conclusion qu'à une croissance de 15 % environ de nos exportations cette année succéderait l'an prochain un progrès de 4 à 5 % seulement [elaboration]. (Par ailleurs) Ce chiffre tient compte de la réduction volontaire des exportations de produits intermédiaires à base de pétrole qu'il faudra opérer pour servir en priorité le marché intérieur [elaboration]. C'est dire [inference indicator following reason] qu'au lieu d'augmenter de quelque 24 milliards de francs en 1999, comme il était prévu, nos exportations (160 milliards de francs cette année, pour une richesse nationale de 1.000 milliards) ne croîtront que de 7 milliards [consequence]. Perte : 17 milliards [consequence].

Le manque à gagner sera en fait plus important [generalization/elaboration]. Car exportant moins, les chefs d'entreprise français investiront probablement moins, tandis que les particuliers consommeront également moins [explanation] du fait de la pénurie d'essence et d'une moindre amélioration de leur pouvoir d'achat [explanation]. La progression de la consommation des ménages pourrait ainsi revenir de 5,5 % cette année à 2,5 % ou 3% seulement l'an prochain [consequence].
Translation for assessment/revision and assessment in terms of propositional functions

After sheltering itself behind its borders for a long time, France now exports a large amount of its national wealth [generalization]: 40% of its industrial production which is 17% of its gross domestic product [clarification error]. Suffice to say the great degree the improvement in the standard of living of the French depends on France’s exports [elaboration].

Economists calculated this dependency and concluded that an increase this year of about 15% in our exports would only create a 4-5% improvement next year [elaboration error]. This figure takes into consideration an intentional reduction in exports of oil-based intermediate products that will first serve the domestic market [elaboration].

Instead of increasing our exports by some 24 billion francs in 1999 as planned, (160 billion francs this year, for a national wealth of 1000 billion) they will only increase by 7 billion, resulting in a loss of 17 billion francs [clarification error].

The loss of profit will be, in fact more significant [generalization error]. As a result of the decrease in exports [clarification error], French company owners will probably invest less [consequence], while individuals consume equally less, due to the gas shortage and a smaller improvement in purchasing power [explanation]. The rise in household consumption could return to 5.5% this year and to 2.5 or 3% the next year [consequence error].

Thus the analysis of propositional function immediately enables us to characterize most of the errors in terms of coherence and reasoning and to give characterization explanatory value. We can take the analysis even further and, using Thomas’s nomenclature, identify the type of reason-conclusion relationships at issue. In the third paragraph, the conclusions in the reason–conclusion (Car...) and conclusion–reason (...du fait...) pairs are in fact intermediate,
serving as convergent reasoning for the conclusion in the final statement (...ainsi...). The translator did not recognize the serial reasoning.

We are now in a position to add a second and a third dimension to our argumentation structure and TQA grid.
### Argument Structure I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macrostructure</th>
<th>Backing</th>
<th>Warrant</th>
<th>Grounds</th>
<th>Qualifier</th>
<th>Claim</th>
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**Reasoning Structure**

| Serial reasoning |  |  |  |
| Divergent reasoning |  |  |  |
| Convergent reasoning |  |  |  |
| Linked reasoning |  |  |  |
4.5. Types of argument

4.5.1. Overview

There are various ways of categorizing arguments and argumentation. In the interest of presenting as clearly delineated a structure as possible and at the same time providing a comprehensive list of argument types that would be relevant to today's translation world, we will use Ryan's and Declerq's broad categorizations of Aristotelian arguments and then use the work of Perelman, Toulmin and others to refine and detail that breakdown.

According to both Ryan (1984) and Declerq (1993), an Aristotelian typology of arguments, or more properly reasoning, is based on the following criteria:

- necessary, permanent premises, as found in science and mathematics, versus probable, debatable premises, as in politics and law. The premises of science are those of physical states of affairs and are used to demonstrate a particular claim, which is considered correct or incorrect, valid or invalid. The premises of law, politics and other social sciences and humanities are those of human states of affairs and are used to argue for or against a particular claim, which is considered acceptable or unacceptable, probable or improbable. As we stated earlier, there is a significant body of literature attesting to the argumentative features of scientific writing. The broad distinction made above is nevertheless a useful starting point for a typology.

- Demonstration belongs to the realm of logic, argumentation to the realm of dialectic (structured argument between two parties; the art of critically investigating opinions) and rhetoric (art of persuasion through speech and, by extension, writing).

- The structural basis of all reasoning and adducing of proof is the syllogism, comprising three parts—major premise, minor premise, and conclusion (claim), e.g.,
Every broad-leafed plant is deciduous.

Every vine is a broad-leafed plant.

Therefore, every vine is deciduous.

The scientific syllogism is always a triad. The dialectical syllogism is a triad, too, except that its major premise is not a physical, scientific fact but a commonly held belief or value. In the case of the rhetorical syllogism, or enthymeme, that commonly held belief is presupposed, not stated, but remains an integral part of the argument; the overt reasoning structure is thus a dyad, and in its most abbreviated form, the maxim, is a monad. The ostensible reason for this brevity is that, in order for the reader or listener to be persuaded, arguments must be lively, uncomplicated, and based on beliefs that he or she is familiar with and adheres to unquestioningly.

However, Ryan proposes a second subcategory of argument in rhetoric, in addition to the rhetorical syllogism—the paradigm syllogism. Whereas the rhetorical syllogism (enthymeme) is based on inference and deduction, the paradigm syllogism is based, broadly speaking, on induction. We continue with the "health crisis" scenario as our illustration:

Enthymeme

[People require adequately funded health care to get well.]

People are being turned away from emergency departments.

Therefore, more money must be invested in health care.
Paradigm syllogism

[People require properly funded health care to get well.]
People are being turned away from emergency departments in Toronto.
People are being turned away from emergency departments in Ottawa.
People are being turned away from emergency departments in Sudbury.
Therefore, the Ontario government must invest more money in health care.

Maxim

More investment in health care means fewer crises in Ontario's hospitals.

In all three cases, the commonly held belief remains implicit, but in the paradigm syllogism, the
series of particular examples forms a paradigm and leads to a general conclusion.

The following table summarizes the typology.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of Argument</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True (necessary, permanent) premises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DEMONSTRATION</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>in science and mathematics</td>
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<td><strong>LOGIC</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Means of adducing proof</td>
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<tr>
<td>Syllogism</td>
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</table>

(Adapted from Declerq 1992: 35)
At this stage, we can make another hypothesis concerning the relevance of the distinctions between the various kinds of syllogisms. In nonscientific texts, the major premise may well be presupposed; therefore the translator will not accurately render the argument structure of a nonscientific ST unless he can "fill in the gap" and complete the syllogism on the basis of his encyclopedic knowledge (of the commonly held belief or value) and his ability to infer what that belief is from the co-text.

In nonscientific writing—and, we assume, in the nonscientific translations upon which we intend to test our hypotheses—major premises will always be commonly held beliefs or values (or doxa): the overriding value of caring for the sick, the belief that smaller government is better government, etc. In order to draw conclusions starting from the (implicit) major premise, Aristotle identified a number of reasoning patterns, called topoi, that were to be used in arguments. Such patterns may be based on quantity (more/less), possibility (possible/impossible) or reality (real/unreal) in all types of text, degree of usefulness (useful/harmful) in politics, and degree of justice (just/unjust) in law.

We can therefore say that arguments have two functional components: a logical component, reflected in the pattern of reasoning and its validity, and an ideological component, reflected in the acceptability of the underlying values/beliefs to the readership. In addition, there is a third functional component, the psychological one, based on the emotional appeal of the speech or text and the relationship thus established between sender and receiver of the message. This third component of argumentation will be based on the sender's use of specific devices to "win over" the receiver, and this is where a fourth component, the aesthetic one, comes into play in the form of figures and other devices. Arguments in scientific and nonscientific texts will embrace these components to varying degrees: in some, the logical component will dominate, with a claim being made and supported by a logical pattern of reasoning; in others, the psychological component will dominate, with a pattern of reasoning being combined with devices designed to
appeal to the reader’s or listener’s emotions so as to ensure acceptance of the claim. For the evaluator, the manifestation of all four components in the source text would have to be rendered accurately in the target text for the translation to meet standards of adequacy.

Now that we have outlined the general categories and components of arguments, we can refine our categorization, listing specific types of argument, identifying the patterns of reasoning involved, and illustrating them with examples from translations. In this way we hope to bring out the importance of understanding and rendering argument to translation work, both at the macrotextual and the microtextual levels, and how deficiencies in the translated argument may jeopardize the usability of the text. The types of argument discussed by Perelman (1969;1997) and Corbett and Connors (1999) are legion. We have selected the ones that, according to Mendenhall (1990) and Rybacki (1995), reflect the presuppositions underlying the modern-day concept of rationality in argumentation, in which logical or quasi-logical relations are sought and detected between phenomena:

- things and events are linked
- many kinds of relations are possible between them
- things and events form an interactive system
- events and things can be arranged hierarchically according to their value
- every event has a cause
- every action has effects
- there are causal regularities (which facilitate prediction)
- there are signs, clues and precursors of events
- things in groups share certain characteristics

Mendenhall boils this list down to four main types of relation (1990: 197):

- causality (cause X linked to effect Y)
- sign (sign X linked to referent Y)
• belonging \((X\text{ and } Y\text{ are linked as members of the same family [induction, generalization]})\)

• similarity \((X\text{ and } Y\text{ are linked because of shared, comparable, corresponding characteristics})\)

The types and examples below, by no means exhaustive, are all based on one of those relations.

Note
The arguments below are presented according to the five topic categories proposed by Corbett and Connors (1999: 84-130): definition, comparison, relationship, circumstance and testimony. Such arguments may be developed throughout the text (at the macrotextual level) or within a paragraph or even a sentence (at the microtextual level). Our examples are necessarily microtextual.

4.5.2. Definition

According to Corbett and Connors, the topic of definition can be used for clarifying a point at issue, suggesting a line of argument, or establishing a norm against which other propositions can be judged.

Example
Text type: page on website of national organization
Purpose: to help young Canadians deal with dating, family and friendship issues

ST
VIOLENCE AND RESPECT: Destruction of your personal property is a form of emotional abuse and potentially could lead to violence and physical abuse in your relationship. Please think about your personal property as a symbol of your personality. If someone attacks your property, they might as well be attacking you.
VIOLENCE ET RESPECT : La destruction de vos biens est une forme de violence psychologique et pourrait conduire à de la violence physique dans votre relation. Considérez vos biens personnels comme étant le reflet de votre personnalité. Donc, en faisant violence à vos biens, on vous fait violence à vous.

In fact, there are two argumentative definitions in ST: (1) destruction of personal property = form of violence; (2) personal property = symbol of personality. They are used as major and minor premises of a syllogism, the conclusion of which is the final proposition. The translation renders the syllogism adequately.

Example

Text type: report on official languages situation in Quebec Region, Department of Human Resources Development of Canada

Purpose: to identify areas for improvement in services and staffing

ST

Prestations de services bilingues aux employés

Une région désignée bilingue est un secteur géographique où les deux langues officielles sont habituellement utilisées, notamment en ce qui concerne la langue de travail. Dans les régions désignées bilingues, les employés ont le droit de travailler dans la langue officielle de leur choix sous réserve de servir le public. Ils ont droit à des instruments de travail, à des services centraux et personnels et à la supervision dans la langue de leur choix. Les réunions devraient se faire dans les deux langues.
Régions bilingues prescrites au paragraphe 35(2) de la loi des langues officielles :

Région de la capitale nationale
La province du Nouveau-Brunswick
La région bilingue de Montréal
Les régions bilingues des « autres parties du Québec »
La région bilingue de l'est de l'Ontario
La région bilingue du nord de l'Ontario

TT

Provision of bilingual services to employees

A designated bilingual region is a geographic sector where both official languages are normally used, particularly as languages of work. In designated bilingual regions, employees are entitled to work in the official language of their choice, subject to requirements regarding service to the public. They are entitled to receive work instruments, central services, personal services and supervision in the language of their choice. Meetings should be conducted in both official languages.

Bilingual regions under section 35(2) of the Official Languages Act:

National Capital Region
Province of New Brunswick
Bilingual region of Montreal
Bilingual regions in other parts of Quebec
Bilingual region of Eastern Ontario
Bilingual region of Northern Ontario
This example illustrates the two types of argument from definition: genus and division. "Designated bilingual region" is defined, in the first paragraph, by certain qualities (genus) and, in the second, by its various components (division). The translation renders the two definitions adequately.

In the examples, the definitions serve to set norms against which degree of violence in behaviour (in the first) and degree of service in both official languages (in the second) is to be assessed.

4.5.3. Comparison (similarity, difference, degree)

We know from our consideration of the differences between scientific demonstration and non-scientific argumentation that the premises underlying rhetorical reasoning are based on probability and commonly held, assumed values or beliefs and that the ideological, psychological and aesthetic components of argument interact with the logical. Hence, Perelman, following Aristotle, refers to argument with a dominant component based on formal reasoning as quasi-logical. We have assumed that the following subtypes of quasi-logical argument are recurrent in texts for translation:

i. Identity (rule of justice)

"The rule of justice involves giving identical treatment to beings or situations of the same kind" (Perelman, 1969: 218). This means reducing compared entities to those elements that are identical. The argument is particularly applicable in law, where the rule of justice calls for beings in the same essential category to be treated in the same way. Relation: similarity.
Example

Text type: letter

Purpose: to enlist recipient’s support for the development, by the Ministry of Education of Ontario, of a curriculum in LSQ (French sign language) for Francophones with a hearing disability

ST

Il n’existe pas beaucoup d’outils en ce moment pour développer un curriculum complet en LSQ. Nous avons un grand besoin de personnes compétentes en LSQ pour voir au cheminement de ce dossier attendu depuis 1993, l’année où la LSQ fut permise comme langue d’enseignement dans les établissements ontariens.

Par contre, du côté anglophone, on a déjà une grande avance dans la création d’un curriculum ASL. Il en est de même chez les autochtones. Madame la Ministre va-t-elle nous accorder les mêmes droits?

TT

There are not many tools at this time to see to the development of a complete QSL curriculum. We have a great need of human resources who are competent in QSL to see to the furtherance of this matter, which has been awaited since 1993, the year when QSL was allowed as a language of instruction in Ontario institutions.

On the other hand, on the Anglophone side, they have already made great strides in the development of an ASL curriculum. It is the same situation with the Aboriginal peoples. Will Ms. Ecker give us the same rights?

The translation contains defects both of meaning and of language, but the argument is preserved. It is based on the equating of Francophones to Anglophones and Aboriginal people as linguistic groups; as such, Francophones deserve the same level of education programs.
ii. Reciprocity

This argument is related to the rule of justice, except that the compared entities are not identical but in a symmetrical, counterpart or transpositional relationship. Relation: similarity.

Example

Text type: Industry Canada internal procedures circular
Purpose: communicate procedures for detention, forfeiture and disposal of seized goods

ST

Il existe deux mécanismes autres que la confiscation ou la disposition du matériel:

a) Remise volontaire du matériel au Ministère par le propriétaire.

b) Restitution du matériel au propriétaire avec ou sans conditions.

TT

There are two alternatives to forfeiture and disposal:

a) Voluntary release of equipment by owner to the Department.

b) Release of equipment to the owner with or without conditions.

The reciprocity resides in the reversal of roles (the department as giver, and the owner as receiver) in alternative (b), which is reflected in TT.

iii. Transitivity

"Transitivity is the formal property of certain relations that makes it possible to infer that because a relation holds between a and b and between b and c, it therefore holds between a and c" (Perelman, 1969: 227). Relations of equality, superiority and inclusion (similarity and belonging) are transitive.
Example

Text type: Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC) brief to Canadian House of Commons Standing Committee on Finance

Purpose: influence decisions on funding of SSH research

ST

Le superbe isolement de la première moitié du 20ième siècle commence progressivement à céder la place à un ensemble de relations plus étroites entre les [universités] et les communautés au sein desquelles [elles] évoluent. Dans ce contexte, il devient de plus en plus difficile pour les chercheurs de fonctionner en vase clos et, par conséquent, [...] les chercheurs seront probablement appelés à intensifier leurs efforts pour diffuser les résultats de leurs recherches à l'extérieur du milieu universitaire et ils devront aller sur la place publique pour expliquer en quoi consiste leur travail.

TT

The splendid isolation of the first half of the 20th century is gradually giving way to closer relations between institutions and the communities in which they operate. In this context, it is becoming more difficult for researchers to function in a vacuum.

Consequently, [...] researchers will probably be called upon to intensify their efforts to disseminate their research findings beyond academe and will have to enter the public arena to explain their work.

The relations are those of inclusion: if the universities (a) are part of the community (b), and if researchers (c) are part of the university (a), the researchers (c) are also part of the community (b). The translation reflects those relations.
iv. Part/whole

There are two groups of arguments here: (a) comparison of the whole to one of its parts, based on the principle that what applies to the whole applies to the part; (b) division of the whole into its parts, based on the principle that what does not belong to any part cannot belong to the whole and that anything to be claimed for the whole must be established for one of the parts.
Relation: similarity/belonging.

Example
Text type: letter to federal minister
Purpose: request higher lumber production quota

ST

Scierie Baie-Trinité inc. demande donc l’octroi d’un quota équitable par rapport à l’ensemble de l’industrie de sciage au Québec. Globalement, l’attribution des contingents au Québec est de 3.8 Mbpmp pour une production québécoise de 7.0 Mbpmp, soit plus de 54 %.

À 54 % de sa production, le quota alloué à notre compagnie sous le régime de base (RB) devrait être de 40.000 Mbpmp. Notre volume d’attribution étant actuellement de 11.635 Mbpmp, la part manquante s’établira à 28.365 Mbpmp à partir du 1er avril 1999.

TT

Accordingly, Scierie Baie-Trinité is asking for a fair quota equivalent to the average for the Quebec sawmill industry as a whole. The Quebec quota is 3.8 MMFBM out of a total production of 7.9 MMFBM, or over 54%.
A 54% basic-system quota for our company should generate 40,000 MFBM, compared with a current volume of 11,635 MFBM. Thus without a change in our quota, our shortfall will be 28,365 MFBM as of April 1, 1999.

The writer is arguing that the part (Scierie Sainte-Trinité) should benefit from the same treatment that the whole (all similar industries in Quebec) receives. The translation accurately reflects the argument.

v. Comparison (large/small)

Comparison is an essential component of argument. Several objects are evaluated on the basis of their interrelationships. Comparisons can be made by opposition (heavy/light), by ordering (heavier than), and by quantitative ordering (weight in terms of units). Arguments of this type are various and complex, and can range from statistical comparisons to ethical judgments. They serve to create an impression of unbiased reporting and objectivity.

Relation: similarity (difference)

Example

Text type: report of survey of international students in Canada

Purpose: to publicize Canada's successes in international education and highlight areas for improvement

ST

While far from 100%, this number represents a doubling of the figure in the 1988 survey. Clearly we are doing something right—promotion, quality leading to positive word-of-mouth recommendations, etc.
Bien que les réponses ne soient pas toutes favorables, le taux de satisfaction est deux fois plus élevé en 1999 qu'en 1988. Cela démontre clairement que certaines mesures au moins sont efficaces — la promotion porte des fruits, les étudiants étrangers recommandent à leurs amis de venir au Canada en raison de la qualité de nos programmes, etc.

The argument is based on the truism that a greater statistical level of satisfaction proves effectiveness.

vi. Example/illustration/analogy

The argument takes as its starting point a specific, known case and presents it as a precedent, a model for future action, or a general rule. It thus establishes reality on the basis of the individual case. "The latter can play a wide variety of roles: as an example, it makes generalization possible; as an illustration, it provides support for an already established regularity; as a model, it encourages imitation" (Perelman, 1969: 350). As Toulmin shows (1984: 219), drawing general conclusions from the evidence of samples is an instance of argumentation by example. The illustration corroborates or promotes understanding of an established situation. Relation: similarity, sign.

Example of "illustration"

Text type: article in criminal justice

Purpose: discussion of challenges facing reparative justice

Des concepts comme le pardon, la guérison, la réconciliation, la réparation des torts causés sont difficiles à définir. On ne peut prétendre y arriver par des voies simples. Au Québec, le dossier des Orphelins de Duplessis en est une bonne illustration. Ces hommes
et ces femmes, placés dans des institutions ou des orphelinats en bas âge, ont dénoncé la violence et les abus dont certaines communautés religieuses se seraient rendues coupables à leur endroit. Ils ont réclamé des indemnisations et des excuses de la part des autorités religieuses et de l'État. Ce dossier a soulevé maintes questions et le débat est loin d'être réglé. Qui sont les victimes? Comment faire la preuve que de tels abus ont été commis et identifier les responsables? Comment évaluer les torts causés et quelles sont les limites d'une «juste réparation»?

TT
Concepts like forgiveness, healing, reconciliation and repairing the harm done are difficult to define. There is no short and easy way of coming to grips with them. The Duplessis Orphans case is a good illustration. Men and women who had been placed in orphanages at a very young age spoke out about the violence they claimed to have suffered at the hands of certain religious orders. They demanded compensation and an apology from the religious authorities and the government. The case has raised a number of issues and it will be a while before it is settled. Who are the victims? How can it be proven that the abuse occurred? How can the perpetrators be identified? How does the system go about putting a value on the harm done and on "fair" reparation?

The Duplessis Orphans case illustrates a general, pre-established problem of definition. The illustration and its relationship to the problem are accurately rendered in TT.

**Example of analogy**
In arguing from analogy, notes Toulmin, "we assume that there are enough similarities between two things to support the claim that what is true of one is also true of the other" (1984: 216). The best-known analogies are, of course, figurative, but there are others that are clearly related to instrumental texts. In law, arguing on the basis of precedent is an instance of argumentation from analogy: if particular sets of circumstances led to a
particular decision in the past, it will be argued that the same or similar set of circumstances should give rise to the same or a similar decision in the future.

Relation: similarity, sign

Example

Text type: article in criminal justice review

Purpose: discussion of problems of policing a society without morals

ST

Une analogie illustrera le nouveau défi. Quand un avion de combat se voit poursuivi par un missile capable de suivre sa cible dans toutes ses contorsions, que fait-il? Il lâche des leurres qui induisent en erreur le système de guidage du missile. Ces leurres attirent sur eux l'attention du missile, pendant que l'avion, lui, s'esquive. Nul ne peut blâmer le missile d'avoir failli à sa mission [...].

La France, dans sa lutte contre les réseaux terroristes, a vécu récemment une déconfiture comparable à celle d'un missile induit en erreur. Pour bien démontrer l'imbrication des actes terroristes dans une planification d'ensemble, la justice française avait choisi de regrouper des dizaines de dossiers policiers et de confier leur examen à un seul procès. Résultat net de ce regroupement? Un tonitruant embouteillage. Les avocats ont eu beau jeu de crier au simplisme et de réclamer des procès distincts pour des gestes distincts. Du coup, le fossé est apparu infranchissable. D'un côté, le terrorisme dont la redoutable efficacité provient des relations entre les composantes de son immense toile d'araignée; de l'autre, une justice qui ne parvient pas à faire le tri entre les divers types de liens humains ou corporatifs.
The following analogy illustrates the challenge facing us. When a fighter plane is being pursued by a missile that stays on its tail in spite of changes in course, what does it do? It releases decoys to fool the missile's guidance system. The missile tracks the decoys and the plane escapes. The missile cannot be blamed for the failed mission: it was programmed to pursue metallic reflections and could not tell the difference between those from the fighter and those from the decoys.

France recently experienced a comparable setback in its fight against terrorist networks. In an attempt to show that terrorist acts were part of a larger plan, the French judiciary decided to group dozens of police cases together in a single trial. And what was the net result? Massive gridlock. Lawyers said they wanted to simplify matters and called for a separate trial for each individual act. But the damage was done, and the problem seemed insoluble. One the one hand, it was clear that the deadly effectiveness of terrorism was derived from its immense spider's web of connections; on the other, it was clear that the legal system was unable to make distinction among the various types of human and corporate links.[Our italics]

As in other examples, the translation contains defects in meaning. In this case, however, the translator has misunderstood the central relationship in the argument. The lawyers for the accused were not seeking to simplify matters; they were accusing the courts of being too simplistic in lumping all the cases together, knowing full well that the terrorist networks, like the decoys, created so much confusion that the legal system could not possibly identify and process cases in isolation.
4.5.4. Relationship (cause and effect, contraries, contradiction)

Perelman explains the difference between quasi-logical arguments and those based on the structure of reality as follows: "Whereas quasi-logical arguments lay claim to a certain validity owing to their rational appearance, which derives from their more-or-less close relation with certain logical or mathematical formulae, the arguments based on the structure of reality make use of this structure to establish a solidarity between accepted judgments and others which one wishes to promote" (1969: 261). This does not mean, however, that logic does not appear to be at work in establishing connections between the sequential events concerned.

i. Cause

This may take three broad forms: argumentation to (a) attach two successive events by means of a causal link; (b) reveal the existence of a potential cause of an event; and (c) to show the effect that must result from a given event. The causal link established may be of fact to its consequence or of end to means. Relation: causality.

Example

Text type: Minister’s message introducing ministry business plan
Purpose: publicize government’s investment in health care

ST

Creating a modern health system has not been easy. But we are beginning to see the results and we will continue to make the necessary investments to create a better system for today and tomorrow. A strong economy supports and strengthens our commitment to the health system, allowing us to expand and improve access to all Ontarians.
Édifier un système de santé moderne n’est pas tâche aisée, mais nous commençons à voir les résultats de notre travail et nous continuerons de faire les investissements nécessaires pour instaurer un meilleur système pour aujourd’hui et pour demain. Notre engagement envers le système de santé se trouve renforcé par la vigueur de l’économie actuelle, qui nous permet d’augmenter les services et d’améliorer l’accès pour tous les Ontariens et toutes les Ontariennes.

There is a chain of causal arguments at work here. The most explicit one involves an end (better health care system) and means (reform and investment). The second one, also explicit, involves cause and effect—a strong economy makes more investment in health care possible. But embedded in the statement is another end/means relationship—it is the government’s action that has strengthened the economy in the first place, creating the conditions for renewed investment in health. The translation accurately reflects the argument structure.

ii. **Sign**

Arguing from sign is a cause argument of particular relevance to science (symptoms, physical evidence) and law (physical and circumstantial evidence). Relation: sign.

**Example**

Text type: Environmental inspection report  
Purpose: to assess environmental risk  

ST:

*Site No. A471403 did not show any signs of leachate springs. However, the surface water runoff collected in the north perimeter ditch of site No. A471403 discharges into a natural depression between the Rigaud River and the east toe of both sites. Part of the depression located on site No. 471402 was filled with waste which obstructs the natural*
flow of the water. The water collected up-gradient eventually seeps through the waste and discharges directly into the Rigaud River which most likely contains leachate parameters.

TT:
Le lieu d’ensouissement n° A471403 ne présente aucun signe de pollution des eaux souterraines par du lixiviat. Toutefois, les eaux de ruissellement qui s’accumulent au périmètre nord du lieu d’ensouissement n° A471403 finissent par se déverser dans une dépression naturelle située entre la rivière Rigaud et la limite est des deux lieux d’ensouissement. La dépression située au lieu n° A471402 était partiellement remplie de déchets qui obstruaient l’écoulement naturel des eaux de ruissellement. Les eaux provenant du haut de la pente finissent par traverser les déchets et aboutissent dans la rivière Rigaud, qui renferme tout probablement des polluants associés au lixiviat.

While the first sentence of ST states that there is no sign of actual pollution, the rest of the text is a description of physical features normally indicating the presence of pollution. TT accurately reflects the argument.

iii. Dissociation (appearance/reality)

In all the types discussed above, argumentative technique has involved establishing links between concepts that could previously have been considered independent: between the whole and the part, between sequential events, etc. Objection to the technique will take the form of a refusal to recognize the existence of the link and an effort to show that there are no grounds for it, that independent elements have been improperly associated. "Dissociation, on the other hand," writes Perelman, "assumes the original unity of elements comprised within a single conception and designated by a single notion. The dissociation of notions brings about a more or less profound change in the conceptual data that are used as the basis for argument. It is then no more a question of breaking the links that join independent elements, but of modifying the very
structure of these elements" (1969: 411-412). The dissociation is required to remove an incompatibility arising out of the confrontation of two propositions, and it involves compromise. An example of dissociation would be the exploitation of the appearance/reality pair common in writing: the author selects one of a group of hitherto "real" issues and states: "I will now come to the real issue under discussion." There are a multitude of pairs that can be used in a similar way: among those that are listed by Perelman and which, a priori, would be particularly relevant to instrumental translation are means/end, fact/consequence, act/person, subjective/objective, multiplicity/unity, change/immutability, form/content/ good/bad, and just/unjust. Relation: real/unreal.

Example

Text type: Outline of lecture on change management

Purpose: motivate audience to succeed in times of change

ST

Le changement est un phénomène externe et situationnel que les intéressés comprennent et observent par leur sens plutôt que par leur pensée. Ce n'est pas le changement, mais la mauvaise transition d'un état à l'autre qui bouleverse l'individu.

TT

Change is an external phenomenon or situation that those affected understand and observe emotionally rather than intellectually. It is not change itself that upsets a person, but a poor transition from one emotional state to another.

The dissociation is between the appearance and reality of the cause of stress. The translation reflects the dissociation.
4.5.5. **Circumstance (possibility, past fact/future fact)**

This type of argument involves claiming that, if a particular set of facts, events or circumstances is possible, so can another, or that, if a particular thing occurred in the past, another thing can occur in future.

**Example**

Text type: Self-protection training manual for persons with disabilities

Purpose: to inform consumers of safety and security risks and how to deal with them.

**ST**

The simplest precautions prove the most valuable. A small initial outlay will, in many cases, make our home or place of residence much more secure and buy peace of mind in the bargain.

**TT**

Et ce sont les précautions les plus simples qui sont les plus efficaces. En général, c’est en dépensant une petite somme pour la sécurité au départ que nous rendrons notre maison ou appartement beaucoup plus sûr et que nous pourrons assurer en même temps notre tranquillité d’esprit.

The argument from circumstance is one of means/ends: if the means to do something is present, it can be done. The argument is combined with an argument from comparison by degree. The translation is adequate.
4.5.6. **Testimony (authority, testimonial, law precedent, statistics, maxim)**

i. **Authority**

This involves an appeal to a person’s or group’s reputation in order to justify a claim. Relation: sign, similarity.

**Example**

Text type: discussion paper on criminal justice

Purpose: presentation of challenges to social reintegration of inmates

**ST**

*L’attitude du public face aux contrevenants a plutôt tendance à être revancharde, punitive et impatiente. [...]*

*Déplorer cette attitude du public, dénoncer le fait qu’elle est mal fondée et qu’elle conduit ainsi tout droit vers des problèmes sociaux encore plus graves, en pointer du doigt les conséquences, voilà autant d’observations qui sont d’ores et déjà devenues les nouveaux lieux communs de la criminologie canadienne. Il ne fait aucun doute que notre société, parce qu’elle a eu récemment tendance à écouter davantage sa peur que son courage ou sa compassion, s’est engagée sur un chemin dangereux.*

**TT**

*[The general public] generally takes a vengeful, punitive, impatient attitude toward offenders. [...]*

Statements deploiring the public’s attitude, condemning the fact that it is unfounded and is a direct cause of even more serious social problems and highlighting the consequences are now commonplace in Canadian criminology literature. It is true that our society has
in recent years tended to react with fear rather than courage and compassion and has consequently embarked on a dangerous course [...]..

Note that the authority is not a specific piece of research or researcher but recently published Canadian criminology research results as a whole, which lend even more force to the criticism of public attitudes. The translation accurately renders the argument.

As the examples above show, many types of argument are present not only in the more polemical fields of politics and law but also in other areas of instrumental translation, including criminology, administration, psychology, and environmental protection. It is our premise that assessment of the transfer of such arguments should be not only an integral but also a key part of a full-text TQA system, since each argument lies at the core of text content and determines the reader's response to the text. To use the terminology of speech act theory, the argument is a prime perlocutionary device, designed to elicit a specific response, be it acceptance, understanding, support, a change of policy, etc. The argument types presented above do not constitute an exhaustive list, however: Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca and Corbett and Connors detail a host of argument types within the five broad categories, and Toulmin and others describe false arguments (fallacies) at length because of their importance in legal reasoning. In testing our hypotheses, we will be alert to the full range of arguments, both valid and invalid ones.

4.5.7. Argument structure and TQA grid

We can now refine our grid further, incorporating parameters relating to specific types of argument. Here, however, arguments will vary from text to text, and the grid must be completed accordingly. A crucial part of the analytical process will be to detect and characterize, in the case of translation defects, those arguments that are, in fact, a part of the argument macrostructure, remembering Larose’s contention that, the higher up in the macrostructure an element is, the greater is its importance to the text as a whole.
### Argument Structure II

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<thead>
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<th>MACROSTRUCTURE</th>
<th>Backing</th>
<th>Warrant</th>
<th>Grounds</th>
<th>Qualifier</th>
<th>Claim</th>
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### Argumentation-centred TQA Grid

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<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
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4.6. Figures

4.6.1. Overview

The third component of rhetoric in our TQA model is that of figures of speech. Figures tend to be microtextual: they are created most often at the subsentence and subparagraph level, although some may operate at the discourse level, as in the case of analogy and irony. On the basis of the analysis by Dubois et al. (1970), a figure can be described as a deliberate deviation ("écart," as opposed to "erreur") from the conventional meaning or form of language. Figures have traditionally been treated as a matter of stylistics and aesthetics, but the New Rhetoric has shown the important role they play in argumentation proper, if certain conditions are met:

We consider a figure to be argumentative, if it brings about a change in perspective, and its use seems normal in relation to this new situation. If, on the other hand, the speech does not bring about the adherence of the hearer to this argumentative form, the figure will be considered an embellishment, a figure of style.

(Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca 1969: 169)

In other words if the perlocutionary effect of the figure prevails over the hearer's/reader's perception of it as a device, it is an argumentative tool.

Devices of "eloquence" have supposedly been inappropriate for scientific and other types of "objective" discourse; embellishment and deliberate ambiguity have long been deemed violations of correct scientific and technical writing, including writing in the social sciences and, indeed, in more scientific approaches to research in the humanities. However, as Halloran and Bradford show, figures such as metaphor are an essential feature of scientific research and writing in serving as a means of expressing new models and concepts:
No synthesis could ever be achieved, no models postulated, no paradigms established if science relied wholly upon "careful observation" for its theories. Model-building requires an inductive leap; carefully recorded examples must be synthesized into a logical premise, and then be further verified and expanded by traditional scientific method. For this, science must exploit the power of metaphor; it must shape its expectations, choose its experiments, and interpret its data in a realm of thought outside the literal world.

(1984: 183)

The authors cite as examples the many metaphors used in conveying the idea that the DNA molecule "transmits" "information": "genetic message," "translation," "transcription," "messenger," "editing," "reading," etc. We can add to this list the metaphors of environmental science—the "greenhouse" effect and the ozone "layer"—and those of astrophysics—the "black hole."

While the metaphor has continued to play a role in scientific invention, Halloran and Bradford find that "more elaborate schemes such as antimetabole, epistrophe, and anastrophe have largely disappeared from writing pedagogy, particularly the teaching of technical writing" (1984: 188). This has transpired, they say, because of the emphasis placed on plain language and transparent style in scientific and technical writing. Instead, devices such as frequent headings and bulleted lists have become standard, serving as means of ensuring regularity and transparency in, and thereby the readability of, the scientific/technical text. Beyond a certain point, however, the result of plain language and transparency is a loss of readability. "When prose becomes too regular and predictable, readers lose a sense of what’s important in it. Emphasis disappears and the audience becomes bored" (1984: 189). Conversely, the use of figures should enhance readability and the audience’s interest and, by extension, the persuasiveness of the text.

In fact, a number of studies contradict Halloran and Bradford’s contention that "more elaborate schemes" have disappeared from scientific writing. It has been demonstrated that figures are part and parcel of writing in the natural sciences, mathematics, social sciences and the humanities;
they contribute to the rhetorical effect, or persuasiveness, of the argument or demonstration being presented. For example, Angenot (1982) shows how they are combined with, or actually function as, enthymemes and maxims to form arguments in polemical documents (pamphlets). Saragossi (1991), in her wide-ranging discourse analysis of a corpus of political speeches originating in the Department of External Affairs of Canada (now called the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade), identifies a host of types of figures that contribute to the persuasive intentions of the writer: euphemism (to downplay, even eliminate from discourse a threat to economic stability), enallage (shift from "I" to "we" to minimize distance between sender and receiver of message), antithesis (industrialization/natural resources, developing countries/industrialized countries), rhetorical question (to make appearance pass for fact), synecdoche (belief justifying action), prolepsis (countering anticipated criticisms), antonomasia, epanorthosis (rectification of preceding statement to reveal true intentions), preterition (referring to a subject while maintaining that one will not talk about it), etc. Following in Angenot's footsteps, she establishes links between figures and various types of argument, but she also brings out the synergy between figures and speech acts. Through figures, the act of assertion can subtly be transformed into a directive or commissive act, persuading the receiver of the message to act or guaranteeing a positive resolution of a situation at some future time. McCloskey (1985) establishes a similar list of rhetorical figures in the science of economics. In fact, there is such a plethora of devices in the modern economics textbook, says McCloskey, that economics, far from adhering to the scientism and positivist approach that it claims for itself, "is a collection of literary forms. Indeed, science is a collection of literary forms, not a science. And literary forms are scientific" (1985: 55).

A number of proponents of the application of the new rhetoric to a broad range of fields of inquiry take inspiration from Lakoff's seminal work on metaphors (1980) and his attack on objectivism in science. Lakoff sees metaphor (and metonymy) not just as a literary figure but also as a means of making "sense of the world in human terms" (1980: 34). Indeed, it is the use and recurrence of metaphors that enables us to find coherence in the world and to grasp abstract concepts:
Specifically, we tend to structure the less concrete and inherently vague concepts (like those for the emotions) in terms of more concrete concepts, which are more clearly delineated in our experience. (1980: 112)

Non-literary language is replete with metaphors and the associated figures of metonymy (use of one concept to represent a related concept) and synecdoche (part/whole relation). Both new metaphors and conventional metaphors have the power to define reality for us:

They do this through a coherent network of entailments that highlights some features of reality and hide others. The acceptance of the metaphor, which forces us to focus only on those aspects of our experience that it highlights, leads us to view the entailment of the metaphor as being true. (1980: 157)

Thus, if we accept Lakoff’s premises, we must view metaphor both as an instrument of coherence and, because it presents a part of reality as being true, of argument.

Indeed, Ouellet relates metaphor directly to argument, specifically to the topics. The relationship obtains with the respect to both the metaphor of general language and that of literature. Citing the modern topics of forward and upward movement as metaphors associated with the doxa of progress, Ouellet concludes that metaphor always exists in relation to a topos, or place—both a physical place and the "commonplace" of received opinion:

Metaphor, transfer, travel and movement take place only in and and in relation to “places,” which are both places of thought and discourse and places in the strictly topological or physical sense of the word [...].
[Il n’y a métaphore, transfert, transport ou déplacement que dans et par rapport à des "lieux", précisément, qui sont à la fois lieux de pensée et de discours et lieux au sens proprement topologique ou physique du terme [...]]. (1992: 210)
The concept of metaphor also implies that the figure is based (1) on our experience of the world (reality), (2) on the expression of that experience through topoi and our own discourse, and (iii) in the case of original metaphor, on discourse that distances itself in some way from common discourse, by means of a "change of places." What needs to be retained for TQA modelling purposes is the relationship between metaphor and topos as a potential factor in argumentation.

We can therefore assume at this juncture that figures will also be present in the instrumental texts handled by translators, and the degree to which their rhetorical purpose is recognized and appropriately rendered in TT will be a factor in translation quality.

Our next step must be to categorize figures of speech in a way that will be helpful for assessment and the development of our TQA model. Halsall (1988) divides figures according to the three means of proof in Aristotelian rhetoric: logos (use of topoi, enthymemes and (quasi) logical arguments), pathos (appeal to reader's emotions) and ethos (focus on support for writer/speaker). For their part, New Rhetoric exponents McCloskey (1985) and Myerson and Rydin (1996) draw on Kenneth Burke's identification of four master "tropes": metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche and irony. Dubois et al. and, later, Corbett and Connors make yet another categorization, distinguishing between figures of content (logical and semantic elements), or tropes, and figures of expression (morphology, syntax, graphology), or schemes.

We can assume, as a working hypothesis, that most of the figures in instrumental translation will be of the former type and will more often than not be examples of what Dubois et al. call "metalogism," or manipulation of logical relations (litotes, hyperbole, repetition, pleonasm, antithesis, euphemism, irony, paradox, antiphrasis, etc.). Semantic figures ("metasememes" in Dubois' terminology) include synecdoche, antonomasia, simile, metaphor, metonymy and oxymoron. What is particularly fortunate for our purposes is that, as figures of thought, metalogisms are translatable (Dubois et al. 1970: 132), unlike the other types of figures.
Given the Anglo-American New Rhetoric's focus on figures in non-literary discourse, we will take the four "master" figures above as the core of the "figures" component of our tentative TQA model, supplementing them with the other metalogical devices, as illustrated by Angenot, Saragossi, McCloskey and Halsall. They are all figures of content. Note also some figures may actually be arguments in themselves and may have to be related to the argument macrostructure at the time of analysis.

4.6.2. Examples in instrumental translation

4.6.2.1. Metaphor

As Lakoff points out, conventional metaphors, which are often not recognized as figures, contribute to textual coherence because they combine to form metaphorical strings based on universal concepts of space, time, the senses, etc. The following passages, taken from a historical and sociological analysis of American citizenship written for the Department of Canadian Heritage, illustrate the use of metaphors space and sight:

ST

L'auteur de ces propos s'inscrit en réaction contre le mouvement de contestation de l'enseignement de l'histoire qu'ont connu les États-Unis au cours de la dernière décennie. Sa position dans ce débat est que tous les jeunes Américains doivent apprendre la même histoire, celle qu'il décrit plus haut. Il s'oppose à une balkanisation de l'enseignement de l'histoire où chaque groupe apprendrait une version de l'histoire qui serait écrite dans le but de promouvoir son identité de groupe séparément des autres. L'histoire doit permettre à tous d'acquérir une compréhension de la complexité de l'ensemble de la société mais aussi des fondements de son unité au-delà de cette complexité.
Les débats sur l’enseignement de l’histoire et des « social studies » alimenté par le *mouvement* multiculturaliste et les multiples réactions qu’il provoque ont mis à jour le caractère monolithique de la *vision* de l’histoire américaine véhiculée par l’enseignement de l’histoire, monolithe entretenue par un *eurocentrisme* profond, l’*occultation* de la contribution des minorités et même des femmes (voir Glazer, 1998). Il est évident que la révision de l’histoire réclamée touche une *vision* de l’identité nationale américaine qui a prévalu longtemps : une identité reflétée par une histoire qui *montre* les Anglo-saxons à leur avantage et qui les mettent toujours au *premier plan*, en *occultant* les autres. Cette *vision* *démontre* une volonté de colorer l’identité nationale à l’*image* anglo-saxonne. La *vague* multiculturaliste conteste cette *image* et fait en sorte que ceux qui se sentaient trop à l’aise avec cette *image* se retrouvent désormais obligés de partager la scène de l’histoire avec un grand nombre d’autres partenaires. À l’inverse, ceux qui ne se retrouvaient pas dans l’histoire nationale, qui se sentaient étrangers à cette face de l’identité nationale modelée sur l’*image* anglo-saxonne, sont heureux maintenant de s’y retrouver.

Schlesinger is reacting here against the *movement* that over the last ten years has been attacking the way American history is taught. His position is that all young Americans must learn the same history, the one outlined above. He opposes a *balkanization* of history teaching through which each group would learn a particular version of history that would be written to promote the group’s identity in isolation from the others. History must enable everyone to understand not only the complexity of the whole society but also the underpinnings of the unity underlying that complexity.

The debates on the teaching of history and social studies generated by the multiculturalism *movement* and the many reactions to it have led to changes in the monolithic *vision* of American history conveyed by its teachers, a *vision* based on a deep-seated *Eurocentrism* and *concealment* of the contribution of minorities and even of
women (see Glazer, 1998). Clearly, the revision of history that people are calling for affects a vision of the American national identity that has prevailed for a long time. It is an identity reflected in a history that portrays Anglo-Saxons in the best light and always at the forefront of events by hiding other groups. This vision of history reflects a desire to portray American identity as an Anglo-Saxon one. The multiculturalism movement contests this portrayal and the people who were very comfortable with the Anglo-Saxon representation of identity now have to share history with a large number of new partners. At the same time, people who could not see themselves in American history and felt estranged from a national identity modelled on the Anglo-Saxon portrayal, can now see themselves in it.

As the passage amply illustrates, the metaphor of "seeing" is one of the underpinnings of discourse on ethnic, cultural and national identity, and as such requires accurate transfer to TT, particularly in this case, where the metaphor is extended to encompass counter-identity arguments (occultation, révision). Those arguments are also conveyed through a second metaphorical string based on movement and geographical space (mouvement, vague, balkanisation, eurocentrisme). The metaphorical web is part of the writer’s argumentation.

ST
Les États-Unis vivent actuellement une période où les particularismes ethno-culturels et les minorités sociologiques connaissent une très forte affirmation de leur identité dans l’espace public. Cette situation est relativement nouvelle au 20e siècle puisque la première partie de ce siècle fut dominée par les Nativistes et, à partir de 1920, la promotion de l’assimilation a suivi et s’est poursuivie jusqu’à la fin des années 50. La seconde partie du siècle, sous l’impulsion donnée par les grandes législations égalitaires du gouvernement démocrate des années 60, a été celle de la résurgence des particularismes. L’état de la situation sur ce point est esquissé à grands traits dans la partie sur les appartenance sociale, ethno-culturelle et transnationale du cadre conceptuel. La place des appartenance particulières dans la société américaine se
détermine en rapport avec l’identité nationale, qui dans une large mesure fait place à la diversité mais à l’intérieur d’une visée unificatrice très affirmée. L’axe vertical du cadre conceptuel amène à analyser la dimension identitaire de la citoyenneté comme un équilibre recherché entre l’identité nationale et les identités distinctes qui affirment leur présence dans la société. Il y a là une réalité fort complexe à cerner. D’autant plus que les visions divergent considérablement sur ce qui peut constituer un état d’équilibre satisfaisant et rassurant entre ces deux composantes. Certains cherchent à consolider l’identité nationale et les moyens qu’ils préconisent sont loin de faire l’unanimité entre eux, mais ils s’entendent à estomper autant que possible la force d’affirmation des identités particulières. D’autres cherchent à renforcer la présence de leurs identités propres dans la société et, en requérant qu’une place leur soit faite dans les réalités de l’identité nationale, ils complexifient sa configuration. Ceux-là aussi préconisent des moyens qui les différencient les uns des autres. Les débats sont complexes sur l’axe identitaire de la citoyenneté.

TT

At the present time, ethnocultural and sociological minorities are asserting their identities very strongly in the public arena. This is a relatively new phenomenon in the twentieth century, the early years of the century were dominated by the nativists, followed by the assimilationists from 1920 until the end of the fifties. In the second half of the century there has been a resurgence of specific identities under the impetus of the major pieces of egalitarian legislation of the sixties. The current situation is described in broad terms in the section on the social, ethnocultural and transnational membership components of the conceptual framework. The place of membership in specific groups within American society is related to national identity, which generally makes room for diversity, albeit as part of a strongly asserted unifying purpose. On the basis of the vertical axis of the framework, the citizenship identity dimension is to be viewed in terms of an ideal balance between national identity and specific identities that make their presence felt in American society. It is thus a very complex reality that we have to come
to grips with, particularly as views differ considerably on what a satisfactory, reassuring balance between the two components may be. Some players try to consolidate national identity; they certainly do not agree on the means for doing so, but they do agree on the need to counter as effectively as possible the forces of affirmation of specific identities. Other players endeavour to strengthen the position of their own identity in society and, by demanding to be a part of the national identity, they make the identity configuration more complex. They too do not agree on the means for achieving their ends. In short, debate on the relationship between identity and citizenship is very complicated.

Here, the writer uses metaphors of mathematical space and physics as an analytical tool for explaining the dynamics of identity in the U.S. Again, the metaphor is an integral part of the argument and must be rendered correspondingly in TT.

4.6.2.2 Metonymy

ST
Dans une société diversifiée et libérale, les éléments qui font partie de la liste de ces caractéristiques [de l'identité collective] peuvent varier selon les observateurs. On peut discuter aussi de l'universalité des éléments de la liste. L'important pour notre démarche est de voir qu'on s'accorde sur l'existence d'une telle liste. Bader en propose quelques éléments à titre d'exemple : les fêtes nationales, les jours fériés, la fête nationale du 4 juillet, la fête de l'Action de Grâces de la fin novembre, les uniformes nationaux portés par la police ou l'armée, par exemple, et d'autres qui marquent une fonction. Il n'y a qu'à considérer les débats provoqués par une demande d'exception au port de l'uniforme pour comprendre la place que les uniformes nationaux occupent dans l'identité nationale. Contre les dérogations on invoque toujours l'atteinte à une référence collective chère. Hymnes, drapeaux, monuments publics et rituels des cérémonies nationales remplissent l'espace public. Les lieux publics et les édifices sont construits dans un style national qui n'est pas nécessairement uniforme. Enfin, Bader ouvre la liste à tout ce qui relève des
normes particulières du fonctionnement et de la gestion des institutions en prenant en considération le système d’éducation. Les normes minimales communes en matière d’emploi du temps, de règlements et de pratiques pédagogiques sont une caractéristique fondamentale de l’éducation américaine. Il faudrait certainement élargir cet aspect très important à tout l’ensemble des institutions communes, telles que les institutions financières, les services publics, etc. Sur chacun de ces aspects, il n’y a pas de parfaite uniformité. Il peut y avoir des variations reconnues et acceptées, mais si elles sont acceptées, c’est qu’elles occupent une place dans l’identité nationale. Ne faudrait-il pas ajouter à cette liste les sports nationaux, le cinéma hollywoodien, etc.?

TT

In a liberal society based on diversity, the items to be included in a list of shared aspects may vary with each observer’s viewpoint. The universality of the items is also an issue. What is important for our present purpose is that, in the opinion of all the experts, such a list must exist. Bader proposes a list of items. They include (1) festivals and other national holidays, e.g. the Fourth of July and Thanksgiving in late November; (2) national uniforms worn by police forces and the army, and other uniforms designating a specific function. One has only to consider the controversy caused when someone asks to be exempted from wearing a uniform to understand the role of uniforms in the national identity. Opponents of exemptions always claim that they are an affront to one of society’s cherished symbols. Public life is replete with anthems, flags, public monuments and national ceremonies. Public places and buildings are built in a national, but not necessarily uniform, style. Bader also includes in his list specific standards relating to the operation and management of institutions, and he focusses on educational institutions. Common minimum standards on matters such as timetables, regulations and teaching practices are highly characteristic of American education. The list should be extended to encompass all common institutions, such as financial institutions, government services and so on. Aspects will not be perfectly uniform; there may be
variations. But if those variations are recognized and accepted, it means that they are part of the national identity. Should sports, Hollywood, and other hallmarks of the American scene be added to the list?

The many italicized items are all associated with national identity and contribute to it. The accumulation of metonymic features emphasizes the extent to which elements of national identity fill American public life. The TT must convey the accumulation with the same force and detail for the same point to be made.

4.6.2.3. Synecdoche

The following passage is taken from a report on an international women’s advocacy program written for the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade of Canada.

ST

Le programme Femmes du CIDPDD s’aligne sur les grands principes d’orientation du Centre, comme l’indique la Figure 4.1, et il s’intègre de façon étroite aux champs d’activités définis par le Président. Ainsi, en matière de promotion, le programme exerce trois grands types d’activités. D’une part il fait la promotion des droits de la femme en tant que droits de la personne dans des forums internationaux et régionaux, comme dans le cadre du projet du Tribunal pénal international; d’autre part, le programme Femmes fait de la recherche (développement d’outils et de politiques durables, réunions d’experts). Enfin, de façon plus ponctuelle, le programme Femmes fait du lobbying auprès d’intervenants de premier plan comme le Haut commissaire aux réfugiés (HCR) à l’ONU.
The ICHRDD's women's program is in keeping with the Centre's chief guiding principles, as laid out in Figure 4.1, and it falls within the field of activities defined by the President. As regards advocacy, the program carries on three types of activities. It advocates for women's rights as human rights in international and regional forums, for instance, as part of the project for an International Criminal Court. The women's program also does research (expert meetings and development of sustainable tools and policies). Finally, on a more ad hoc basis, the women's program lobbies well-known stakeholders such as the United Nations High Commissioner for refugees (UNHCR).

L'infrastructure du Tribunal engendre des problèmes de sécurité pour les témoins potentiels : il n'y a pas de système de protection des témoins effectifs à tous les stades de l'enquête. Certains témoins, y compris des témoins potentiels, ont été assassinés.

The Court infrastructure put potential witnesses' safety at risk, there was no system for protecting actual witnesses at all stages of the inquiry. Actual and potential witnesses had been murdered.

Programme, infrastructure, forums and Haut-Commissaire are all examples of the part/whole relationship. In the first three, the whole (organization) represents the parts (individuals), thereby highlighting the actant as a group and as its force/effects. In the fourth, the part (individual) represents the whole (organization), highlighting the role of the individual as actant. The device does not pose a great challenge to the translator, but nonetheless needs to be recognized and maintained in TT.

More interesting, from the argumentation standpoint, is the synecdoche of "droits de la femme en tant que droits de la personne." The part/whole relationship (femme/personne) is made
explicit for the express purpose of highlighting the legitimacy of the rights of the part (women). Again, the translation challenge is not a daunting one, but the figure requires accurate transfer to TT.

4.6.2.4. Irony and other figures in instrumental translation

While not exclusive to the legal field, many examples of other metalogical and metasemantic figures can be found in articles on law and criminology because of the argumentative or polemical thrust of the writer concerned. The passages below, all taken from translation projects undertaken for the Canadian Criminal Justice Association, often combine a variety of figures within one or two paragraphs.

Example 1
Subject: Canada’s failure to respect inmates’ rights, in spite of international law (UN), articles of which are quoted and referred to.

ST
De la façon la plus absolue, cet article affirme d’abord un principe: « Toute personne a droit à l’éducation ». Il donne ensuite à ce droit abstrait une portée terriblement concrète. D’une part, dit-il, « l’éducation doit être gratuite, au moins en ce qui concerne l’enseignement élémentaire et fondamental »; d’autre part, « l’enseignement élémentaire est obligatoire ». Cela, pour peu qu’on renonce aux sophismes et aux arguties, devrait vouloir dire que les détenus qui n’ont pas ce que notre société considère comme la formation élémentaire et fondamentale y ont un droit strict.

Ceux qui croyaient que de telles interprétations de la Déclaration universelle étirent trop généreusement les droits des détenus pourront les comparer avec ce que dit l’Ensemble des règles minima pour le traitement des détenus. Ce texte fut adopté par les
Nations-Unies dès 1955, mais le Canada attendu 1975, soit vingt ans, avant de consentir (ne brusquons rien!) à « considérer leur éventuelle inclusion dans les corps de lois fédéral et provinciaux ».

The first part of the Article is an all-encompassing statement of principle:

Everyone has the right to education.

It goes on to give this abstract right a very concrete, practical dimension. First, it states:

Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and secondary stages.

Second, it states:

Elementary education shall be compulsory.

I think that everyone except those who want to indulge in sophistry and syllogisms would agree that inmates are clearly entitled to what our society considers elementary and basic training, yet it is a right that they do not currently enjoy.

Those who feel that the above interpretations of the Universal Declaration unduly expand inmates’ rights can compare them with the wording of the Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners, which were passed by the UN in 1955. Canada waited 20 years before agreeing, in 1975, to consider the "possible" inclusion of the Rules in federal and provincial legislation. Clearly, it did not want to make a hasty decision!
At least two figures are at play here. The first is prolepsis, or the anticipation of counter-argument by using criticism ("sophismes et arguties") and argumentation by comparison ("Ceux qui croiraient... pourront comparer"). The second is irony ("ne brusquons rien!"). The translation maintains the figures.

Example 2
Subject: reparative justice

ST
Dans une entrevue qu’il accordait à La Presse le 10 mars 1999, Mgr Pierre Morissette posait ainsi le problème : "Est-ce que la meilleure manière d’aider les gens, ce sont des excuses et des compensations?". Il faut l’admettre, réparer les torts causés n’est pas si facile qu’on le croit... même dans les rangs de l’Église catholique. Il y a bien des manières de se défiltrer, de se déresponsabiliser.

Mais, avant de parler de réparation, ne faudrait-il pas d’abord admettre l’irréparable? Certaines blessures, qu’elles soient psychologiques ou physiques, laissent des empreintes indélébiles; certaines pertes ou dommages ne peuvent être compensés.

TT
In an interview published in the March 10, 1999, edition of La Presse, Mgr. René Morissette described the problem in the following terms: "Are apologies and compensation the best way to help the victims?" The fact is that repairing harm done is not as easy as you think... even in the Catholic Church. There are many ways to escape blame and eschew responsibility.

But before we discuss reparation, perhaps we should first of all admit that some things are irreparable. Some psychological and physical wounds leave an indelible mark. Some losses and damages cannot be compensated for, no matter what or how much is offered.
There are two *rhetorical questions* in ST, the second of which is dropped in TT. Note also the *antithesis* ("réparable/irréparable") in the second question. This figures underlies the central argument of the article, namely that actual reparation is extremely difficult to achieve.

**Example 3**

*Subject: challenge to pornography provisions of the Criminal Code of Canada on the grounds that they impinge on freedom of thought*

**ST**

Or, l’approche du gouvernement actuel est tout autre. En qui a trait au droit pénal et au droit constitutionnel, il refuse encore une fois d’assumer ses responsabilités par rapport à une question controversée qui soulève beaucoup d’émotion : la pornographie juvénile. Cette fois-ci, son manque de courage lui fait perdre une occasion privilégiée de corriger une grave erreur du gouvernement Mulroney, et il se contente le laisser aux tribunaux le soin de régler ce problème complexe. Or, il faut porter au crédit des juges de la Colombie-Britannique, à tous les niveaux, d’avoir su, justement, réparer le gâchis et d’avoir eu le courage de rendre des décisions dont ils savaient sûrement qu’elles seraient extrêmement impopulaires. On leur a fait des reproches sévères, souvent injustes et peu logiques, mais ils n’ont pas réagi publiquement. Et voilà que la cause fera l’objet d’un jugement de la Cour suprême du Canada.

*En fait, on aurait pu éviter le problème. Jugée inconstitutionnelle parce qu’elle violait les droits de la personne en étant de portée trop vaste, la loi concernée devait mettre un terme au débat sur la pornographie juvénile. Mais là où le bât blessait, c’est qu’elle avait été mal rédigée et qu’elle avait été adoptée rapidement dans le cadre d’une loi omnibus. Les militants pour les droits civils ont aussitôt prévenu le gouvernement que la loi était sans doute inconstitutionnelle et que la portée de ses restrictions était bien trop vaste. Mais le gouvernement a fait la sourde oreille.*
Nevertheless, in terms of both criminal and constitutional law, the present federal
government is again steadfastly abdicating its responsibility in the area of a volatile,
extremely controversial issue—child pornography. This time, ironically, its timidity is
causing it to miss a prime opportunity to correct a serious failing of the Mulroney years.
Instead, the government is contenting itself with letting the courts try to sort out the
mess. To their credit, the courts in British Columbia have done just that, and it should be
acknowledged the judges at all levels there had the courage to make what they surely
knew would be incredibly unpopular rulings. And they have suffered severe
criticism—not always fair or reasoned—in silence. The matter is headed to the Supreme
Court of Canada.

The irony in all this is that it was preventable. In fact, the law the British Columbia
judges ruled was unconstitutional because it casts far too broad a net, thereby violating
people’s rights, was intended to be the last word on child pornography. The trouble, of
course, is that the law was poorly drafted and passed rapidly as part of an omnibus bill.
Civil rights activists at the time warned the government that it was probably
unconstitutional and it was certainly far too broad in its restrictions. But the government
ignored them.

The writer evokes a double irony: the preventability of error and the illegality of law. The irony
is rendered and even designated as such in TT.

Example 4
Subject: wrongful convictions and false imprisonment
ST

Donald Marshall, Guy Paul Morin, David Milgaard. These high-profile cases have left Canada’s justice system badly bruised.

Such a complex system handling often complex cases is naturally subject to mistakes and errors of judgement. From police to parole, there are enough people involved, with specific duties, that when there is such an error or mistake it can usually be corrected, or otherwise addressed... In general, the system works remarkably well.

But not well enough.

Donald Marshall spent 11 years in prison for a murder he did not commit. David Milgaard spent 23 years. Guy Paul Morin, by comparison, was lucky. He was first convicted in 1992 and exonerated in 1995, but the injustice done is no less excusable.

TT

Les causes célèbres de Donald Marshall, de Guy-Paul Morin et de David Milgaard n’ont pas laissé indemne le système de justice canadien, loin de là.

On comprend que, dans le cadre d’un système tellement complexe, qui doit traiter maints dossiers complexes, les acteurs puissent se tromper et commettre des erreurs de jugement. Les différents intervenants, de la police jusqu’à l’agent de libérations conditionnelles, jouent chacun un rôle distinct et sont assez nombreux pour qu’on soit à même de réparer ou de rectifier l’erreur... En règle générale, le système fonctionne très bien.

...Mais pas assez bien.

Antithesis, conveying counter-argument ("But not well enough") and enhanced by the ellipsis, and irony ("lucky" to spend only three years in jail) are at play here.

The text also shows the rhetorical effect of the example, which is both an argument (from comparison) in its own right and a trope. Here, three cases of unjust imprisonment are cited as examples. Ouellet identifies four "operators," or functions, of the example as an element of inductive reasoning in the discourse of linguistics: typifying, legitimizing, problematizing (creating a problem case as a model for future treatment), and objectifying (building empirical data to validate a law, hypothesis or theory) (1992: 490-91). Applying these categories to the legal affairs text at hand, we can say that the examples serve to legitimize the author’s contention that the criminal justice system is imperfect and to problematize the situation, for which the author can go on to propose remedies. As such, the examples are a key element—the starting point, in fact—for the author’s overall argument.

The above texts show figures operating at the paragraph, sentence and subsentence levels, not at the macrostructural level of argument investigated by Toulmin. However, they also show that the figures serve to convey and enhance key components of the argument macrostructure. For instance, the irony in Example 1 and the antithesis in Example 4 encapsulate the writers’ key points and thus feed into their overall argument.
4.7. **Narrative strategy : argumentation strategy**

The way in which the narrator (we extend the use of the term here to all types of instrumental texts) reveals or hides his "presence" in the text is part of argumentation strategy.

4.7.1. **Depersonalization**

Narrative strategy can take several forms. The "depersonalization" of the narrator as a means of projecting objectivity in scientific texts is well documented. Indeed, it helps to create the illusion that the content is not argumentative but a straightforward recounting of facts, and it is thus a rhetorical device. As McGuire and Melia point out, "It is through this depersonalization that the experimental or theoretical paper possesses its fundamental characteristic, that of being a report" (1989: 87). It is as if the "facts speak for themselves," and accordingly the (supposedly) diminished authorial role is often combined with diminished authorial responsibility (in the cognitive sense) for the content of the document: "the desubjectivation that results measurably reduces real authorial control and manipulation over meaning" (1989: 96). Because the text is depersonalized, the "facts" are there for all experts to examine and come to a consensus (or dissensus) about. The authors see in this important lessons for rhetoric in general:

> [...] the strategy of normatively "depersonalizing" a scientific text is a deliberately rhetorical move. Indeed, in the very process of minimizing those literary features that carry rhetorical nuance, the scientific community establishes a positive rhetoric for disguising the rhetorical. (1989: 96)

Depersonalization and desubjectivation take many forms: using the passive voice, making nouns for activities and documents the subjects of statements ("Studies show"; "X’s report states"), and making the narrator the object of the statement ("The results seemed plausible to us"). These devices are commonplace in a broad range of instrumental texts, so we propose to examine their role in argumentation and their treatment in translations of nonscientific material.
The presence of depersonalization in fields other than scientific ones is demonstrated by Greimas (1983). He examines the phenomenon with reference not to the natural sciences but to research documents in the humanities and social sciences, showing how depersonalization and desubjectivation serve to create an "objective discourse" designed to mask, to some extent, the writer’s (researcher’s) production of knowledge ("performances cognitives") in the guise of facts to be discovered (1983: 188-89, 196-97). The writer’s ultimate objective is, of course, to persuade the reader of the "veracity" of the discourse.

Greimas lists a number of depersonalization devices:

- reference to other researchers’ work ("depuis Darmesteter," "après MM. B. Geiger et H. Lommel")

- nominalization in place of subject + verb ("effort... qui n’a pas abouti")

At the same time, Greimas notes that the narrator is not completely removed from the text as subject. He illustrates this fact with examples such as "Nous nous sommes proposé d’étudier" and "Nous avons dû... examiner" (1983: 182). This "cognitive" level of discourse does not, however, conflict with the "objective" level; rather, the different forms of cognitive activity contribute to the narrative structure for the text as a report (étudier=examiner=préciser les rapports...).

The absence of the subject per se is not the only factor in analysing the narrative strategy as an integral part of argumentation strategy. Ouellet (1984; 1985; 1992) refers to a wide variety of other means of prompting the reader to enter into a contract with the writer and accept the veracity of his statements in scientific discourse. Depersonalization—or what Ouellet calls "désénonciation" (1985: 50)—is created by means of a number of morphosyntactic structures:
- Deverbalization/nominalization
  La culture de *Mucor hiemalis* (<J’ai cultivé...)

- Passive voice instead of agent and active voice
  L’éthylidène est isolé

- Use of the participle (adjective)
  L’éthylidène isolé

- Modalization
  L’éthylidène peut être isolé

- Use of reflexive verb form
  L’éthylidène s’isole
  (1992: 416)

For Ouellet, each morphosyntactic device serves to shift the point of view on the "fact" in question, concealing the real agent, making the patient ("éthylidène") the apparent agent, turning process into fact (nominalization), or modifying the process (modal verb). In other words, the narrative strategy involves controlling how "facts" are shown and therefore how they are perceived.

The above devices all help to create an objective discourse which is then interspersed with modal expressions or qualifiers. In this way, the text communicates to the reader, as objective facts, evaluative judgments made by the writers and not supported, explicitly, by hard facts. The ways in which these judgments are expressed are a key part of the "argumentative program" of the text.
Examples from scientific texts on mushrooms cited by Ouellet (1984: 38):

La croissance en anaérobiose... est un phénomène plus commun que...

... à part les levures, quelques champignons appartenant principalement aux genres...

... des modifications importantes de la synthèse des stérols...

... l'anaérobiose influence la synthèse des stérols mais aussi, et de façon très profonde, la morphologie des cellules...

... c'est toutefois la synthèse des stérols qui semble la plus affectée par l'anaérobiose...

The italicized words and phrases communicate the narrator's "objective" interpretation of the evidence. Note in the last item that depersonalization (objectivity) is combined with an argumentative operator (toutefois): depersonalization and desubjectivation serve to present the author's interpretation as an account of objective relations between phenomena, as if the adversative connection resided in those phenomena. At the same time, the scientific process itself is personified, becoming the subject of an action ("l'anaérobiose influence...").

In the end, all these morphosyntactic devices of depersonalization conceal a multitude of speech acts, particularly assertive ("I find that, I conclude that") and evaluative ("I consider these changes important").

Their concealment is an integral part of the process of persuading the reader of the veracity of the statements made through a gradual change in the "speaker" of scientific discourse. Ouellet identifies four steps:

- the presentation of "they-the facts" as agent ("la culture de l’anaérobiose’);
the replacement of the "I" of the real subject (narrator/author/researcher) with the "we" of the subject together with the reader who buys into the contract. Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca (1969: 178) consider this device a figure, calling it "enallage of person";

- the shift from the "we" to the scientific community or to science itself ("they");

- once the "factual" nature of the findings is established, introduction of the scientist-narrator at the end of the discourse through various deictics (nous, ce travail, ici, etc.).

In fact, we can establish a direct relationship between depersonalization—the shift from the subject to the scientific community, science and the facts as narrative force—and the argument macrostructure assembled by Toulmin. For it is science and the facts that provide the warrant and backing for authorial claims. Yet the facts do not speak for themselves; to make them appear to do so is to engage in rhetoric and argumentation.

Thus we see that depersonalization (or personalization) ties in with full-text TQA and specifically with argumentation-centred assessment. It is an integral part of the arsenal of techniques of persuasion at the writer's disposal, and failure to render it appropriately may well have an adverse effect on the degree of persuasiveness of the translation. It will be interesting to determine to what extent the technique is present in nonscientific texts and whether it is a factor in the quality of translations of those texts.

4.7.2. Qualifiers

Depersonalization is not the only narrative strategy at work in instrumental texts. McCloskey refers to the technique of scientific modesty whereby economists mitigate their assertions—e.g., "I would like to suggest," "it seems" and "as a first approximation"—or reinforce them—e.g., "is beyond dispute" and "we make the critical assertion that...." In both cases, the qualifying
elements function at the level of ethos, conveying an image of the economist as a person of caution or of conviction, and therefore to be believed. Note, however, that qualifiers can also take the form of adjectives and adverbs, as Ouellet has cogently illustrated.

4.7.3. Argument structure and TOA grid

Adding narrative strategy, we now have a multi-parameter grid for text-level, argumentation-centred TQA. Naturally, other discourse analysis features and approaches could be incorporated into the grid—greater emphasis might be placed on speech act theory, as Saragossi and others have done, or on text-level semantic analysis as demonstrated by Rastier—but our assumption remains that, by applying the argumentation parameters identified above, we can propose not only an effective, user-friendly TQA scheme but also a valuable training tool.
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<tr>
<th>MACROSTRUCTURE</th>
<th>Backing</th>
<th>Warrant</th>
<th>Grounds</th>
<th>Qualifier</th>
<th>Claim</th>
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**Argumentation-centred TQA Grid**

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<th>Element</th>
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<td>Depersonalization/ personalization</td>
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<td>Qualifier(s)</td>
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Note
The fact that the qualifier/modalizer operates both as a component of the argument macrostructure and as a part of narrative strategy is important for three reasons. First, far from being an accessory, it is an important, integral part of discourse. Second, it illustrates the synergy between the elements of rhetorical topology and the argument macrostructure, between microtext and the text as a whole. Third, it reinforces our contention that any element of the argument structure may be integral to the argument macrostructure, may therefore be an essential part of the text, and may therefore be the locus of an error of transfer of the core argument.

In our view, the argument structure and TQA grid presented in the preceding tables cover all aspects of the messages(s) and purpose of a text. They bear on the full text, the microtext, and their interdependencies. As such, they should meet a key criterion of TQA validity: measurement of a sufficient quantity of the object of evaluation so that the results—assuming validity of the other features of the model—may be applicable to the object as a whole. Of course, it can be argued that the proposed parameters fail to account for target-language defects and transfer defects at the microtextual level that fall outside the argument structure, and that the model cannot really purport to measure translation quality. At the same time, our proposed parameters are wide-ranging and may well cover error types traditionally detected at the microtextual level (faux sens, contresens, glissement de sens, shift in meaning, mistranslation, charabia, etc.), although our determination as to the existence and seriousness of an error may differ from that arising from microtextual TQA. We will deal with these issues at the testing stage.

Furthermore, the range of selected parameters is deliberately broad because TQA is applied for a variety of purposes to a variety of text types in a variety of fields. Testing will bring out the relevance of each set of parameters to TQA in specific contexts. We may find, for example, that narrative strategy is not an important issue in legal translation, in which case it will be dropped from the grid to be used in that context. In other words, TQA grids can be field-dependent.
Chapter Five

Methodology III: Defining Major Error, Testing Procedure, Defining the Quality Standard, and Anticipated Results

5.1. Defining major error

Experts in industrial quality control (ICQ) systems have generally broken down errors—more properly termed "defects" in the ICQ field—into three types by degree of gravity: critical, major and minor. An authoritative U.S. manual gives the following definitions:

CRITICAL DEFECT. A critical defect is a defect that judgment and experience indicate is likely to result in hazardous or unsafe conditions for individuals using, maintaining, or depending on the product; or a defect that judgment and experience indicate is likely to prevent performance of the tactical function of a major item such as a ship, aircraft, tank, missile or space vehicle.

MAJOR DEFECT. A major defect is a defect, other than critical, that is likely to result in failure, or reduce materially the usability of the unit of product for its intended purpose.

MINOR DEFECT. A minor defect is a defect that is not likely to reduce materially the usability of the unit of product for its intended purpose, or is a departure from established standards having little bearing on the effective use or operation of the unit.

(Hayes and Romig, 1982: 146)

"Generally speaking," says Japanese expert Ishikawa, "one can never allow a critical defect, but a small number of minor defects is acceptable" (1985: 51). The critical defect affects life and safety. A major defect prevents the proper functioning of a product, as in the case of a car engine that does not work. In other words, both critical and major defects have significant adverse
consequences for the end user. A minor defect such as a few scratches on a car does not impair operation, though it may not be appreciated by the prospective buyer.

How we can relate these concepts to TQA? Critical defects could occur in scientific and technical translations, such as assembly and operating manuals and medical procedures. Even in the social sciences, errors in translating quantities (in financial documents) could be deemed critical depending on the potential financial damage. Errors in legal translation could have severe financial or legal consequences for the parties concerned. Generally speaking, however, serious translation errors bear not on life, safety, or the operation of a "major item" but on the usability of the text. Hence TQA systems have tended to merge critical and major defects into one category, the "major" error.

So at what point does an error "reduce materially the usability" of a translation? The Canadian Government Translation Bureau defines the major error of meaning as "the complete failure to render the meaning of a word or group of words conveying an essential part of the message" (1986: 2). Indeed, it is reasonable to assume that not all parts of a translation are equally important and that, in many instances, certain specific sections convey the core argument or message of ST and must be rendered appropriately in TT. Provided that those essential parts of the text are translated accurately, the translation is usable, notwithstanding intrinsically serious errors elsewhere in the document. In fact, errors elsewhere would be deemed minor, whatever the degree of failure to convey the message. Note also that language errors in an essential portion of a text can be major too—for example, repetition of a rudimentary error (several spelling errors or punctuation errors, assessed as one major error) in a document for publication or a public sign.

Consequently, TQA by sampling, as practised by the Translation Bureau until 1994, and to some extent thereafter, and the Government Translation Service of the Ontario government, should have required essential parts of the message of the whole document to be assessed. However, the assessment procedures call for representative samples. At this point, we would be justified in
questioning the validity of the phrase "essential part of the message," since representative is not the same as essential and, in any case, no specific method is proposed for selecting "representative" samples.

Furthermore, even if the sample is an essential part of the text, the accumulation of different kinds of minor errors of meaning and language—mistranslations, shifts in meaning, gallicisms, anglicisms, faux amis, unacceptable neologisms, redundancy, syntactic errors, etc.—poses a problem. At what point does the translation become unusable, if the core message is preserved and the glaring, rudimentary errors are not repeated? The solution was to set tolerance thresholds expressed as a maximum number of minor errors, the arbitrariness of which we have already discussed.

Another problem involves the assessment of major errors themselves and the sampling procedure. Instrumental texts convey information and achieve the desired effect because of their inherent redundancy. Ideas are repeated, amplified, reformulated. It is therefore quite possible that the "complete failure to render the meaning of... an essential part of the message of the document" may be offset by repetition of the same key concept or statement elsewhere in the translation, as proponents of Skopostheorie have pointed out (see 1.1.2.6.)—hence the importance of a textological approach to TQA.

To resolve the problem, while retaining the criterion of usability, we propose to test the hypothesis that misinterpretation of the nodes of Toulmin's argument macrostructure (backing, warrant, grounds, claim, rebuttal, and even, in some cases, qualifier/modalizer) constitutes major error and renders a translation undeliverable without revision. For the macrostructure conveys the core argument of the whole text and is not confined to one, albeit essential, part. Using Toulmin's model as our reference point, we have a theoretical, rather than empirical, framework for determining what is "essential" in a text.
Therefore, in testing the TQA grid, we will also explore the validity of defining major/critical error as a component not of "an essential part of the message" but of "the core argument" of the document and of proving the following:

*If there are no defects at the level of the argument macrostructure, the text meets minimum quality standards, since the elements of the core argument [BWGQCR] are the only potential loci of major or critical errors.*

We will examine the usefulness of maintaining the critical/major/minor error categories, reserving the "critical" designation for argument macrostructure defects and "major" for serious defects at a lower level.

**Note**

Henceforth, we propose to use the term "defect" for argumentation-related errors. Hatim and Mason have already proposed (1997: 203) that the word "error" be restricted to overt microtextual errors of denotation and target-language errors of grammar, usage and typography. Furthermore, it would be useful to incorporate the vocabulary of international standardization into translation metalanguage.
5.2. Testing of hypotheses regarding textological model

Our next step is to test the preliminary TQA grid on the following corpus:

a) consumer affairs and education texts from the Government of Ontario
b) statistics texts from the Department of Natural Resources of Canada
c) criminology/legal issues texts from the Canadian Criminal Justice Association (CCJA)
d) translations by third-year and fourth-year students at the University of Ottawa School of Translation and Interpretation (STI).

5.2.1. Industry texts

In the case of texts in (a), (b) and (c), we used unrevised translations so as to ensure some level of uniformity in conditions of production. We also ensured that the texts were of varying length so that we could conduct our comparative analysis of microtextual and macrotextual approaches to TQA.

We selected texts in social services and education for the following reasons:

• We assume that the importance of argumentation in the texts will be considerable.

Education, which is a provincial government responsibility, has been the focus of intense debate and growing controversy in recent years, as budgets have been slashed, services have been severely cut back and reorganized, and employees and members of the public have protested and demanded restoration of funding and services as a result. Furthermore, the changes have required development of new policies and approaches to service delivery, which in turn generate internal discussion and argument.
As we showed in our discussion of argument macrostructure (3.2.), presupposed values are often a part of the argument in social affairs texts, and we assume that this applies to education and consumer affairs documents too. It will be interesting to see whether there is any evidence, in the translations, of the translator's failure to factor in those values.

The CCJA material is polemical and will therefore afford us ample opportunity to test the full range of parameters. On the other hand, the statistics documents are not at all polemical, and as such they will give us an opportunity to determine whether an argumentation-centred TQA model is of any use in that field.

The testing itself will involve several stages:

i. conduct full-text argumentation-centred analysis of source text, identifying argument macrostructure, arrangement, and organizational relations;

ii. read through whole translation for potential problems;

iii. select samples containing components of argument macrostructure and compare presentation of macrostructure, argument types, organizational relations, conjunctives and other inference indicators, propositional functions and reasoning, figures and narrative strategy in ST and TT, indicating degree of correspondence on the grid and documenting defects;

iv. assess major or minor rating to defects according to role of text element in argumentation macrostructure.

iv. conduct quantitative TQA of representative sample(s) and, where feasible, on full text on the basis of Sical and its definition of major defect;
v. compare results, especially regarding presence of major defects, with a view to demonstrating the following:

*Full-text argumentation-centred TQA proves to be as effective a tool as full-text quantitative TQA if it generates the same assessment of major defect and to be more efficient than the latter in terms of time required.*

*Full-text argumentation-centred TQA proves to be more effective than quantitative TQA by sampling if the latter does not provide for detection of text-level major defects.*

vi. refine set of parameters and grid in light of findings, discarding any parameters that are not shown to be a source of problems for translators.

Note
Since the selected groups of parameters/features—argumentation, macrostructure theory, etc.—will be tested on a broad range of text types produced for a variety of purposes, even within the fields concerned, it may be determined that some argumentation parameters are more relevant to certain text types, fields and end uses than to others. As a result, it may be possible to propose, at the validation stage, a number of "parameter-specific" TQA models geared to type and purpose of translation and the purpose of the assessment.

In addition, the impact or importance of recurring minor defects of transfer, language or format varies with conditions of production, client, end use, etc.—in short, the translation's context. It may therefore be advisable, in making a final assessment of texts, to combine full-text argumentation-centred TQA with microtextual TQA and devise a weighted, multicriteria grid along the lines proposed by Larose (1994). We will examine this option further at the validation stage.
5.2.2. Trainee-translator texts

The testing is based on learning objectives relating to the recognition and rendering of argument structures and macrostructures. Given the constraints of the university course environment—the difficulty, if not impossibility, of assigning long texts—translations will be combined with exercises on recognition, comprehension and transfer of specific elements of argument structure:

- recognition/comprehension of argument macrostructure in a range of ST instrumental documents
- recognition/comprehension of the full range of organizational relations in ST instrumental documents
- recognition/comprehension of types of conjunctives, particularly those that cause problems for translators
- recognition/comprehension of types of argument and figures in a range of ST instrumental documents
- comprehension of propositional sequences
- translation of discrete examples of each of the above
- translation/revision of passages in isolation/as part of full text

Feedback on each of the above exercises will be part of the formative assessment process. Performance on each exercise will serve as a building block leading eventually to translation of longer passages, assessment of which will be part of the summative evaluation. Our aim will be to determine the usefulness of argumentation-centred TQA for both types of student evaluation.

This component of the testing procedure will also make it possible to develop and validate a set of exercises to practise and demonstrate application of the models. In a broader sense, this part of the project also gives us an opportunity to test Andrews’ contention that argument “might be said to ... assist in the learning process” (1995: 151)—the process of learning how to translate, in this case. By adapting some of the exercises devised by Widdowson (1978) to develop an
understanding of and ability to use the conventions of cohesion, coherence, propositional development and rhetorical strategies, we will be able to assess the degree to which students have come to grips with the communicative purpose of discourse, including translation, and to what extent they have been able to progress from narrative competence to argumentative/expository competence in a translation-specific context. We can then devise other exercises to help correct any deficiencies. The training applications of the project will be the focus of a future study.

5.3. Defining the translation quality standard

We will proceed on the assumption that identification and appropriate rendering of the argument (reasoning) macrostructure is the key to meeting the translation quality standard. We will

- establish clear distinctions between standards, on the one hand, and laws, rules, directives and norms, on the other, in light of translation, linguistic and philosophical research. In particular, we will make use of research on linguistic norms on the assumption that they are closely related to translation norms and normative statements.

The following will serve as a reference point:

Bartsch’s norms of language (1987)—specifically, the source of validity of norms; the relationship between norms and notions of correctness; the distinction between mandatory and permissive norms and between descriptive and prescriptive standards (the dialectic of norm and tolerance); the hierarchy of norms and rules; deviation from norms; and norms in a multilingual society.

Von Wright (1963) and Lewis (1969) and Ullmann-Margalit (1977)—definition and categorization of norms in relation to society and the exploration of their relationship to individual decision making.
Rastier (1987)—norms of cohesion, relevance and coherence that a text must meet in order to be interpreted correctly.

- explore the concepts of validity and reliability of translation norms/standards with reference to general quality control research.

- use the findings and conclusions reached in our testing of parameters and major errors to refine characteristics of the translation quality standard and, if appropriate, of other types of normative statement.

Note: The integration of additional textological parameters into a TQA grid and any refinement of the concept of error should influence the definition of a translation quality standard.

5.4. Anticipated results

5.4.1. TQA model

With the argumentation-centred approach to assessment, the study will generate the following:

- a TQA model that is both criterion-referenced and discourse-based, but is flexible enough to allow for microtextual TQA for specific purposes such as target-language quality assessment;

- a comprehensive set of parameters that covers transfer of meanings at all levels;

- a minimum level of acceptable overall quality for instrumental translations, thus avoiding the problem of how to graduate from assessment against discrete criteria to a measurement of overall quality;
• a means of measuring quality of texts of varying lengths while avoiding the pitfalls of sampling and quantification;

• a reliable measurement tool in that, from one text to the next, acceptable quality is predicated on whether the argument macrostructure elements have been preserved in translation;

• a valid measurement tool in that, as it entails text-level assessment, the results of TQA will automatically be representative of the whole text;

• tools for valid, comprehensive assessment of students’ work, which highlights the importance of textological parameters in interpreting meaning and gauging transfer quality and also, by establishing a new hierarchy of errors, suggest new directions for translator training;

• a minimum standard of performance expected of graduating students—proven ability to understand and accurately transfer all elements of the argument macrostructure;

• a clear rationale for the distinction between errors and problems resulting from insufficient translation competence and those resulting from macrotextual and extratextual factors and insufficient "discursive competence," along with a new tool for identifying those problems and showing how discursive constraints can affect/limit translators’ decision making.
5.4.2. Definition of error

The definition of translation error will provide a coherent and defensible concept for error analysis and assessment. The definition of major/critical error, around which the determination of minimum acceptable quality revolves, will be based not only on empirical judgment but also on established theory.

5.4.3. Definition of translation quality standard

The definition of the translation quality standard (and any related normative statements) will provide the profession with a draft standard that incorporates actual quality levels in a textological framework. It will also relate the translation standard to the concepts of standardization in industry.
PART II

Testing and Refining the Model and Defining a Quality Standard
Chapter Six

Testing the Model: Industry Corpus Analysis

6.1. Analysis process

At the heart of our proposed argumentation-centred translation quality assessment model, which we will also refer to by means of the acronym ARTRAQ, lies the assumption that macrotext and microtext are interdependent and that, therefore, any valid and reliable assessment of translation quality must encompass both dimensions. A second assumption is that an accurate rendering of the argument macrostructure of ST in TT means that the translation meets a basic standard of adequacy, and a third is that the translator (and evaluator) can use the macrostructure to interpret lower-level text units at the propositional and even subsentence levels.

Accordingly, we propose to start our analysis of each text by establishing the ST argument macrostructure (Toulmin, Mendenhall) and arrangement or dispositio (see Corbett and Connors 1999: 256-92). This should enable us to identify, among other things, what part or parts of the document contain “essential messages,” that is, one or more of the components of the macrostructure adumbrated by Toulmin. At the same time, we must ask ourselves whether ST contains other passages that do not contain elements of the argument macrostructure but could still be considered representative of the text as such.

The second stage of the analysis will be an examination of TT without reference to the original to assess overall coherence and identify any potential problems within the core passages (containing macrostructure components). As mentioned in Chapter One, this stage is part of the Ontario Government Translation Services procedure, and, in the case of student translations, Adab proposes an initial reading and even grading of the complete target text “as a TL (target language) text, for coherence and overall
acceptability/readability" (2000: 224). So we will in fact be testing the assumption that a reading of TT, prior to any comparative analysis, is useful for a textological, and specifically argumentation-centred, approach to TQA.

The third stage will entail an assessment of the degree to which core passages in TT adequately reflect the argument macrostructure in ST. Obviously, in short texts, sampling will not be an issue, but in the longer ones we hypothesize that assessment of those passages containing elements of the argument macrostructure is the most effective and efficient way of conducting a textological TQA.

Stage Four entails an examination of the linkages between propositions in the same core passages. With Widdowson’s typology of propositional functions and Thomas’s reasoning model (4.4) as reference points, we will assess the degree to which the logical relations established in ST are accurately reproduced in TT. Viewed from a strictly discourse-analysis perspective, comparison of logical relations is tantamount to assessing the relative degree of coherence in the two texts, inasmuch as any breakdown in the writer’s reasoning—in the development of ideas—will result in incoherence to some degree and hinder the reader’s understanding of the text.

Intimately connected with this stage is the exploration of conjunctives and other inference indicators in ST and TT in Stage Five. At the surface level, that of cohesion, any failure to render the logical relations of ST—a failure that could, in theory, take the form of a coherent, cohesive but different set of relations—could be signalled by a shift in the type of conjunctive used or an absence of conjunctive. Thus the assessment is a twofold one, bearing both on coherence and on the cohesion factors that direct the reader toward a specific interpretation of the text. Furthermore, on the basis of the fourth-stage assessment, we should be able to make a statement about the interrelationship of argument macrostructure and argument development at this lower level, and specifically about the degree to which the two levels affect one another in TT. Such a statement will be of particular interest in tackling the student corpus.
The sixth stage will focus on specific arguments, which may involve one or more propositions and, as such, will be covered at least in part in Stage Four. Here too, the interrelationship of individual arguments and the higher levels (argument relations and macrostructure) in TT will be explored, again with a view to evaluating the usefulness of textological TQA and argument analysis as a training tool.

In the seventh stage, we examine figures of speech (tropes) with specific reference to their contribution to the writer’s arguments. We assume that, in instrumental translation, the aesthetic or ornamental purpose of figures is subordinate to its role in communicating and reinforcing ideas—a role amply illustrated in 4.6. In this context, it is worth bearing in mind Ricoeur’s contention that, contrary to commonly held expert opinion, figures, and specifically the metaphor, function not at the level of the word but at a higher level of discourse (1975: 277-79).

In the eighth stage, we endeavour to determine whether any narrative strategy in ST is preserved or altered in TT and what the effect of any shifts may be on the reader’s reception of the text.

This multistage argumentation-centred assessment of translation quality should provide us with plenty of information about the degree to which TT accurately renders not only the key message(s) of the text but also pragmatic and semantic elements at the interpropositional, propositional and subpropositional/subsentence levels. Stage Nine will involve an overall argumentation-centred TQA based on the evidence accumulated thus far.

The tenth stage entails conducting a quantitative, microtextual TQA, based on the Sical grid, of core passages and, where feasible, whole texts. We can then determine, at the eleventh and final stage, whether the information gathered at the macrotextual and microtextual levels yields a different assessment of quality from the one generated by an essentially microtextual evaluation.
The process covers all the main facets of argumentation, but it is not the final model. Once we have completed the testing process, we must refine the model by devising some means of weighting the different levels of argumentation and other, more conventional aspects such as target-language quality—among other things, according to the client's requirements and planned end use of TT. Larose's multicriteria analysis model (see 1.1.1.7) can serve as a baseline here. At that point, we will be able to make conclusive statements about the validity, reliability and comprehensiveness of the model: Does it actually serve to assess what it purports to assess? Does it offer an objective, "scientific" means of setting and applying tolerance levels or thresholds? Does it provide for consistency in assessment from one text to the next? Is it broad and flexible enough to cover all elements of importance in TQA?

**Summary of Testing and Analysis Process**

1. Establish argument macrostructure and arrangement of ST and core passages
2. Read whole TT for potential problems of coherence, with particular reference to core passages, and to determine whether overall arrangement is preserved or appropriately modified
3. Conduct TQA of core passages to determine degree to which they reflect argument macrostructure
4. Conduct comparative assessment of propositional development and reasoning
5. Conduct comparative assessment of conjunctives and other inference indicators
6. Conduct comparative assessment of arguments
7. Conduct comparative assessment of figures of speech (tropes)
8. Conduct comparative assessment of narrative strategy
9. Make overall quality statement on the basis of argumentation-centred TQA
10. Perform quantitative, Sical-based analysis of TT samples and, where feasible, full text
11. Compare results of argumentation-centred TQA and quantitative TQA
6.2. Corpus analysis

A characterization of each microtextual error detected in the translation is inserted in parentheses immediately following the error in TT. Such symbols (T—translation, or transfer, error; L—language error) have been used for this purpose.

6.2.1. Subcorpus I: Ontario Government Translation Services

6.2.1.1. Text 1

ST length: 329 words
Text type: letter
Text mode: argumentative
Purpose: persuade minister to take action
Translation client: Minister's office, Ministry of Education
Translation purpose: communicate information and persuasive intent

Source text

Conseil des élèves sourds du Centre Jules-Léger

Ottawa, le 13 octobre 1999

L'Honorable Janet Ecker
Ministre de l'Éducation de l'Ontario
Édifice Mowat
900, rue Bay
Toronto (Ontario)
M7A 1L2
Madame la Ministre,


À notre école provinciale, on enseigne les différentes matières scolaires comme les mathématiques, les sciences, l'histoire et la géographie en Langue des signes québécoise (LSQ). En classe, on communique et on échange en LSQ. On pense et on apprend en LSQ. Cependant, il n'y a pas de cours de LSQ. Cela veut dire qu'un élève sourd comme moi peut étudier des langues comme le français et l'anglais à l'école élémentaire et à l'école secondaire sans pouvoir étudier sa propre langue, la LSQ. Je trouve cela étrange. Je pense que le ministère de l'Éducation a oublié les élèves sourds dans la réforme de l'éducation. Il faut corriger cela.

Nous les élèves sourds des écoles provinciales de l'Ontario, nous avons besoin d'un programme-cadre en LSQ de la première à la douzième année. À l'école secondaire, on a même besoin de cours en LSQ qui donnent des crédits. Les élèves sourds anglophones ont besoin de la même chose que nous, mais en « American Sign Language ». C'est très important. C'est urgent.


J'attends votre réponse. Les élèves sourds de la province attendent aussi votre réponse. Je vous remercie d'avance.
Target text

Council of Deaf Children at the Centre Jules-Léger

281 Lanark Avenue
Ottawa, Ontario
K1Z 6R8

October 13, 1999

The Honourable Janet Ecker
Ontario Minister of Education
Mowat Block
900 Bay Street
Toronto, Ontario
M7A 1L2

Dear Ms. Ecker:

My name is Michael McGuire. I am a student at the secondary school at the Centre Jules-Léger. I am also the President of the Council of Deaf Children at the Centre Jules-Léger. I have something very important to share with you today.

At our provincial school, various academic subjects like mathematics, science, history and geography are taught in Quebec Sign Language (QSL). We communicate and interact in class using QSL. We think and learn in QSL. However, no courses in QSL are offered. This means that a deaf student like me can study languages such as French and English at elementary and secondary school but cannot study his own language, QSL. I find that strange. I think that the Ministry of Education has forgotten deaf students in the reform of education. That has to be corrected.

We deaf students in the provincial schools of Ontario need curriculum guidelines in QSL from Grade 1 to 12. In secondary school, we even need QSL credit courses. Deaf Anglophone students
need the same thing that we do, but in American Sign Language. This is very important. It is urgent.

Ms. Ecker, the deaf students of the province need your help. We are counting on you to help us. We are even ready to work with you to help you. Could you ask your ministry to prepare curriculum guidelines in QSL and ASL? They are greatly needed.

I am waiting for your answer. The deaf students of the province are also waiting for your answer. Thank you in advance.

Text 1 assessment

1. *ST Argument macrostructure*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macrostructure element</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grounds</td>
<td>Subjects are taught in LSQ but no courses on LSQ as such are offered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 1</td>
<td>Students need such a course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 2</td>
<td>Request for minister to take action on establishing LSQ curriculum guidelines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>Government’s role to meet expressed educational needs (presupposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>Language rights and rights of persons with disabilities (presupposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td><em>urgent, grand</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal/Restriction</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of organizational relations, the argument fits the problem–solution and justification–request pairs proposed by Mendenhall. In a short text such as this, arrangement is not an issue.

2. *Reading of TT for coherence and potential problems*

No shortcomings were noted.

3. *TT argument macrostructure*

The translation accurately reflects the ST macrostructure.
4. **Propositional functions/reasoning structure**

**ST analysis**

Applying Widdowson’s analytical tools, we can break down the ST argumentation into a number of propositional functions, as follows.

In paragraph 2, **generalization** (routine use of LSQ in school) is followed by a **qualification** (no LSQ course as such), an **explanation** of the qualification (negligence on the part of the Ministry) and a **consequence** of the qualification (action required). Paragraph 3 contains a **clarification** of the action required (LSQ course and curriculum) and an **elaboration** of the clarification (parallel need with respect to ASL). The fourth paragraph is a further **elaboration** of the action required (request for minister’s intervention).

Applying Thomas’s model, we can identify the following linked reasoning structure, with an intermediate and a final conclusion:
TT analysis

The translation reflects the propositional functions of ST, and the linked reasoning is preserved.

5. Conjonctives: inference indicators

The conjunctives in ST (aussi, Cependant, même, même) and inference indicator (Cela veut dire que) do not pose specific problems and are accurately rendered in TT.

6. Arguments

The core argument is an enthymeme based on comparison (similarity):

French and English are used as teaching languages.

(LSQ is a language.)

Therefore there should be courses on LSQ.

The argument is accurately rendered in TT.

7. Figures of speech

Figures are not at issue in this text.

8. Narrative strategy

The first person and second person are strongly foregrounded in ST, and this prominence is maintained in TT.
9. **Argumentation-centred TQA**

**Argumentation-centred TQA Grid**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claim 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td><em>Important, urgent</em></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal/Restrictions</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Organizational Relations**

| Problem–Solution | Yes | Yes | + |
| Justification–Request | Yes | Yes | + |

**Propositional Functions/Reasoning Structure**

| Generalization–qualification–explanation, etc. | Yes | + |
| Linked reasoning–intermediate conclusion–final conclusion | |

**Conjunctives/Inference Indicators**

| Adversative | *Cependant* | Yes | + |
| Additive    | *aussi, même* | Yes | + |
| Causal      | *Cela veut dire que* | Yes | + |

**Arguments**

| Type          | Enthymeme | Yes | + |
| Topic         | Comparison: similarity | Yes | + |

** Figures**

| Type | None | N/A | 0 |

**Narrative strategy**

| Type | Personalization: *je, nous, vous* | Yes | + |
Results of the analysis against a broad range of argumentation parameters indicate that the translation adequately renders the argumentation features of ST: no defects were detected.

10. **Quantitative TQA**

In order to test our hypothesis as to the efficacy of an argumentation-centred TQA model, we must now make a quantitative, microtextual quality assessment and then compare the results of the two analyses. The Canadian Government Translation Bureau’s Sical grid will be used for the quantitative TQA.

No errors were detected. TT therefore warrants a Sical rating of A (“Superior”).

11. **Comparison**

An argumentation-centred TQA yields the same overall assessment as the quantitative TQA.

6.2.1.2. **Text 2**

ST length: 315 words
Text type: letter of support for initiative taken by writer in Text 1
Text mode: argumentative
Purpose: persuade minister to take action
Translation client: Minister’s office, Ministry
Translation purpose: communicate information and persuasive intent
Association ontarienne des sourds/es francophones

Ottawa, le 30 septembre 1999

Michael McGuire
Président du Conseil des étudiants CJL
281, avenue Lanark, suite 208
Ottawa (Ontario)
K1Z 6R8

Objet : Lettre d’appui pour le développement du curriculum LSQ

Cher Monsieur McGuire :

Au nom du conseil d’administration de l’AOSF, nous sommes conscients de la nécessité de développer un programme-cadre en LSQ. Nous appuyons entièrement votre démarche auprès de la ministre de l’Éducation, Mme Janet Ecker.

Puisque la LSQ est déjà acceptée comme langue d’enseignement dans les écoles de l’Ontario, suivant le règlement de la Loi 4 adoptée en 1993, mais que nous n’avons ni textes ni documentation, il est impératif de nous fournir les outils nécessaires pour que nous puissions établir le programme-cadre à partir du jardin d’enfants jusqu’à la douzième année.

Il n’existe pas beaucoup d’outils en ce moment pour développer un curriculum complet en LSQ. Nous avons grand besoin de ressources humaines compétentes en LSQ pour voir au cheminement de ce dossier attendu depuis 1993, l’année où la LSQ fut permise comme langue d’enseignement dans les écoles ontariennes.
Par contre, du côté anglophone, on a déjà une grande avance dans l’établissement d’un curriculum ASL. Il en est de même chez les autochtones. Madame la ministre va-t-elle nous accorder les mêmes droits?


Veuillez agréer, Monsieur McGuire, l’expression de mes sentiments les plus distingués.

Le Président,

Richard Cameron

Target text

Association ontarienne des sourds/es francophones

[Ontario Association of Deaf Francophones]

September 30, 1999

Michael McGuire
President of the CIL Council of Deaf Children
281 Lanark Avenue, Suite 208
Ottawa, Ontario
K1Z 6R8
Re: Letter of support for the development of a QSL curriculum

Dear Mr. McGuire:

On behalf of the Board of Directors of AOSF, *(L—annunciatory verb required)* we are aware of the need to develop a QSL curriculum. We entirely support your initiative in making a request to the Minister of Education, Janet Ecker.

Since QSL is already accepted as a language of instruction in Ontario schools, in accordance with the Regulation of Bill 4 *(T—facts and terminology should be checked)*, which was passed in 1993, but since we do not have the texts or documentation, it is imperative to provide the tools necessary to develop the curriculum from kindergarten to grade 12.

There are not many tools at this time to see to the development *(L—inappropriate wording)* of a complete QSL curriculum. We have a great need of human resources who *(L—wrong relative, given antecedent)* are competent in QSL, to see to the furtherance of this matter, which has been awaited *(T—imprecision)* since 1993, the year when QSL was allowed as a language of instruction in Ontario institutions.

On the other hand, on the Anglophone side, they have already made great strides in their furtherance *(T—imprecision)* of an ASL curriculum. It is the same situation with the Aboriginal peoples. Will Ms. Ecker give us the same rights?

In the main hall of the Centre Jules-Léger can be seen a picture and a text which explains that on January 9, 1980, the Right Honourable Jules Léger, Governor General of Canada, accompanied by his wife, Ms. *(T—inappropriate style of address)* Gabrielle Léger, officially inaugurated the Centre Jules-Léger. On that occasion, he delivered a speech entitled “Equality of Opportunity in Education.” This was an initiative supported by the
Minister of Education (T—ambiguity; “at the time” required), Dr. Bette Stephenson. Where is equality of opportunity in education, as announced by the Governor General when the Centre Jules-Léger was opened in 1980!

Yours truly,

Richard Cameron
Chairman

Text 2 assessment

1. ST argument macrostructure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macrostructure element</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ground 1</td>
<td>LSQ accepted as language of instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 2</td>
<td>No documentation and insufficient human resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 3</td>
<td>Progress has been made in developing an ASL curriculum for Anglophones and for Aboriginal peoples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 4</td>
<td>Support of former minister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 1</td>
<td>Students need such a course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 2</td>
<td>Expression of support for initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant 1</td>
<td>Bill 4 Regulations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant 2</td>
<td>Léger speech on equality of opportunity in education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>Democratic rights of equality (presupposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td>entièrement (first paragraph)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal/Restriction</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The organization relations are once again those of problem–solution and justification–claim.
Regarding arrangement, the text differs from the first in that the claim is stated in the first paragraph, with the justification (reasons) for it being presented in subsequent paragraphs.

2. Reading of TT

No problems were noted.

3. TT argument structure

The translation accurately reflects the ST macrostructure.

4. Propositional functions/reasoning structure

ST analysis

The main theme of support (first paragraph) is followed by a series of supporting explanatory propositions. Within the supporting material, the propositions concerning the progress of Anglophones and Aboriginal people constitute a qualification of, and specifically a contrast to, the situation of the Francophones, leading to a new supporting theme, one of rights.

Applying Thomas’s reasoned discourse model, we find a more complex structure than in Text 1, because more grounds (reasons) are given for the claim (conclusion).
Expression of support for request to minister

Final conclusion

Yes, LSQ accepted as language of instruction

Linked reasoning

LSQ curriculum guidelines a logical requirement

Intermediate conclusion

Few curriculum development tools

Reason

Competent human resources required

Intermediate conclusion/reason for...
In this instance, the final conclusion precedes several reasons joined in a serial reasoning pattern, with each paragraph being reserved for one or more reasons. Note the predominance of linked reasoning.

**TT analysis**

The translation reflects the propositional functions of ST and the reasoned discourse, notwithstanding the greater complexity of the text.

5. **Conjunctives/inference indicators**

The conjunctives in ST (*Par contre* and *À cette occasion*) do not pose specific problems and are accurately rendered in TT.

6. **Arguments**

The *eathymeme* and argument based on the topic of *comparison–similarity* used in Text 1 are present here. In this case, however, the writer introduces a second argument by comparison with the reference to the progress of Anglophone and Aboriginal students toward a curriculum to meet their needs; here, the comparison is based both on *similarity* (three groups sharing a disability) and *relationship–contradiction* (progress vs. lack of...
progress). He then introduces a third argument, based this time on testimony—authority (the Governor General’s speech on equality in education and a former education minister’s support for that initiative) and reinforcing the earlier comparison/contradiction/contrary argument (equality/inequality; ideal/reality).

All these elements are rendered adequately in TT.

7. **Figures of speech**

The two rhetorical questions are adequately rendered in TT.

8. **Narrative strategy**

Again, the first and second persons are foregrounded in ST. This is reflected in TT.

9. **Overall argumentation-centred TQA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claim 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 4</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td>entièrement</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal/Restrictions</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational Relations</th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem–Solution</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justification-Request</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results of the analysis against a broad range of argumentation parameters indicate that the translation adequately renders the argumentation features of ST: no defects were detected.

10. **Quantitative TQA**

4 minor translation errors; 3 minor language errors. B ("fully acceptable") rating.

11. **Comparison and comments**

TT meets the adequacy standard under both models. However, the errors detected through the microtextual analysis mean that the translation was not of "superior" quality. That being said, the representations to the government minister are clearly conveyed.
6.2.1.3. **Text 3**

ST length: 622 words; 400-word passage marked off by black squares
Text type: letter to minister, expressing support for writer of first letter above
Text mode: argumentative
Purpose: persuade Minister to take action
Translation client: Minister’s office, Ministry of Education
Translation purpose: communicate information and persuasive intent

**Source text**

*Conseil scolaire de l’École provinciale du Centre Jules-Léger*

Le 12 octobre 1999

L’Honoriable Janet Ecker
Ministre de l’Éducation de l’Ontario
Édifice Mowat, 22e étage
900, rue Bay
Toronto (Ontario)
M7A 1L2

Madame la Ministre,

une réforme des programmes scolaires, il serait souhaitable qu’il prenne les dispositions nécessaires en vue d’élaborer un programme-cadre pour la LSQ de la première à la douzième année. Le paradoxe serait résolu!

Pour que nos enfants reçoivent une véritable éducation bilingue et biculturelle au sein des écoles provinciales, il faut non seulement que la LSQ possède le statut de langue d’enseignement mais aussi qu’elle bénéficie de son propre programme-cadre tout comme le français et l’anglais. Nous croyons que l’élaboration d’un programme-cadre de qualité en LSQ est une responsabilité qui vous incombe en tant que Ministre de l’Éducation. Nous sommes persuadés que, sous votre leadership, ce dossier pourrait finalement devenir prioritaire au ministère et se réaliser avant le début de l’année scolaire 2000-2001.

Actuellement, il n’existe aucun programme-cadre en LSQ, que ce soit en Ontario ou au Québec. Ne vous laissez pas induire en erreur par ceux et celles qui vous diront que les « initiatives locales » en LSQ qui existent déjà pourraient servir de programme-cadre. Ces « initiatives », quoique louables, sont très incomplètes et ne constituent pas un programme-cadre selon les exigences du ministère de l’Éducation. Ne vous laissez pas non plus induire en erreur par ceux et celles qui vous diront que les écoles provinciales peuvent créer des cours crédités en LSQ en assimilant celle-ci à une « langue patrimoniale ». Ce serait une demi-mesure, limitative et insuffisante. Je ne crois pas que le ministère de l’Éducation accepterait que cette formule serve à délivrer des crédits dans le cadre des programmes d’enseignement du français ou de l’anglais en Ontario.

S’il n’existe pas de programme-cadre en LSQ en Ontario, il existe néanmoins des spécialistes qui sous votre leadership pourrait élaborer un tel programme. Ces gens existent au sein de votre ministère et parmi le personnel des écoles provinciales. Il existe aussi des spécialistes à l’Université d’Ottawa et à l’Université du Québec à Montréal, qui pourraient vous aider. Pour cela, il faut que ce dossier devienne prioritaire au ministère. Il faut sélectionner, réunir et mandater des experts. Encore une fois, nous croyons que l’élaboration d’un programme-cadre de qualité en LSQ est une responsabilité qui vous
revient en tant que Ministre de l'Éducation. À cet égard, l'Ontario pourrait devenir un chef de file non seulement sur la scène nationale, mais aussi sur la scène mondiale. Nous sommes prêts à collaborer avec vous.

Dans l'espoir que vous voudrez bien accéder à notre requête ainsi qu'à celle de nos enfants sourds, je vous prie d'agréer, Madame la Ministre, l'expression de me sentiments distingués.

Le président,

Marcel Cléroux

Target text

School Council  
Provincial School  
Centre Jules-Léger  

October 12, 1999

The Honourable Janet Ecker  
Ontario Minister of Education  
Mowat Block, 22nd Floor  
900 Bay Street  
Toronto, Ontario  
M7A 1L2

Dear Ms. Ecker:

On behalf of the School Council of the Provincial School at the Centre Jules-Léger, I support the request of Michael McGuire, President of the Council of Deaf Children at the Centre Jules-Léger. As you no doubt know, since 1993 Section (L—upper case) 11(21) of the Education Act has allowed Quebec Sign Language (QSL) to be used as a language of
instruction on the same basis as French and English in Ontario schools. QSL is currently used as a language of instruction with deaf students at your provincial school at the Centre Jules-Léger. However, learning QSL as an actual language does not take place, due to the lack of a QSL curriculum. For us parents (L—comma required) as for our children, this is a paradox. Given that the Ministry of Education is currently undertaking a reform of its curriculum in Ontario, it would be well (L—usage) if the Ministry also concerned itself with doing what is necessary (L—verbiage) to develop QSL curriculum guidelines from Grade 1 to Grade 12. The paradox would be resolved!

If our children are to receive a true (L—grammar, part of speech) bilingual and bicultural education within the Ministry of Education’s provincial schools, QSL has to have not only the status of a “language of instruction” but must also have (L—syntax, no parallel structure) its own curriculum guidelines, just like French and English. We believe that the responsibility to see to (L—style, level of language) developing quality curriculum guidelines in QSL is yours (L—grammar, part of speech) as Minister of Education. We are persuaded (L—gallicism) that with your leadership this matter could finally become a priority at the Ministry and be implemented (T—imprecision) by the beginning of the 2000-2001 school year.

There are currently no curriculum guidelines for QSL either in Ontario or in Quebec. Do not let yourself be taken in by those who tell you that there are already “local initiatives” in QSL which could serve as curriculum guidelines. These “initiatives,” while praiseworthy, are very incomplete and therefore do not constitute curriculum guidelines in accordance with the requirements of the Ministry of Education. Neither (L—syntax) let yourself be taken in by those who tell you that the provincial schools can develop QSL credit courses by using the “heritage language” formula. This is a limiting and inadequate half-measure. I do not believe that the Ministry of Education would agree to the use of this formula to award credits at the same level as (T—mistranslation) for the French and English programs taught in Ontario.
Though there are currently no QSL curriculum guidelines in Ontario, there are experts who could develop such a curriculum under your leadership. These people exist within your Ministry and among the staffs of the schools of the province. There are also experts at the University of Ottawa and at the University of Quebec at Montreal who could help you. For this to happen, this matter must become a priority at the Ministry. Experts have to be selected, brought together and given a mandate. Once again, we believe that this responsibility for seeing to (L—error repeated) the development of quality QSL curriculum guidelines is yours (L—error repeated) as Minister of Education. Ontario could be the leader in this area, not only nationally but also worldwide. We are ready to work with you.

I hope you will accede to our request as well as to that of our deaf children.

Yours truly,

Marcel Cléroux
Chairman

Text 3 assessment

1. *ST argument macrostructure*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macrostructure element</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ground 1</td>
<td>LSQ accepted as language of instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 2</td>
<td>No LSQ curriculum guidelines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 3</td>
<td>There are experts who could develop the guidelines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 4</td>
<td>Opportunity provided by education reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 5</td>
<td>Students need such a course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 6</td>
<td>“Local initiatives” and “heritage language” formula unacceptable solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 1</td>
<td>Expression of support for initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 2</td>
<td>Ministry should develop guidelines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 3</td>
<td>Minister should assume her responsibility for making the issue a priority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 4</td>
<td>Ontario a potential leader in LSQ curriculum guideline development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant 1</td>
<td>Ministerial responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant 2</td>
<td>Linguistic equality under the law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>Democratic rights of equality; rights of persons with disabilities (presupposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal/ Restriction</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note the explicitly stated warrants.

The same organizational relations obtain as in the other texts: problem–solution and evidence–request.

2. *Reading of TT*

We noted target language weaknesses, but no incoherence in the development of the argument.

3. *TT argument macrostructure*

The translation accurately reflects ST macrostructure except in one respect. One of the warrants for the connection between the grounds and the claims is language equality—in this instance the equality of LSQ (QSL) with French and English. At the end of the third paragraph, the ST writer warns against developing LSQ as a "heritage language," i.e., a European or Asian language that was introduced into Canada by immigrants in the fairly recent past, such as Ukrainian or Urdu, and for which government language-education funding may be provided. He expresses his conviction that the Minister would not consider awarding credits in English and French as "heritage languages," the implication
being that such a designation would not reflect the status that LSQ deserves. The translator misinterprets the argument and the force of the warrant is compromised.

4. **Propositional functions/reasoning structure**

**ST analysis**

The four macrostructure claims form the main themes, with each subsequent claim one forming an explanation, consequence or elaboration of the preceding ones: support—equal status (explanation)—ministerial action (consequence)—leadership (elaboration). The second and third claims are supported by a number of clarification propositions and by qualifications bringing out the contrast between needs and reality.

Regarding reasoning structure, the final conclusion (para. 1) precedes the reasons given in the subsequent paragraphs, as in Text 2, within the framework of a serial reasoning pattern in which a number of intermediate conclusions are used. Note also the presence of convergent reasoning in this case: the invalidity of “local initiatives” is adduced as a reason independently of the invalidity of the “heritage language” formula, and then the existence of expertise and Ontario’s potential leadership role are advanced as further, independent reasons for making the issue a priority.
TT analysis

These elements are adequately rendered except for the "heritage language" reason.

5. *Conjunctives/inference indicators*

The few conjunctives in ST are adequately translated, except for *non plus*, which is rendered by *neither* (target language error).
6. **Arguments**

The enthymeme and arguments based on the topic of comparison (similarity) and contraries (difference) used in texts 1 and 2 are present here. In this case, however, the greater number of grounds and claims are supported by additional arguments based on the following topics:

- Testimony (authority)—reference to the *Education Act*
- Circumstance (whole/part)—if education reform is possible, so is the introduction of an LSQ curriculum
- Relationship (appearance/reality)—“local initiatives” and “heritage languages” vs. equal status with English and French
- Definition—“heritage language” defined as a limiting, inadequate half-measure
- Circumstance (means/end)—experts as means for achieving guidelines

Note also the use of pathos in the appeal to the Minister’s leadership and her ministry’s expertise.

All these elements are rendered adequately in TT, except for the argument from comparison (LSQ ⇔ French and English), which is misconstrued by the translator at the end of paragraph 3.

7. **Figures of speech**

N/A.

8. **Narrative strategy**

Again, the first and second persons are foregrounded in ST. This is reflected in TT.
9. **Overall argumentation-centred TQA**

### Argumentation-centred TQA Grid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claim 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 4</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
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<td>Ground 1</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
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<td>+</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
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<td>+</td>
</tr>
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<td>Backing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rebuttal/Restrictions</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Organizational Relations

| Problem-Solution | Yes | Yes | + |
| Evidence-Request | Yes | Yes | + |

### Propositional Functions/Inference Indicators

| Generalization-explanation-consequence, etc. | Yes | + |
| Reasoning structure | Yes/No | +/- |

### Conjunctives/Inference Indicators

<p>| Adversative | Toutefois | Yes | + |
| Additive    | Aussi, non plus | Yes/No | +/- |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temporal</th>
<th><em>Encore une fois</em></th>
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**Arguments**

<table>
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<tr>
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<table>
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<tr>
<td>difference</td>
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<td>Contraries</td>
<td></td>
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<td>authority</td>
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<td>Circumstance:</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>means/end</td>
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<td>Relationship:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Definition</td>
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**Figures**

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<tr>
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**Narrative strategy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Personalization</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>+</th>
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</thead>
</table>

Results of the analysis against a broad range of argumentation parameters indicate that the translation adequately renders the argumentation features of ST except in respect of warrant 2 (language equality) and the conjunctive *non plus*. In fact, the error in failing to render the hypothesis of English and French as heritage languages compromises not only the quality of the TT argument macrostructure but also that of the argumentation (from comparison) and the reasoning structure. The elaboration of the theme of language
equality established in the first paragraph, where the warrant is clearly stated (reference to the Education Act), is undermined. Therefore, in terms of argumentation-centred TQA, the translation would not be deliverable as is.

10. **Quantitative TQA**

2 minor translation errors and 10 minor language errors in the 400-word passage selected (marked off by black squares). The translation is thus, officially, of “fully acceptable” (B) quality and can be delivered without revision. In a microtextual TQA, the serious error would no doubt have been considered as a mistranslation (faux sens) at the sentence level and would not have been related to the whole co-text. Yet, with 12 errors, it is a classic “borderline case.”

11. **Comparison and comments**

TT does not meet the adequacy standard under the argumentation-centred model. Under Sical; it does under the quantitative model. The difference is due to the application of a textological approach to translation analysis.

We also note that the error affects translation quality at several levels of argumentation: macrostructure, reasoning structure, and types of argument. The argument from relationship (appearance/reality) undermines not only the reader’s understanding of the specific proposition but also his full understanding of the core argumentation.

**Note 1**

The translation is primarily for the information purposes of the Minister’s office. At the same time, the letter itself is designed to persuade the Minister to act. If superior language quality were deemed essential in that context, the results of the argumentation-centred TQA would presumably have to be complemented by a second, target language analysis in order to refine the overall assessment. This issue will be considered with reference to the potential of a multicriteria approach.
Note 2
Sample selection was not a factor in the rating; the target passage was the only choice for a “representative” sample.

Note 3
Reading TT (Stage Two) does not alert the evaluator to the serious error.

6.2.1.4.  Text 4

ST length: 600 words
Text type: letter written to travel agency by customer complaining about unfair business practices and demanding cancellation of contract, with copy to Ontario Ministry of Consumer and Corporate Relations
Text mode: argumentative
Purpose: persuade Minister to take action
Translation client: Minister’s office, Ministry of Consumer Affairs and Corporations
Translation purpose: communicate information and persuasive intent

Source text

Le 14 janvier 2000

Objet : Requête en résiliation de contrat de forfait voyage

Madame,

Le 5 janvier, ma conjointe et moi avons acheté un forfait voyage d’essai du groupe XXX à votre agence d’Ottawa au coût de 800 $. La représentante des ventes qui nous a d’abord renseignés s’appelait Johanne et la représentante avec qui nous avons conclu l’entente s’appelait Mme C. Côté.
Plusieurs éléments négatifs et contraires à l’article 2 de la Loi sur les pratiques de commerce (L.R.O. 1990, chap. B.18), qui régit les pratiques commerciales déloyales en Ontario, motivent notre requête en résiliation du contrat d’achat (no. 43) conclu avec votre firme le 5 janvier dernier.

(Para. 3) D’abord, nous déplorons votre stratégie de vente sous pression. En effet, malgré nos refus préliminaires auprès de Johanne, Mme Côté a tout de même continué à nous offrir différentes formules de voyages à différents prix, tout en précisant que selon la stratégie de vente de votre compagnie nous devions absolument nous décider ce soir-là. La décision devait être prise sur le champ puisque vous ne procédez que par invitations de clients et que si nous ne réservions pas ce soir-là, nous ne pourrions pas être réinvités avant au moins deux (2) ans. Cette stratégie de vente ne permet donc pas aux clients de comparer les prix avec des concurrents potentiels, de s’informer ou de se renseigner sur la compagnie, de réfléchir et de discuter librement entre conjoints ou en famille afin de prendre une décision éclairée. Cette pratique est déloyale en vertu de l’article 2.2.vi. de la loi.

(Para. 4) Ensuite, les deux représentantes rencontrées ainsi que la brochure d’information qu’on nous a remise après la transaction susmentionnée ont indiqué que des rabais considérables sont accordés aux membres à l’achat de leurs billets d’avion. Vos deux représentantes nous ont même avancé des chiffres de l’ordre de 40 à 60 % de rabais sur l’achat de nos billets d’avion par les services de XXX, et ce, grâce au grand pouvoir d’achat assuré par les quelques millions de membres de votre compagnie. Toutefois, une vérification des prix des billets d’avion pour plusieurs destinations auprès du service responsable des transports chez XXX, au numéro 1-800-666-6666, nous a permis de constater que les prix étaient plus élevés que dans d’autres agences de la région d’Ottawa. D’ailleurs, le représentant auprès de qui nous avons vérifié le prix des billets nous a confirmé qu’il n’existait aucun rabais particulier pour les membres de votre compagnie. Les informations qui nous ont été données par les divers représentants de votre firme
s’avèrent donc inexactes. Cette pratique est également déloyale en vertu de l’article 2.1.x. de la loi.

(Para. 5) De plus, jamais l’une ou l’autre de vos représentantes n’a signalé que nous devions attendre près d’un mois (de 3 à 4 semaines) avant de recevoir notre carte de membre et ainsi bénéficier des privilèges accordés aux adhérents. Par conséquent, bien que nous ayons prévu nos vacances pour février 2000, nous ne pourrons vraisemblablement pas faire nos réservations avant le début de février. Faute d’informations adéquates, cet état de choses compromet sérieusement notre période de vacances, puisque la période de réservation est incertaine et que nos disponibilités sont restreintes en raison de nos emplois respectifs.

(Para. 6) Enfin, l’idée véhiculée par votre firme pour le compte de XXX, à savoir qu’en devenant membres, nous réaliserions nos rêves et que nous pourrions voyager à notre guise à travers le monde, est exagérée sinon fausse. En effet, dès le lendemain (le 6 janvier) de l’achat de ce que nous croyions être deux semaines de vacances de rêve, la vérification des références de votre compagnie et du groupe que vous représentez, soit XXX, nous a immédiatement ramenés sur terre. Nous nous sommes simplement renseignés dans nos milieux de travail respectifs pour savoir si nos collègues connaissaient XXX, et de cette petite consultation, nous avons obtenu trois (3) mauvaises références. En fait, les trois témoignages vont dans le même sens, c’est-à-dire que les gens éprouvent beaucoup de difficulté à réserver les destinations dans le Sud pour la période qu’ils souhaitent. Une des personnes consultées nous a même confié qu’elle était sur une liste d’attente depuis deux (2) ans pour pouvoir obtenir une semaine de vacances en Floride à Noël, bien qu’elle soit titulaire d’une carte d’adhésion rouge. Votre brochure mentionne toutefois qu’un voyage peut être réservé dans un délai de 2 à 365 jours. La préposée aux réservations de XXX, au numéro 1-800-668-1468, nous a par ailleurs signalé qu’il fallait compter au moins six (6) mois avant d’obtenir une destination dans les pays chauds pour l’hiver. Les difficultés de réservation et le délai d’attente énorme qu’il faudrait subir avant d’obtenir une destination voyage qui ne serait même pas nécessairement celle que nous souhaiterions, ainsi que la période d’attente pour
l'obtention de notre carte de membre nous découragent radicalement. D'autant plus que ces difficultés éventuelles et la nécessité pour les membres d'avoir une flexibilité ou une disponibilité aussi grandes ne nous ont jamais été signalées par les deux représentantes que nous avons vues au moment de l'achat. Au contraire, puisque j'ai posé une question en ce sens à Johanne, qui a nié l'existence de ce genre de problème et qui nous a même dit à plusieurs reprises pendant la présentation qu'il était très facile de voyager avec XXX. Ces deux dernières affirmations sont également contraires à l'article 2.1.2.xiii de la loi.

(Para. 7) Tous ces motifs font en sorte que nous avons perdu confiance en votre firme et en XXX à cause de vos pratiques commerciales et de la désinformation. Nous souhaitons donc exercer notre droit en tant que consommateurs en vertu de l'article 4 de la Loi sur les pratiques commerciales (L.R.O. 1990, chap. B. 18) et résilier le contrat d'achat signé avec Mme Côté le 5 janvier 2000. Nous demandons par conséquent que la carte de crédit Visa utilisée pour l'achat des billets soit créditée par votre firme du montant de 800 $.

J'espère recevoir une réponse positive de votre part dans les plus brefs délais, d'autant plus que la réponse donnée par Mme Thérèse Sanson, employée de votre firme, relativement à la requête que nous avons formulée hier, ne nous a guère satisfaits.

(signature)

c.c. : Mme C. Côté

Bureau des Services aux consommateurs du ministère de la Consommation et du Commerce
January 14 2000

Re: Request to cancel travel package contract

Dear Madam:

On January 5, 2000, my spouse and I paid $800 to purchase a trial travel package from the XXX group at agency located in Ottawa. The sales representative who gave us information first was a woman called Johanne and the representative with whom we concluded the contract was a Ms. C. Côté.

Several negative elements that also contravened article 2 (L—wrong term) of the Business Practices Act (RSO 1990, chap. B. 18) (L—comma required) which oversees (T—mistranslation) all unethical commercial practices in Ontario, are behind our request to cancel the purchase contract (No. 43) concluded with your company last January 5.

(Para. 3) Firstly, we deplore the pressure sales tactic that you have adopted. Indeed, despite our initial refusals to Johanne, Ms. Côté continued to offer different possible trip packages at different prices. She also mentioned that, according to the XXX group’s selling strategy, we absolutely had to make a decision that evening. The decision had to be made immediately since you can only proceed based on client invitation and, if we did not buy that evening it would not be possible to invite us for at least 2 (two) years. This selling tactic, therefore, leaves no time to compare prices with potential competitors, to learn more about the company, or to reflect and talk freely with your spouse or other members of your family in order to make an informed decision. This practice is unethical according to article (L—error repeated) 2, 2, viii, of the Act.
(Para. 4) Secondly, the two representatives we met and the information brochure which we were given following the purchase, (*comma wrongly inserted*) all mentioned that substantial member discounts are available on the purchase of airline tickets. Your two representatives even went so far as to suggest discounts of 40% to 60% on airline tickets purchased from XXX. However, after checking the cost of airline tickets for some destinations with the XXX travel agency at 1-800-666-6666, we realized that the cost of the tickets was higher than what was offered by other travel agencies in the Ottawa area. Moreover, the representatives with whom we verified the ticket prices confirmed that no specific discounts existed for members. The information provided by (*omission*) various members of your company proved to be incorrect (*omission*). This practice is also unethical according to article (error repeated) 2, 1, x, of the Act.

(Para. 5) In addition, at no time did either of your sales representatives mention that we would have to wait about one month (3 to 4 weeks) before receiving our member card and thus take advantage of member privileges. As a result, we planned to take a vacation in February 2000, but we will in all likelihood not be able to reserve our holiday package before the beginning of February. Lacking sufficient information, (*dangling participle*) this situation can seriously compromise our vacation time (*imprecision*) (*comma required*) given the uncertainty surrounding the vacation period and our limited vacation options (*mistranslation*) due to our respective jobs.

(Para. 6) Finally, the idea conveyed by your company on behalf of XXX, that is, (*syntax, conjunction required*) once we became members, our dreams would come true and we would be able to travel at our leisure around the world, is exaggerated if not untrue. In fact, (*mistranslation*) as early as the next day (January 6), (*omission*) the purchase of what we believed was our two-week vacation dream and (*mistranslation*) a check of your company's and XXX's references, (*comma wrongly inserted*) immediately brought us back to earth. We simply enquired at our respective places of employment to find out if our colleagues knew of XXX. This little survey produced three (3) bad references. In fact, the three testimonials (*mistranslation*) were all roughly the same in that people experience a lot of difficulty reserving southern destinations during
(T—shift) the vacation period of their choice. One of the people consulted even said that she has been on a waiting list for two (2) years to get one week’s vacation in Florida during the Christmas holidays despite the fact that she holds a red membership. The brochure mentions (T—omission) that a trip can be reserved within 2 to 365 days. The reservations representative at XXX at 1-800-668-1468 mentioned that it takes at least six (6) months before a winter vacation to a destination in a warm country can be reserved (T—ambiguity). Reservation difficulties and the enormous waiting period required before a travel destination can be had which (L—syntax) may not even be the one we want, combined with the waiting period to obtain our member card (L—comma required) have (grammar—number) radically (L—usage) discouraged us. All (L—incomplete sentence) the more so because no mention of these kinds of potential difficulties and the need for members to be extremely flexible and available was made by the two sales representatives we saw at the time of purchase. On the contrary, I asked Johanne a question along these lines and she denied that this type of situation existed, and even mentioned several times during the presentation that it was very easy to travel with XXX. These last two assertions are also contrary to article (error repeated) 2, 1, viii, of the Act.

(Para. 7) It is for these reasons that we have lost confidence in your company and in XXX because of (L—syntax, double causal structure) your business (sales) practices and because of the misinformation. Therefore, we wish to exercise our rights as consumers according to article 4 of the Business Practices Act (RSO, 1990, chap. B. 18) and cancel the purchase contract signed with Ms. C. Côté on January 5, 2000. We request that your company credit the Visa card used for the purchase in the amount of $800.

I hope to receive a positive response from you as soon, especially since the answer given by Ms. Thérèse Sanson, who is also from your company, in response to our request made yesterday is unsatisfactory.

Yours truly,

(signature)
c.c.: Ms. C. Côté
Ministry of Consumer and Commercial Relations

Text 4 assessment

1. ST argument macrostructure/organizational relation/arrangement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macrostructure element</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ground 1</td>
<td>Evidence of pressure sales tactics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 2</td>
<td>Evidence of contradictory information provided by company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 1</td>
<td>Company is engaged in unfair practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 2</td>
<td>Demand that contract be cancelled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>Provisions of Business Practices Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>Principles of fairness, honesty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal/Restriction</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The organizational relation is one of evidence-assertion, with the writer presenting the facts upon which his claim is based and then claiming that those facts are proof of noncompliance with specific provisions of the Business Practices Act of the Province of Ontario.

As a result, the text arrangement bears some resemblance to the classical disposatio: the writer relates the facts of the case (narratio) and claims them as proof of his legal assertion (confirmatio). In most cases, the individual paragraph is a complete evidence (narratio)-assertion (confirmatio) unit.

2. Reading of TT
While some target language weaknesses were noted, there was no indication of incoherence.

3. **TT macrostructure**

The translation accurately reflects ST macrostructure except where the grounds are concerned. A number of mistranslations weaken the original force of the grounds in ST:

4th paragraph, penultimate sentence: the conjunctive *donc* is not translated. The English reader does not have a “signpost” to work with.

5th paragraph, last sentence: the dangling participle and the mistranslations of *période* and *disponibilités* make the sentence unclear and oblige the reader to interpret on the basis of other information.

6th paragraph, second sentence: the relationship of *achat* to the main clause verb is misconstrued, the comma splice, and the use of *In fact* for *En effet* create further confusion.

6th paragraph, fourth sentence: *pour la période* mistranslated as *during* instead of *for*.

6th paragraph, sixth sentence: the conjunctive *toutefois* is not translated. Again, the English reader is deprived of the signpost available to the French reader.

In terms of Mendenhall’s binary argument structure, the accumulation of mistranslations of the grounds compromises the effective communication of the binary evidence-assertion argument pattern to the English reader.
4. Propositional functions/reasoning structure

ST analysis

In terms of propositional functions, the argument in each paragraph is based on a theme/[clarification]/qualification/consequence structure, where the statements of the travel agency's representatives are developed and then countered by other evidence before the writer draws a conclusion and makes a claim on the basis of legislation. Again, paragraphs 4 and 6 are prime examples:

Para. 4

1. Theme: representatives' statement
2. Clarification: ont même avancé . . .
3. Qualification: Toutefois . . .
4. Elaboration: D'ailleurs . . .
5. Consequence: Les informations qui nous ont été données . . . s'avèrent donc inexactes

Para. 6

1. Theme: company's claim
2. Qualification: . . . est exagérée sinon fausse
3. Clarification: En effet, . . .
5. Qualification: La brochure mentionne toutefois
6. Qualification (of qualification): La représentante . . . nous a par ailleurs signalé
7. Consequence: . . . nous découragent radicalement
Regarding reasoning structure, the facts of the case constitute an accumulation of reasons for intermediate conclusions (the assertions that the law has been broken), which themselves accumulate and culminate in the final conclusion: the request to cancel the contract and receive a refund (penultimate paragraph). In some cases (for example, paragraphs 3 and 6), an intermediate conclusion in the form of a condemnation of the travel agency’s practices opens the argumentation. Thus, in paragraph 6, the reasoning structure is as follows:

- **Misleading advertising of travel agency**
  - Intermediate conclusion
  - **Reference check: three bad references**
    - Reason/Intermediate conclusion
    - **Reservation difficulties**
      - Reason/Intermediate conclusion
      - Individual on 2-year waiting list
      - Brochure statement on waiting period
      - RCI reservations representative’s statement on waiting period

*Linked reasoning*
In this case the serial reasoning takes the form of several conclusion–reason pairs, with the final pair constituting the factual basis for the preceding intermediate reasons.

**TT analysis**

In the translation, as noted above, several conjunctives are either mistranslated or not translated at all. In addition to the examples listed in (1), we see in paragraph 6 that the conjunctive *par ailleurs* is not rendered. The propositional functions are thus obscured, and the reader has to go back over the paragraph in order to establish the logical contrast intended here.

These same, apparently microtextual errors compromise the reasoning structure too in that the relationship between reasons and conclusions is obscured. This is particularly true at the end of the paragraph, where the contradiction between the colleague’s bad reference and the brochure’s and reservations representative’s claims, which constitutes the factual basis for the writer’s primary intermediate conclusion of misleading advertising, is compromised by the failure to translate the adversative conjunctive and the ambiguity left by the translation of the final sentence.

5. **Conjunctives/inference indicators**

Several conjunctives in ST are mistranslated in TT.

6. **Arguments**

The common topic at play in ST is testimony. The text is an accumulation of evidence adduced in order to make a claim from the subtopic of authority (Ontario Business Practices Act) that the addressee’s company has engaged in unfair business practices. Further, the evidentiary component is built on an argument from relationship. The writer predicates his/her claim on the appearance/reality contradiction between the apparently favourable terms offered by the company and the real conditions imposed on would-be
customers. The contradiction is highlighted through the theme/qualification propositional development and enhanced by the many conjunctives.

In TT, however, as we have already remarked, the contradiction is not transferred with the same clarity and force, mainly because of the translator’s failure to render a number of conjunctives.

7. Figures of speech

N/A.

8. Narrative strategy

Again, the first person is foregrounded in ST. Note, however, that each conclusion claiming the company’s contravention of the Business Practices Act is expressed in an impersonal statement (depersonalization). Note also the use of éléments as subject and agent in the first sentence of paragraph 2, with the writer/narrator as the “patient” of the action: “plusieurs éléments négatifs [...] motivent notre requête [...]” The technique is recurrent: “Cette stratégie de vente ne permet donc pas”; “une vérification [...] nous a permis”; “cet état de choses compromet”; etc. The facts are “personalized.” The effect of both devices is to convey objectivity and the impression that “statements of fact” are at the core of the writer’s message.

Note finally that, once the objectivity has been established in paragraphs 2–7, the writer/narrator becomes the sole subject in the last two paragraphs, demanding cancellation and a refund. This switch from depersonalization to first-person foregrounding toward the end of the argumentation, after objectivity has been established, echoes the technique analysed by Ouellet for scientific writing (1992: 478).

These techniques are generally preserved in TT
9. Overall Argumentation-centred TQA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Macrostructure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Arrangement/Organizational Relations</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narratio/confirmation</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence–Assertion</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Propositional functions/Reasoning Structure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propositional functions</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasoning Structure</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conjunctives/Inference Indicators</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative</td>
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<td>Some mistranslated or omitted</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additive</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>One mistranslated</td>
<td>+?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td><em>D'abord, Ensuite, , De plus, Enfin</em></td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td><strong>Types of argument</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Enthymeme</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results of the analysis of TT against a broad range of argumentation parameters indicate that mistranslations and, specifically, failure to render certain conjunctives accurately, or at all, impact negatively on the argument macrostructure (evidentiary grounds), the binary organizational relation, propositional functions, the reasoning structure, and the arguments as such.

10. **Quantitative TQA**

9 minor translation errors and 9 minor language errors in the 400-word passage selected (paragraphs 5 and 6). The translation as a whole would therefore be assigned a "revisable" (C) rating.

11. **Comparison and comments**

Application of both models shows that, at the very least, the translation needs significant revision before delivery. Note, however, that the Sical (quantitative) rating is based solely on the accumulation of minor errors beyond a certain numerical threshold; no defect is in
and of itself major or critical. The argumentation-centred model, on the other hand, enables us to base our judgement not on the number of errors but on their relationship to core elements of content—that is, the evidence adduced to make the claim. Compensation for the evidentiary items in more general statements is not adequate since the evidence is necessarily specific.

6.2.1.5. Preliminary observations

At this early stage, we can make the following observations and draw the following tentative conclusions on the basis of our analysis.
The texts for translation were not of a high degree of complexity or difficulty. Yet the application of all argumentation parameters except figures of speech yielded useful assessment information. This is particularly true of argument macrostructure (Toulmin), propositional functions and reasoning structure (Widdowson and Thomas), conjunctives and other inference indicators (Halliday, Roulet, Thomas), and types of argument (Perelman, Corbett).

Regarding argument macrostructure, it was in the translation of warrants and, above all, grounds that defects were detected.

The closer translation comes to the “superior” level, as in the case of texts 1 and 2, the closer the results of the two TQA models are likely to be. This is to be expected, since any difference in model results will presumably emerge and intensify with the number of errors and the greater possibility of varying assessments of the seriousness of those errors.

In Text 3, the difference in rating between the two models was attributable to argument macrostructure analysis. Only when the defect is related to broad co-text analysis of the overall argument is it possible to circumvent the “borderline case” problem left intact by quantification of error. To use Bensoussan and Rosenhouse’s terminology, under the argumentation-centred model the error has become not a microtext-level mistranslation but a text-level misinterpretation, or what Hatim and Mason would call a “defect.”

In Text 4, the impact of the failure to render conjunctives appropriately is cumulative. To use Sperber’s and, following his lead, Gutt’s terminology of the pragmatics of communication, the efficiency of the process is significantly impaired in that the reader must make undue effort to interpret the message because the signposts are not there to guide him. The accumulation of errors in the translation results in a “revisable” C rating, meaning that it would not be deliverable as is. In fact, there are enough other weaknesses in TT to tip the
balance in favour of an “unacceptable” Sical D rating, meaning that not even revision would suffice to make it “deliverable.” Yet, given that the translation was for information purposes only, it might well have been delivered without revision, assuming that a number of the target language errors were anodyne. Under the argumentation-centred model, however, it is the combination of defects, not their number, that undermines the reader’s understanding of the grounds of the argument. Should we then consider the possibility of a critical/major defect being assessed for a combination of errors that, taken individually, would be considered minor under the quantitative model?

♦ The texts analysed so far have been too short for a change of sample to be an issue.

♦ The reading of TT before comparative analysis, in accordance with Ontario GTS procedures, alerted the evaluator to target language shortcomings but not to problems of incoherence and reasoning.

♦ While the four texts do not contain figures of speech as factors in argumentation (except rhetorical questions), narrative strategy has been shown to be a factor in the instrumental text. No assessment issues have arisen on this front, however.
6.2.2. **Subcorpus II: Translations of statistics texts for federal government**

6.2.2.1. **Introduction**

In order to investigate the applicability of the model to a range of specialties, we now move on to texts in the field of statistics, where, one might assume, factual information and objective mathematical analysis would predominate at the expense of value-based argument.

The selected texts were translated by a private company for the Department of Natural Resources of Canada. One of the Department's branches, the Office of Energy Efficiency, administers or has access to a number of databases containing information of various kinds on vehicles, driving patterns and vehicle energy consumption. The databases are the source of periodic statistical studies on vehicle use and fuel efficiency. Translations of study reports and related documents are under consideration here.

The translations discussed below are drafts submitted by freelance translators for revision before delivery to the client.

6.2.2.2. **Text 5**

Title title: (ST) *Fusion des données de l'Enquête nationale sur l'utilisation des véhicules privés et des taux de consommation de carburant estimés en laboratoire par les manufacturiers / (TT) Merger of data from National Private Vehicle Use Survey and Manufacturers' Laboratory-tested Fuel Consumption Rates*

ST length: 14,000 words

Text type: statistical report focusing on methodology used

Text mode: explanatory (how data merger program was constructed)
Purpose: present the methodology of a project to merge data from two databases—The National Private Vehicle Use Survey (NaPVUS) and the Manufacturers' Laboratory-tested Fuel Consumption Rates—and, especially, explain how the numerous discrepancies between the two databases and data sets were resolved.

Client: Office of Energy Efficiency, Department of Natural Resources of Canada

Translation purpose: same as ST

1. *Argument macrostructure/organizational relations/arrangement*

**Arrangement**

Because of the length of the document, it was deemed appropriate to establish what Andrews calls the "syntagmatic arrangement" of the content in order to gauge what broad patterns of reasoning and logical organization are at play.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Introduction: statement of purpose of merger, which will revolve around five key variables: model year, make, model, number of cylinders, and transmission type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Preliminary processing procedures for each database:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Process for eliminating certain observations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Arrangement of data to facilitate match with other database, e.g., division of observations in one database into cars and light trucks/vans, as in other database</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Program for correcting erroneous observations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Merger: five steps based on five variables of interest; special cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Refinement of merger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Calculation of average fuel consumption ratios (ACFS): values and observations eliminated and variables representing calculations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Calculation of average vehicle weights (AVW): values and observations eliminated and variables representing calculations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Variables created by merger operation: list of values and definitions of variables</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What emerges, then, is a painstaking process of elimination of all observations containing missing or erroneous values that could distort the calculations from the merger. The writer also builds on the initial descriptions of the two databases and the five main variables of interest, refining the data values constantly as she works toward as close a match of variable definitions as possible. The reader therefore needs to understand and retain all steps in the definition and refinement process.

The arrangement is therefore both chronological and logical, both conjunctive and hierarchical (Mendenhall 1990: 49), with each part of the operation necessarily following the preceding one to ensure achievement of the objective stated in the introduction. The arrangement is thus what Andrews calls a "focused chain" (1995: 36), in that each stage derives its purpose from the overarching goal of the project:

![Diagram](image)

**Argument macrostructure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Claims</th>
<th>Successful merger of two data sets, with resulting ability to calculate laboratory-tested average fuel consumption ratios and average vehicle weights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grounds</td>
<td>Procedures involved in preparing for, implementing, and refining the merger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>Computer programming and statistical rules, formulas and methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>Scientism—belief in effectiveness and accuracy of science and scientific systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal/Restriction</td>
<td>Restrictions on use of many observations because of missing or erroneous values</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Organizational relations

The binary structure may be viewed in two ways: as goal (calculation of AFCS and AVW)/means (merger operation) and as process (merger)/step (each operation).

2. Reading of TT

Numerous target language shortcomings were noted, including typos and poorly constructed sentences that were difficult to follow. In several instances, the logical development of argument between sentences is unclear. This cursory examination of TT also shows that few, if any, parts of the document, are immaterial to its semantic core. All passages contain elements of the process (grounds) or target calculations (claims). All samples would therefore contain “essential” messages of ST.

We have selected a portion of the text in which problems of syntax and clarity have been identified.

Source text

Traitement préliminaire des marques et modèles

Un traitement préliminaire des variables marque (MAKE) et modèle (MODEL), afin d’uniformiser les contenus de ces deux variables caractères, a été réalisé à l’aide de programmes en langage PERL. Ces programmes interactifs corrigeant, à l’aide de dictionnaires prédéfinis par l’utilisateur, les erreurs de frappe dans les entrées de ces deux variables. De plus, les programmes corrigen les valeurs aberrantes de l’une ou l’autre de ces entrées. Lorsqu’il ne reconnaît pas une marque ou un modèle n’apparaissant pas dans le dictionnaire correspondant, le programme PERL demande à l’usager s’il souhaite procéder à la correction de la marque ou du modèle en question. Dans l’affirmative, le programme inscrit les corrections de marque ou de modèle suggérées par l’utilisateur. À partir de ce moment, le programme tiendra compte de ces nouvelles modifications qui seront alors ajoutées au dictionnaire pour toutes ses corrections futures.
Par exemple, le programme corrigeant les marques de voitures indiquera une erreur typographique dans une entrée de marque « Chervolet ». Une fois cette entrée remplacée par « Chevrolet », toutes les entrées suivantes comportant le même type d’erreur seront automatiquement corrigées, sans faire appel à nouveau au consentement de l’usager. Le programme offre également une option permettant de modifier à la fois la marque et le modèle. Cette option, dont il a été fait usage uniquement pour les données d’enquête, a permis de corriger certaines imprécisions quant à la marque et au modèle du véhicule sélectionné, tels qu’ils ont été spécifiés par le répondant. À titre d’illustration, dans l’ENUVeP pour l’un des trois trimestres de 1996, une des personnes sondées a répondu, pour la marque et le modèle du véhicule sélectionné, « Sable » et « Mercury »; respectivement. Le programme corrigeant les marques identifie alors une erreur au niveau de « Sable » qui n’apparaît pas dans le dictionnaire des marques. L’usager, constatant l’inversion qui s’est produite entre les noms de marque et de modèle, pourra alors corriger cette erreur.

Le programme signalera également un problème au niveau des marques JEEP, qui n’apparaissent évidemment pas dans le dictionnaire des marques d’automobiles. C’est ainsi qu’on a relevé plusieurs erreurs au niveau de la variable de l’ENUVeP qui indique le type du véhicule sélectionné afin de remplir le carnet d’achats de carburant. En effet, cette variable a été utilisée, au départ, dans le but de distinguer entre les voitures et les camions légers afin de former deux fichiers traités séparément par le programme de fusion. Or, il s’est avéré dans certains cas qu’un type de véhicule mal spécifié avait entraîné le placement erroné d’un camion dans le fichier des voitures, comme l’illustre l’exemple précédent, ou vice versa. Une caractérisation adéquate dans les dictionnaires permet donc de valider certaines informations contenues dans les données d’enquête. Enfin, il est possible, grâce à l’un ou l’autre des programmes et à l’aide des dictionnaires définis en fonction des marques et des modèles répertoriés dans la banque de données VFEES, de repérer des combinaisons erronées de marques et de modèles. Ces dernières, ne permettant pas d’identifier convenablement la marque et le modèle du véhicule, ont dû être éliminées du processus de fusion.
2.3. Preliminary processing of makes and models

A preliminary processing of the variables MAKE and MODEL, \(L\text{—comma splice}\) to standardize the contents of these two characteristic variables was completed using programs written in Perl (Practical Extraction and Report Language). These interactive programs correct, with the help of dictionaries predefined by the user, the typographical errors in the entries for these two variables. Furthermore, the programs correct the deviant \(T\text{—terminology}\) values in these entries. When the software \(T\text{—change of subject}\) recognizes \(T\text{—contradiction}\) a make or model that is not in the corresponding dictionary, the Perl program asks the user if he or she would like to correct the make or model in question. If yes, the program records the corrections to the make or model suggested by the user. From this moment on, the program will take into account the new modifications, which are added to the dictionary for any future occurrences of this error.

For example, the program correcting the makes of vehicles would indicate that there is a typographical error for the make entry “Chervolet.” Once this entry is replaced with the correct spelling of “Chevrolet,” each entry that follows with the same type of error will be automatically corrected, without asking the user. The program also has an option that allows the make and model to be corrected at the same time. This option, which was used only for the study \(T\text{—mistranslation}\) data, allowed certain inaccuracies concerning the make and model of the selected vehicle, as specified by the respondent, to be detected \(L\text{—style}\). For example, in NaPVUS for one of the 1996 quarters, one of the people surveyed responded \(L\text{—usage}\), as make and model for the vehicle selected, “Sable” and “Mercury,” respectively \(L\text{—syntax}\). The program that corrects the makes \(L\text{—verbiage}\) identified an error for “Sable,” which is not found in the makes dictionary. The user, noticing the inversion of the make and model names, will therefore be able to correct this error.

The program will also indicate a problem for JEEP makes, which, naturally, is \(T\text{—number}\) not in the dictionary of automobile (?) makes. In this way, many errors were identified in the NaPVUS variable that indicate \(T\text{—number, incorrect antecedent}\) the type of vehicle selected to complete the fuel purchase diary. In fact \(T\text{—mistranslation}\), this variable was used, at the beginning, to differentiate between cars and light trucks and vans to \(T\text{—purpose function unclear}\) form two files that are processed separately by the
merge program. (T—omission) It turned out that, in some cases, a type of vehicle poorly specified (L—syntax) (L—usage) led to a truck being poorly (T—mistranslation) placed in the cars file, as illustrated in the preceding example, or vice versa. An adequately specified dictionary therefore (T—shift) allows certain information found in the study (translation error repeated) data to be authenticated (syntax error repeated). Finally (T—shift), it is possible to identify make and model combinations that are erroneous (L—verbiage) with the two programs and the help of the dictionaries defined by the makes and models listed in the VFEES database. Such make and model combinations which do (T—tense) not allow us (?) to properly identify the make and model of the vehicle, had to be eliminated from the merge process.

3. **T**T argument macrostructure

What is striking about this scientific/technical, expository document is that, in spite of its length, there is little or no redundant information: the macrostructure spans the whole text. Every procedure or variable explained is a part of the grounds for making the claim, so every element is part of the core argument. It follows that no section of the document can be considered of secondary importance in the context of TQA: every statement “counts.”

For example, the translation “dictionary of automobile makes” for “dictionnaire des marques d’automobiles” at the beginning of the third paragraph may appear correct unless the full co-text is taken into account. Examination of the full text reveals that one of the key make subvariables for respondents’ vehicles is the distinction between cars and light trucks/vans. The fact that the translator has not grasped this fundamental distinction is confirmed in the three subsequent sentences, which, in ST, are designed to explain the purpose of the make correction program and the problems targeted. The translator adopts a word-for-word approach in the translation, as if to compensate for the failure to interpret in light of co-text, and the effects on propositional functions and the rendering of conjunctives and inference indicators are significant.
4. **Propositional functions/reasoning structure**

A functional analysis of the propositions in the three paragraphs reveals an intricate process of clarification and elaboration: after making a generalization as to the purpose of the preliminary processing and the correction programs, the writer explains each step or function (clarification) and then goes to describe another feature of the procedure.

Thus in the third paragraph, the second and third sentences are clarifications of the initial statement (generalization) and the conjunctives *ainsi* and *en effet* are to be translated accordingly. The translator’s actual renderings, *In this way* and *In fact*, fail to maintain fully and clearly the coherence of ST. A clearer link between the first and second sentences would have been achieved by combining a conjunctive with lexical cohesion, e.g., through repetition: “Thus the program identified many errors in the NaPVUS variable indicating the type of vehicle selected...” The third sentence conveys another clarifying proposition, explaining the initial purpose of the variable (to differentiate cars from light trucks/vans), so the conjunctive *in fact*, with its function as qualification rather than clarification, is incorrect here. No conjunctive is required in the English. However, the conjunctive *Or*, opening the fourth sentence, is the sole exception to the clarification–elaboration development. Its function is clearly qualification, indicating that, in spite of the stated purpose of the variable, some vehicles were erroneously categorized. *However* should have been inserted to signpost the contrast.

The translation of the final two conjunctives in the paragraph, *donc* and *Enfin*, raises questions too. The problem with the rendering *therefore* is that the reader automatically relates the consequence function to the immediately preceding sentence, from which the proposition “An adequately specified dictionary allows certain information found in the study data to be authenticated” cannot logically be derived. Cohesion by reference would have maintained the coherence here, e.g., “An adequately specified dictionary allows information of this kind...” In the next sentence, *Finally* implies a sequence of steps, which is not the case within the paragraph as such. An additive such as *in addition* would have been correct here.
Regarding reasoning structure, the passage presents a number of functions that the computer program can perform, along with examples of actual performance—hence the conjunctive nature of the document arrangement. This is not to say, however, that reasoned discourse is absent. Instead of being centred solely on a straightforward reason–conclusion structure, as shown in texts 1–4, the text is also built on conditional relationships: if X, then Y. For example, in the first paragraph, the text outlines a computer querying procedure:

“le programme PERL demande à l’usager s’il...” (query) ⇒ “Dans l’affirmative,...” (conditional answer) ⇒ “le programme inscrit...” (conclusion)

This underlying structure governs the procedural discourse as a whole, although the conditional structure is usually implicit (e.g., in the word option in the second paragraph). Once the conclusion, expressed as the specific corrective action of the program, has been established, the reason–conclusion structure is reflected in the corrective function–example dyad. As we saw above, the translator misconstrues the propositional development of ST, and in so doing, she also fails to render the reasoning structure of the passage.

5. **Conjunctives/inference indicators**

As was found in Text 4, the translator’s mishandling of propositional function and reasoning structure is reflected in her mistranslation of several conjunctives.

6. **Arguments**

On the surface, the text is a sequence of statistical and programming procedures accompanied by explanations of their content and purpose. In fact, the text can also be interpreted as a sequence of arguments based on the topic of definition. The purpose of the procedures is to ensure the definition of a given variable in one survey database is
matched as closely as possible by the definition of the variable in the other database. The matching itself is achieved by division, a subtopic of definition. Thus the variable "make" is divided into cars and light trucks/vans and then subdivided into the makes themselves. The variable is thus defined by its distinct components, which are themselves defined by means of the subtopic of difference: car vs. light truck/van, Mercury vs. Chevrolet.

Argument from definition is coupled with a second important argument from relationship, which underlies the error detection and correction process. Observations in the two databases are matched through the application of two relationship-based criteria: the pair of contraries true/false (Jeep = light truck/van vs. Jeep = car) and the pair of contradictions existence/nonexistence (information/missing information).

A third argument, used in the second paragraph, is from comparison, and specifically from example. The writer illustrates (Par exemple, À titre d’illustration) the types of problem solved by the correction program.

In the translation, the examples are rendered accurately, but the process of definition by division and relationship (or comparison) is obscured because the translator has not grasped the propositional functions of the text.

7. Figures of speech

The figure of personification is considered under “Narrative strategy.”

8. Narrative strategy

Unlike the letters examined earlier, this text contains few examples of first-person narration. On the contrary, "systems" are foregrounded, personified and made subjects of the text. The correction program "inscrit/indicates," "corrige/corrects" and "offre une"
option/has an option.” Thus the text is a prime illustration of Ouellet’s premise that an impersonal “science” is writing the text. The translation conveys the personification adequately.

In addition, rather than referring to the narrator/statistician as agent or patient of the actions, the author refers passivization without reference to agent and impersonal forms: for example, “modifications qui sont ajoutées,” “toutes les entrées...seront corrigées,” “C’est ainsi qu’on a relevé plusieurs erreurs,” “Il s’est avéré,” and “dont il a été fait usage.” While the translator renders such structures too literally, she avoids introducing the narrator except in the last sentence of the passage (“allow us”), so the scientific narrative style is by and large preserved. It is, however, unlikely that this particular defect in the last sentence would have been counted as an error under the microtextual, quantitative model.

9. Overall argumentation-centred TQA

Argumentation-centred TQA Grid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claim</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restrictions</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Arrangement/Organizational Relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focused chain</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage–Process</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Propositional Functions/Reasoning Structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generalization–clarification–elaboration</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasoning structure: function–example</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunctives/Inference Indicators</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Or</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ainsi</em></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>En effet</em></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>De plus</em></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Donc</em></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Enfin</em></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arguments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Deduction</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Definition: division, difference</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Relationship</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Comparison:</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>example</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>See below</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Narrative strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Personification</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Passivization</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Impersonal subject</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results of the analysis of TT against a broad range of argumentation parameters reveal defects at several levels of argumentation. What is interesting here is that the failure to grasp and exploit the functions of the conjunctives exerts a multiplier effect, undermining interpretation of the grounds and individual arguments. While the ST passage pertains only to the grounds of the overall text, the grounds are part of the core argument. TT is therefore inadequate.
10. *Quantitative TQA*

10 minor translation errors and 8 minor language errors in the second and third paragraphs (400 words). Therefore TT receives a "revisable" C rating. We assume that only the contradiction in the first paragraph (outside the sample) would be rated a major error. Regarding the other two significant defects, the first (syntactic breakdown or incoherence) would be considered a grammatical peccadillo (plural for singular verb), and the second (*automobiles*) would be considered a minor translation error because the distinction between cars and trucks is mentioned later in the paragraph.

11. *Comparison and comments*

Numerically, TT is revisable. Yet an argumentation-centred TQA brings out the weaknesses of the translation not as words, but as text, in the relationships between discourse components, thus demonstrating its inadequacy at several levels. First, the distinction between cars and light trucks/vans, which is central to the whole vehicle fuel efficiency measurement objective, is seriously compromised by the mistranslation of *automobiles*; the error would have been assessed as a major/critical one under a textological TQA model. Second, the argumentation of the grounds loses its cogency in TT because the propositional development is undermined. As a result, the translation does not adequately reflect important elements of the grounds for the claim advanced toward the end of the document. As was the case in Text 4, the cumulative effect of propositional function/reasoning errors may constitute a critical/major defect in itself.

The contradiction, or *contresens*, in recognizes (for *ne reconnaît pas*) in the first paragraph is outside the selected sample. Under Sical rules, three or more samples should be chosen for a text of this length, but the other samples would be taken from other sections of the document. In any case, rather than interpreting the switch from negative to positive microtextually, we can relate it to the propositional development of the passage as a whole. The function of the program is to identify and correct errors, as stated in the
propositions preceding the one at issue. It "flags" deviations from terms in the predefined dictionary of makes, models, etc. In other words, it recognizes such items as not being part of the dictionary, so, in that sense, recognizes is at most a minor error.

Thus, in at least three instances, the ARTRAQ model seems to produce a result of more probative or explanatory value than does the microtextual, quantitative approach and yield different judgments, sometimes more severe, sometimes more lenient.

6.2.2.3. **Text 6**

Title: *Recommandations sur les sources de données utilisées par le modèle TED, incluant des stratégies pour l’estimation de données manquantes*: Recommendations on TEDM *(Transportation Energy Demand Model) input data sources, including strategies for estimating missing data*

ST length: 11,000 words
Text type: report
Text mode: explanatory
Purpose: present the sources underlying a number of variables generated by the TEDM, an assessment of their statistical validity, and recommendations for modifications and additions to those sources
Text function: explanatory, but also argumentative because of evaluation and recommendation components
Client: Office of Energy Efficiency, Department of Natural Resources of Canada
Translation purpose: same as ST
1. *Argument macrostructure: organizational relations/arrangement*

**Arrangement**

Introduction–Recommendations–Conclusion–References–Appendixes

In the "Recommendations" section, which accounts for 90% of the text, 22 variables are considered one by one. The analysis of each variable is a discrete component of the text, as was the explanation of each program function in Text 5, and does not affect the analysis of other variables and related recommendations. Accordingly, in assessing TT quality, the evaluator will find no compensation, elsewhere in the text, for defects in the translation of a specific analysis of a variable.

The arrangement is conjunctive: sequential analysis of, and presentation of recommendations on, variables expressing energy efficiency in mathematical terms.

**Argument macrostructure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Macrostructure element</strong></th>
<th><strong>Identification</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ground(s)</td>
<td>Strengths/weaknesses of data sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim(s)</td>
<td>Recommendations for modifications and additions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant(s)</td>
<td>Statistical methods and principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing(s)</td>
<td>Scientism (presupposed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier(s)</td>
<td><em>Malheureusement</em> (bis), in commenting on weaknesses of certain sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal(s)/Restrictions</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Organizational relation**

The relation is twofold: evidence–assertion (of strengths and weaknesses in a given source), and analysis/evaluation–recommendation.
2. Reading of TT

A cursory examination of TT reveals no problems in the early sections but many target language weaknesses in the second half of the document: incorrect usage and lack of clarity.

Accordingly, the selected passages are taken from the second half of the document. They concern analysis of the variable "Commercial Use Estimated Average Annual per Truck Distance Travelled." Again, all sections of ST contain parts of the core message.

Source text

(Para. 1) Deux types d’estimations, à considérer pour cette variable, de même que pour les variables estPerCarDist (Estimated Average Annual per Car Distance Travelled) et PUEstTrkDist (Personal Use Estimated Average Annual per Truck Distance Travelled), ont déjà été produites pour les besoins du modèle à partir de l’ENUVeP. D’abord, Victor Tremblay de STATPLUS a estimé, à la demande de l’OEE, la distance moyenne par véhicule selon différentes variables de segmentation sous-jacentes au modèle TED, telles que le type d’utilisation (privé versus commercial) et l’âge des véhicules. En raison d’un nombre non négligeable de véhicules non conduits durant la période d’enquête, l’approche retenue par STATPLUS consistait à estimer, dans un premier temps, la probabilité qu’un véhicule soit utilisé, puis à estimer ensuite la distance parcourue en fonction de son utilisation. Plus précisément, la méthode consistait à multiplier la probabilité qu’un véhicule d’une catégorie donnée soit utilisé par la distance moyenne parcourue par les véhicules de cette catégorie, lorsque ces véhicules sont effectivement utilisés (voir Tremblay (2000) pour la méthodologie détaillée). À notre avis, une approche de type tobit ou une procédure d’Heckman en deux étapes (à titre d’approximation pour le tobit) aurait dû être privilégiée pour la production de ces estimations.

(Para. 2) Rappelons également le travail de modélisation fait par le Compendium lors du projet sur les séries de données nationales à compléter, qui a été réalisé dans le cadre du plan de travail de l’an passé (voir Boucher et Bonin, mai 2000). Ce projet a permis de combler le vide entre l’ECC et l’ENUVeP et d’obtenir, entre autres, des séries complètes sur la distance annuelle parcourue en moyenne par une voiture de 1980 à 1996 et par un camion léger de 1982 à 1996.
(Para. 3) L’intérêt du précédent projet est qu’il fournit des estimations de la distance parcourue qui fluctuent au fil des années au lieu de considérer les valeurs constantes, comme cela semble être le cas présentement dans le modèle. Par contre, les données ne sont pas disponibles en fonction de l’âge exact des véhicules, mais plutôt suivant quatre groupes d’âge : 2 ans et moins, 3-5 ans, 6-8 ans, 9 ans et plus. La possibilité de produire, à l’aide des outils d’analyse bayésienne développés par Mme Nathalie Boucher, des séries équivalentes à l’échelle provinciale ou régionale (Maritimes, Québec, Ontario, Prairies, Colombie-Britannique) devrait être étudiée lors d’une prochaine entente.

(Para. 4) Dans sa révision de l’inventaire des variables d’entrée, l’OEE a indiqué que le CVS (1999-) pourrait constituer une nouvelle source de données pour cette variable. Cette enquête se veut en effet une source précieuse de données pour l’estimation de la distance parcourue. Notons que l’enquête a une couverture plus large que celle requise par la présente variable et qu’elle se veut, en conséquence, également une source d’intérêt pour la variable estHTrkPVDT (Estimated Heavy Truck per Vehicle Distance Traveled). L’enquête CVS a été conçue pour l’estimation des distances parcourues par les diverses catégories de véhicules routiers, dont les camions légers, moyens et lourds. Dans le carnet de déplacements destiné aux véhicules légers (voitures et camions), on demande au répondant de préciser le motif d’utilisation du véhicule pour chacun des déplacements (question 7 de la version 2000) et un des motifs de la liste est l’utilisation pour le travail (« Driving as part of the job »). Les estimations de distance pour les camions légers peuvent donc être segmentées suivant le type d’usage (privé ou commercial), permettant de cibler spécifiquement la distance commerciale pour les fins de la présente variable. Le carnet pour les camions de masse supérieure (moyens et lourds), dont l’usage est par défaut commercial, recueille également la distance parcourue par chacun des véhicules sélectionnés pour chacun de leurs déplacements, lors de la période à l’étude. Les deux catégories de poids des véhicules retenues pour la stratification de l’échantillon, 10 000-33 000 lbs et plus de 33 000 lbs, permettent ensuite de produire des estimations séparées pour les camions moyens (présente variable) et les camions lourds (variable estHTrkPVDT). Une estimation de la distance commerciale totale de chacune des deux catégories de camions peut ainsi être obtenue. La procédure d’estimation de la distance annuelle moyenne consiste simplement à prendre une moyenne pondérée des distances hebdomadaires (distance cumulée sur les sept jours d’enquête) associées aux déplacements d’une catégorie donnée, puis à extrapoler à l’année les résultats hebdomadaires obtenus. La pondération adéquate des résultats pour l’obtention de résultats annuels sera dictée par Statistique Canada, sur la base des poids statistiques calculés par l’organisme.

(Para. 5) Soulignons que les données de l’enquête permettent de répondre aux besoins de segmentation de cette variable, à savoir, la désagrégation possible selon la province, la taille du camion et le type de carburant consommé. La province apparaissant dans le
Two types of estimates, to consider for this variable, \((L—\text{punctuation})\) as well as for the variables estPerCarDist (Estimated Average Annual per Car Distance Travelled) and PUEstTrkDist (Personal Use Estimated Average Annual per Truck Distance Travelled), have already been produced for model requirements from NaPVUS. First, Victor Tremblay from STATPLUS estimated, at the request of the OEE, the average distance per vehicle according to different variables of segmentation underlying the TEDM, such as the type of use (personal versus commercial) and the age of the vehicles. Because a good number of the vehicles were not driven during the survey period, the approach retained \((L—\text{gallicism})\) by STATPLUS consisted in estimating, first, \((T—\text{repetition of temporal conjunctive makes sequence of propositions unclear})\) the probability of a vehicle being used, then to estimate its distance travelled conditionally to its use \((L—\text{usage})\). More precisely, it consisted in multiplying the probability that a vehicle from a given category be \((L—\text{verb form})\) used for \((X \text{ major } T—\text{mistranslation})\) the average distance travelled by vehicles of this category, when these vehicles are effectively used (see Tremblay (2000) for detailed methodology). In our opinion, a tobit type approach or a Heckman process in two stages (as an approximation for the tobit) should have been used for producing the estimates.

We also recall \((T—\text{mistranslation})\) that modelling work was done by the Compendium for the project on the national data series to complete what was done for \((Y \text{ major } T—\text{mistranslation})\) the work plan last year (see Boucher and Bonin, May 2000). This project made it possible to fill the gap between FCS and NaPVUS and obtain, among others \((L—\text{gallicism}),\) complete series of \((L—\text{prepositional usage})\) annual distance travelled on average by a car from 1980 to 1996 and by a light truck from 1982 to 1996.

[...]

Target text
The advantage of the previous (T—mistranslation) project is that it provides estimates for the distance travelled that fluctuate with the years instead of being considered constant values, as it (L—usage) seems to be the case currently with this model. However, the data is not available according to the exact age of the vehicles, but rather according to age groups: 2 years and under, 3-5 years, 6-8 years, 9 years and over. The possibility, by using Bayesian analysis tools developed by Ms Nathalie Boucher, (L—syntax) of producing series equivalent to (Z major T—mistranslation) the provincial or regional scale (Maritimes, Quebec, Ontario, Prairies, British Columbia) should be studied for the next agreement.

In its review of input variables, the OEE indicates that the CVS (1999-) could constitute a new source of data for this variable. The survey is supposed, in effect (T—mistranslation), to be an important source of data for estimating distance travelled. We (T—mistranslation) note that the survey covers more than the requirements (T—mistranslation) for the present variable and consequently is also assumed to be a good source for the variable estHTrkPVDT (Estimated Heavy Truck per Vehicle Distance Travelled). The CVS survey was designed to estimate distances travelled by (T—omission) various categories of road vehicles, including light, medium and heavy trucks. In the travel log book for light vehicles (cars and trucks), we (T—mistranslation) asked our (error repeated) respondent to specify vehicle use for each trip (question 7 of the 2000 version) and one of the uses on the list refers to work use ("Driving as part of the job"). Distance estimates for light trucks can therefore be segmented according to the type of use (personal or commercial) making it possible to specifically (L—redundant) target commercial distance for the purposes of the present (L—usage) variable. The log book for higher mass (L—terminology) trucks (medium and heavy), used by default for commercial purposes, also shows the distance travelled for each of the vehicles selected for each of their trips, during the survey period. The two weight categories of the vehicles retained (L—gallicism) for sample stratification, 10 000-33 000 lbs and over 33 000 lbs, then make it possible to produce separate estimates for medium trucks (present variable) and heavy trucks (variable estHTrkPVDT). An estimate of the total commercial distance for each of the two categories of trucks can thus be obtained. (L—article omitted) Estimation procedure for the average annual distance consists in simply taking a weighted average of weekly distances (cumulated (L—terminology) distance over seven days of survey) corresponding to the trips of a given category, then extrapolate the weekly results obtained for (T—ambiguity) the year. Appropriate weighting of the results to obtain annual results will be provided by Statistics Canada, on the basis of statistical weight (T—number) calculated by them.

The survey data enables us to meet the segmentation requirements of this variable, i.e. disaggregation possible according to province, truck size and type of fuel used. The province appearing in the CVS file corresponds to the province where the vehicle is registered and not the province where it is in fact used. Note that if we want to
consider the distance travelled on roads of a specific province by medium and heavy trucks, only the 1999 survey log book will be useful in this respect since we (T—error repeated) asked the respondent to provide precise origin and destination of each trip (city and province). The survey instrument, however, has been changed since and the 2000 log book does not give us this information. Now, we (error repeated) only ask the driver of the truck to specify whether the trip will be (T—tense) within the same province, interprovincial or a border crossing into the United States (L—no parallel structure). With regard to segmentation by vehicle age, there would (T—tense) probably have to be (L—syntax) a connection re-established between CVS data and registration files that were used during sampling in order to find the year the vehicle was manufactured.

3. **TT argument macrostructure/organizational relations/arrangement**

As in Text 5, the macrostructure spans the whole text. Evidence of strengths and weaknesses in various data sources (grounds) and the recommendations (claims) predicated on those grounds are present in each analysis of a variable. We can therefore make the assumption that few, if any, propositions are of secondary importance in the context of TQA.

Examining the above ST passage, we find the following macrostructure elements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macrostructure element</th>
<th>Identification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ground 1</td>
<td>Use of American sources to calculate this variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 1</td>
<td>Canadian sources should be used where possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 2</td>
<td>Strengths of Canadian sources: NaPVUS, Boucher &amp; Bonin study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 2</td>
<td>These specific Canadian sources should be integrated in the TEDM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>Statistical methods and principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>Scientism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier(s)</td>
<td>3rd paragraph : &quot;&quot;&quot;&quot;comme cela semble être le cas présentement...&quot;&quot;&quot;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal(s)/Restriction(s)</td>
<td>Weaknesses of specific Canadian sources</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Does the translation render these elements adequately? The translation contains three conventionally and intrinsically serious defects: items $X$ (1st para.), $Y$ (2nd para.), and $Z$ (3rd para.). Translation $X$ is incoherent, since the second component of the multiplication operation is not clearly identified; in $Y$, the relationship of the modelling project to the work plan is misconstrued; and in $Z$, à l'échelle is mistranslated and the type of series is not clearly characterized. Do these mistranslations jeopardize the reader's understanding of the propositions sufficiently for the core argument to be misunderstood? In $Y$, the error does not diminish the reader's understanding of the purpose or content of the project concerned; they are outlined in subsequent sentences. The other two mistranslations bear on a criticism of a potential data source ($X$) and on the potential of another method ($Z$), and as such, they directly affect a ground, a warrant and a claim conveyed in ST. Note, however, that only $Z$ is part of the sample selected for quantitative TQA purposes.

4. *Propositional functions/reasoning structure*

A functional analysis of the propositions in paragraph 3 reveals the following general structure in each paragraph:

1. **Generalization**—a statement in the form of a recommendation on data sources or a specific data source
2. **Clarification**—justification of the recommendation by explaining the purpose and content of the source, introduced by the conjunctive *en effet*
3. **Elaboration** of the clarification
4. **Consequence**—potential of the resulting estimates and calculations (*en conséquence*)
5. **Elaboration**—purpose of CVS survey
6. **Consequence**—segmentation potential (*donc*)
7. **Elaboration** (*également*)
8. **Elaboration** (*ensuite*)
9. **Consequence** (*ainsi*)
10. **Clarification** (*consiste simplement... puis*)
11. **Clarification (La pondération adéquate)**

The translation reflects this process adequately except in paragraph X, where *in effect* does not render the function of *en effet* as an introduction to a justification.

Regarding reasoning structure, we can use the above propositional functions to bring out the reasoning structure of the same paragraph, which is typical of the explanatory mode adopted in the document. The initial claim (*l'OEE a indiqué que la CVS pourrait*...) is an intermediate conclusion, which is subsequently supported by a series of justifications (reasons for the conclusion) made up of functions (elaboration functions) and their results (consequence propositions). Thus the consequence propositions constitute intermediate conclusions that, in turn, become reasons for the initial intermediate conclusion:

```
CVS potential as new data source

Intermediate conclusion

Purpose of CVS

Linked reasoning

Specific survey question

CVS segmentation function

Intermediate conclusion
```
Again, the translation of this particular paragraph adequately reflects the reasoning structure. However, the serious error in the preceding paragraph means that the reasoning structure of ST is lost in TT.

5. **Conjunctives/inference indicators**

With the exception of the translation of *en effet*, conjunctives have been adequately rendered throughout the passage.
6. **Arguments**

Two topics are at play here: testimony, in the form of statistical evidence, and comparison, in the form of evaluation of the degree to which those statistics can be combined to generate general efficiency-related estimates. The closer the data concerned approach completeness or, in terms of argumentation, the closer the part approaches the whole, the more suitable the data source is. Apart from mistranslation X, the evaluative arguments are adequately rendered.

7. **Figures**

N/A.

8. **Narrative strategy**

Narrative strategy is central to the overall argumentation strategy in this text. The first person plural pronoun and verb form occurs in ST at the metadiscourse level: Rappelons, Soulignons, etc. Elsewhere the author adheres scrupulously to the impersonal forms of scientific discourse. The translator does not recognize the first-person feature of French discourse for what it is—a linking or introductory device—and translates the first as “We also recall.” More interesting, however, is the fact that, in this and other passages, the “presence” of the first-person narrator is extended to the translation of the impersonal pronoun “on.” In paragraphs 4 and 5, for example, the narrator introduces questions in two separate surveys with the words “on demande”—“the respondent is asked.” By translating on as we, the translator unwittingly makes the author-evaluator of the text the author of the surveys being evaluated: “We note that the [CVS] survey covers more than the requirements for the present variable….we asked our respondent to specify vehicle use…” There are two possible interpretative consequences: either the reader finds the narrative scheme incoherent or he loses confidence in the objectivity, and therefore the credibility, of the author. In both cases, but particularly in the second, the force of the grounds and claims is adversely affected in TT.
9. Overall argumentation-centred TQA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claim 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No?</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground 2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No?</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttals/Restrictions</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Arrangement/Organizational Relation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introduction—Recommendation—Conclusion</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation—Recommendation—Evidence—Assertion</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No?</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Propositional functions**

| Generalization—elaboration—consequence | Yes | + |

**Conjunctives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adversative</th>
<th>Par contre, toutefois</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Additive</td>
<td>en effet</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causal</td>
<td>Donc</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td>D'abord, ensuite</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results of the analysis of TT against a broad range of argumentation parameters show that, while many items (propositional functions, conjunctives, arguments) are correctly rendered, significant items relating to the content of certain grounds and claims were misconstrued and the erroneous attribution of authorial responsibility increases the potential for misinterpretation on the reader’s part.

10. *Quantitative TQA*

In the selected sample (paragraphs 3 and 4), 1 major translation error, 7 minor translation errors, and 8 minor language errors. The translation would therefore be rated C, or “revisable,” on the basis of the single sample.

11. *Comparison and comments*

By reading TT, without reference to ST, the evaluator can determine the nature of the grounds and claims in the text and, in the case of the first and third “significant” defects, identify problems with certain elements of the argument macrostructure. Comparison with the corresponding ST elements confirms that grounds and claims have been seriously affected in TT. In the quantitative TQA, it is questionable whether any of the
three "significant" defects would have been characterized as major errors, since no core argument structure has been established as a reference point for assessing the "centrality" of the defects concerned.

Similarly, would the erroneous shift in narrative voice from on to we be considered important without reference to the concept of narrative strategy? To what extent is the translator's lack of familiarity with features of scientific discourse a significant shortcoming?

Note also that, had the selected sample included the first and second paragraphs instead of most of the fourth, the quantitative assessment would have yielded a D (unacceptable) on the basis of three major errors.
6.2.2.4. Preliminary observations on statistics translations

- Narrative strategy can indeed be a TQA issue and a TQA parameter of significance. The question may fairly be asked whether noncompliance with the narrative features of scientific discourse warrants an “unsatisfactory” rating, given that authorial objectivity has been compromised in the translation.

- Whereas the preceding observation suggests greater severity of assessment under the ARTRAQ model, the fact that it takes co-text into account can temper a microtext-based judgment, as illustrated by the different perspectives on the intrinsically serious defects in Texts 5 and 6.

- Whereas, in the earlier assessments, defects seemed to affect several argumentation parameters and were cumulative, the problems detected in texts 5 and 6 pertain to a few specific propositions and to narrative strategy. Thus propositional functions and reasoning structure were generally rendered adequately.

- Clearly, some translation defects stem from a insufficient linguistic knowledge or attention to detail, as illustrated by the three significant errors in Text 6. Under ARTRAQ, such shortcomings are not ignored, but their significance is determined not in relation to conventional error analysis but to their function in argumentation.

- Shifting the starting and ending points of samples can result in different ratings under the conventional model.

- An initial reading of TT did bring out some coherence issues in the statistics texts.
6.2.3 Subcorpus III: Criminal justice and criminology translations

6.2.3.1. Introduction

The texts under consideration here were translated for publication in the Canadian Criminal Justice Association's periodical *Justice Today: Actualités-Justice*. In each case, the author focuses on the adverse impact of social and cultural trends and perceptions on the criminal justice system. Each text is overtly argumentative, and we may therefore assume that the features of argumentation and rhetoric outlined in the chapters on methodology will be exploited more intensively than in the epistolary and statistics texts. The translations were submitted by freelancers as drafts for revision prior to delivery to the client.

6.2.3.2. Text 7

ST length: 1668 words
Text type: article for professional association periodical
Text mode: argumentative
Purpose: persuade reader that responsibility for criminal acts belongs not only to the perpetrators but also to the rich and powerful, who create the conditions in which crime becomes attractive and necessary

Source text

**LE CRIME AURAIT-IL DES SOUBASSEMENTS?**

Est-il vrai, comme on l’a déjà prétendu et comme certains le croient encore, que chaque société a les crimes et les criminels qu’elle mérite? Que chaque contexte suscite ses crimes et ses criminels bien à lui? Que tel système économique débouche sur des crimes que n’engendre pas ou engendre moins une autre relation avec l’argent? Que telle culture
se dispense allègrement de l’emprisonnement sans s’en porter plus mal? Durkheim, en tout cas, qui n’était pas le dernier venu, pensait que chaque société avait «son» taux de suicide.

Soulever de telles questions, ce n’est pas, que je sache, évacuer la responsabilité personnelle ni excuser par un quelconque déterminisme le crime que commet l’individu X ce soir à minuit. Je penserais plutôt le contraire. En effet, croire que la criminalité est en partie imputable à l’organisation sociale, loin de gommer la responsabilité des individus, a plutôt comme conséquence d’élargir le cercle des personnes dont la responsabilité est engagée dans la criminalité. Car, dans cette perspective, la responsabilité se partage entre ceux qui commettent le crime et ceux qui créent les conditions propices au crime, entre ceux que pourchasse la police et que sanctionnent les tribunaux et ceux qui, sans avoir l’air d’y toucher et sans même encourir de reproches, rendent le crime plus séduisant ou plus probable.

Ne jamais poser de questions à la seconde catégorie de personnes, c’est concentrer l’attention sur le résultat, rarement sur les incitations, jamais sur les causes. Tel était peut-être le raisonnement (moqueur) que se faisait Mark Twain quand il demandait ceci: « Un homme vole une banque. Qui faut-il punir: l’homme qui a volé la banque ou l’homme qui a créé la banque... ? »

Lâcheté et hypocrisie
Premier exemple des comportements qui favorisent discrètement l’expansion du crime : la perpétuation des hypocrisies. Ou, si l’on préfère un langage plus feutré, la distance imprudemment maintenue entre un puritanisme idéologique et les comportements quotidiens des humains. Une loi trop sévère ou trop éloignée du consensus social ressemblera toujours à ce qu’on disait autrefois de l’obéissance jésuite: «Une tyrannie absolue tempérée par le mauvais vouloir des sujets.»

Malgré cette vérité cent fois corroborée, beaucoup de nos gouvernants parient toujours que la tyrannie du texte l’emportera sur les vouloirs bons ou mauvais des sujets. C’est une erreur dont le crime a vite fait de profiter: la distance artificiellement maintenue entre la loi et le comportement des gens fournit de rentables créneaux aux pires fripouilles. Malgré l’exemple de la prohibition américaine que la mafia a si bien (?) exploitée, notre société maintient toujours des interdictions dont nous voyons quotidiennement la futilité et, pire encore, les effets désastreux. Dans le cas d’une bonne partie des drogues douces,
on devrait savoir, au moins depuis le rapport Le Dain, que les préjugés sont presque la seule base de l’interdiction. Dans le cas des toxicomanies plus lourdes, c’est à une forme ou à une autre de légalisation contrôlée qu’une société réaliste avait recours. L’interdiction est, en effet, coûteuse, inapplicable, propice au développement des empires criminels. En s’arc-boutant sur les interdictions actuelles, nos législateurs se comportent, comme aurait dit un marxiste de stricte allégeance, en alliés objectifs du crime organisé.

**Justice et argent**

Une deuxième façon discrète et impunie de contribuer au crime, c’est de faire semblant que la pauvreté et l’aisance n’ont aucune importance dans l’évolution de la criminalité ni d’ailleurs dans le fonctionnement de la justice. Pourtant, juger et sanctionner le crime sans tenir compte de la situation économique des individus et de la société, c’est verser dans la myopie et dans l’injustice. Tel est pourtant le comportement de ceux qui réduisent d’année en année le financement de l’aide juridique, qui continuent à jeter dans les plateaux d’une même balance la liberté et l’argent, qui refusent de formuler les peines pénales en termes de « revenus quotidiens », qui définissent les peines minima sans faire entrer la situation économique de l’accusé en ligne de compte.

Qu’on se rassure: je ne suis pas en train d’affirmer que la pauvreté justifie le crime ni que les pauvres sont les auteurs de la plupart des crimes. Je dis tout simplement qu’une société dont les citoyens s’appauvrissent est une société que l’anarchie, le désordre et le crime menacent de plus près. Une telle société ne peut empêcher le travail au noir, l’exploitation souterraine des plus vulnérables, les types les plus répugnants de corruption. Si l’on admet cela, des questions méritent de remonter jusqu’à ceux qui, par paresse, par calcul politique ou par simple sottise, plongent les gens dans le désespoir ou empêchent les plus pauvres d’obtenir justice.

Car le fait est là, même si les Don Quichotte impénitents sont les seuls à le rappeler : celui qui met à pied des centaines ou des milliers de personnes ne prend pas une décision purement économique. Il contribue aussi, qu’il en soit conscient ou non, à l’appauvrissement des plus pauvres et à la multiplication des raccourcis plus ou moins gras à qui leur sont alors offerts. Dans une société cassée en deux, toute décision qui influe sur l’emploi range son auteur dans l’un des deux camps, celui du marteau ou celui de l’enclume. Qu’il soit permis de vérifier si celui qui manie le marteau sait sur quoi et sur qui il frappe.
Si notre marteleur affirme, le front haut, que la mondialisation exige des coupes claires dans l’emploi, il faut lui demander s’il a internalisé les coûts de son geste, si, en d’autres termes, il a évalué ce que ses « rationalisations » coûtent à la société, non seulement en soutiens sociaux, mais aussi en lutte contre la criminalité. Car la gestion n’est pas un VTT qui circule dans le désert. Mondialiser sans mesurer la portée qu’ont les décisions au-delà de la bulle des dirigeants d’entreprise, ce n’est certes pas faire tomber les frontières ni s’ouvrir au monde extérieur. Le pire travail au noir qu’on puise imaginer, c’est, en effet, celui de l’entreprise qui gonfle ses dividendes à coups de mises à pied et qui refile à l’État le coût du chômage qu’elle a causé. À moi le bénéfice, à d’autres les charges sociales. Quand, corollaire prévisible des « rationalisations », le chômage pousse à l’affolement, à la pauvreté, voire à la délinquance, le principe de l’internalisation des coûts exige l’examen de toutes les responsabilités y compris celles de la gestion. Malheureusement, nous n’en sommes pas (encore) à cette idée de l’internalisation. Le chômage planifié ne fait donc pas partie de ce que le code criminel appellerait l’incitation au crime.

Encore et toujours l’argent

(Para. 1) L’appauvrissement, que les dirigeants d’entreprise semblent considérer comme un « acte du Ciel » même si ce sont eux qui brandissent la foudre divine, modifie beaucoup de comportements individuels et sociaux. Il incite à la sauvagerie, mais, en plus, il rend impossible le recours aux moyens de défense usuels dans une société civilisée. Comment celui qui crève de faim pourrait-il résister à la tentation de se faire justice quand la justice est hors de prix? Songeons, à cet égard, à certaines explosions récentes d’insatisfaction populaire: ne peut-on pas y voir, outre une érosion de la société de droit, un jugement sévère sur l’efficacité et les coûts de la justice traditionnelle?

(Para. 2) On constate aujourd’hui, par exemple, car il s’agit d’une évidence admise même par divers ministres provinciaux, que la justice ne fait plus partie des droits que peut exercer le citoyen moyen. On le voit, on le sait, on le déplore, on s’y résigne, mais nul Barreau ne semble vraiment préoccupé par une justice de moins en moins accessible. La charte constitutive de l’ordre professionnel des plaideurs a beau lui imposer comme première fonction l’intérêt public, le fait qu’une majorité de citoyens ne peut plus se payer un avocat ne change pas la mentalité de l’ordre. Or, c’est patent: l’accusé nanti peut payer un procureur, mais pas le citoyen moyen. Le citoyen privilégié peut défendre ses droits, faire valoir son innocence présumée, négocier une peine allégée, mais pas le pauvre ni, moins encore, le citoyen de la classe moyenne.
(Para. 3) On voit se resserrer l’étau. D’un côté de ses crocs, l’appauvrissement renforce l’attrait des raccourcis criminels. De l’autre, l’appauvrissement expose les délinquants moins argénités à des peines plus lourdes. Quand ces mâchoires se rapprochent, a-t-on le droit de rappeler à ceux qui les commandent que les dirigeants d’entreprise mondialisent surtout la misère et l’injustice s’ils passent le chômage par pertes et profits?

A-t-on appris?

(Para. 4) Le crime dont on parle et dont on s’occupe, est-ce toujours, comme au temps de Dickens ou de Hugo, celui que commet l’affamé, l’affolé, le petit truand? La responsabilité du crime peut-elle, au contraire, reposer de temps à autre sur les épaules des décideurs qui privent les démunis de leurs droits et de leur sécurité et qui propulsent un nombre croissant de citoyens en marge de la société?

(Para. 5) Que seuls les riches ou les assistés sociaux puissent en principe obtenir la défense pleine et entière de leurs droits, voilà une sinistre réalité que l’on ne dénonce pas et que les juristes ne voient peut-être même plus. ■ Que, de plus en plus, les citoyens aient à tolérer l’intolérable, qu’ils doivent laisser les bandes de motards criminalisés intimider les petits fermiers jusqu’à l’esclavage, voilà qui n’émeut personne. Celui qui salit un démagogue au micro d’une tribune téléphonique ne pourra triompher de l’artillerie juridique des réseaux radiophoniques que s’il est riche et obstiné.

L’actualité abonde en questions fondamentales; nous sommes, malheureusement, suréquipés en astuces pour les esquiver. À croire que l’instruction, au lieu de transmettre le savoir en même temps que le sens des responsabilités, ancre plutôt dans l’esquive, dans le ponce-pilatisme, dans le va-voir-ailleurs. À croire que la multiplication des diplômes, à défaut de favoriser ouvertement les disparités sociales, ne vise même plus à les réduire. Puisqu’on parvient toujours à opposer un sophisme à chacun des drames sociaux, preuve est faite que ces drames achèvent de passer à la trappe. Donc, tout va bien. Se pourrait-il, quand même, que le crime ait établi certaines de ses assises dans de fort beaux domaines?
Target text

**IS CRIME BUILT ON SOLID FOUNDATIONS?**

Is there some truth to the old adage, that some people still believe, that each society has the crimes and criminals that it deserves? That each set of circumstances produces its own crimes and criminals? That a given economic system results in crimes that either do not exist or occur less frequently in others? *(Major T—mistranslation)* That a given culture can blithely forgo handing out prison sentences without being any the worse for it? In any case, Durkheim, who knew something about the subject, believed that each society has its “own” suicide rate.

Raising such questions does not, that I am aware, eliminate personal responsibility or, using any *(T—mistranslation)* brand of determinism, absolve John Doe of the crime he will commit at midnight tonight. I would tend to think just the opposite. Indeed, thinking that crime is partly attributable to social structure, rather than relieving individuals of their responsibility, increases the circle of people responsible for crime. Looking at the issue from this perspective, responsibility *(L—typo)* is shared between those who commit crimes as well as those who create the conditions giving rise to them, between those chased by the police and punished by the courts, *(L—punctuation)* and those who, without seeming to have anything to do with the situation and are *(T—mistranslation)* even above reproach, make crime more appealing and even more probable.

Never questioning this second category of people focuses *(T—omission)* mainly on the results of crime, rarely on what makes it more attractive and never on its causes. Perhaps that was Mark Twain’s (cynical) reasoning when he asked who should be punished when a man robs a bank? *(L—indirect question)* The one who robbed the bank or the one who owns it?
Cowardice and Hypocrisy

Let us look at the perpetuation of hypocrisy as our first example of behaviour that discreetly favours \((T\text{-mistranslation})\) increasing crime. Or, if you prefer milder language, the unwisely maintained gap between ideological puritanism and everyday human behaviour \((L\text{-verb omitted})\). Law that is too severe or a \((T\text{-omission})\) long way from social consensus will always bring to mind what used to be said of Jesuit obedience: “Absolute authority tempered by the bad will of the people.”

In spite of this truth having been corroborated over and over again, many of our leaders still expect that the sovereignty \((T\text{-mistranslation})\) of an enactment \((T\text{-mistranslation})\) will triumph over the will, be it good or bad, of the people. Crime has been quick to take advantage of this error: the artificially maintained distance between the law and people’s behaviour provides profitable markets for the worst crooks. In spite of the example of American Prohibition, which the Mafia exploited so well, our society still insists on certain interdictions whose obvious futility and worse yet, disastrous effects can be seen on a daily basis. It should be obvious to everyone – at least since the Le Dain Report was released – that prejudices are practically the only reason for making \((T\text{-omission})\) soft drugs illegal. For other, harder drugs, a realistic society would turn to some form or another of controlled legalization. Indeed, making certain substances illegal is expensive, unenforceable and favours the development of criminal empires. By supporting these interdictions \((L\text{-gallicism})\), our lawmakers are behaving, as card-carrying Marxists would say, like impartial allies of organized crime.

Money and Justice

A second unobtrusive \((L\text{-typo})\) and unpunishable \((T\text{-shift})\) way of contributing to crime is pretending that being rich or poor is not an important factor in the evolution \((T\text{-mistranslation})\) of criminality \((L\text{-gallicism})\) or in the functioning \((L\text{-typo})\) of justice. However, judging and punishing crime without taking into account the economic circumstances of individuals and society is shortsighted and injust \((L\text{-misspelling})\). However, this is exactly how those who continue to cut, year after year, funding for legal aid, or continue to put money and liberty on the same side of the scale \((T\text{-mistranslation})\), or refuse to set fines in accordance with “daily income” or define minimum penalties without taking into account the economic circumstances of the accused behave.
Do not think \((T—mistranslation)\) that I am trying \((T—mistranslation)\) to state that poverty justifies crime or that the poor commit most crimes. I am simply saying that a society whose citizens are becoming poorer is a society more strongly threatened by anarchy, disorder and crime. Such a society cannot prevent people from working under the table, illegally \((T—mistranslation)\) exploiting the most vulnerable or resorting to the most reprehensible types of corruption. If we admit this, some questions deserve to be asked of those who, through laziness, political calculation or simple stupidity, allow people to sink into despair or prevent the poorest from obtaining justice.

Because the fact remains \((L—verb omitted)\) that employers who lay off hundreds or thousands of workers are not making purely economic decisions, even if only the unabashed Don Quixotes \((L— incomplete idiom)\) recognize it. These employers are also contributing, consciously or not, to the impoverishment of the poorest and to the proliferation of the generally \((T—mistranslation)\) shady corner cutting made possible by their decisions \((T—mistranslation)\). In a divided society, every decision that impacts on employment puts its maker in one of two camps: hammer or anvil. Let us make sure that those who wield the hammer know who \((L—grammar)\) and what they are hitting.

If our hammer wielders state, heads held high, that globalization demands significant job cuts, we must ask them if they have internalized the costs of their actions, or, in other words, if they have calculated what their “rationalizations” will cost society, not only for social assistance, but also for fighting crime. Because management does not operate in a vacuum. Globalization \((L—part of speech)\) without taking into account its effects beyond the corporate bubble will certainly not break down any borders or lead to an opening up to the outside world. Indeed, the case where a business maximizes its dividends by laying off its workers and passing on the cost of the resulting unemployment to the State is the worst sort of working under the table imaginable. “I’ll take the profits; you can have the social costs.” When, as a predictable consequence of these “rationalizations”, unemployment leads to panic, poverty, and even crime, the principle of cost internalization demands all responsible factors be examined, including management \((L—typo)\). Unfortunately, we have not (yet) reached this concept \((T—shift)\) of internalization. Thus, planned unemployment does not constitute what the criminal code \((L—lower case)\) would call abetting crime.
The Role of Money

(Para. 1) Impoverishment, which management seems to consider an “Act (upper case) of God” even though management is the one in control, greatly impacts on individual and social behaviour. In addition to leading to unsocial behaviour, it renders recourse to usual means of defence in a civilized society impossible. How can those who are starving resist the temptation to make their own justice when traditional justice is beyond their reach? Bearing this in mind (mistranslation), let us think about several recent eruptions of popular dissatisfaction. Can we not see, other than (shift) the erosion of a just (mistranslation) society, a harsh judgment on the effectiveness and costs of traditional justice?

(Para. 2) For example, it is obvious (even several provincial ministers admit it) that, in this day and age, average citizens no longer have the means to exercise their rights to justice. We can see it, be aware of it, (space) deplore it and resign ourselves to it, but no Bar seems to be really concerned by the decreasing accessibility to justice. The constitution of the professional order of lawyers may have tried (mistranslation) to make the interests of the public (terminology) its first priority, but the fact that the majority of citizens cannot afford to pay a lawyer is not changing the mentality of the order. However (illogical link word), it is obvious that a well-off person accused of a crime can pay a lawyer, but not the average citizen. Privileged citizens can defend their rights, prove (mistranslation) their presumed innocence and negotiate lighter sentences; (punctuation) whereas, the poor, and even less (mistranslation), the middle-class citizen cannot.

(Para. 3) We can see the door closing. On one hand, poverty makes criminal behaviour (type) more attractive. On the other, poorer criminals receive harsher sentences. When the door does slam shut, do we have the right to remind those in charge that management is, above all (shift because of word order), globalizing poverty and injustice if profits and losses are more important than unemployment? (mistranslation)

Have We Learned?

(Para. 4) Are we talking and concerning ourselves about the type of crime committed by those who are starving, terrified or petty thieves, as in the time of Dickens and Hugo? Or, conversely, does the responsibility for crime sometimes rest squarely on the shoulders of the decision makers who deprive the impoverished of their rights and security and marginalize a growing number of citizens?
(Para. 5) The fact that only the rich or those on social assistance are able, in theory, to get a full and fair defense (L—U.S. spelling) of their rights is an ominous reality (L—redundant) that society does not denounce and lawyers maybe no longer even see. The fact that citizens have to increasingly tolerate the intolerable, allow criminal motorcycle gangs intimidate small (L—typo) farmers to the point of slavery no longer moves anyone. Individuals slandered by demagogues on open-line broadcasts (T—mistranslation) can only triumph over the legal artillery of the radio networks if they are rich and perseverant (L—neologism).

Current events teem with fundamental questions, which, unfortunately, we are very adept at sidestepping. It seems that education, rather than imparting knowledge and a sense of responsibility, results in evasion, washing our hands of unpalatable situations and passing the buck (L—lack of parallelism). It seems that the increasing number of degrees granted, does not even reduce social disparities (T—omission); in fact it actually (T—mistranslation) seems (L—typo) to favour (T—mistranslation) them. The fact that we always manage to come up with an equivocation (T—mistranslation) for each social tragedy is proof that we end up sweeping them under the carpet. Therefore (T—mistranslation), everything is fine. However, could it be that crime has managed to penetrate some very high circles? (T—mistranslation)

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**Text 7 assessment**

1. **Argument macrostructure: organizational relations/arrangement**

**Arrangement**

1. **Introduction:** *corrective* in type, presenting the thesis that, contrary to popular opinion, responsibility for crime belongs not only to those who commit it but also to those who create the conditions for it.

2. **Argument 1:** tougher laws actually foster crime, e.g., American Prohibition, banning certain drugs. Such laws are hypocritical since they are based on prejudice.
3. **Argument 2**: money influences crime and justice.

- Unjust to mete out punishment without regard for economic circumstances of individuals and society
- Responsibility of those who, by cutting funding for legal aid, cause despair
- Danger of globalization without considering human cost: responsibility of employers who generate profits by laying off workers and transferring costs to society
- Poverty leads to crime
- Only the rich and, to a lesser extent, those on social assistance can obtain full defence of their rights in court
- Lawyers no longer give priority to protecting the public interest

4. **Conclusion**:

- Society must increasingly tolerate the intolerable because the average person cannot afford to take legal action and the legal professionals do not seem to care
- Education has not fostered individual responsibility; in fact, it seems to foster social disparity and downplaying of the seriousness of crime
- Maybe crime has penetrated the establishment

In fact, the arrangement is a variation of the classical *dispositio*. Following the introduction, the author briefly gives, in each argument, a broad “statement of fact” (*narratio*) summarizing current laws or economic conditions and immediately attacks them for the problems they cause, refuting their ostensible purpose (*refutatio*). Of course, the corrective introduction has already paved the way for such an arrangement.
The argument chain is thus as follows:

- Introduction
- Fact (thesis) $\Rightarrow$ Refutation (antithesis)
- Fact (thesis) $\Rightarrow$ Refutation (antithesis)
- Fact (thesis) $\Rightarrow$ Refutation (antithesis)

Conclusion

**Argument macrostructure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macrostructure element</th>
<th>Identification</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grounds</td>
<td>Poverty, unemployment, harsher sentences, increased crime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claims</td>
<td>Failure of criminal justice and education systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>Social democratic perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>Political and social values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier(s)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal(s)/Restriction(s)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The binary organizational relation is easy to deduce from the arrangement and is twofold: thesis–antithesis and action or condition–consequence.

2. Reading of TT

Apart from typographical and spelling errors, no potential problems were noted at this stage.

3. TT argument macrostructure

There are a number of errors in TT, but the complex and binary argument macrostructures are rendered adequately. All sections of the text contain components of the argument macrostructure.

4. Propositional functions/reasoning structure

The selected passage illustrates the author’s principal rhetorical techniques of repetition and amplification (reinforcement), which run through the article. They manifest themselves in the propositional functions themselves, with the author exemplifying and re-expressing key propositions before drawing a conclusion, the “clincher”:

1. (1st para.) Generalization—poverty changes behaviour
2. Elaboration—it provokes antisocial behaviour but also makes traditional legal defence methods inaccessible
3. Consequence—inaccessibility of justice makes crime irresistible
4. Elaboration—example ("explosions d’insatisfaction populaire")
5. Consequence—conclusion = ineffectiveness and cost of traditional justice
6. (2nd para.) Elaboration of proposition 2 as generalization—access to justice no longer a right for average citizen
7. Elaboration—legal profession apparently unconcerned
8. Clarification—lack of concern in spite of bar associations’ statutes
9. Consequence—only rich can pay for legal defence
10. (3rd para.) **Generalization**—reformulation of thesis expressed earlier in article, that poverty makes crime more attractive while at the same time exposing the less wealthy to harsher sentences.

11. **Consequence**—conclusion: reformulation of thesis expressed earlier in article that corporations without a social conscience are globalizing misery and injustice.

Markers are used to sparingly to signpost the propositional development: two additives (à cet égard, par exemple) to introduce illustrations and a third additive (or) to introduce an elaboration.

TT renders the propositional development adequately. The connections with the earlier co-text are preserved. However, two of the three conjunctives are misinterpreted: bearing this in mind for à cet égard, and however for or, which is not an adversative but an additive in this instance.

Regarding reasoning structure, the selected passage offers yet another example of a conclusion stated in the first sentence (poverty affects justice) and then justified by a number examples (reasons) illustrating and justifying the author’s assertion. Again, the minor errors in TT do not undermine the reasoning.

5. **Conjunctives: inference indicators**

Only two problems were detected (see in 4 above). They involve minor shifts in meaning that do not hinder the argumentation.

6. **Arguments**

The text is built on a large number of individual arguments and rhetorical figures. The one fundamental, unifying argument, however, is based on a complex of enthymemes involving the following premises and propositions:
(Justice is a prime human requirement)
(The poor/average citizen is human)
(Therefore the poor/average citizen requires justice)
Justice costs money
The poor/average citizen does not have enough money
Therefore he/she cannot access justice

In keeping with the corrective or refutational nature of the text, specific arguments are largely based on the pervasive topics of relationship and comparison. The opposition of poverty to the justice system and of civilization ("société civilisée") to the justice system in the opening propositions is predicated on an argument from contradiction between the possible (with money) and the impossible (without money). This is reinforced by the similarity between money and justice in proposition 5. These relationships are mirrored and reinforced in the second paragraph through the contrary subtopic of appearance (bar associations’ commitment to the public interest) and reality (their lack of concern for the average citizen) and the cause/effect relationship between the rich and access to legal counsel. In the third paragraph, the argument from similarity associates poverty with harsher sentences and globalization with poverty and injustice. The relationship and comparison arguments are backed up by examples (another argument by comparison) and by an argument from authority ("une évidence admise même par divers ministres provinciaux").

TT renders the arguments adequately.

7. **Figures**

Figures play a significantly greater role in this text than in the Ontario government and statistics documents. Indeed, they are a prime tool for reinforcing or amplifying the relationship and comparison arguments outlined above.
The translator does not preserve the extended biblical metaphor ("brandissent la foudre divine") in the first sentence. She does, however, preserve the metonymy ("celui qui crève de faim" for the concept of poverty), the rhetorical question and the antithesis "se faire justice... la justice est hors de prix") in the third sentence and the rhetorical question at the end of the first paragraph. The antithesis between wealthy and poor and the personification of law, justice and crime in the subsequent paragraphs are maintained too. At the beginning of the third paragraph, the translator replaces the metaphor of the vice (étal) with that of the door but does not extend it as far as the author does in ST.

8. **Narrative strategy**

The rhetorical questions and the frequent use of the third-person subject pronoun on serve as means of drawing the reader into the arguments, as a co-narrator with the author but also with society as a whole, seen as a helpless or complicitous observer. TT renders this technique adequately.

9. **Overall argumentation-centred TQA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Argumentation-centred TQA Grid</strong></th>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
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**Arrangement**

| **Narratio-refutatio** | Yes | Yes | + |

**Arrangement/Organizational Relations**

| **Thesis-Antithesis** | Yes | Yes | + |
| **Action-Consequence** | Yes | Yes | + |

**Propositional Functions/Reasoning Structure**

| **Generalization-clarification-elaboration-consequence** | Yes | + |
Results of the analysis of TT against a broad range of argumentation parameters show that, in general, the translation meets most of the criteria and, in particular, those pertaining to core argument.

10. **Quantitative TQA**

1 major translation error, 31 minor translation errors, and 25 minor language errors in 1668 words. Prorated to 400 words, TT receives a “revisable” C rating on the basis of major errors (0.24/400 words) and minor errors (13.43/400 words). The major error is based on the omission of a translation for “une autre relation avec l’argent,” which results in a counterfactual statement in TT.

Within the sample, 9 minor translation errors and 7 minor language errors were detected; the translation, while still within the “revisable” range, would be close to an “unacceptable” D rating.
11. *Comparison and comments*

The major error, which is outside the selected sample, does not undermine the reader's understanding of the argument macrostructure: the relationship between economic systems and crime is reiterated and reinforced throughout the text and adequately conveyed in TT. In short, the core argument is preserved.

In spite of the large number of minor defects, specific arguments and figures are accurately rendered, and only one deviation in propositional development was detected. So from an ARTRAQ perspective, the translation is acceptable.

That being said, the text is for publication. A higher standard of quality would therefore be required, particularly in target language typography.
COMMENT RÉGLER LE PROBLÈME DES ATTEINTES AUX VALEURS ?

Deux débats peut-être plus apparentés qu’on ne le pense agitent l’Europe et, plus largement, la planète: l’entrée de l’extrême-droite dans un gouvernement autrichien de coalition; la recommandation acheminée au gouvernement français de dissoudre légalement l’Ordre du Temple solaire et l’Église de scientologie. Dans les deux cas, des États se demandent comment sanctionner les comportements qui sapent les valeurs collectives traditionnelles ou récemment conçues.

L’Autriche au pilori
Pour avoir accordé 27 % de ses suffrages à un parti d’extrême-droite et lui avoir ainsi ouvert les portes de la coalition gouvernementale, l’Autriche est soumise à l’heure actuelle aux reproches de ses partenaires européens et, plus largement, de la communauté internationale. Le score de 27 %, certes, est à peu près sans précédent dans le passé récent, mais cela ne range pourtant pas l’Autriche dans une catégorie à part. D’autres pays, depuis la France jusqu’au Danemark en passant par la paisible Norvège, subissent eux aussi la présence de partis aux penchant racistes assez clairement affichés. Si l’Autriche est vilipendée dans les diverses capitales européennes, ce n’est donc pas parce qu’elle est touchée comme les autres par la contamination xénophobe, mais parce qu’elle a été amenée à intégrer l’extrême-droite dans son gouvernement. C’est cela, et cela seulement, qui permet à ses partenaires européens de la blâmer en s’absolvant de leurs propres dérapages.
Posée comme elle l’est par les capitales européennes, la question est d’ailleurs insoluble. Comment, en effet, autoriser l’extrême-droite à faire campagne tout en lui interdisant de remporter la victoire ou de la partager avec un autre parti? Pourquoi les pays qui accusent l’Autriche n’ont-ils pas exprimé leurs craintes avant la campagne électorale? L’Algérie aussi a posé la question en ces termes et n’a pas encore trouvé la façon d’y répondre. Elle avait laissé le Front islamiste du Salut participer à la campagne électorale, mais elle a ensuite empêché le FIS victorieux de profiter de sa victoire et de former le gouvernement. À la lumière de ces précédents, on devrait pourtant conclure ceci : pas plus contre un parti politique que contre un individu, on ne peut définir le crime de façon rétroactive. Si un parti n’était pas dans l’illégalité avant la campagne électorale, il ne peut pas l’être au lendemain du scrutin. D’où la nécessité de prévenir : si l’on ne veut pas que l’extrême-droite accède au pouvoir, il faut la mettre hors course avant que s’ouvre la sollicitation des suffrages. Pas facile.

L’ambiguïté des sectes

Un problème analogue se présente dans le domaine des sectes. Tôt ou tard, à peu près tous les États ont, en effet, à définir leur politique face à des organisations qui se qualifient de religions, mais que l’on soupçonne de constituer une menace contre l’ordre public et de pousser trop loin leurs atteintes à la dignité et à l’autonomie des personnes. L’analyse des situations concrètes ramène périodiquement à l’avant-scène l’alternative suivante : peut-on faire face aux abus des sectes avec la législation actuelle ou est-il indispensable de muscler cette législation et de la rendre plus claire? La France, pour ne parler que d’elle, vit à présent ce débat et hésite entre la rédaction préventive d’une loi moins poreuse ou plus spécialisée et les poursuites permises par les textes en vigueur. Comme dans le cas des partis indésirables, on constate qu’il n’est pas facile de reprocher aux sectes les comportements que semble autoriser la reconnaissance juridique de leur existence.

En amont ou en aval?

Peu importe la manière dont elle choisit de relever ces deux défis, une société est amenée à préciser en quoi consistent à ses yeux les crimes qui représentent une atteinte aux valeurs. Si, par exemple, une société interdit explicitement la propagande haineuse, elle opte pour une certaine protection et consent à un certain risque. Elle fait de la propagande haineuse un délit puisque, à ses yeux, il y a là un mal social si grave qu’on doit le réprimer, même si cela restreint le champ de la liberté d’expression et fait surgir la possibilité d’une censure. Si, à l’inverse, une société n’intègre pas à son code pénal un
interdit visant directement la propagande haineuse, elle situe ailleurs l’équilibre souhaitable et loge ses valeurs dans une hiérarchie différente. Elle élargit, en effet, le champ ouvert à la libre expression, mais elle rend plus difficile la répression des déferlements haineux. Dans un cas, la société s’attache à l’indignité qu’est la propagande haineuse; dans l’autre hypothèse, la société fait confiance à ses lois générales. Dans les deux cas, la société révèle quelque chose d’important à propos de ses valeurs.

On voit à quel point il importe qu’une société choisisse entre l’amont et l’aval ou, plus précisément, qu’elle dise ce qu’elle entend régler en amont et comment elle croit pouvoir gérer l’aval. Elle ne peut pas, l’Algérie et l’Autriche sont là pour en témoigner, redresser brutalement en aval ce qu’elle a permis globalement en amont, refuser le verdict des urnes après avoir toléré la participation de Haider et de son Parti de la liberté à la campagne électorale. De la même manière, une société se complique l’existence - peut-être légitimement - si, en amont, elle accorde les privilèges d’un statut religieux à des sectes dont elle voudra ensuite, en aval, contester les comportements.

La réflexion française

Il est intéressant, dans cette perspective, de suivre la réflexion que mène la France à propos des sectes et d’établir le parallèle entre ses choix dans ce domaine et ceux qu’elle privilégie sur le terrain politique. Cela est d’autant plus intéressant que la France conserve encore, malgré des critiques croissantes, des institutions judiciaires qui intègrent difficilement notre présomption d’innocence, mais qui insistent davantage sur la parfaite laïcité de l’État.

Sur le terrain politique, la France subit depuis des années l’assaut d’une extrême-droite explicitement xénophobe et souvent à deux doigts de l’antisémitisme. La réaction française la plus courante a été jusqu’à maintenant de laisser Le Pen participer aux campagnes électorales, mais de le traîner devant les tribunaux chaque fois (ou presque) qu’il poussait le bouchon trop loin. En d’autres termes, on n’interdit pas son parti, mais on recourt aux lois générales pour sanctionner les propos les moins tolérables de ce parti. Sans qu’on puisse affirmer qu’il y a lien de cause à effet entre cette stratégie et l’évolution subséquente, le fait est que Le Pen et ses excès ont perdu au fil des ans une part importante de leurs appuis électoraux. La France, qui était en plus mauvaise posture que ses voisins, leur ressemble aujourd’hui davantage.
En ce qui concerne les sectes, la France semble tentée par une stratégie plus complexe. Elle marche sur des oeufs, comme le montre l’instabilité des techniques d’analyse et d’enquête. Qu’en on juge. En janvier 1996, un rapport parlementaire sur les sectes (Gest-Guyard) recommandait, ce qui n’était pas particulièrement audacieux, la création d’un Observatoire interministériel sur les sectes. Ce qui fut fait. L’Observatoire eut cependant une existence éphémère, sans doute parce qu’il adopta un ton insuffisamment ferme aux yeux des députés. Dès octobre 1998, l’Observatoire disparaissait, alors que surgissait à sa place la Mission interministérielle de lutte contre les sectes. On mesure la différence de perspective en voyant apparaître dans la désignation de la Mission, de manière d’ailleurs musclée, la notion de lutte.

On pouvait s’attendre à des recommandations d’une autre encre, d’autant plus que le président de la Mission, l’ancien ministre Alain Vivien, a déjà écrit, à titre personnel, un livre fort critique sur les sectes et qu’il prêside depuis 1997 le Centre Roger-Ikor contre les manipulations mentales. On sait que l’écrivain Roger Ikor a créé ce centre après la mort de son fils, victime d’une secte, et on imagine dans quel esprit.

Or, voici que la Mission a remis un rapport (Le Monde, mercredi 9 février 2000) plein de nuances et de distinctions et débouchant sur une assez étonnante diversité de recommandations. En premier lieu, “une législation spécifique ne se justifie pas”. En deuxième lieu, “il convient d’adapter nos lois et nos règlements aux problèmes nouvellement posés”. En troisième lieu, comme pour préciser de quelle modernisation législative il est question, le rapport Vivien recommande au gouvernement français de se doter du pouvoir législatif de dissoudre deux organisations qu’il dénomme “sectes absolues” : l’Ordre du Temple solaire et l’Église de scientologie. En somme, quelque chose en amont et quelque chose en aval, quelque chose de nouveau dans le cadre général et quelque chose dans l’administration de la justice.

Un équilibre toujours précaire
Le dosage français n’est sans doute pas exportable tel quel. Il table sur des institutions et sur une culture civique particulières. Il a cependant le mérite de correspondre à une réflexion dont trop de sociétés, la nôtre comprise, prétendent faire l’économie. Cette réflexion, l’évolution de notre époque la rend pourtant indispensable. Les groupes, qu’ils soient criminalisés ou religieux, informatiques ou paramilitaires, ont une liberté de mouvement — d’aucuns diraient une immunité — dont une société trop peu prudente risque de faire les frais. D’autre part, groupes et organisations doivent savoir en amont
de leurs activités à quoi ils risquent de faire face en aval de la part des pouvoirs publics. Dès lors, les partis politiques et les organisations censément religieuses doivent obtenir de l'État ce qu'il leur faut de liberté et une définition claire de leurs responsabilités sociales.

L'équilibre sera toujours à redéfinir? Certes. Parce qu'il est le reflet de la vie.

**Target text**

**HOW SHOULD WE DEAL WITH CRIMES AGAINST VALUES?**

Europe, and on a larger scale the entire planet, is facing (\(T\)-shift) two debates that may be more closely related than we think: the fact that the extreme right has formed a coalition government in Austria and the recommendation made to the French government to legally dissolve the Order of the Solar Temple and the Church of Scientology. In both cases, the States (\(T\)-mistranslation) are wondering how to sanction behaviour that undermines traditional or newly acquired collective values.

**Austria in the Pillory**

Its European partners and, more generally, the international community for the fact that 27% of the vote went to an extreme-right party are currently censuring Austria, thereby opening the door to a coalition government. To be sure, 27% is an (\(T\)-omission) unprecedented (\(L\)-typo) figure in the recent past, but this does not put Austria into (\(L\)-prepositional usage) a class by itself. In other countries, including France, Denmark and even peaceful Norway, openly racist parties form part of the political scene. If the various European capitals are reviling Austria, it is not because Austria, like them, has xenophobic tendencies, but because it was forced (\(T\)-shift) to allow the extreme right to form part of the government. This, and only this, allows other European nations to censure Austria and turn a blind eye on their own excesses (\(T\)-mistranslation).

Moreover, the question, as posed by European capitals has no answer. Indeed, how can a country allow the extreme right to run a campaign and subsequently deny them the right to form a government outright or part of one? Why didn’t the countries that are criticizing Austria now express their fears before the election campaign? Algeria, as well, has faced the same issue and has not yet come up with a solution. The country let the *Front*
islamique du Salut (Islamic Salvation Front) participate in its election campaign, and subsequently prevented the victorious FIS from forming the government. In the light of these precedents, we should, however, come to the conclusion that we (T—person) cannot, in the case of either political parties or individuals, define crimes after the fact. If a party is not illegal before an election campaign, it cannot become so the day after the vote. Accordingly, we (error repeated) must use foresight: if we do not want the extreme right to come into power, it must be put out of the race before the electioneering starts. This is easier said than done.

The Case of Cults
Cults pose a similar problem. Indeed (T—shift), at some point, nearly all States (error repeated) must define their policies regarding organizations, which, on the surface, seem to qualify as religions, but are suspected of posing a threat to public order (L—terminology) and going too far in their attacks on the autonomy and dignity of people. The analysis of actual situations occasionally (T—shift) leads to the question (T—mistranslation): Can we deal with the abuses of cults with existing legislation or must we clarify it and give it more muscle? France, among other countries, is currently facing this debate and is wavering between the preventive measure of drafting a more solid (T—mistranslation) and specific law and relying on the legal proceedings permitted by the statutory enactments currently in effect (L—verbiage, redundancy). Just as in the case of undesirable political parties, we can see that it is difficult to criticize cults for behaviour that legal recognition of their existence (T—omission) authorizes.

■ Before or After the Fact?
No matter how a society chooses to meet these challenges, it must decide what exactly constitutes (L—typo) crimes against its particular values. If, for example, a society specifically outlaws hate propaganda, it opts for a certain protection, but it also consents to a certain risk. It makes hate propaganda a crime because, in its eyes, it poses such a social evil that it should be repressed, even if that curtails freedom of expression and may lead to the possibility (L—redundancy) of censorship. If, on the other hand, a society does not incorporate an anti-hate propaganda law into its criminal code, it opts for a different balance and places its values in an entirely different hierarchy. Having no specific law would effectively favour free expression, but at the cost of making it more difficult to contain outbursts of hatred. In the first hypothesis (L—usage), society is according importance to the undesirableness (T—mistranslation) of propaganda; in the second, it is
placing its confidence in its general laws. In both, society is revealing something important about its values.

You can see to what extent it is important that a society decide what it makes specific and what it leaves as general. Or, more precisely, what it says it intends to deal with before the fact and how it intends to deal with specific cases after the fact. It cannot, as the situations in Algeria and Austria demonstrate, brutally \(L\)–\(usage\) correct certain situations after the fact when they did nothing to stop the events that led up to them. A society cannot overturn the results of the polls after having tolerated the participation of Haider and the Freedom Party in the election campaign. In the same fashion, a society complicates its existence, perhaps legitimately, if it grants, before the fact, the status of legal religious order to cults and then, after the fact, wants to challenge their actions.

The French Reflection
Using \(L\)–\(usage\) this perspective, it is interesting to follow the French train of thought \(T\)–\(mistranslation\) concerning cults and to establish a parallel between its choices in this area and those it favours \(T\)–\(shift\) in the field of politics. This is made even more so \(T\)–\(mistranslation\) by the fact that France still maintains, despite mounting criticism, judicial institutions that integrate with difficulty our presumption of innocence, but rather place the emphasis on the complete separation of Church and State.

For several years now, on the political front, France has been under assault from an explicitly xenophobic extreme right that often stops just short of anti-Semitism. The most common French tactic to date has been to let Le Pen participate in election campaigns, and prosecute him each time (or nearly) \(L\)–\(usage\) he goes too far. In other words, France has not outlawed his party, but rather turns to general legislation to sanction its less tolerable comments. While a cause and effect \(L\)–\(hyphenation\) relationship between this strategy and subsequent events cannot be established, the fact remains that Le Pen and his excesses have lost an \(L\)–\(type\) large share of their political support over the years. France, which was in a worse state than its neighbours, now more closely resembles them.

When it comes to cults, France seems to be leaning towards a more complex strategy. The instability of its survey \(T\)–\(mistranslation\) and analysis techniques shows the country is walking on eggs. Let's take a closer look at the situation. In January 1996, a parliamentary report on cults (Gest-Guyard) recommended that the Observatoire
interministériel sur les cultes (interministerial committee to monitor cults) be created, a not particularly daring move. This was done. However, the Observatoire had a short-lived existence, no doubt because it did not take a firm enough stand in the ministers’ (T—mistranslation) eyes. In October 1998, it disappeared, and was replaced with the Mission interministérielle de lutte contre les cultes (interministerial task force to combat cults). The change in attitude, to a tougher stance, (L—erroneous parenthesis) can be seen in the use of lutte in the Mission’s title.

We could have expected some recommendations of a totally different nature, for, among other reasons (T—mistranslation), Alain Vivien, the former minister, privately (T—mistranslation) authored a book severely critical of cults and has also served as president of the Centre Roger-Ikor contre les manipulations mentales (Roger Ikor centre against mental manipulation) since 1997. Roger Ikor founded the centre on the death of his son, victim of a cult, and we can imagine in what frame of mind (L—omission, syntax).

And yet, (L—punctuation) the Mission tabled a report (Le Monde, Wednesday, February 9, 2000) full of distinctions and nuances, making some astonishingly diverse recommendations. First, it stated that specific legislation is not justified. It added that it would be preferable for France to adapt its laws and regulations to deal with recently arising problems (L—usage). It then went on to specify exactly what kind of legislative updating was required. The Vivien Report recommended that the French government grant itself the legislative power to dissolve two organizations that it labelled “absolute cults”: the Order of the Solar Temple and the Church of Scientology. In summary (L—usage), something both before and after the fact, something new in both the general framework and the administration of justice.

An Ever Precarious (L—hyphenation) Equilibrium (L—terminology)
The French solution is undoubtedly non-exportable as it stands. It is based on a specific civil culture and (T—omission) institutions. However, it has the merit of corresponding with (L—prepositional usage) the way that too many societies, including ours, claim to run their economy (Major T—mistranslation of metaphor). The manner in which our era is unfolding, however, is making this way of thinking a necessity. Whether they be criminal or religious, computer-based or paramilitary, groups enjoy a freedom of movement, some would even say an immunity, that is likely to cost unwary societies dearly. On the other hand, groups and organizations should know before the fact the price they will have to pay to (T—mistranslation) public powers (L—terminology) after the
fact. Political parties and (T—omission) religious organizations should, from this point forward, have the State give them what they need in the way of liberty and a clear definition of their social responsibilities.

Will we constantly have to redefine the equilibrium? Of course. Equilibrium is a reflection of life.

1.  

Arrangement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Introduction: inquisitive in type, piquing the reader’s interest by suggesting a relationship, in terms of social values, between two distinct situations and alluding, in very general terms, to the dilemma faced by governments in dealing with groups that attack mainstream values.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Statement of facts 1: the emergence of the extreme right-wing Freedom Party in Austria and of a fundamentalist party in Algeria and national and international reaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Conclusion 1: crime cannot be defined retroactively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Reiteration of dilemma, with specific reference to sects and to France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. General statement of alternatives and dilemma: protection vs. freedom of expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Reiteration of Conclusion 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Statement of facts 2: solutions devised by France to both dilemmas (extreme-right and sects)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Reformulation of Conclusion 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again, the arrangement is a variation of the classical dispositio, but the argumentative approach is not refutation but a value-based judgment of facts. Following the general introduction, outlining the dilemma facing certain governments, the author presents the facts pertaining to the political dilemma facing Austria and Algeria (narratio) before drawing a conclusion on what the correct approach to the dilemma should be (confirmatio). The author then reformulates the dilemma with reference to religious sects.
in France (*narratio*) before presenting alternative solutions to what he sees as the generic dilemma: the opposition between repression of "social evil" and freedom of speech and thought and reformulating the initial conclusion (*confirmatio*). The *narratio--confirmatio* process is then used a third time.

The argument chain is thus a series of illustrations of a unifying idea, which is reformulated and built upon in the process:

![Diagram of argument structure]

**Argument macrostructure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macrostructure element</th>
<th>Identification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grounds</td>
<td>Events and responses in Austria, Algeria and France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claims</td>
<td>Legal and ethical impossibility of declaring groups illegal after the fact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>Government’s legislative mandate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>Values of coherence and consistency in law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier(s)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restriction(s)/Rebuttal(s)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The binary organizational relation can be deduced from the arrangement: evidence (illustration)–conclusion.
2. **Reading of TT**

Cursory examination of TT reveals no obvious problems of coherence. Some typographical errors were detected. All sections of ST contain components of the argument macrostructure.

3. **TT argument macrostructure**

There are a number of errors in TT, but the mistranslation in the second sentence of the penultimate paragraph one is more significant than the others. The author recommends the French solution to the problem of religious sects and states that too many countries are ignoring this approach. He then emphasizes the recommendation by saying that the solution is becoming a necessity in today’s world. Because of the translator’s misunderstanding of “faire l’économie,” the TT sentence is incoherent, implying that many countries have adopted such an approach, that it is related to management of the economy, and that it is inappropriate (“too many”).

The proposition conveyed is part of the claim, and the translation undermines the development of the final claim argument. However, the arguments in the rest of the final paragraph, and in particular the reference to the necessity of the French solution in the following sentence, are translated with sufficient accuracy to compensate for the incoherence.

4. **Propositional functions/reasoning structure**

The selected passage, “En amont ou en aval,” illustrates the author’s principal rhetorical technique of presenting a dilemma and then drawing a conclusion from it:

1. **Generalization 1**—definition of crime against values required
2. **Elaboration 1**—example: specific legislation outlawing hate propaganda
3. **Qualification** 1—contradictory example: no specific legislation

4. **Generalization** 2 from Elaboration 1

5. **Generalization** 3 from Qualification 1/also Qualification of Generalization 2

6. **Generalization** 4 from generalizations 2 and 3, connecting with issue of values raised in Generalization 1

7. **Generalization** 5 from generalizations 2, 3 and 4, connecting with requirement stated in Generalization 1

8. **Clarification** of Generalization 5: required coherence of definitions before and after the fact

9. **Elaboration** of Clarification through example

10. **Elaboration** of Clarification through example

The dilemma is conveyed in part through the qualification functions of certain propositions, and the predominance of the unifying idea, or recommendation, regarding coherence in lawmaking is reflected in the recurrence of the generalization function.

Adversative markers are used to signpost the dilemma: à l'inverse; *Dans un cas/dans l'autre hypothèse*. Additives are used to signpost elaboration and generalization: *par exemple, de la même manière*. Note also that the focus on the coherence requirement and the similarity of the situations selected as examples is reflected in the use of "Dans les deux cas" and "de la même manière." In the same paragraph, "On voit à quel point" is an inference indicator, inviting the reader to relate the preceding argument to the initial thesis of the article.

In TT, *effectively* is a slight mistranslation of *en effet*, and "In the first hypothesis" is unidiomatic and fails to preserve the argument development signposted by the repetition of *cas*. Otherwise, TT renders the propositional development adequately.

Regarding reasoning structure, the initial general statement ("...une société est amenée à préciser...valeurs") is not an intermediate conclusion, as we have seen in earlier examples, but a reason for the two contrasting scenarios (hate crime legislation *versus*...
general laws) presented as responses to crime against values. Within the context of the paragraph, these conclusions are intermediate, as they constitute the causes (reasons) of a second set of contradictory effects in terms of freedom of expression (conclusions). At the end of the first paragraph in the passage, the author reformulates the opening statement, closing the reasoning loop, as it were, by making the effects of the two scenarios the means (reasons) of revealing society's values (conclusion). The reasoning function of the general statement has thus been reversed.
Society defines its values

-Divergent reasoning-

Anti-hate legislation

Reliance on general laws

Reason

Effect: limits on freedom of expression, risk of censure

Effect: greater freedom of expression but more difficult to eradicate hate

-Linked reasoning-

In both scenarios, society reveals important aspects of its values
4. **Conjunctives/inference indicators**

In spite of the mistranslations of conjunctives, the reasoning structure is preserved in TT.

6. **Arguments**

The text involves the examination of a dilemma, or a choice between two alternatives, neither of which is ideal. Taking specific examples (argument by comparison) as a base, the author uses induction to express the dilemma in general statements and to formulate alternatives and recommendations. The general statements involve a complex of arguments from definition, contraries, contradiction and circumstance, as illustrated in the selected passage.

**Before or After the Fact?**

No matter how a society chooses to meet these challenges, it must decide what exactly constitutes crimes against its particular values [definition]. If, for example, a society specifically outlaws hate propaganda, it opts for a certain protection, but it also consents to a certain risk [contraries of safety and risk]. It makes hate propaganda a crime because, in its eyes, it poses such a social evil that it should be repressed, even if that curtails freedom of expression and may lead to the possibility of censorship [comparison/degree: hate propaganda a greater evil than curtailment of freedom of expression; relationship/cause and effect: potential undesirable consequences of specific law]. If, on the other hand, a society does not incorporate an anti-hate propaganda law into its criminal code, it opts for a different balance and places its values in an entirely different hierarchy [contraries: reversal of judgment on comparison/degree components]. Having no specific law would effectively favour free expression, but at the cost of making it more difficult to contain outbursts of hatred [relationship/cause and effect reformulated]. In the first hypothesis, society is according importance to the undesirableness of propaganda; in the second, it is placing its confidence in its general laws [contraries of specific and general]. In both, society is revealing something important about its values [relationship/sign and cause: laws and values].
You can see to what extent it is important that a society decide what it makes specific and what it leaves as general. Or, more precisely, what it says it intends to deal with before the fact and how it intends to deal with specific cases after the fact. It cannot, as the situations in Algeria and Austria demonstrate, brutally correct certain situations after the fact when they did nothing to stop the events that led up to them [combination of argument from contraries of acceptance and rejection and argument from circumstance: past fact (acceptance) and future fact (rejection)]. A society cannot overturn the results of the polls after having tolerated the participation of Haider and the Freedom Party in the election campaign [argument from circumstance illustrated by argument from comparison (example)]. In the same fashion, a society complicates its existence, perhaps legitimately, if it grants, before the fact, the status of legal religious order to cults and then, after the fact, wants to challenge their actions [argument from circumstance illustrated by double argument from comparison (example and similarity of examples)].

This shows the number, complexity and coherence of the individual arguments in TT, which, in spite of several transfer and target language defects, renders the ST arguments adequately.

7. **Figures**

The extended spatial metaphor *en amont/en aval* in the selected ST passage plays an integral role in conveying the requirement of consistency in lawmaking. The translator elects not to produce an equivalent spatial metaphor in English, conveying instead the time-based denotative meaning of the relationship between legal events. The translation is adequate. On the other hand, the major translation error is, in fact, due to a failure to recognize a finance metaphor.
8. **Narrative strategy**

The rhetorical question, used to draw the reader into the arguments in the preceding text, is less frequent here. The pronoun *on*, translated variously as *we* and *you*, is used to the same extent, however. In this case, the reader is enlisted as co-narrator and co-analyst, instead of being a passive observer. TT renders this technique adequately.

On the other hand, the translator provides no translation for the important qualifier *censément* in the noun phrase “les organisations censément religieuses” (third line from end). The adverb reveals the author’s opinion of sects, but the opinion is not conveyed in TT.

9. **Overall argumentation-centred TQA**

### Argumentation-centred TQA Grid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claims</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grounds</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
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<tr>
<td>Restrictions</td>
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</table>

### Arrangement/Organizational Relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
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<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Narratio—Confirmatio Evidence—Conclusion</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
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### Propositional Functions/Reasoning Structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
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<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generalization—elaboration—qualification—generalization</td>
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<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasoning structure: serial</td>
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<td>+</td>
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Conjunctives

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<th>Form</th>
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<th>No?</th>
<th>+?</th>
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<tr>
<td>Adversative</td>
<td>À l'inverse</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dans l'autre</td>
<td>No?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>hypothèse</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Additive</td>
<td>Par exemple</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>+?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>En effet</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>De la même manière</td>
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Arguments

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Figures

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Narrative strategy

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Results of the analysis of TT against a broad range of argumentation parameters show that, in general, the translation meets most of the criteria and, in particular, those pertaining to core argument.

10. **Quantitative TQA**

1 major translation error, 23 minor translation errors, and 18 minor language errors in 1557 words. Prorated to 400 words, TT receives a "fully acceptable" Sical B rating on the basis of major errors (0.26/400 words) and minor errors (10.53/400 words). Had the evaluation been based solely on the selected passage, which is about 400 words in length, the major error would no longer be a factor and the text, based on nine minor errors, would again be rated B, "fully acceptable."
11. *Comparison and comments*

The major error does not undermine the reader’s understanding of the argument macrostructure because the central idea, or claim, is expressed on several occasions and rendered correctly elsewhere in TT.

At a more microtextual level, in spite of the large number of minor defects, specific arguments and figures are accurately rendered, and only one deviation in propositional development was detected.

That being said, the text is for publication. A higher standard of quality would therefore be required, particularly in target language typography.

6.2.3.4. **Preliminary observations**

- Argumentation is more explicit and more complex than in the epistolary and statistics texts examined earlier, yet the use of conjunctives and inference indicators appears to be less prevalent. The translator has had to rely more on the logical relationship between propositions than on conventional “signposts.”
- In spite of the objectively large number of errors in both translations, they read quite well and preserve ST argument macrostructure.
- In both translations, the impact of the major error was shown to be relative inasmuch as other elements of the translations compensated for the resulting problems of coherence.
Chapter Seven
The Student Corpus: Application of the Model to Trainee Translation Evaluation

7.1. Overview of approach

In this section we explore the potential of an argumentation-centred TQA model for assessing translation students' work. To prepare the ground for this phase of the study, it was necessary to link assessment to a training project in which students were exposed to the textological, and especially argumentation, parameters of translation, as opposed to lexical or syntactic ones. Our main assumption was that, if students could be trained to recognize and articulate argument macrostructure and other aspects of the model in ST, they would be able to use this new-found competence to interpret texts more accurately and produce more coherent, "reasoned" translations. Knowledge and application of the argumentative and reasoning features outlined earlier will in fact be part of *textual* competence, one of the five competences that, according to Neubert (2000: 16–17), the student needs in order to acquire overall *translational* competence (the others are *linguistic*, *subject*, *cultural* and *transfer*).

To express the problem from an evaluation/assessment theory perspective, one can make a valid assessment of student performance only to the extent that learning has been based on exactly the same criteria against which they are to be assessed and evaluated and that the criteria have been clearly defined and communicated to the students (Adab 2000: 221). Thus the process required to demonstrate application of the TQA model must include the identification of discourse-based translation performance expectations or expected results. Specifically, the student would ultimately be expected to demonstrate an ability to determine the argument macrostructure of ST, grasp the reasoning structure and propositional functions in ST, correctly interpret conjunctives and other inference indicators, understand the arguments in ST, identify figures and their purpose, isolate the narrative strategy of the author, and produce adequate translations as a result.
On the basis of the expected results, we must then work backwards (Wiggins 1993: 238), designing a variety of discourse-based and argumentation-centred training activities, assignments and tests to facilitate, assess and evaluate progress toward those results.

While most of the material in this chapter is based on an argumentation-centred translation course, we have found it necessary to complete the “evidence” adduced with a text translated in another course. Specifically, since the constraints of the standard course did not allow us to assign long texts to the students, we also used a translation produced in an in-house practicum course offered in the same program and providing for the translation of complete documents of varying lengths. The addition thus enables us to test our hypotheses on a student corpus including a full-text translation.

7.2. Components of the training program (classroom course)

The form and content of an argumentation-centred training course will be the subject of a future study. For the purposes of this study, it will suffice to outline the components of the course in which material for TQA was generated. The components were an integral part of a third-year general translation course that was given at the University of Ottawa School of Translation and Interpretation in the fall of 2000. In developing the course, it was important to consider that many of the students had developed a heavy reliance on bilingual dictionaries as comprehension tools and that the effect of the training would necessarily be cumulative.

Below we present, in sequence, the main themes in the course, along with a rationale for their inclusion. Note that the themes alternate between text-part and text-whole, building from microtextual elements (word, sentence) up to the macrotext and back down, so that students become increasingly familiar with the synergy between the various points on the microtext-macrotext continuum:
- **Recurrent translation problems**

The first task is to show the students that, while it is a valuable tool, the bilingual dictionary cannot solve all translation problems and that in many instances they need to exploit the co-text and context to determine meaning and the most appropriate English term or expression. The task involves selecting an all-purpose word or phrase and creating sentences providing enough information that, in each case, a different English translation of the item will be required. All-purpose terms and expressions include *acteur, aménagement (aménager), contrôle, enquête, intervenant (intervenir), orientation, il s'agit de* and *dans le cadre de*. Students are given the meanings and synonyms of the term according to a unilingual French dictionary, the various translations offered in a bilingual dictionary, and the definitions and synonyms of the English cognate according to a unilingual English dictionary before they start translating the sentences. They thus have an information base and options to work with. In reviewing their translations with them, it is interesting to find out to what degree the dictionaries were a source of solutions.

- **Syntactic flexibility**

Under the second theme, students are asked to translate the same French paragraph in several different ways, by combining ST sentences, breaking up ST sentences, and using different parts of ST sentences to start TT sentences. By performing the task successfully, they see that following the content development of the French in linear fashion is not the only, and is not necessarily the best, way of transferring the arguments in ST at the paragraph level. This is another step in the process of moving from a lexical to a textological, or discourse-based, approach.

- **Summary writing**

Here the students are given two paragraphs in French (250 words in all) and are asked to identify the five main ideas. Once a consensus is reached on the ideas, they are written down, in English,
on the board or flip chart and any duplication of elements removed. Later they receive a model
English summary. The initial purpose is to help them direct their attention away from the form of
arguments in French (the syntax of individual sentences and the writer’s style) and focus on the
arguments themselves.

The exercise has broader applications, however. In translating a difficult passage or text, it can
be helpful to prepare a shortened version to help fix in the mind the key ideas, the overall
argument, and the development of that argument. The actual drafting of the translation may then
be easier as problem items can be interpreted in relation to the argument macrostructure. The
technique of filling in details, using the summary as a starting point, is particularly useful in
cases where the ST argument is convoluted and there is a great deal of repetition.

Finally, in reviewing the model summary, it is useful to point out the cohesive devices used to
link the main ideas (propositions, sentences).

Assignment: Students are given a longer French text (1600 words) and are asked to submit a
250-word summary.

• Cohesion in translation

French passages and their English translations are examined with a view to comparing the
cohesive devices used in each language (anaphor, synonymy, repetition, conjunctives, etc.) and
understanding their purpose within the text as a whole. Attention is then turned specifically to
conjunctives and other inference indicators, which are discussed in terms of the typologies
proposed by Roulet et al. (for French) and by Halliday and Hasan (for English). Paragraphs
containing problem French conjunctives and inference indicators (see 4.3–4) are the subject of
group discussion as to their role as markers and whether and how they should be translated.

Subsequently, Cloze-type and other exercises may be used to reinforce the importance of using
cotext and world knowledge to determine propositional development and functions and the
logical linkages between sentences.
Coherence in translation

The purpose of this teaching unit, which is a logical extension of the one on cohesion, is to focus the students’ attention even more closely on the proposition as a “speech act” contributing to the construction of discourse and on the accumulation and combination of those acts to make up paragraphs and texts. The unit thus serves as a transition point between the study of cohesion, with its focus on the conjunctive, and the examination of arguments and argument structure, with its focus on longer and ultimately complete texts. The goal is to familiarize the students with propositional development in ST and the need to reflect it in TT, and, in so doing, to bring home to them the importance of handling the text, and translation, as an integrated, complete communicative act, not as a linear sequence of discrete syntactic and semantic units.

With this in mind, they are introduced to the principal text modes—explanatory, descriptive, argumentative and narrative—through an examination of SL and TL texts and are shown how the arrangements of propositions, or ideas, can differ by mode. They are also sensitized to the fact that some text types combine modes and that the argumentative mode tends to be present, to some degree, in all texts.

The presentation then focuses on the argumentative and explanatory modes because of their prevalence in instrumental translation. Drawing on Widdowson’s functional typology of speech acts (1978: 131-38), we demonstrate the coherence structure of a French paragraph and how a corresponding level of coherence is achieved in translation.

Translating figures of speech

Our focus being on instrumental texts and figures of speech being just one component of rhetoric and argument, the extensive treatment of the translation of figures required in a literary translation course is not necessary here. That being said, our review of the literature highlighted the role of tropes—particularly metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche and irony—in instrumental
discourse, including that of science (4.6). The main purpose of this module is therefore to make students aware of the presence of tropes in instrumental source texts, of the role they play in conveying and supporting ideas and arguments, and of the consequent need to recognize them and render them in translation rather than considering them as purely ornamental and replacing with non-figurative language.

After a short presentation on figures of speech and specifically on tropes, including definition and illustration of the four types mentioned above, students are asked to identify and characterize tropes in several instrumental French texts in a range of specialities and to determine what their function is. In reviewing their answers, it is important to bring out (1) the role of tropes as an integral part of, or as a support for, argument, (2) their cohesive function in forming a “thematic string” or isotope, as in the case of extended metaphors, and (3) their presence at the macrotextual level, as in the case of analogy and extended metaphor. The students then translate passages containing tropes and their work is reviewed in class.

- **Translating arguments and argument structure**

By now, the students are familiar with the various components of cohesion and coherence within the paragraph, of the main cohesion issues in French-English translation, and of the need not only to interpret propositions in light of cohesive devices such as conjunctives but also to determine the logical relations between propositions in order to clarify the meaning of conjunctives.

The next module focuses on propositional development and the interrelationships of ideas throughout the text. The presentation first covers the traditional introduction—development—conclusion structure and the discourse arrangement (*dispositio*) of classical rhetoric, enabling the
students to follow the transition from the microtextual to the macrotextual dimensions of text. From that basis, the presentation moves on to the application of argument theory as such, drawing specifically on Toulmin (1984), Mendenhall (1993), Andrews (1995) and Corbett and Connors (1999).

We describe and illustrate a number of successful and unsuccessful propositional arrangements or “plans” in action in source texts and in translations: “heaps,” sequences built up around a unifying idea, unfocused or illogical chain, focused chain, empty formal argument, full-fledged argument, etc. (Andrews 1995: 36).

Treatment of this theme requires a two-part module. First, the propositional development that was framed in terms of logical/illogical and focused/unfocused chains in the preceding module is redefined in terms of argument theory. In other words, the development is characterized as one or more types of argument

syllogism
enthymeme
maxim,

one or more kinds of appeal

logical
ethical
emotional (psychological)
aesthetic,
and one or more topics

definition (genus, division)
comparison (similarity, difference, degree)
relationship (cause and effect, antecedent and consequence, etc.)
circumstance (possible and impossible, past fact and future fact)
testimony (authority, testimony, statistics, etc.).

With this detailed typology in hand, the students gain an even more in-depth understanding of the reasoning and argument strategies driving the text content. Here too, the main argument types can be illustrated with ST examples and with mistranslations reflecting failure to recognize the argument at play.

The second part of the module bears on Toulmin’s argument macrostructure. The six components of the macrostructure are defined and illustrated. With this information, they are given two tasks:

(1) They are asked to refer to the full French text of which they wrote an English summary in an earlier module and to determine its argument macrostructure. Once the task is completed and reviewed by the group, they are asked to compare the macrostructure with their summary with a view to ascertaining whether all or some of the macrostructure components, which are the core of the full text, are accounted for in the summary. This sensitizes them to the need to zero in on the important elements of the text and provides them with a method for doing so. It also gives them an opportunity to test their encyclopedic knowledge and may provide an indication that further reading on the topic at hand is necessary.
(2) They are asked to translate a passage from the French text of which they have already produced an English summary and therefore should, in principle, have a good grasp of the argument macrostructure.

(3) They are given a passage from a long French text, with an extensive argument structure, to translate (they do not receive the full text at this stage). It is important to select a passage that has strong argument links to the rest of the text and correct translation of which requires a knowledge of the full-text argument macrostructure. They then receive the full ST and are asked to revise their first draft accordingly. The purpose is to encourage the students to develop the reflex of using the argument macrostructure to translate individual parts of ST or to revise their drafts of those passages.

- **Self-revision and wrap-up**

At this stage, we can complete the loop and establish the connection between translation quality assessment and control (including, in its broadest sense, revision) and an argumentation-centred approach to translation. Reviewing the building-blocks that make up a translation based not only on a full-text perspective but also on the concept of discourse as argument—exploitation of context, cohesion, coherence, propositional development, types of argument, figures of speech and argument macrostructure—the teacher stresses the fact that an understanding of the necessary relationship between microtextual (e.g., conjunctives) and macrotextual (e.g., grounds and claims) is the cornerstone of translation quality and that this understanding must be applied in revising one’s own draft and, by extension, in performing revision, quality-control, quality-assurance or post-delivery TQA tasks. Various exercises were developed in which students were required to evaluate English translations (of French texts) against the criteria of cohesion, coherence, and fidelity to ST argument structures.
7.3 Application of the model

The course comprised many other exercises and assignments, but the ones we will use for the purpose of our study are the three assignments involving translation of passages of approximately 200 words taken from complete texts.

It bears repeating at this juncture that the teaching and learning objectives of the course pertain specifically to the recognition, understanding and translation of argument structures. Accordingly, student performance should be assessed primarily on that basis, not against other criteria such as SL knowledge and TL writing skills.

Another aspect warranting consideration with respect to student assessment and, indeed, translation competency testing in general is the setting of full texts or self-contained passages for assignments, tests or examinations. Such an approach meets the criterion of authenticity in that it focuses on the assessment of actual translation performance, unlike other tools such as multiple-choice tests. However, as Harper et al. point out, measuring performance of this kind often requires more complex assessments: the degree of achievement of a greater number of learning objectives is probably being measured, the aspects of learning are more complex, and there is a greater variation in responses and interpretations and, therefore, a broader range of potentially acceptable translations. Accordingly, the degree of reliability of translation performance assessment is, in principle, lower than that of other tools.

7.3.1 Assignment A

After writing a 250-word English summary of the French text below, and then reviewing the assignment in class with the help of a model summary, students were asked to translate the italicized portion of the text.
7.3.1.1 Text 9

ST length: 1486 words
Text type: article for professional association periodical
Text mode: argumentative
Purpose: persuade reader that Canadian society has lost the concept of individual responsibility and of right and wrong and that, as a result, the criminal justice system is losing its effectiveness.

Source text

**QUE PEUT LA POLICE DANS UNE SOCIÉTÉ SANS ÉTHIQUE?**

Beaucoup d’entre nous se font une image simple et confortable de ce qu’est une société civilisée. C’est celle, pensent-ils, où les criminels sont neutralisés et où tous les autres, bons citoyens par définition, font tout ce que la loi n’interdit pas. Une fois les humains ainsi répartis entre le camp des bons et celui des méchants, il devient facile de perpétuer la société civilisée. Il suffit d’exiger la sévérité de la loi, l’efficacité de la police et des tribunaux, l’étanchéité des prisons.

Dans cette conception, le crime est un geste exécuté par un méchant, décrit dans un code, détecté par des professionnels de l’enquête et sanctionné par la force de frappe judiciaire. La lutte contre le crime est donc l’affrontement entre les criminels et les « professionnels du bien » que nous avons embauchés. Tant que nos mandataires sont à la hauteur de notre confiance, nous vaquons paisiblement à nos activités. Si, par malheur, du sable se glisse dans les engrenages, nous savons aussitôt à qui adresser nos reproches. Clair et reposant!

**Ce n’est pas si simple**

Malheureusement pour les amateurs du simplisme manichéen, le crime n’est pas ou n’est plus réductible à ce profil stylisé. D’une part, le crime, comme la plupart de nos organisations modernes, pratique à merveille le « travail en équipe ». D’autre part, le crime excelle à rendre poreuse la ligne de démarcation qui est censée séparer bons et méchants. Du coup, les stratégies
traditionnelles de lutte contre le crime se révèlent tragiquement inadaptées. Si, en effet, le crime découle du maillage d’une variété de mauvaises intentions, policiers et tribunaux vont chercher vainement la responsabilité spécifique de chaque maillon. Si, par ailleurs, le crime se situe délibérément aux marges du légal et de l’interdit, ni l’enquête ni la sanction ne parviendront à circonscrire clairement le délit et à dissuader les imitateurs.

L’ironie d’une telle mue criminelle, c’est qu’elle fait du crime une sorte de décalque de la société que nous voulons. Quand nous créons à volonté des personnes morales, le crime prend bonne note des avantages que permet la constitution en société. Quand nous incitons les entreprises et les individus à se mettre en réseau, le crime se tient prêt à appliquer massivement la formule. Quand on décrit la mondialisation comme une forme de solidarité incontournable, voire souhaitable, le crime esquisse un sourire et étend lui aussi ses réseaux et ses complicités. Tout en se réservant le « droit » de donner à ses offensives un tour musclé, le crime peut ainsi faire un bon bout de chemin en parfait accord avec les lois et les valeurs sociales de notre temps.

Car le crime parasite notre recours à la personne morale et au droit d’association. Il brouille la ligne de démarcation entre le maillage d’un groupe de marchands et le complot pour éliminer la concurrence et déterminer les prix. Le crime, comme l’entreprise légale, dilue la responsabilité; s’il parvient à ses fins, il n’y a plus de responsabilité. Entre le cerveau criminel qui se tient à distance des gestes ouvertement répréhensibles et le bras armé de l’exécuteur, une cascade d’intermédiaires assure au crime sa collégialité (!), son anonymat, son immunité. La société découvre alors qu’elle ne peut interdire ce type de réseau sans stériliser tous les autres. Tout comme la société ne peut pas à la fois combattre la dilution criminelle de la responsabilité tout en constituant chaque année des milliers de sociétés « à responsabilité limitée ».

Quelques exemples humiliants

Une analogie illustrera le nouveau défi. Quand un avion de combat se voit pourchassé par un missile capable de suivre sa cible dans toutes ses contorsions, que fait-il? Il lâche des leurres qui induisent en erreur le système de guidage du missile. Ces leurres attirent sur eux l’attention du
missile, pendant que l’avion, lui, s’esquive. Nul ne peut blâmer le missile d’avoir failli à sa mission: si on l’a programmé pour qu’il pourchasse des reflets métalliques, il n’a pas pu voir la différence entre les reflets de l’avion et ceux des leurres.

La France, dans sa lutte contre les réseaux terroristes, a vécu récemment une déconfiture comparable à celle d’un missile induit en erreur. Pour bien démontrer l’imbrication des actes terroristes dans une planification d’ensemble, la justice française avait choisi de regrouper des dizaines de dossiers policiers et de confier leur examen à un seul procès. Résultat net de ce regroupement? Un tonitruant embouteillage. Les avocats ont eu beau jeu de crier au simplisme et de réclamer des procès distincts pour des gestes distincts. Du coup, le fossé est apparu infranchissable. D’un côté, le terrorisme dont la redoutable efficacité provient des relations entre les composantes de son immense toile d’araignée; de l’autre, une justice qui ne parvient pas à faire le tri entre les divers types de liens qui unissent les individus et les entreprises.

Le Canada ne fait guère mieux lorsqu’il s’affronte aux bandes de motards criminalisés. Quand il tente, avec un succès qui n’a encore rien de concluant, de départager les réseaux acceptables de ceux qui ne le sont pas, ses ratés sont légion.

Dans le cas des sectes, le crime réussit un autre plagiat rentable. Il imite suffisamment bien le comportement des églises traditionnelles et acceptées pour en revendiquer les libertés. Une fois de plus, la définition classique du crime révèle alors ses limites. Comment interdire telle campagne de financement et pas l’autre, tel anathème et pas l’autre, tel noviciat hors du réseau public d’éducation et pas tel autre? Faute de critères d’interprétation convaincants et faute d’avoir développé une méfiance minimale envers tous les clergés omnipotents et toutes les infaillibilités auto-proclamées, la société est démunie quand de nouvelles chapelles revendiquent à leur tour le droit de baptiser, de marier, de choisir et de former leurs clercs et, bien sûr, de quêter. Mondialisation aidant, l’aval donné à une secte par un tribunal conciliant en Allemagne, en France ou au Danemark peut devenir la norme à travers la Communauté européenne ou, plus largement encore, partout sur la planète. Le crime cesse d’être le fait d’un individu ou le fait d’un
criminel patenté; il devient la source de fonds d’un clan incassable. Quelque chose cloche quelque part, mais le législateur se sent comme l’ours de La Fontaine: il voit la mouche sur le front du dormeur, mais il n’a pour la chasser qu’un pavé de cinquante kilos...

Élargissons encore

Osons porter la question plus loin. Comment classer l’activité des fiscalistes qui campent littéralement aux marges de la loi? Dans quel camp faut-il ranger les experts que dénonçait récemment le Globe & Mail et qui aident leurs clients à jouer la lettre contre l’esprit de la loi? Dans le camp des méchants ou dans celui des citoyens dits respectables? Doit-on admettre enfin que la frontière est poreuse entre la légalité et le crime et que certains en abusent? Ou préfère-t-on ne conclure à un crime que si l’on trouve derrière le geste un individu correspondant à l’image traditionnelle du criminel?

Le blanchiment d’argent est-il criminel quand il s’effectue sans la complicité d’un établissement bancaire, et tolérable s’il se perd dans les activités quotidiennes d’une banque réputée au-dessus de tout soupçon?

Montons encore d’un cran. Sommes-nous devant un exercice légitime du pouvoir politique ou devant un camouflage criminel de la vérité quand un gouvernement étouffe une commission d’enquête, l’entrave, l’abolit ou noie son rapport? Se peut-il que, même à ce niveau, des leurre réussissent à détourner les enquêtes de leur cours normal? Si tel est le cas, il y a carrément activité criminelle, mais l’identité des personnes à l’origine du geste affole efficacement les mécanismes du guidage social et conduit à une immunité blindée.

Fermons la boucle

La question, au départ, était la suivante: notre définition du crime n’est-elle pas simpliste et anachronique? La conclusion, c’est que, oui, le crime déborde les frontières rassurantes que lui avait fixées une définition archaïque et rudimentaire. Certes, beaucoup de crimes sont encore des
gestes isolés que l’on peut imputer sans crainte d’erreur à un individu particulier et que notre « ingénierie sociale » peut juger et sanctionner. Mais de larges pans de la criminalité échappent désormais à nos contrôles sociaux et même à nos perceptions.

Le crime tire avantage de notre engouement pour la responsabilité limitée. Le crime organisé a si bien pris le virage de la modernité que les caïds se promènent désormais non plus entre les « armoires à glace » d’autrefois, mais entre un avocat et un comptable. Quand elle parvient à des oreilles criminelles, notre incitation moderne à la collégialité devient un nihil obstat pour la collusion, la conspiration et les plus savantes dilutions de la responsabilité. D’autre part, le crime ne se cantonne plus - s’il l’a jamais fait - dans l’affrontement direct avec la légalité. Le crime aime bien exploiter les zones grises, rentabiliser les ambigüités. L’ancien truand guettait les failles dans la surveillance des coffre-forts; l’expert moderne guette les distractions du législateur. Il n’est pas dit que les deux comportements soient d’une moralité radicalement différente.

Chose certaine, pour répondre à la question du titre, la police ne peut garantir à elle seule que notre société sera civilisée. L’éthique personnelle et collective est plus nécessaire que jamais chez ceux qui prétendent appartenir au camp des honnêtes gens.

Possible target text

**WHAT CAN THE POLICE DO IN A SOCIETY WITHOUT MORALS?**

Many of us have a simple, reassuring picture of what a civilized society is. We see it as one in which criminals are caught and punished and in which all other citizens, who are good by definition, act in accordance with the law. Once people are divided into two camps—the good and the bad—it is easy to perpetuate civilized society. All that is required is tough laws, effective police forces and courts, and prisons from which breakouts are impossible.

From such a standpoint, a crime is an act committed by a bad person, described in a statute and detected by professional investigators, for which the courts bring down the full force of the law on the perpetrator. Crime fighting is thus a confrontation between criminals and the professional
"forces of good" hired by the authorities. As long as we have confidence in our representatives, we carry on peacefully about our business, and if, by some stroke of bad luck, there is a glitch in the system, we know whom to complain to. So nothing could be clearer or more comforting!

But it's not quite that simple!

Unfortunately for those who like to see life as a straightforward fight between good and evil, crime cannot, or can no longer, be made to fit such a stereotype. First of all, criminals, like people in most organizations today, are very adept at teamwork. Second, crime does a wonderful job of blurring the distinction between the good and the bad. As a result, traditional crime-fighting strategies are proving to be woefully out of touch. Crime is the product of a combination of bad intentions forming a cause-and-effect chain of events, but the police and courts waste their time trying to determine who is responsible for each link in the chain. In borderline cases, where the act concerned may or may not be illegal, neither the investigation nor the penalty will be effective in clearly circumscribing the nature and gravity of the offence and in deterring imitators.

What is ironical about this evolution in crime is that crime has become a sort of mirror image of contemporary society. We set up thousands of corporations, and criminals take note of the benefits of incorporation. We encourage businesses and individuals to network, and criminals are very eager to follow suit on a grand scale. We present globalization as an inevitable, even desirable, form of coexistence, and criminals develop their own worldwide networks and associations, laughing all the way to the bank in the process. Criminals obviously have no compunction about breaking the rules to get their way, but they can clearly achieve many of their objectives in full compliance with today's laws and social values.

In fact, crime feeds off society's reliance on the corporate world and the right of association. It blurs the distinction between an association of business interests and an anti-competition and price-fixing scheme. Crime waters down responsibility, as a legal business does; if it achieves its ends, there is no accountability. The criminal mind keeps its distance from openly reprehensible acts and the actual perpetrators, and an army of intermediaries make sure that the crime is a "team effort" and that the criminal is both faceless and immune. Then, suddenly, society wakes up to the fact that it cannot outlaw criminal networking without preventing entirely legal associations and that it cannot counter criminals' "limited" accountability when at the same time it incorporates thousands of "limited" liability companies.

A few examples of our plight

The following analogy illustrates the challenge facing us. When a fighter plane is being pursued by a missile that stays on its tail in spite of changes in course, what does it do? It releases decoys to fool the missile's guidance system. The missile tracks the decoys and the plane escapes. The missile cannot be blamed for the failed mission: it was programmed to pursue metallic reflections and could not tell the difference between those from the fighter and those from the decoys.
France recently experienced a comparable setback in its fight against terrorist networks. In an attempt to show that terrorist acts were part of a larger plan, the French judiciary decided to group dozens of police cases together in a single trial. And what was the net result? A massive logjam in the courts. Defence lawyers had a field day condemning the authorities’ simplistic approach and called for a separate trial for each individual act. But the damage was done, and the problem seemed insoluble. On the one hand, it was clear that the deadly effectiveness of terrorism was derived from its immense spider’s web of connections; on the other, it was clear that the legal system was unable to make a distinction among the various types of human and corporate links.

Canada’s record in dealing with motorcycle gangs is not much better. Its efforts to pinpoint the criminal elements in the gang networks have in large part met with failure.

Even in religion, criminals have adopted the same profitable formula. Their fund-raising schemes have enough in common with those of the traditional churches and their procedures are acceptable enough for them to demand the same freedom of action as the others. Here too, the inadequacy of the traditional definition of crime is brought home. How can you ban this particular fund-raising scheme and not that one? This group and not that one? This religious school and not that one? Because it has developed neither rigorous interpretive criteria nor a modicum of healthy mistrust for the legions of "all-powerful" preachers with their self-professed infallibility and miraculous powers, society is powerless to deal with new churches that demand in their turn the right to perform baptisms and weddings select and train its clergy and, above all, raise funds. And globalization has a part to play here. Once a conciliatory court has approved a sect in Germany, France or Denmark, for example, its decision becomes the norm and is referred to as a precedent throughout the European Community and even the world. The crime is no longer an act perpetrated by an individual or a hardened criminal; it has become the source of funds for a clan that cannot be identified with any particular criminal class. Of course, there is something fishy about the whole business, but the legislator feels like the bear in La Fontaine’s fable: it sees the fly on the sleeping man’s forehead, but all it has to chase it away is a 50-kg rock!

An even broader definition of crime

Let’s cast our net even wider in our search for a new definition of crime. What about tax lawyers whose activities tread a very fine line between legality and illegality? In what camp should we put the tax experts whom The Globe and Mail exposed recently for helping their clients to use legal loopholes to get around the Income Tax Act? Are they bad or are they "respectable" citizens? Should we admit that there is a grey area between legal acts and crimes and that some people take advantage of that? Or should we determine that a crime has been committed only when the perpetrator of an act matches the traditional image of the criminal?
Is money laundering a crime if it is done without the complicity of a banking institution and acceptable if it becomes buried in the myriad day-to-day activities of a reputable bank?

Let's go even further and look at the highest institutions in the land. When a government shuts down a commission of inquiry, hinders its work, denies it any freedom of inquiry or buries its report, is it a legitimate exercise of power or an illegal cover-up? Could it be that, even at this level, decoys are used to sidetrack inquiries? If it is true, then these are criminal acts. However, because the status and positions of the perpetrators, the social "guidance systems" that were tracking them down are thrown off course and ironclad immunity is assured.

Where do we go from here?

Our initial question was: Is our current definition of crime simplistic and outdated? Our conclusion is that it is. Crime had moved beyond the reassuring boundaries of the traditional, straightforward definition it had been given. To be sure, some crimes are isolated acts and can be blamed without fear of error on a specific individual, whom the bodies invested with the appropriate authority by our society will judge and sentence. Yet large areas of crime are now out of reach of our social control mechanisms; we cannot even identify them.

Criminals take advantage of our attraction to limited liability. So modern has organized crime become that gangland bosses are now accompanied not by the thugs and henchmen of yesteryear but by their lawyers and accountants. Society's insistence on teamwork and networking is exploited by criminals as an opportunity for collusion, plotting, and ingenious plans to eschew accountability. Furthermore, crime no longer stands in direct conflict to legality—if indeed it ever did. It likes to take advantage of grey areas and exploit ambiguity. In the old days the thief used to lie in wait for the moment when no one was watching the safe; today, the expert criminal waits for the legislator to get sidetracked. The two approaches may not be all that different.

To answer the question in the title of this article, the police cannot by themselves guarantee that our society will be civilized. Those who claim to be in the camp of good, honest people need personal and corporate morals more than ever before.
7.3.1.2 Analysis

1. *ST argument macrostructure: organizational relations: arrangement*

**Arrangement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. <strong>Introduction—Argument 1:</strong> presents definition of a civilized society as one in which criminals (&quot;bad people&quot;) are under firm control and the rest of the population (&quot;good&quot; people) can go freely about their lawful business. All that is required is tough laws and effective police, courts and prisons.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. <strong>Argument 2:</strong> this Manichean view of crime and society is simplistic because, with the rise of organized crime, it has become difficult to assign individual responsibility for specific acts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>Argument 3:</strong> modern criminals and criminal organizations are successful because they blur the distinction between acceptable and reprehensible acts and tread a fine line between legal and illegal behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <strong>Argument 4:</strong> [explanation of 2 and 3] criminal organizations' success is due to the fact that they are imitating practices in &quot;respectable society,&quot; such as tax avoidance, questionable fund raising by religious sects and government quashing of commissions of inquiry. Just as legal entities exploit grey areas in the law, so do criminal organizations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <strong>Argument 5:</strong> the criminal justice system cannot control organized crime until the &quot;good&quot; people adhere once again to a clear set of personal and corporate ethics.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The arrangement illustrates the Protagorean principle of argument and counterargument and the dialogic character of discourse discussed at length in Billig (1996: 18–35). Argument 1 is countered by arguments 2, 3 and 4, which in turn are countered, albeit briefly, by argument 5. The overall arrangement is thus circular, in that the author, having stated that the initial argument no longer holds in modern society, nevertheless affirms, in the final argument, the necessity of irreproachable personal and corporate morals if the criminal justice is to succeed in controlling organized crime.

In terms of argument macrostructure, the five arguments do not carry equal weight. The central claims of the text are (1) that individual responsibility for acts has been watered down by
organized crime and its networks and that (2) the dubious behaviour of legal entities has caused the distinction between lawful and unlawful acts to be blurred. The circle, or chain, of reasoning is then completed with the counter-claim that a rebirth of personal and corporate morals is necessary to solve the problem. The grounds for the two central claims are the various examples of organized crime and questionable activities by "respectable" entities given throughout the article.

**Argument macrostructure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macrostructure element</th>
<th>Identification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grounds</td>
<td>Limited liability in business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>French fight against terrorist networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motorcycle gangs in Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fund raising by religious groups</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tax evasion</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Money laundering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quashing of commissions of inquiry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claims</td>
<td>1. Watering down of individual responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Blurring of distinction between legal and illegal acts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Failure of criminal justice system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Civilized society compromised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Need for reaffirmation of personal and corporate morals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>Role of criminal justice system as a protector of persons and property</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>Ethical values of good and bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier(s)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restriction(s)/Rebuttal(s)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Organizational relations


2. Argumentation-centred TQA

Since the students were not given the whole text to translate, analysis of TT argument macrostructure as a whole would be irrelevant here. In fact, the passage was selected in part because it is a modern example of a prime weapon of classical rhetoric, argument from analogy, and also because it contains one of the key examples, or grounds, for claim 1. Thus the analogy supports the historical example, and the example supports the claim. As such, both the analogy and the example are integral parts of the grounds of the argument macrostructure and must therefore be rendered accurately for the integrity of that macrostructure to be preserved in TT.

Note, once again, that the students had written a summary of the whole text, were in possession of a model summary, and were directed to translate the passage in light of that summary, which clearly outlined the argument–counter-argument process. The summary was designed to help them solve the two most difficult problems in the passage: (1) how to translate the conjunction *si* at the end of the first paragraph, and (2) how to translate the sentence *Les avocats ont eu beau jeu de crier au simplisme et de réclamer des procès distincts pour des gestes distincts* in the second. The results showed that, essentially, it was these two problems that were the source of serious error in the students’ translations.

In the case of problem (1), 50% of the class (15 students) rendered the conjunction by *if* or *because*. As a result, the meaning and force of the analogy are compromised. The propositional relation to be conveyed is not one of consequence but one of qualification: *although* the missile tracks all metal objects, its systems cannot distinguish between different kinds of objects, just as the criminal justice system in France could associate terrorism with a faceless group *but* could not tie individuals acts to individual perpetrators. In short, without the qualification or, more precisely, without a concessive conjunction or an adversative conjunctive, the logical connection
between analogy and reported fact is lost. In any case, only the use of a concessive conjunction or adversative conjunctive creates meaning compatible with the overall argument.

In the case of problem (2), 40% of the class (12 students) misinterpreted *ont eu beau crier au simplisme*, coming up with the following verb phrases:

- easily pled simplicity
- prompting lawyers to call for simplicity
- allowed lawyers to quickly argue for greater simplicity
- easy for lawyers to protest to simplism
- claimed it was simple
- calling for simplicity
- although lawyers appealed to the oversimplified definition of crime
- argued simplicity
- aptly hailed it as simplism
- easy for lawyers to plead simplicity
- claiming simplism
- had a fun time oversimplifying

By indicating that the lawyers wanted simpler procedures or by using the word *simplism*—in the dictionary but seldom, if ever, employed—instead of *oversimplified* (*oversimplifying, oversimplification*) or *simplistic*, the translator nullifies the force of the analogy, which is intended to reinforce the idea that simple, all-in-one solutions do not work against organized crime. Furthermore, by stating that the lawyers were arguing for simplicity, the translator may lead the reader to question which side they were representing. Lack of linguistic knowledge serves to explain the mistranslations initially. However, the proposed solutions do not cohere with the co-text—a problem that students should have spotted and rectified had they properly applied an argumentation-centred approach.
In all, 26.7% (8 students) mistranslated both key items and therefore seriously jeopardized transfer of the "grounds" component of the ST argument macrostructure. In the case of those students who rendered problem (2) with sufficient accuracy while mistranslating (1), it could be argued that, notwithstanding the failure of the analogy in TT, the ST argument is preserved. That being said, it is clear that any misinterpretation of the two key items reflected failure to exploit text-level resources and therefore indicated a failure to meet a major learning objective.

Note also the evaluative significance of these two argument-related items. Looking at the complete translations, we found that, in general, those who solved the two argumentation problems committed few errors elsewhere in the text, while those who had difficulty with the two items tended to misinterpret other elements. We can therefore suggest that performance in rendering key elements of reasoning is, in itself, a prime indicator of overall translation quality and progress.

7.3.2. Assignment B

Instead of getting help in the form of a summary in order to make their translation, the students were asked first to translate the selected passage, which comprised the last two paragraphs of the text, and then to revise their own translation in light of (1) the whole text, which they received after submitting their draft, (2) indications (T and L symbols) of problems in the draft and (3) general comments on the draft translations and the theme of the text by the instructor.

7.3.2.1. Text 10

ST length: 951 words
Text type: article for professional association periodical
Text mode: argumentative
Purpose: persuade reader that a number of problems have to be resolved before restorative justice can work satisfactorily
Justice réparatrice et victimes d'actes criminels : quelques enjeux

Mise à l'écart des victimes, indifférence face aux conséquences du crime, absence de réparation des torts causés: voilà autant de problèmes associés à la justice traditionnelle et auxquels la justice réparatrice entend apporter de meilleures réponses. On ne peut qu'y souscrire. Cependant, on a tendance à présenter une vision idéalisée des choses et à minimiser certains obstacles.

Des concepts comme le pardon, la guérison, la réconciliation, la réparation des torts causés sont difficiles à définir. On ne peut prétendre y arriver par des voies simples. Au Québec, le dossier des Orphelins de Duplessis en est une bonne illustration. Ces hommes et ces femmes, placés dans des institutions ou des orphelinats en bas âge, ont dénoncé la violence et les abus dont certaines communautés religieuses se seraient rendues coupables à leur endroit. Ils ont réclamé des indemnisations et des excuses de la part des autorités religieuses et de l'État. Ce dossier a soulevé maintes questions et le débat est loin d'être réglé. Qui sont les victimes? Comment faire la preuve que de tels abus ont été commis et identifier les responsables? Comment évaluer les torts causés et quelles sont les limites d'une "juste réparation"? Les excuses timides de notre Premier Ministre, les indemnisations proposées par le gouvernement québécois, l'attitude défensive des communautés religieuses: ces réponses n'ont guère contribué à redonner un sentiment de justice aux personnes qui mènent cette croisade depuis quelques années déjà.

Dans une entrevue qu'il accordait à La Presse le 10 mars 1999, Mgr Pierre Morissette posait ainsi le problème: "Est-ce que la meilleure manière d'aider les gens, ce sont des excuses et des compensations?". Il faut l'admettre : réparer les torts causés n'est pas si facile qu'on le croit... même dans les rangs de l'Église catholique. Il y a bien des manières de se défiler, de se déresponsabiliser.

Mais, avant de parler de réparation, ne faudrait-il pas d'abord admettre l'irréparable? Certaines blessures, qu'elles soient psychologiques ou physiques, laissent des empreintes indélébiles; certaines pertes ou dommages ne peuvent être compensés. Dans nombre de cas, les victimes ne retrouveront jamais leur qualité de vie, leur sérénité, leur sécurité, leur confiance en autrui... ou leurs proches. Reconnaître notre impuissance et les limites de ce que nous pouvons faire pour réparer les préjudices subis ne devrait-il pas être le premier geste pour exprimer notre sympathie envers les victimes?

On devrait comprendre aussi que plusieurs d'entre elles souhaitent oublier, faire le deuil et passer à autre chose. Elles ne veulent pas être confrontées de nouveau à ceux qui les ont agressées, exploitées ou qui ont abusé d'elles. Ni contribuer à leur réhabilitation ou pardonner. On peut facilement se servir d'elles sous prétexte de réconcilier les parties adverses, de récréer des liens entre le délinquant et la société.
De nombreuses questions devront être examinées quant à la participation des victimes, notamment aux programmes qui visent la médiation ou la résolution des conflits. On prêsume actuellement que de telles expériences se prêtent tout autant aux déliits violents qu'aux délits de moindre gravité en se basant sur la réussite de quelques cas. On est loin d'en avoir fait la preuve. Il faut se montrer prudents, évaluer rigoureusement les expériences passées et en cours, bien sélectionner les situations qui s'y prêtent le mieux.

À quelle étape du processus doit-on envisager les options liées à la justice réparatrice ? Dans plusieurs dossiers, il faut mettre en œuvre les mesures visant à responsabiliser le délinquant le plus rapidement possible afin qu'elles puissent avoir une portée éducative. Or, cet impératif peut être en contradiction avec les besoins des victimes. Pour se rétablir de l'impact d'un acte criminel, il faut du temps. Les réactions peuvent varier beaucoup d'une personne à une autre. Même dans le cas des atteintes à la propriété, comme l'ont démontré les enquêtes et de nombreuses études, les victimes traversent des périodes plus ou moins perturbées. On les sollicite à un moment qui est peut-être propice pour le délinquant mais qui ne l'est pas forcément pour elles. Il faut également se poser la question à savoir s'il est opportun de demander à la victime de participer à une rencontre avec l'agresseur lorsque des années se sont écoulées depuis la condamnation. Comment alors peser les intérêts des victimes et ceux des délinquants ? Comment s'assurer qu'on ne va pas raviver les blessures psychologiques ou provoquer de nouvelles souffrances ? Tout cela mérite réflexion.

Certes, il est souhaitable que certains conflits ou qu'une certaine criminalité "désertent" nos palais de justice et que la réparation des torts causés aux victimes puisse emprunter des voies comme la médiation, la résolution des conflits. Néanmoins, on ne saurait oublier que, pour beaucoup de victimes, le besoin de réparation passe aussi par le processus pénal, par un message non équivoque qui témoigne de la réprobation sociale des gestes posés, la volonté de dissuader et de protéger. La justice réparatrice ne peut fournir toutes les solutions. Elle n'est pas la seule voie. On écarte rapidement et trop facilement le rôle du système de justice traditionnel qu'il faut, par ailleurs, continuer à conjuguer afin qu'il modifie certaines façons de faire.

Si l'on veut que le modèle de justice réparatrice s'enracine davantage dans les mentalités et les pratiques, il faudra contrer les résistances, notamment celles qui viennent des victimes elles-mêmes ou des groupes qui les représentent ou leur prodiguent assistance. Il faudra surtout démontrer que les intérêts des victimes sont réellement pris en compte et apporter des réponses tangibles à leurs besoins. Autrement, il nous sera difficile de gagner le pari d'une justice nouvelle. Le discours actuel est séduisant mais la route est semée d'embûches que nous ne devons ni minimiser ni esquiver.
Restorative Justice and Victims of Criminal Acts: Some Issues

There are a number of problems with traditional justice that restorative justice is designed to solve—the fact that victims are left on the sidelines, the lack of concern for the consequences of crime, and the failure to repair the harm done. No one can dispute the need for action on these issues. However, there is a tendency to present an idealistic picture of the situation and underestimate certain obstacles.

Concepts like forgiveness, healing, reconciliation and reparation of harm are difficult to define. There is no short and easy way of coming to grips with them. The Duplessis Orphans case in Quebec is a good example. Men and women who had been placed in orphanages at a very young age spoke out about the violence and abuse they claimed to have suffered at the hands of certain religious communities. They demanded compensation and an apology from the religious authorities and the government. The case has raised a number of issues and it will be a while before it is settled. Who are the victims? How can it be proven that the abuse occurred? How can the perpetrators be identified? How does the system go about putting a value on the harm done and on "fair" reparation? The Premier’s feeble apology, the Quebec government’s compensation proposals, and the religious communities’ defensive posture have certainly not given the people who have been leading this crusade for several years now the feeling that justice is going to be done.

In an interview published in the March 10, 1999, edition of *La Presse*, Mgr. René Morissette described the problem in the following terms: "Are apologies and compensation the best way to help the victims?" The fact is that repairing harm done is not as easy as you think...even in the Catholic Church. There are many ways to escape blame and eschew responsibility.

But before we discuss reparation, perhaps we should first of all admit that some things are irreparable. Some psychological and physical wounds leave an indelible mark. Some losses and damages cannot be compensated for, no matter what or how much is offered. Many victims never recover the quality of life, the peace of mind, the feeling of being safe and secure, the trust in others, even in those close to them, that they once had. So recognizing our powerlessness to repair harm, or how limited our power is, should perhaps be the first step in expressing our sympathy for victims.

We should also realize that many of them just want to forget, resign themselves to what happened and get on with their lives. They have no desire to face their aggressors, exploiters or abusers again, to help with their rehabilitation, or to forgive them. It could be very easy to take advantage of them on the pretext that we were trying to bring about a reconciliation between the parties or re-establish ties between the offender and the community.
Many questions have to be addressed regarding victims’ participation in such activities as mediation and resolution programs. Nowadays people assume, on the strength of a few success stories, that these methods can be used just as much in cases of violent crime as in cases of less serious offences. But the truth is that they have yet to prove their effectiveness in all cases. We have to proceed with due caution, fully evaluate past and current experiments, and carefully select the situations most appropriate for an experimental approach.

At what stage should restorative justice approaches be considered? In many cases, measures to make the offender accountable must be set in motion as quickly as possible so that their educational objectives can be achieved. However, this requirement may clash with the victims’ own needs. It takes time to recover from a crime, and people’s reactions differ widely. As victim surveys and many studies have shown, even victims of crimes against property go through a period during which their lives are in disarray. As a result, their participation may be sought at a time that is suitable for the offender but not for them. Another issue is whether it is right to ask a victim to meet the aggressor several years after the sentence was handed down. How do we reconcile the interests of victims and offenders in such situations? How do we ensure that we don’t open up old psychological wounds or even cause further suffering? We have to consider all these issues seriously before adopting restorative justice wholesale.

Of course, it would be a step forward if certain conflicts and offences were removed from the law courts and if harm caused to victims were dealt with through mediation and conflict resolution. However, we should not lose sight of the fact that, for many victims, reparation necessarily involves the traditional criminal justice process: they want the court to send a clear message reflecting society’s condemnation of the acts perpetrated and its commitment to deterrence and protection. Restorative justice cannot provide all the answers. It is not the only way to solve our problems. The traditional system of justice needs to be challenged so that some changes can be made to it, but that does not mean that it should be peremptorily cast aside, as many tend to do.

If we want people and our legal practices to embrace the restorative model, we will have to counter opposition to it, particularly from the victims themselves and the groups that represent and support them. Above all, we will have to show that victims’ interests really are taken into account and meet their needs in a tangible way. Otherwise, it will be difficult to make the new model a reality. The arguments in favour of restorative justice are powerful ones, but many obstacles stand between us and our ultimate goal—obstacles that we must not avoid or underestimate but tackle head on.
7.3.2.2. **Analysis**

1. *ST argument macrostructure/organizational relations: arrangement*

   **Arrangement**

   1. **Introduction**—**Argument 1**: presents problems of the traditional criminal justice system that restorative justice is designed to remedy.

   2. **Argument 2**: this is an idealistic view of restorative justice, because, as the Duplessis Orphans case showed, it is in fact very difficult to repair harm to the satisfaction of all those concerned.

   3. **Argument 3**: circumstances that prevent restorative justice from working

      - Some harm is irreparable
      - Some victims just want to forget

   4. **Argument 4**: circumstances (issues) that have to be considered before restorative justice can work

      - Timing
      - Danger of opening up old wounds

   5. **Conclusion**—**Argument 5**: the traditional and restorative justice models need to be combined, and we must show that victims’ interests are really taken into account.

The arrangement is a variation on the argument–counterargument process in Text 9. Here, argument 1 is not so much countered as qualified by arguments 2, 3 and 4, inasmuch that the author is not saying that the restorative model cannot work, but that there are impediments to its effectiveness. Argument 5 is, in fact, the synthesis of the argument (thesis) and counterargument (antithesis), suggesting restorative justice can work if a realistic approach, entailing a renewal of the traditional justice system, is taken.
**Argum##n macrostructure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macrostructure element</th>
<th>Identification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grounds</td>
<td>Duplessis Orphans case</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Irreparability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Victims just want to forget</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Timing</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Danger of opening up wounds</td>
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<td>Victims’ need for traditional (punitive) justice</td>
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<tr>
<td>Claims</td>
<td>1. Restorative justice idealistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Restorative justice can work with realism and due consideration of items listed above</td>
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<td>Warrant</td>
<td>Role of criminal justice system as a protector of victims</td>
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<td>Backing</td>
<td>Ethical values of retribution</td>
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<td>Qualifier(s)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rebuttal(s)/Restriction(s)</td>
<td>In response to claim 1, restorative justice will not work <em>unless</em> it incorporates elements of traditional justice</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Organizational relations

The binary relation of thesis–antithesis (argument–counterargument) develops into a triadic structure with the synthesis in the conclusion. The binary structures are appearance–reality (restorative justice ideal–reality of Duplessis Orphans case, etc.) and example/evidence–claim.

2. Argumentation-centred TQA

The assignment passage was chosen because of its high level of difficulty for the students concerned, because of its strong argumentative relationship with co-text, and because of the intricate propositional development in the two paragraphs.

Function of passage for translation within argument macrostructure

The two paragraphs form the author’s definitive claim, after he has reviewed the various issues: For restorative justice to be effective, it must be combined with traditional criminal justice and a determination of victims’ real, as well as perceived, needs. The objective in each paragraph is thus to temper enthusiasm for restorative justice and inject realism into the debate.

Propositional structure of passage

In line with the underlying thesis–antithesis structure running through the document, qualification is the primary propositional function. The passage for translation is replete with propositions qualifying, or contrasting with, the preceding proposition.

1. *Certes...* : qualification—proposition re-establishes goal of restorative justice following enumeration of stumbling blocks in preceding paragraph

2. *Néanmoins...* : qualification of preceding qualification—need to consider many victims’ requirements for traditional punishment
3. *La justice réparatrice... toutes les solutions:* clarification—reformulation of idea of limitations of restorative justice

4. *On écarte... système de justice traditionnel:* elaboration of second qualification, introducing traditional justice as part of the solution

5. *Qu'il faut, par ailleurs,...:* qualification of elaboration—traditional system must be continually challenged and changed

6. *Si l'on veut...:* generalization, but also qualification of 2—response to victims’ needs for punishment

7. *Il faudra surtout...:* elaboration of 6

8. *Autrement...:* qualification of 7

9. *Le discours... mais... esquiver:* generalizing conclusion reiterating attractiveness of argument for restorative justice and at the same time qualifying its potential success

The challenge for the translator is to bring out clearly the constant alternation between thesis and antithesis, or argument and counterargument, and to lend the right emphasis to the numerous qualifications. Note that, since this passage conveys the final, summarizing claim, defects are likely to affect the core meaning of the text.

**Results of draft translation**

Examination of the drafts revealed a number of transfer problems, including the following:

- *criminalité, réparation/réparative, des voies comme la médiation, la résolution des conflits, gestes posés, par ailleurs and surrounding elements, prodiguent, gagner le pari d’une justice nouvelle, discours actuel, semée d’embûches*
The meaning of the items in boldface could be elucidated with the help of information elsewhere in the full text. Here is a selection of defective draft translations of these items, along with the students’ revised translations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Draft</th>
<th>Final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. facing actions</td>
<td>Over acts committed [sic]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. of these acts</td>
<td>Of these acts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. appropriate to the act committed</td>
<td>Appropriate to the act committed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. not rendered</td>
<td>Not rendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. towards peaceful actions</td>
<td>Of the acts committed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. of those heinous acts</td>
<td>For those criminal acts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. message of “punishment fit for the crime”</td>
<td>Message of “punishment fit for the crime”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. against proposed actions</td>
<td>Of criminal acts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. against proposed actions</td>
<td>Of the act committed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. left in French with question mark</td>
<td>Of the crimes committed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. of these acts</td>
<td>Of these acts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. of the acts</td>
<td>Of the acts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Setting aside problems of prepositional usage and assuming that the word act(s) needs to be qualified by something more concrete the demonstrative, we can say that, of the 12 defective translations above, six (1, 5, 6, 8, 9 and 10) were corrected or at least improved upon in the final version.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Draft: The role of the traditional justice system is quickly and all too easily brushed aside that it is necessary, <em>by all means</em>, to keep challenging it so as to change the way certain things are done.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Final: We quickly—and all too easily—dismiss the role of the traditional justice system, <em>but</em> we keep wanting it to change the way certain things are done.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. |
| Draft: The role of the traditional justice system is dismissed too quickly and too easily, *which must* continue to be confronted in order to modify conventional ways of operating. |
| Final: The role of the traditional justice system is dismissed to quickly and easily. *Moreover,* this system must continue to be examined in order to modify the conventional ways of operation. |

3. |
| Draft: [*combined with previous sentence*] ...it is only one alternative to the traditional justice system which is often quickly and too easily dismissed. The latter must *instead* be continually challenged in order to bring about change. |
| Final: Often quickly and too easily dismissed, the role of the traditional system must *instead* be continually challenged in order to bring about change. |

4. |
| Draft: The role of traditional litigation is too quickly and too easily dismissed, *although* some of its practices should be challenged in order to be modified. |
| Final: The role of traditional litigation is too quickly and too easily dismissed, *since* some of its practices must be continually challenged in order to be modified. |

5. |
| Draft: The role of the traditional justice system, *which needs* to be confronted continuously so that it modifies some of its ways, is separated too quickly and easily. |
Final: The role of the traditional justice system, which needs to be confronted continuously so that it modifies some of its ways, is dismissed too quickly and easily.

6.

Draft: A quick dismissal of the very easy role of the traditional justice system is necessary. Moreover, it continues to confront as long as it modifies certain ways of doing things.

Final: The function of the traditional justice system is too quickly and too easily dismissed because it must continue to be confronted to be modified.

7.

Draft: We too quickly and easily brush aside the traditional justice system when we should continue to confront it until certain practices are modified.

Final: We too quickly and easily brush aside the traditional justice system when, in fact, we should continue to confront it until certain practices are modified.

8.

Draft: We quickly and too easily confront the role of the traditional justice system in continuing to confront crime before it can adjust to the ever changing ways of doing so.

Final: We quickly and too easily confront the role of the traditional justice system that it must also continue to confront crime before it can adjust to the ever changing ways of doing so.

9.

Draft: We reject quickly and too easily the role of the traditional justice system, which, moreover, we must continue to confront in order for it to change its way of dealing with things.

Final: We reject quickly and too easily the role of the traditional justice system, when, in fact, we must continue to confront it in order for it to change our methods.

10.

Draft: The traditional justice system is being dismissed too easily and too quickly, however, the system must continue to be used until certain methods are modified.

Final: The traditional justice system is being dismissed too easily and too quickly. However, the system must continue to be used until certain methods are modified.
11.

Draft: We dismiss, too quickly and easily, the role of the traditional justice system *rather than* working to improve it.

Final: *Idem.*

12.

Draft: We too easily put aside the role of the traditional justice system *which* goes on confronting wrong doing [*sic*] in order to change it.

Final: The role of the traditional justice system is dismissed to quickly and easily. *Moreover,* this system must continue to be examined in order to modify the conventional ways of operation.

13.

Draft: We are moving away from the role of the traditional justice system too quickly and too easily. We must, *however,* continue to confront it in order to modify certain behaviours.

Final: *Idem.*

14.

Draft: We too quickly and easily move away from the role of the traditional justice system *that* we must continue to confront it until certain ways are changed.

Final: We too quickly and easily brush aside the role of the traditional justice system; *however,* we must continue to confront it until certain ways are changed.

15.

Draft: We quickly and too easily dismiss the role of the traditional justice system that one should *otherwise* continue to confront in order to modify certain approaches.

Final: We quickly and too easily dismiss the role of the traditional justice system *that* we should continue to confront in order to modify certain approaches.

16.

Draft: Quickly and easily, the traditional justice system—*which* must *still* be confronted in order to modify its ways of doing—is brushed aside.

Final: Too quickly and easily, the traditional justice system is brushed aside; *yet* this system
must still be confronted in order to alter its means of operation.

17. Draft: In addition, the role of the traditional justice system is easily and quickly dismissed. It’s necessary to continue to confront this system in order to modify certain practices.

Final: Also, the role of the traditional justice system is easily and quickly dismissed. It’s necessary to continue to confront this system in order to modify certain practices.

Assessment

The ST sentence is the culmination of (1) a syllogistic argument combined with (2) an argument from comparison, and specifically from difference and contraries:

(1) Punishment is a form of retribution demanded by victims.
Punishment is part of the traditional justice system.
Therefore the traditional justice system must continue to exist.

The syllogism is, of course, based on the legal and ethical principle that victims must be compensated in some way.

(2) Restorative justice is not the only solution (implication: others are valid)
Specifically, traditional justice should not be cast aside; on the contrary, it needs to be challenged and modified.
Both 1 and 2 build on, and essentially summarize, the thesis–antithesis–synthesis forming the argumentative backbone of the text.

There is ample information elsewhere in the text for the students to grasp the restorative vs. traditional justice dynamic. In addition, the use of *par ailleurs* as an additive and adversative had been explained to them with the help of several examples, and they were asked, when reviewing their drafts, to reconsider the relationship created by the conjunctive. Note that some students had correctly recognized its adversative nature but had rendered it by *although*, followed by a subordinate clause, and had thus lost the emphasis placed in ST on the second clause, which, though grammatically subordinate, functions like a co-ordinate clause. Others had used an adversative conjunctive (*however, but*) with a co-ordinate clause and were asked to consider whether a different conjunctive would more accurately render the nature of the contrast, since the argument in the sentence is clearly one from contraries, not from difference *per se*. Thus *on the contrary*, *instead* or *in (actual) fact* would have been more accurate.

What were the results?

Of the 17 revised translations above, 5 contain improvements from additive, no conjunctive or inappropriate adversative to adversative or more appropriate adversative (1, 7, 9, 14, 16); 3 retain weak or inappropriate adversatives (3, 10, 11); 3 retain additive conjunctives (4, 6, 17); 1 still lacks a conjunctive of either type (5); 3 add an additive (2, 8, 15); 1 indicates a switch from inappropriate adversative to no conjunctive (15); and 1, already containing a correct rendering of the conjunctive, includes a correction elsewhere (3).

Thus 35% (6/17) of students who submitted defective draft translations of this particular sentence made no improvements after receiving the full text, information on the concepts involved, and some direction on how to resolve the problem. This suggests not a fundamental
misunderstanding of the French but an inability to grasp, or render with sufficient precision and accuracy, the chain of reasoning both in the passage and in the text as a whole. Since the revised translations were to be assessed in light of the argumentation-centred learning objectives of the course, the grades would have to reflect this deficiency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Draft</th>
<th>Final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Winning the bet on a new justice</td>
<td>Beating the odds on a new justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Arrive at a new justice system</td>
<td>Gain a new justice system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The likelihood of a new justice system</td>
<td>The likelihood of any new form of justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. All bets are off when it comes to this new form of justice</td>
<td>Face great difficulties in renewing the justice system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Difficult to attain a new justice system</td>
<td>Difficult to establish a new justice system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Attaining a new justice system</td>
<td>Idem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Winning the gamble with a new justice system</td>
<td>Moving ahead with a new justice system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Win over the public with a new justice system</td>
<td>For a new justice system to succeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. For a new justice system to prevail</td>
<td>For a new justice system to win acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Win our bid for a new justice system</td>
<td>Achieve this new kind of justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Attain a new justice system</td>
<td>Idem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Winning the wage against a new justice system</td>
<td>Creating a new justice system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Take a gamble on the new justice system</td>
<td>Idem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Make a successful gamble on the new justice system</td>
<td>Achieve a new justice system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Win the support of a new justice</td>
<td>Win the support for a new justice system</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
16. Establish a new justice system  
17. Benefit from a new justice system  
18. Win the gamble of a new justice system  
19. To have a new justice system  
20. Win a new justice wager  
21. Winning the wager for a new law

| Idem |
| Idem |
| Succeed in creating a new justice system |
| Idem |
| Promote this new type of justice |
| Winning the gamble for a new law |

**Assessment**

What is particularly interesting about this metaphor is that it is not just ornamental. It is an integral part of the meaning of discourse (Lakoff 1980: 34)—indeed, it is part of the claim and thus of the argument, or reasoning, of the text (Billig 1996: 64). Clearly, there is an aesthetic element, given the literary and philosophical past of the *pari*. However, for the student, the primary objective is to fit the English equivalent logically into the chain of reasoning.

From this perspective, only draft translations 8 and 9 indicate an attempt to interpret the denotative sense of the metaphor and thereby make its argumentative contribution limpid. Some students made a commendable attempt to interpret, with verbs like *attain* and *have*, but the author’s point, running through the article, is not only that a new (restorative) justice system should exist—it already does to some extent—but also that it should prove to be effective in some way.

The fact that Nos. 8 and 9 were two of the four revised translations to convey the notion of effectiveness is yet another illustration of the difficulty in shifting from a microtextual, dictionary-based approach, reflected in attempts to preserve the gambling metaphor, to a textological, argumentation-centred approach to translation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Draft</th>
<th>Final</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Current talks</td>
<td>Current views</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The current address</td>
<td>The current talk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The present rhetoric</td>
<td>The preceding rationale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Current discussions</td>
<td>These new ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The current situation</td>
<td>The current views</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The current view</td>
<td>All this talk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The whole idea</td>
<td><em>Idem</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The current discourse</td>
<td>The current rhetoric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The concept of a restorative discourse</td>
<td>The argument for a restorative justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. It all sounds good in theory</td>
<td>The current rhetoric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. The present situation</td>
<td>These present views</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. The current discussion</td>
<td><em>Idem</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. The present views</td>
<td>The present argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Current talk</td>
<td>The current discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Actual talk (is expected)</td>
<td>Present discussions (are tempting)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. The concept</td>
<td>The current views</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. The present discourse</td>
<td>The present argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. The current view (is holding)</td>
<td>The current system (is enticing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Current ideas</td>
<td><em>Idem</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. The whole idea</td>
<td>This new justice system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. The current speech</td>
<td>The current ideology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. This position</td>
<td>This speech</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Assessment

The final sentence of the text conveys yet another thesis (the ideal of restorative justice)—antithesis (problems of implementation) argument. As such, it echoes the binary argument structure running through the text, and the student who has assimilated the full text should not have a problem interpreting “Le discours actuel...” as “The argument currently being made in favour of restorative justice...” That being said, draft translations 7, 9, 10 and 18 are adequate in that they fit well into the propositional development of the passage. Revised translation 9 is an improvement on an already acceptable rendering, but otherwise the revisions did not bring significant improvement. Even in 17, where discourse is correctly replaced with argument, the use of the adjective present makes for ambiguity: Which argument? The one presently being made by the author? Many of the students preserved the adjective (or its synonym, current) without specifying the substance of the argument and thereby obviating any ambiguity.

7.3.2.3. Preliminary observations

Our first purpose, in considering this text and the four specific translation difficulties detected in students’ translations, was to examine the extent to which solutions could have been, or had necessarily to be, found with the aid of an argumentation-centred approach. In all four cases, an understanding of the arguments in the preceding text, and the application of that understanding, would have been very helpful in elucidating the sense of the target phrases and sentences, and a few students did take advantage of the opportunity to revise their translations with the benefit of the additional knowledge.

Our second purpose, closely associated with the first, was to determine the implications for an argumentation-centred approach to TQA. We can draw a number of tentative conclusions:
(1) Even in selecting a passage for translation from a longer text, the evaluator must base his own understanding of that passage on his interpretation of the whole.

(2) It follows that the assessment of quality of transfer must be based on input from the whole text.

(3) In a text with a strong chain of reasoning/arguments, as in this one, many propositions participate in the argument macrostructure—to wit, the reiteration of the argument-counterargument structure. Therefore, many translations are about one or more components of the argument macrostructure and, accordingly, defects may be considered major or critical. At the same time, the very reiteration means that defects at one point may be compensated for elsewhere. Consider the following revised translations (errors are highlighted by underlining, specific errors of transfer by underlining and italics):

**Translation A**

Certainly, it is desirable that certain conflicts or certain criminal acts are dealt with outside the law courts and that victims are compensated \((T—\text{shift})\) through other mediums, such as mediation and conflict resolution. Nevertheless, it cannot be forgotten that for many victims, compensation \((T—\text{error repeated})\) begins by having the criminals punished, with a clear message that displays societies \((L—\text{grammar, punctuation})\) disapproval towards \((L—\text{prepositional usage})\) criminal acts; \((L—\text{punctuation})\) the will to deter and protect. A restorative justice system does not have all the answers. There are other systems available. The traditional justice system is being dismissed too easily and too quickly. However \((T—\text{wrong logical link})\), the system should be used until other methods are modified \((Major \ T—\text{mistranslation})\).

If we want the ideals of the restorative justice system to be enforced \((T—\text{mistranslation})\) in public mentalities and practices, it \((T—\text{wrong antecedent})\) will need to counter all resistance,
especially resistance coming from the victims themselves, or groups that represent or give advice to the victims. There (T—mistranslation) would (T—tense) be a need to show that victim’s interests are taken into consideration and that we are obtaining tangible answers to their needs. Otherwise, it will be difficult to win the (L—article) support (T—mistranslation) for a new justice system. Present discussions (T—mistranslation) are tempting but the road ahead has many potholes that cannot be minimised nor (L—wrong conjunction, parallelism) dodged.

Translation B

Admittedly, it is desirable that some conflicts or certain crimes desert our courts and that wrongs brought onto (L—usage) victims be redressed by means such as mediation or the conflict resolution. Nevertheless, we should not forget that, for many victims, the need for restoration (L—terminology) goes through the penal process, an unmistakable message that shows the society’s reprobation of the acts committed, and its intention to dissuade and to protect. Restorative justice cannot offer all the answers and is not the only way. The role of the traditional justice system, which (T—wrong logical link) needs to be confronted continuously so that it modifies some of its ways, is dismissed too quickly and easily.

If we want the model of a restorative justice to further establish itself in people’s minds and practices, resistance must be countered, especially that which comes from the victims themselves or the groups that represent them and provide them with assistance. It must be shown that the victims’ interests are truly taken into account and that tangible answers to their needs are provided. Otherwise, it will be difficult to establish (T—mistranslation) a new justice system. The current views (T—mistranslation) are tempting, but the road is filled with pitfalls (L—usage), which should be neither minimized nor avoided.

Translation A is fairly accurate except for the last sentence of the first paragraph. The misinterpretation is such that it cannot be compensated for: the reader infers that the “system”—
is it the restorative or the traditional one?—will be eliminated once changes are made. This contradicts the author’s thesis that the objective should be a blend of both systems. Number of errors: 1 major translation error; 9 minor translation errors; 4 minor language errors.

In Translation B, in spite of failure to render *par ailleurs, gagner le pari* and *discours actuel* with full accuracy, the argument–counterargument–synthesis process is not upset, and the required balance between the traditional and restorative systems, already conveyed in the opening two sentences of the passage, effectively compensates for the above defects. Number of errors: 4 minor translation errors; 2 minor language errors.

What does a quantitative TQA tell us? Essentially, it confirms that Translation B is significantly better than A. The advantage of the ARTRAQ model is that it *explains* the difference in quality though the very process of assessment. In short, it is both normative (prescriptive) and explanatory.

(4) Argumentation-centred TQA may therefore be a tool for both formative and summative assessment in that the student is prompted to move from the word and the dictionary to the text and its internal relations to solve problems.
7.4. **Full-text translation**

The fourth example is taken from a practicum course offered to undergraduates in their final year. A group of students runs a translation, bilingual revision and editing service under the guidance of two professors, charging clients for texts that vary widely in subject matter and length. Thus they have the opportunity to gain invaluable experience working on voluminous documents.

For the purposes of this study, the course provided material to which argumentation-centred, discourse-based TQA could be applied without the constraints of text length.

7.4.1. **Text 11**

ST length: 6000 words
Text type: article for publication in scholarly journal
Text mode: argumentative and explanatory
Areas of specialization: political science, statistics
Purpose: prove hypotheses revolving around the premise that, contrary to contentions of other experts, feminist women in Canadian politics do not constitute a monolithic group

1. *ST argument macrostructure/organizational relations/arrangement*

**Arrangement**

1. **Introduction**

**Argument 1:** Feminist women share common identity and objectives.

**Argument 2 (counterargument):** emergence of Black and lesbian feminist women indicates that feminist women in general have different identities and objectives.

**Hypothesis 1:** Feminist women in Canadian politics are not a monolithic group, even within individual parties.
**Corollary hypothesis:** If the hypothesis is correct, this will raise questions as to the purpose of electing women in politics.

2. **Review of literature (narratio)**

3. **Statement of thesis (confirmatio)**
   - **Hypothesis 1 reiterated**
   - **Hypothesis 2:** All Canadian political parties have both conservative and liberal feminist women in their ranks.

4. **Methods (confirmatio, cont.):** survey and calculation of social liberalism and feminism indices.

5. **Results (confirmatio cont. and refutatio):**
   - **Hypothesis 1 reiterated.** Evidence (results of survey, indices) indicates that it is correct.
   - **Hypothesis 2 reiterated.** Evidence (results of survey, indices) indicates that it is correct.
   - **Hypothesis 2 refined:** Forces influencing feminist women in centre and centre-left parties are different from those influencing feminist women in right-wing parties (party, feminist consciousness and social liberalism are stronger forces in the former case; only social liberalism in the latter).

6. **Conclusion (confirmatio cont. and refutatio):**
   - **Hypothesis 1 and 2 confirmed.**
   - **Conclusion 1:** Feminism is not a unified movement.
   - **Conclusion 2:** This diversity is an asset for political representation of women.
   - **Conclusion 3:** Canadian political parties are less unified than they appear, as illustrated by issue of strategies to increase the number of women seeking political office.

**Main lesson of article:** Political representation of women depends more on the election of feminist women with a liberal political orientation, not just the election of women or even feminist women.
Organizational relations

While the binary structure is one of hypothesis–evidence, what is of particular relevance here is the author's systematic reiteration of her hypotheses, to ensure coherence and to reinforce her refutation of the positions taken by other scholars. *The translator therefore has ample opportunity to grasp, and accurately render, the author's main points.*

Argument macrostructure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macrostructure element</th>
<th>Identification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Claims</strong></td>
<td>Hypotheses:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Feminist women in Canadian politics are not a monolithic group, i.e, do not share common identity and objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Canadian political parties have both conservative and liberal feminist women in their ranks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Political representation of women is better served by the election of feminist women with a liberal orientation than by the election of just women or feminist women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grounds</strong></td>
<td>Evidence from survey; statistical indices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Warrant</strong></td>
<td>Statistical methodology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Backing</strong></td>
<td>Reliability of statistics; feminist ideology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Qualifier(s)</strong></td>
<td>&quot;suggère&quot; used in referring to hypotheses (scientific caution)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rebuttal(s)/ Restriction(s)</strong></td>
<td>Hypothesis 3 is a restriction of Hypothesis 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note that the goal of increasing the number of women in politics (elected office) is not supported in the article by any overt grounds or backing; it is a given, a basic tenet admitting of no discussion.

2. Argumentation-centred TQA

Just as the hypotheses are reiterated, so statistics run through the text as proof of those claims. The reasoning is thus clear-cut: the interplay between grounds (statistical evidence) and claims (hypotheses) is constant. It follows that the translator, in dealing with specific translation problems, can use the statistics–hypotheses interplay as a framework for finding a solution. Any proposed translation has to fit in with the logic that links grounds to claims. In this case, has the translator taken advantage of that logic? Furthermore, since that interplay is ever-present, the translator is always dealing with a part of a ground of a claim, that is, a part of the semantic core of the text. The following passages illustrate the consequences of these constraints from a TQA perspective.

**ST passage 1**
Partant de ce constat, nous avons divisé les femmes féministes selon deux catégories, soit les femmes féministes conservatrices et les féministes libérales. Nous avons ainsi procédé pour donner plus de force à nos analyses. *En effet*, la catégorie des féministes conservatrices comptant un maximum de 24 femmes, cela réduisait considérablement la portée de l'outil statistique. *Aussi*, nous avons identifié la médiane de la catégorie des femmes féministes à orientation idéologique centriste et avons regroupé la moitié inférieure avec la catégorie des féministes conservatrices et la moitié supérieure avec les féministes libérales. Autrement dit, toutes les féministes à orientation idéologique centriste dont le MSLI variait entre 3.30 et 3.60 ont été ajoutées à la catégorie des féministes conservatrices et celles dont le MSLI variait entre 3.61 et 3.99 sont allées rejoindre les rangs des féministes conservatrices. Cette méthode a donné lieu à une catégorie de féministes conservatrices constituée de 58 femmes et une catégorie de féministes libérales composée de 148 femmes.

**TT passage 1**
Based on this conclusion, we have divided feminist women into two categories: conservative feminist women and liberal feminist women, in order to give further strength to our analyses. *In fact*, the conservative feminist women category has a maximum of 24 women which reduces considerably the impact of this statistical tool. We *also* identified the median of the middle-of-the-road feminist women category and
grouped the bottom half with the conservative feminist women category, and the top half with the liberal feminist women category. In other words, all middle-of-the-road feminist women whose MSKI varies between 3.30 and 3.60 have been added to the conservative feminist women category, and those with a MSLI between 3.61 and 3.99 are now in the liberal feminist women category. This method of organizing gives us a conservative feminist women category with 58 women and a liberal feminist category with 148 women.

Assessment

In terms of argument macrostructure, the author is establishing the grounds for her argument by determining how to categorize feminist women respondents to the survey and calculating the number of respondents in each category accordingly. Note that this involves a deliberate shift from the original definition of conservative and liberal feminist women used in the survey to one where each of these two categories incorporates a portion of the middle-of-the road feminist women category. In terms of type of argument, the author thus proceeds by argument from definition, redistributing respondents on the basis of a redefinition of the liberal and conservative categories in order to give the statistical results more weight. The new definitions are thus integral parts of the grounds.

In TT, the translator fails to interpret the logic behind the redefinition because she assumes the primary meaning of aussi to be appropriate here. The function of the aussi proposition as a consequence of the preceding proposition—that, on the basis of the raw survey results, there is a maximum of only 24 conservative feminist women—is lost. Admittedly, the reader may well grasp the author’s logic from the information in the rest of the paragraph, and in particular the sentence beginning “This method of organizing gives us... with 58 women...”

ST passage 2

Finalement, un dernier constat qui ressort du tableau 2 veut que certaines féministes adoptent des positions contraires aux revendications traditionnelles du mouvement féministe de la deuxième vague. C’est particulièrement vrai pour les propositions qui composent le Measure Index. Ainsi, 43,1 % des féministes conservatrices s’opposent à ce que les partis politiques établissent des quotas en faveur des femmes et 29,8 % s’opposent à ce que les partis politiques accordent un soutien financier particulier aux
candidates (mesure qui, au demeurant, existe déjà dans certains partis politiques canadiens). La question des quotas divise profondément le mouvement féministe, même parmi les féministes libérales, comme l’illustre la distribution bi-modale de leurs réponses à cette question : près de deux féministes libérales sur cinq s’opposent à l’adoption de quotas par les partis politiques, cette proportion frisant trois féministes sur quatre chez les conservatrices. Sur cette question, la différence entre les féministes conservatrices et les féministes libérales est très marquée. Ces résultats sont troublants puisque la proposition était formulée de façon à lui conférer une certaine légitimité en établissant un parallèle entre, d’une part, la proportion de candidates et de candidats et, d’autre part, la proportion de femmes et d’hommes dans la société; en d’autres termes, cette proposition interpellaït l’idée de parité femmes-hommes en politique. En fait, il n’y a qu’à considérer les débats qu’a connus la France à propos de la parité pour se convaincre des tensions que fait naître cette idée.

**TT passage 2**

Finally, a last conclusion can be drawn from Table 2: certain women adopt positions contrary to traditional demands of the second-wave feminist movement. This is particularly true for the propositions which make up the Measure Index. *Therefore*, 43.1% of conservative feminist women do not think that political parties should set quotas for women and 29.8% do not at all believe that political parties should provide special financial support to women candidates (a measure which *after all* exists in some Canadian political parties). The question of quotas profoundly divides the feminist movement, even amongst liberal women, as shown in the bi-modal distribution of their responses on this topic: almost two *feminists* out of five do not agree with the adoption of quotas for political parties. As for conservative feminists, almost three out of five do not think quotas should be used. On this topic, there is a noticeable difference between conservative feminists and liberal feminists. The results are disturbing since the question was formulated in order in such a way as to give legitimacy to establishing a parallel between, on the one hand, the proportion of female and male candidates and, on the other hand, the percentage of women and men in society. In other words, this question *challenges* the idea of male-female equality in politics. In fact, we only have to watch the debates that have taken place in France on this matter to convince ourselves of the tensions that were borne of this idea.

**Assessment**

As a comparison of the italicized ST items and the corresponding TT translations shows, the translator has once again not used the very clear logic of the overall argument to interpret microtextual elements that, taken in isolation, cause her problems. In this paragraph the author makes an argument from testimony, based on statistical data, to back up the claim in the first sentence. The function of the *Ainsi* proposition is one not of consequence but of clarification or exemplification, but the translator does not recognize it as such. The omission of a translation
for libérales and the mistranslation of interpellait, which amounts to a contradiction of the ST meaning, are more serious defects because the result is a misrepresentation of another claim, pertaining to the conflict between feminist diversity in Canadian politics and the need to increase political representation of women. The force of the claim is severely undermined in TT.

**ST passage 3**

Une première conclusion consiste à suggérer que, contrairement à l’impression d’unité qu’il projette, le féminisme n’a rien d’un mouvement unifié; il se tisse plutôt d’idées sur lesquelles les femmes qui s’en réclament ne s’entendent pas. En d’autres termes, il n’y a pas une seule et unique façon d’être féministe, de même que la pensée féministe ne peut se limiter à un ensemble de préceptes fermement emboités les uns dans les autres, à la manière d’un jeu de logo. Il faut dire que cette diversité au sein du féminisme n’est pas nouvelle; elle a animé le mouvement féministe de la deuxième vague, où se côtoyait les féministes libérales, socialistes, marxistes, et celles du courant psychanalytique, entre autres tendances. Aussi, une seconde conclusion veut interpréter cette diversité parmi les femmes féministes non comme une limite, mais bien comme un atout pour la représentation politique des femmes. Cette diversité permet au féminisme de se manifester sous des formes diverses et selon des intensités plurielles. Bien que les féministes conservatrices soient plus timidèse que les féministes libérales dans leur engagement face à certaines idées généralement associées au féminisme, elles permettent néanmoins à ces idées d’accéder aux zones conservatrices de l’espace politique canadien — à des zones où ces idées ne pourraient peut-être même pas accéder en leur absence. Autrement dit, les messagères adaptent le message à l’environnement où il est appelé à s’exprimer. Il reste à voir maintenant si les féministes conservatrices expriment effectivement ces idées généralement associées au féminisme dans les châteaux forts du conservatisme canadien et, le cas échéant, si elles agissent en conséquence.

**TT passage 3**

A first conclusion suggests that contrary to the impression of unity that it projects, feminism is not a unified movement; it is woven from ideas on which women do not claim to necessarily agree (T—mistranslation). In other words, there is no one method to being a feminist, in the same way as feminist thought is not limited to a set of ideas firmly entrenched in stone (Major T—mistranslation). It must be said that this diversity within feminism is not new; it has given life to the second-wave feminist movement where liberal, socialist, Marxist and psychoanalytic feminists border on other trends (Major T—mistranslation). A second conclusion interprets these diversities amongst feminist women not as a liability, but as an asset with a view to the representation of women in politics. This diversity allows feminism to manifest itself in different shapes with varying intensities. Although conservative feminist women are no more (Major T—
mistranslation, contradiction) hesitant than liberal feminist women in supporting certain ideas generally associated with feminism, they have allowed these ideas to enter conservative areas in the Canadian political arena, areas where these ideas could not even exist if they were absent. In other words, the messengers adapt the message to the environment in which it will be expressed. It remains to be seen whether conservative feminist women will effectively express those ideas generally associated with feminism within very conservative areas and if so, to see whether they will then act on them.

Assessment

The third passage contains two of the three conclusions of the article, and again, the translator does not exploit the clear logic of the evidence-claim arguments established and reiterated by the author. In the second sentence, for example, the author uses the elaboration propositional function to develop her claim (conclusion 1) of feminist diversity, arguing by means of the logo (read Lego) metaphor that feminist ideas are not necessarily interrelated, and defining the diversity of the earlier, second-wave feminist movement as the coexistence of a number of feminist schools of thought described at the beginning of the document. The translator renders neither the idea of interrelatedness nor that of coexistence, and the author’s elaboration of the diversity claim is thus severely diminished. In addition, the error in tense (“has given life”) gives the reader the impression that the second-wave movement is a present-day phenomenon.

By the same token, the translator’s misunderstanding of the metaphor generates a concomitant failure to render an argument from definition (division) bearing on the composition of the feminist movement.

The author’s elaboration of the second conclusion is also compromised in TT because of the translation “are no more hesitant.” Again, the logic of the text indicates that such a rendering is bound to be erroneous. In addition, the argument from comparison (degree) is lost.

In terms of reasoning structure, both conclusions are final and are followed by elaboration propositions functioning as explanations/elaborations and thus as reasons for them. In both cases, the reasoning structure is seriously undermined in TT
The personalization of abstract concepts (conclusion, diversité) that is typical of scientific discourse is adequately rendered by the translator. Note also the qualifiers in consiste à suggérer and veut suggérer; they are translated satisfactorily.

Our analysis of passage 3 yields the following argumentation-centred TQA results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Argumentation-centred TQA Grid</th>
<th>Present in ST?</th>
<th>Rendered in TT?</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Claim</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restrictions</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Organizational Relations**

- Conclusion–Explanation: Yes, No, -

**Propositional Functions/Reasoning Structure**

- Generalization–clarification–elaboration: No, -
- Conclusion–Reason: No, -

**Conjunctives/Inference Indicators**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adversative</th>
<th>N/A</th>
<th>N/A</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Additive</td>
<td>Aussi</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>En d'autres termes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autrement dit</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causal</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td>Maintenant</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Arguments</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Contraries: unity vs. diversity</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Figures</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Metaphor</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Narrative strategy</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Depersonalization</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personalization</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Qualifier</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results of the analysis of TT against a broad range of argumentation parameters reveal defects at several levels of argumentation. What is interesting here is that, in spite of the translator’s successful rendering of conjunctives, in this particular case it did not help her to preserve the logical flow of the argument.

3. **Quantitative TQA**

3 major translation errors and 1 minor translation error in 272 words. Prorated to 400 words, TT receives an “unacceptable” (D) rating on the basis of the major errors.
4. *Comparison and comments*

It is the impact of the defects on the reader's understanding of the elements of the argument macrostructure, not the number of defects, that determines the outcome of the assessment in both cases. In addition, the major errors are assessed in light of their impact on the TT reader's understanding of the core argument, not on the degree of deviation from the meaning of ST words and phrases.

7.5. **Student corpus: observations**

- As we might have expected, our analysis of student translations indicates that students are less likely than professional translators to reflect the logic of the source text.

- We also saw that an argumentation-centred TQA model enabled us to focus on the key elements of the ST message and evaluate students' translations according to what is important in the text.

- Errors at the sentence or subsentence level (e.g., the three major errors in passage 3 above) could have been avoided if a reasoned, text-level approach to translation had been adopted. That is, the translator could have compensated for her deficiencies in linguistic knowledge by realizing that her drafts were incoherent.

- The ARTRAQ model offers the twofold advantage of being both normative and etiological, in that relates TT errors not only to deficiencies in linguistic knowledge but also to deficiencies in understanding, using and reflecting argument and reasoning.
Because it can be applied to student assignments as well as professional translations, ARTRAQ can be used for both formative and summative assessment, for training as well as evaluation.

ARTRAQ lends itself well to student performance assessment. Because the trainee is required to translate passages in context and in light of co-text, the assessment situation is authentic, corresponding closely to actual translation work. Applying ARTRAQ to the completed assignment provides for a more comprehensive assessment of translation competence—not just of linguistic knowledge but also of understanding of text.

It remains for us to take the results generated by the model for both subcorpora and draw overall conclusions on the relevance and usefulness of the model, make refinements, and then examine the feasibility of developing a comprehensive assessment grid.
Chapter Eight

Refining the Model

8.1. Introduction

In the preceding chapter we tested the model on professional translations of epistolary, statistics and legal affairs texts and student translations of legal affairs texts, making some preliminary observations on each group of analyses. The next step in the modelling process is to determine, on the basis of all the findings, whether, and to what extent, the testing serves to confirm our hypotheses and enables us to achieve our objectives. We can then make appropriate changes or refinements to optimize the model. We will also be examining the potential for incorporating a rating scale in the model, and it is the issue of rating that will lead into our exploration of the translation quality standard as such in Chapter Nine.

Note

We are fully aware of the statistical limitations of a corpus of nine texts. However, the variety of texts should be wide enough for us to substantiate, with a reasonable degree of validity, any conclusions we may make as to the potential of the model.

8.2. Comparative summary of results

The following table highlights the results of the assessments conducted on texts 1–8 and 11 and in particular the overall assessments generated by the ARTRAQ and microtextual models.
## Comparative Summary Table of Assessments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>ARTRAQ Result</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Sical result</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Letter to Minister</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
<td>No defects</td>
<td>0 errors</td>
<td>A: Superior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No. of errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Letter with c.c. to Minister</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
<td>Macrostructure and other argumentation features of ST rendered</td>
<td>4T, 3L</td>
<td>B: Fully acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No. of errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Letter to Minister</td>
<td>Inadequate</td>
<td>Mistranslation of warrant affects argument macrostructure</td>
<td>2T, 10L</td>
<td>B: Fully acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Deliverable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No. of errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Inadequate</td>
<td>Grounds mistranslated, in large part through failure to render conjunctives</td>
<td>9T, 9L</td>
<td>C: Revisable Unsatisfactory in the case of contract work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and thereby clarify propositional functions appropriately; therefore, argument macrostructure not preserved in TT</td>
<td></td>
<td>No. of errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Statistical report</td>
<td>Inadequate</td>
<td>Grounds mistranslated, in large part through failure to render conjunctives</td>
<td>10T, 8L</td>
<td>C: Revisable Unsatisfactory in the case of contract work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and thereby clarify propositional functions appropriately; therefore, argument macrostructure not preserved in TT</td>
<td></td>
<td>Note: 1 maj. T outside sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Statistical report</td>
<td>Inadequate</td>
<td>Grounds, claims, narrative strategy misinterpreted; therefore, argument</td>
<td>1 maj. T, 7T,</td>
<td>C: Revisable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8L</td>
<td>No. of errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article Type</td>
<td>Adequacy</td>
<td>Argument Macrostructure</td>
<td>No. of Errors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Crime article</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
<td>Argument macrostructure rendered</td>
<td>9T, 7L C: Revisable Unsatisfactory in the case of contract work Note: 1 maj. T outside sample</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Crime article</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
<td>Argument macrostructure rendered</td>
<td>4T, 5L B: Fully acceptable Note: 1 maj. T outside sample</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Political science article</td>
<td>Inadequate</td>
<td>Argument macrostructure, propositional functions misinterpreted</td>
<td>3 maj. T, 1L D: Unacceptable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table brings out the following:

- In two cases, the application of argumentation-centred TQA led to a different overall assessment. Where the assessment result differs (3 and 7), the Sical justification is strictly quantitative; the ARTRAQ rationale is non-quantitative and explanatory.

- In six of the eight translations under consideration, the overall Sical assessment, or rating, hinges on the number of minor errors alone. Moreover, in three of those, the number of minor language errors tipped the balance toward a lower (unsatisfactory, revisable) rating. Note that the Sical model does not weight translation errors more heavily than language errors.
◆ In a number of cases, major errors (as defined under the Sical model), some of which adversely affected the reader’s understanding of the core argument, were detected immediately outside the selected sample. In three cases (5, 7 and 8), they were not deemed to adversely affect the argument macrostructure under ARTRAQ.

◆ Even where the assessments coincide, the rationale is different. In fact, justification and explanation is inherent in the ARTRAQ assessment process, since deliverability/usability/adequacy is contingent on the TT argument macrostructure corresponding to its ST counterpart or on other argumentation parameters being rendered appropriately.

Note
We will revisit this summary table in Chapter Nine, after refining our model.

8.3. Overall and parameter-specific translation quality assessment

8.3.1. Reiteration of Hypothesis 1 and General Objective 1

Hypothesis 1
[...] Given developments in discourse theory, it should be possible, and useful, to develop textological models for use in industrial and university TQA, with particular reference to argumentation theory. Such a model will yield an overall assessment of translation quality combined with parameter- or criteria-specific assessments.

General Objective 1
Propose textological parameters and grids for instrumental TQA, both in an industrial and in a training (university) context.
8.3.2 Findings

Based on the testing, we can draw the following conclusions about the degree to which the model is comprehensive, that is, incorporates a broad range of parameters and can generate normative statements about overall quality and discrete qualitative factors.

(a) The range of parameters (argument macrostructure, arrangement and organizational relations, propositional functions and reasoning structure, conjunctives and other inference indicators, arguments, figures of speech and narrative strategy) is broad enough to encompass most defects in the transfer of meaning. Even a single specialized term can be related to an argumentation (reasoning) parameter, as in the case of *automobiles* in Text 5.

(b) In other words, the advantage of the ARTRAQ parameters is that they serve to co-textualize and contextualize defects treated conventionally from a microtextual perspective. The model forces the evaluator to seek argumentation linkages between the word, phrase and sentence and the surrounding text and context and to focus on the *message* at all levels.

(c) That being said, not all terminology and official title defects, omissions and other mistranslations will have an impact on the quality of a translation as assessed by means of the ARTRAQ model. Furthermore, at this stage it provides only in certain instances for any evaluation of target language quality (style, usage, morphology, syntax, and typography). We have seen that under one model, the Ontario GTS (see 1.1.1.3), major language defects can be characterized as transfer defects for TQA purposes because they hinder or prevent the reader’s understanding of the text, and our examples of defects in the rendering of ST narrative strategy in Text 6 show how morphosyntactic structures are critical to argumentation. For other aspects of language quality, however, the model would have to be expanded in some way.
The model provides for an overall assessment of translation quality to the extent (1) that its combination of discourse-based analysis and sample TQA is valid and (2) that the parameters can be used to make distinctions among translation quality levels. Further conclusions on its potential in this regard will be made in a later section, where the definition of seriousness of errors will be considered.

Consideration was given to including Toulmin's three modes (formality, precision and resolution), subsumed under "arrangement." Testing indicated that analysis of arrangement is useful as an explanatory tool, i.e., for grasping the overall development of the text, but does not highlight discrete differences between ST and TT. It is reflective more of formal considerations than of meaning and adequacy of transfer. It can therefore be dropped as a core assessment parameter and used where required for specific explanatory purposes, generally in a training context.

The analysis of organizational relations necessarily yields results similar, if not identical, to that of argument macrostructure. For example, evidence (part of the evidence-assertion relation) in Text 4 is equivalent to grounds in the argument macrostructure. Again, this parameter can be reserved for specific purposes.

Figures of speech proved to be relevant only in the legal affairs/popular criminology texts. On the other hand, narrative strategy was relevant in the epistolary material and the statistics texts.

The testing suggested that there was duplication in the analysis of propositional functions, reasoning structure, and conjunctives and other inference indicators. Some streamlining is in order here. The linkage between propositional functions (coherence) and conjunctives/inference indicators (cohesion) is strong and provides considerable explanatory and informational force at the interpropositional, argument and sample levels, so both parameters should be
retained in the generic model. Reasoning structure can be exploited for specific purposes.

8.4. Comparison of ARTRAQ and quantitative TQA in terms of quality of information

8.4.1. Reiteration of hypotheses 2 and 3 and General Objective 2

_Hypothesis 2_

The proposed model can be used to test the validity both of a textological approach involving evaluation of the macrotext and, conversely, of the sampling approach, which necessarily focuses on microtextual units. Does the addition of a textological assessment change the end result? Further, does the textological TQA tell us anything new about translation ability and performance?

_General Objective 2_

Propose refinements to the concept of "major error."

_Hypothesis 3_

Using a textological approach, the level of seriousness of errors can be defined broadly, systematically and coherently in terms of argumentation theory, and such a definition can form the basis for the establishment of quality levels and defensible decisions regarding the acceptability of instrumental translations.

8.4.2 Findings

With the above hypotheses and objective, we broach the raison d'être of the proposed model: its informational value and its validity.
(a) The defect-argumentation linkage enhances the explanatory force of TQA. In characterizing the defect, the evaluator necessarily examines it in terms of deviation from the argumentation in the source text and is in a position to define the problem accordingly. Thus what is conventionally labelled a mistranslation, significant mistranslation, major mistranslation, faux sens, contresens or glissement de sens will also be characterized in terms of its impact on reasoning not only at the subsentence level but also at higher levels, including that of the text.

(b) By extension, the model also links assessment to the objectives of the ST author, the target text and the client, where they are known or can be extrapolated from the texts in question. As Larose has pointed out, in order for TQA to be valid, i.e., to generate an accurate assessment of what it purports to evaluate, it must be teleological. Considerable evidence was adduced in Chapter Three to show that the objective of persuasion through reasoning, argumentation and rhetoric was a consideration in instrumental texts in all fields. The testing has shown how the model provides a means of evaluating quality in terms of the degree of preservation of the persuasive tools of ST. In short, the originality of the model as a means of extracting information resides in its potential for evaluating the translation unit, of whatever size it may be, as part of a broader speech act.

(c) The testing shows that an argumentation-centred TQA can yield different and valid, theory-based results differing from those generated by the quantitative model because of the application of Toulmin’s argument macrostructure model. The six-point structure contributes two vital components to our proposal, providing a means of determining (1) which are the essential elements of a text’s “message” and (2) which are the essential sections of that text. Specifically, it gives us, first, a theoretical basis for the identification of major/critical defects (to be differentiated later) as those mistranslations that hinder or prevent the reader’s understanding of the grounds, claims, warrants, backing, rebuttals (exceptions, restrictions) and possibly qualifiers in the text under consideration. In other
words, these are the “essential parts of the message” of the text as a whole, and mistranslation of one or more of them means that the translation is inadequate on the dimension of transfer, unless the macrostructural component is correctly rendered elsewhere in TT and the defect is thus compensated for. Second, Toulmin’s model enables us to make an important distinction between “representative” and “essential” sections or samples of a text. Under Sical, assessment was to be based on representative samples, but a “representative” sample does not necessarily contain an essential part of the message of the text as a whole, and what is deemed to be essential within the sample may be of secondary importance within the entire discourse. Application of Toulmin’s model ensures that only passages containing one or more of the argument macrostructure components are selected for TQA purposes and that, therefore, only defects pertaining to those components can be assessed as major or critical.

The consequences are significant. Seriousness of defect is no longer solely microtext-based; it is a function of the translation unit’s relationship to the argument macrostructure. In addition, the evaluator is no longer left to make an empirical judgment, based on his own experience or opinion, on what is essential in a given passage or text. Nor is he left to surmise as to the potential consequences of defects for the client—a tall order unless a very detailed work statement is available and the intended use of the translation is known. He has been given a theoretical basis and a set of clear parameters for the assessment of major/critical defects. This in itself should be particularly helpful in countering the charges of evaluative subjectivity that are often levelled by professional translators and theorists alike. Furthermore, the fact that the scope of critical/major errors has been clearly circumscribed for the evaluator means that the potential for error of measurement is kept to a minimum.

(d) As a result, the argumentation-centred TQA model yielded a different assessment of major/critical defects on several occasions, based on relative impact of the argument macrostructure. We also found that a combination of defects, though
perhaps anodyne when considered individually, was sufficient to compromise the argument macrostructure: the specific cases involved a series of mistranslated conjunctives and elements of narrative strategy. In short, the concept of "major error," once redefined on the basis of Toulmin’s model, will be based not on an arbitrary, absolutist notion of correctness at the word or even sentence level but on the target translation unit’s function within, and contribution to, the core argument of the text.

(e) As the definitions of error presented in Chapter Five show, usability of a product is contingent on the absence of major/critical defects, and in a translation context adequacy and deliverability have been substituted for usability to characterize work meeting the same quality criterion. The advantage of the criterion is that the problem of defect quantification is obviated, as we saw in our analysis of Text 4. We thus have a theoretical basis for a preliminary, binary rating scale.

### Preliminary ARTRAQ Rating Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adequate</td>
<td>No defect affecting argument macrostructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate</td>
<td>At least one defect affecting argument macrostructure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(f) The rating scale is embryonic. It needs to be refined in light of the following:

i) the purpose of the assessment—industrial quality control, formative or summative assessment, etc.

ii) the requirement for assessment of other factors (target language, terminology, format, etc.).
Last but not least, the testing yielded some interesting observations on sampling. First, while reading the full ST and then TT can lead to the identification of potential problems that can be followed up with closer analysis, it does not appear to do so in all cases. Second, while the same initial steps certainly enable the evaluator to identify the argument macrostructure of ST and the sections that contain components thereof, the macrostructure may span the whole text, as we saw in the statistics texts. Does this mean that, in such cases, one has no choice but to assess the quality of the whole translation in order to produce a valid ARTRAQ assessment? It probably does. However, the constraints of time being what they are, reading TT to detect problem areas and ensuring assessment of passages that are not just representative but contain key components of the argument macrostructure should provide for efficiency while offering a higher degree of validity than conventional models.

8.5 Applicability to student translation assessment

8.5.1. Reiteration of Hypothesis 4 and General Objective 3

Hypothesis 4
An argumentation-centred TQA model can help to focus both the teacher's and the students' efforts on the understanding and use of co-text to ensure quality.

General Objective 3
Demonstrate the applicability of the tools and concepts developed to the formative and summative assessment of translation students.
8.5.2. Findings

Since student evaluation and training go hand in hand, the testing of the model involved testing the degree to which the students in the formal classroom setting were able to meet the assigned learning objectives and specifically whether they demonstrated an ability to

- move beyond a reliance on linguistic knowledge and the dictionary
- interpret words in light of co-text
- understand and exploit "reasoned" discourse and argumentation
- understand the function of a variety of conjunctives and other inference indicators in the two languages and how to translate them appropriately in the interest of coherence
- in short, treat the text as one or more speech acts and as a (potentially) coherent message instead of a string of discrete morphosyntactic and lexical units.

At this stage, the model was thus designed to assess performance in relation to specific problems, not to produce an overall assessment of translation quality.

The results indicate the following:

(a) Nearly two thirds of the students solved text-level and reasoning problems—problems for which the answer could not be found in a dictionary—at the first or second attempt.

(b) The explanatory force of the model was clearly of benefit, giving teacher and students specific reasoning, argumentation and cohesion rules and guidelines with which to analyse and solve problems.

(c) The model focuses on specific textological problems, covering difficulties relating to linguistic knowledge where they affect reasoning and argumentation. As such, it focuses on quality of message transfer. Again, refinements will need to be made and other dimensions of translation performance incorporated in the model.
Regarding the full-text translation by a graduating student—who, incidentally, had not had the benefit of taking a course of the kind offered to the third-year students—the findings show how critical "textual competence" can be to a student about to embark on a professional translating career. All the major/critical defects in the selected passages had a direct bearing on argument macrostructure.

8.6. Refinements

Based on the above findings, we will make a number of changes to the model in the interests of efficiency, validity and reliability or stability.

8.6.1. Parameters and grid

(a) Drop “arrangement” as one of the core parameters.

(b) Drop “organizational relations” as one of the core parameters.

(c) Drop figures of speech as a core parameter in the TQA grid, but include it as a field-specific parameter in an extended model, to be developed below.

(d) Drop “reasoning structure” and retain and link “propositional functions” and “conjunctives/inference indicators.” Widdowson’s functional analysis focuses on both coherence and cohesion. It will therefore serve to bring out and evaluate propositional development from a “reasoned discourse” perspective. The analysis of these functions and of the translator’s handling of conjunctives and other inference indicators also helps to evaluate the translator’s rendering of specific arguments, as we saw in texts 4 and 5.

(e) Incorporate other parameters (terminology, style, usage, typography, etc.) according to text type, field and intended use.
8.6.2. **Seriousness of error**

(a) Establish a threefold distinction among **critical**, **major** and **minor** defect, as indicated in the industrial quality control literature. Application of Toulmin’s argument macrostructure has yielded a new concept of a defect that seriously undermines the usability of the translation because it impairs the central reasoning of the text. Furthermore, we found that not all defects considered major under the Sical model corresponded to the new concept. Accordingly, our proposal is that

- defects impairing translation of the argument macrostructure be characterized as **critical**;
- other transfer defects conventionally considered major (*contresens*, *charabia*) be characterized as **major** in the ARTRAQ model and be deemed not to render the translation unusable;
- other transfer defects be characterized as **minor**.

The critical defect would correspond to the text-level **misinterpretation** identified by Bensoussan and Rosenhouse (see 1.1.1.5.). They consider the determination of such a defect to be potentially valuable as a means of streamlining student evaluation by focusing on the degree to which the trainee has rendered the core message(s) instead of engaging in microtextual error analysis. We will endeavour to broaden the application of the three levels of defect to industry translations by developing definitions for each of them in line with argumentation theory.

(b) The modified and extended grid and the above characterizations will be the starting point for a rating scale.
8.6.3. **Full-text assessment versus sampling**

Reading the complete translation to identify problem areas and restricting detailed TQA to passages containing argument macrostructure components will save time and will therefore be incorporated in the proposed TQA procedure. However, the testing showed that any text, however long or short, may contain grounds, claims, warrants, etc. In such cases, pre-delivery quality assurance necessarily entails detailed examination of most of the text, precisely to detect and eradicate the serious defects of which, according to Gouadec (1989: 56), even the most competent translators are capable. On the other hand, post-delivery quality control and certification (by sample evaluation or examination) procedures can benefit from the greater assurance afforded by our proposed approach.

8.6.4. **The revised model**

We can now finalize our ARTRAQ grid according to two sets of parameters: core and field- or use-specific. The core parameters will apply to all instrumental translations, whether they are produced by professionals or students, whatever their end use may be, and whatever subject field is involved. The field- or specific-use parameters will be activated at the evaluator’s discretion, in light of the contract or work statement at hand, the field of specialization, and the intended use of the translation. Judging from the testing, however, activation will often depend on whether the translation is for information purposes or for publication.

### Core Argument-Centred TQA Parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MACROSTRUCTURE</th>
<th>Backing</th>
<th>Warrant</th>
<th>Grounds</th>
<th>Qualifier</th>
<th>Claim</th>
<th>Rebuttal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PROPOSITIONAL FUNCTIONS</td>
<td>Generalization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clarification</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elaboration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consequence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Explanation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The field/use-specific parameters typically selected by the evaluator would include terminology, figures of speech, format and target language quality. In fact, it would no doubt be appropriate to subdivide target language quality into style, usage and grammar, and typography, since their relevance and importance varies with field and use. For example, style—in which we include issues of redundancy, repetition, concision and plain language—may be of scant consequence for the translation of an administrative report but are of considerable importance in the translation of directives and instructions. Likewise, typographical errors may not be a major factor in assessing the quality of internal documents but will have major consequence in signage, as the real-life example below (a sign in a government building in Ottawa in the early nineties) illustrates.
Elevators
Ascenseurs
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ARTRAQ Grid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Element</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macrostructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claim(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warrant(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifier(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rebuttal(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propositional Functions/Conjunctives/Inference Indicators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other inference indicators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circumstance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Testimony</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depersonalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passivization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectivization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enallage of person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifiers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Field/Use-Specific Parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>For info. Purposes</th>
<th>For publication</th>
<th>Importance/relevance in ST</th>
<th>Defects/ errors in TT</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Terminology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Format</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usage and grammar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typography</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, in the case of an internal report for information purposes, terminology and format may be important, but matters of target language quality may be secondary; accordingly, the translation will be assessed against the first two but not against the target language parameters. At the same time, it must be borne in mind that defects in terms of non-core parameters may have already been factored into the assessment against the core parameters. For example, a misrepresentation of the official title of the organization at the centre of the argumentation in a policy document may strike directly at the quality of the argument macrostructure in TT.

#### 8.6.5. Development of a rating scale

Having established the core and extended grid, and having detected no, one or more defects of various types in an assessment or evaluation situation, we want to continue working toward our objective of a TQA model that reduces quantification of defects (errors) to a minimum. We also want to avoid the situation obtaining in the Sical model, where all types of minor error were given the same weight.
The multicriteria model proposed by Larose (1994: 369) makes it possible for the evaluator to reflect the relative importance of each parameter in the overall, final assessment. It requires that each parameter be assigned a specific weight prior to assessment and that the quality level for a specific parameter, as determined by the evaluator, be weighted accordingly in the establishment of an overall rating.

Larose draws inspiration for his model from a criteria-based analysis published by Nida, in which each of three translations of the same original is assessed against six key parameters, called "isomorphs"—referential meaning, rime, concision of lines of poetry, etc. Each translation is assessed a plus (+), minus (-) or plus/minus (±) to indicate its success against each parameter. Although no judgment is made as to which translation is the best, a subtraction of the total number of -'s from the total number of +'s would be one way of establishing a list by descending order of quality. There is no question of counting the number of individual errors under a given parameter, a text-level assessment is the goal. According to Nida, "Isomorphs are essentially a way of looking at the basic problem of equivalence. But what is important about isomorphs is that they force the analyst to specify the formal and semantic features in such a way as to measure and describe the degrees of conformity. Since isomorphs always come in sets of features, they force literary critics and translators to think in terms of patterns and not in terms of isolated resemblances and differences" (Larose 1998: 179) [our emphasis]. In short, Nida is proposing an overall assessment, not of the translation as a whole, but of the translation against each parameter and in terms of its overall manifestation. Note that Nida does not issue a final comparative assessment and, accordingly, does not propose any weighting formula.

Larose's multicriteria analytical table, like Nida's, is designed for a criterion-referenced assessment and specifically for evaluation of students and candidates, but he builds an explicit recognition of the varying importance of the parameters into his model. One proposed framework described by Larose is as shown below (Larose 1994: 369):
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Weighting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>7/70</td>
<td>6/42</td>
<td>8/56</td>
<td>7/56</td>
<td>4/36</td>
<td>5/45</td>
<td>305</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>4/40</td>
<td>8/56</td>
<td>1/7</td>
<td>7/56</td>
<td>5/45</td>
<td>9/81</td>
<td>285</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here, the top line, "Criterion," represents the different parameters against which translation quality is to be assessed: transfer, terminology, typography, etc. Each criterion is then weighted from 1 to 10, depending on its importance to translation quality. The evaluator assesses each translation (A, B, C) against all criteria, giving it a mark out of 10 for each criterion and multiplying that mark by the weighting factor: thus, translation A rates a mark of 7 against criterion 1 (which has a weighting factor of 10) and thus earns 70 points (7 x 10) toward its total score, which is made up of the sum of the points earned against each criterion.

Our task, then, is to adapt Larose's framework to criterion-referenced TQA and devise an appropriate weighting formula and a grid to be used in conjunction with the core ARTRAQ grid above. Our first objective is to establish an appropriate unit of measurement. The above rating system may work well for comparisons, but in general evaluators are more used to basing grades on percentages, which are relatively easy to calculate. The Ontario Government Translation Services have taken this approach (see 1.1.1.3.). It is also important to work with a measurement tool that yields clear "mathematical" differences in quality. In this regard, Fatzer and Stora relate the unit of measurement in pre-delivery quality control to psychological and cognitive development:

We all experienced quantity for the first time by counting with our ten fingers and thumbs. This anchored certain images in our subconscious—specifically, anything above 1 is perceived as being big, and anything below 1 is perceived as being small.
...Therefore, when we consider the measurement of quality in terms of
dysfunction or non-conformity, it is better for us to select a unit so that the result
of the measurement is higher than 10. Then we will have the impression that the
degree of dysfunction or non-conformity is high and we will be tempted to take
action. Conversely, a unit selected so that the measurement...is expressed by a
number lower than 1 will give us the impression that the degree of dysfunction or
non-conformity is low and that there is no reason to be concerned.

[Nous avons tous appréhendé pour la première fois le monde quantitatif en
comptant sur nos dix doigts. Cela a ancré dans notre sub conscient des images, à
savoir que tout ce qui est supérieur à 1 est perçu comme grand et tout ce qui est
inférieur à 1 est perçu comme petit.

...Lorsque nous traitons de la mesure de la qualité en terme de niveau de
dysfonctionnement ou de non-conformité, nous avons donc intérêt à choisir une
unité de sorte que le résultat de la mesure soit exprimé par un nombre supérieur à
10. Ainsi nous aurons la perception que le niveau de dysfonctionnement ou le
niveau de non-conformité est grand et nous serons tenté d’agir. A contrario, une
unité, choisie de telle sorte que la mesure...soit exprimée par un nombre inférieur
à 1, nous donnera la perception que le niveau de dysfonctionnement..ou de non-
conformité est faible et qu’il n’y a pas lieu de s’en occuper...] (1990: 221)

The same reasoning can be applied to post-delivery and student translation assessments,
since their ultimate objective, too, is to bring about improvement in quality.

It therefore makes sense to base the weighting factors on percentages. Thus, assuming
that a translation with no defects is worth 100%, the evaluator would decide what portion
of that 100% was represented by the selected parameters and express that portion as a
decile. He would then rate translation quality for each parameter, using a rating system
commonly applied in criterion- and norm-referenced assessment: 10 = excellent; 8 = very
satisfactory; 6 = satisfactory; 4 = fair; 2 = poor. The resulting weighted TQA grid would include parameters from the core ARTRAQ grid and from the field or end-use-specific grid.

For example, in the case of the third letter (Text 3) examined in Chapter Seven, the translation of which was for information purposes and for which the Sical analysis generated 2 translation errors and 11 language errors, the multicriteria (or multiparameter) weighted grid TQA might look like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Weight (/10)</th>
<th>Quality (/10)</th>
<th>Score (/100)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argument macrostructure</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other argument features</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usage and grammar</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typography</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td><strong>74</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, the weighted grid TQA for Text 7, the first of the highly argumentative popular criminology articles, translation of which was for publication purposes, would be based on different weights:
Argumentative Article (for Publication) Weighted TQA Grid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Weight (/10)</th>
<th>Quality (/10)</th>
<th>Score (/100)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argument macrostructure</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figures</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of argument</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Style</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usage and grammar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typography</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terminology</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>90</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the statistics texts, where narrative strategy and propositional functions and conjunctives have proven to be of significance in the assessment process, the weighted TQA grid would include these two parameters but exclude style and usage and grammar. The results for Text 8 might be as follows:

Statistical Report Weighted TQA Grid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Weight (/10)</th>
<th>Quality (/10)</th>
<th>Score (/100)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argument macrostructure</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Propositional functions/Conjunctives</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative strategy</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typography</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terminology</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>68</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The narrative strategy defect affects argument macrostructure and, accordingly, the score for that parameter.

Because ARTRAQ can now serve to isolate and weight specific criteria (parameters) for assessment, the model seems to offer greater potential for content validity—i.e., for covering the broad range of skills necessary for actual translation performance—than does Sical, based as it is on only transfer/language and major/minor error categories with no refinement of criteria.

ARTRAQ is also modular in that it is adaptable to specific fields and end uses. As such, it makes it possible to focus the assessment on the criterion or criteria of interest and ensure the validity of assessments across the various conditions of production.

The mathematical model itself is relatively straightforward, requiring simple calculations. The next step is more challenging, however. For ARTRAQ to become a useful criterion-referenced tool, the scores must be given a value and a description in relation to a standard; labels such as "excellent," "very satisfactory," "good" and "fair" may serve a purpose in making comparisons among performances but do not adequately describe level of quality in relation to a standard or, in the context of student assessment, the degree of progress toward a standard or quality objective. In short, as Wiggins has pointed out in a broader assessment context, "validity inheres in the interpretation of a score" (1993: 240), not in the score itself. The model must be able to discriminate, with a strong degree of validity, among levels of quality and make it possible to interpret what the score means in terms of translation quality. This will be the subject of the next chapter.
Chapter Nine

Argument-centred TQA and Development of a Standard

9.1. Introduction

In a recent article (2001), Martinez Melis proposes three broad functions of translation quality assessment in a university context: diagnostic, summative and formative. In fact, these functions can be extended to translations in an industrial context too. Diagnostic TQA can serve to identify areas for improvement in professional as well as student translators; summative TQA is an integral part of assessment of performance and can serve to certify, promote, justify payment of, or penalize professional translators, just as it determines success or failure for trainees; and formative TQA can benefit professionals as well as students.

Development of a standard is particularly relevant to summative TQA, although we saw in chapters four and five how the argumentation-centred TQA model as such could serve a useful purpose as a diagnostic and formative tool. It is therefore the summative function that will be our focus in this chapter. Ideally, however, a comprehensive standard must be flexible enough to embrace both industrial and student translation, and on that score we must remain mindful of Gutt’s criticism (1991) of the more ambitious assessment models: in their attempt to cover all types and functions of translation, the creators tend to produce tools that are too complicated to use efficiently.

Our review of the literature in Chapter One also highlighted the fact that theorists and researchers in translation studies have by and large eschewed actual discussion of quality standards and that existing translation standards govern methods and procedures for achieving quality, rather than making normative statements on what constitutes a quality translation. We therefore proposed the following hypothesis and objectives:
Hypothesis 5
TQA lacks a clear notion of what a quality standard should comprise, as opposed to a norm, law or rule. It would be possible, and useful, to propose a definition of a translation quality standard of more substance than "zero defects."

General objective 4
Define the concept of "translation standard" in light of recent research on related themes.

Specific objective 4.1
State the criteria against which translation quality is to be measured and define one or more levels of translation quality in light of textological TQA research.

Specific objective 4.2
Define translation quality standard as opposed to translation law, norm and convention.

So our first task will be to propose a definition of a translation quality standard as distinct from other normative statements and concepts, with reference to translation studies and other research and documentation on the subject. Our second task will be to propose a rating grid based on that standard and applicable to a broad range of text types and assessment functions.

9.2. Norms and conventions

We referred in Chapter One to work by Chesterman, who has made perhaps the most productive excursus into the realm of normative statements in translation, distinguishing between process or professional (accountability, communication and relation) norms and product (expectancy) norms. Chesterman maintains, further, that the process norms are governed by the product norms, which he considers to be of a higher order. He defines the three process/professional norms as follows:
The accountability norm: a translator should act in such a way that the demands of loyalty are met with regard to the original writer, the commissioner, and the prospective readership. This is thus an ethical norm requiring professional standards of integrity and thoroughness [our italics]. By his or her action the translator shows that he or she accepts responsibility for the translation.

The communication norm: a translator should act in such a way as to optimize communication between the original writer and/or commissioner and the prospective readership. This is a social norm specifying the translator’s social role as a communication expert… It requires that we should communicate in such a way that others recognize and interpret the means of communication in the way we intend them to, in the same way as we do ourselves.

The relation norm: a translator should act in such a way that an appropriate relation is established and maintained between target text and source text. The nature of this relation—the type and degree of equivalence, in other words—is determined by the translator, on the basis of his or her understanding of the intentions of the original writer and/or commissioner, the type and skopos of the text, and the nature of the prospective readership… Being thus defined intertextually, the norm is a linguistic one. (1993: 8-9)

Chesterman’s definitions are in fact broad “normative statements” establishing required translational behaviour. There is no reference to a specific grade or level of quality. Yet accuracy, or adequacy of transfer, is implicit in all three norms.

Expectancy norms, on the other hand, are specific. They are “established by the receivers of the translation, by their expectations of what a translation (of a given type) should be like, and what a native text (of a given type) in the target language should be like” (1993: 9). Expectancy norms thus govern the target language. There are norms of grammaticality and norms of usage (1997: 81). Chesterman lists English-language
prescriptions such as the avoidance of the split infinitive, the dangling participle and the prepositional use of due to as examples of expectancy norms. They may also be stated more broadly. For example,

_End focus_: more informative or newsworthy items tend to occur towards the end of a structure.

[...]

_Cohesion_: there is an expectation that (in written English) sentences should be linked cohesively to those around them, often explicitly. (1997: 82)

He makes a further distinction between quantitative and qualitative expectancy norms. The above prescriptions are qualitative. Features such as average sentence length and the appropriate number of passive verbs or relative clauses for a given text type are quantitative expectancy norms. Interestingly, some of the above norms involve discourse-level features.

In short, Chesterman's concept of the norm comprises both general normative statements about the professional performance required to ensure quality (the process/professional norms) and specific rules on acceptable target language forms. He hastens to point out that abiding by expectancy norms can, in certain instances, entail syntactic or usage incorrectness, depending on the level of language sought. He also points out that the expectancy norms may not be very high in some quarters, given the poor quality of many texts originated in English. Thus the expectancy norm is relative, varying with the target language culture or clientele.

Chesterman differentiates between norms and conventions. Norms are binding in some way and can be appealed to in order to justify action, disapproval, criticism, sanctions, etc. They also involve norm authorities, such as writers of dictionaries and style manuals in the case of expectancy norms. A convention, on the other hand, is not normative. According to philosopher David Lewis, one cannot attach evaluative terms like _should_, _ought_ and _good_ to a convention. Moreover, no sanctions can apply in the case of non-
conformance. A convention is an uncodified regularity of behaviour, including language use, that the target population invariably conforms to. Thus a native speaker of a language is necessarily a party to the conventions of that language (1969: 63). Once conventions are codified and confirmed or enforced by norm authorities, they become rules or norms (1969: 99). According to Ullmann-Margalit, another theorist often cited by Chesterman and others, social conventions are “non-statutory norms, which need not be enacted, formulated, and promulgated” (1977: 97), and have no identifiable authority—they are informal, anonymous norms. She focuses on the co-ordination, stabilization, problem-solving and efficiency function of the explicitly stated norm:

While a regularity extracted from past events might sometimes be continued in more than one way, a norm will provide the principle of continuation which will resolve potential ambiguities in most future events...there is a higher degree of articulation and explicitness associated with a norm than with a mere regularity of behaviour. In this respect a norm is closer to an agreement than is a regularity, and an explicit agreement affords the best and safest solution to any co-ordination problems. (1977: 86-87)

Unlike Chesterman, Nord (1991) does not make a clear-cut distinction between norms and conventions. She begins with the concept of rules:

Rules (e.g., traffic rules) are set up by a kind of legislative power and imposed on those subject to this power under threat of punishment. (1991: 96)

She goes on to state that norms are fixed by the members of certain groups within the framework of the existing rules. She gives a definition of norm proposed by Toury (1980: 51):

The translation of general values shared by a certain community—as to what is right and wrong, adequate and inadequate—into specific performance instructions appropriate for and applicable to specific situations. (1991: 96).
She continues: “Violation of norms (e.g., wearing a coloured tie at a funeral) is not penalized by law, but usually has consequences for the social evaluation of the individual by the other members of the group” (1991: 96). Agreeing, initially, with Lewis that conventions are neither binding nor explicitly formulated, Nord defines them as regularities in behaviour based on common knowledge and expectations of behaviour. Conventions may in time be raised to the rank of norms or even rules.

Relating her triad to translation, Nord refers to grammatical rules, stylistic norms, and text type or speech act conventions. However, in illustrating conventions, she refers to “the general conventions of ‘good style’” (1991: 97).

She goes on to distinguish between regulative and constitutive conventions: regulative ones “refer to the generally accepted forms of handling certain translation problems below the text rank” (e.g., proper names, quotations), whereas constitutive ones “determine what a particular culture accepts as a translation (as opposed to an adaptation or version)” (1991: 100).

A comparison of the definitions proposed by Chesterman and Nord shows that the terminology of research on translation “deontology” is not fixed. Chesterman’s concept of expectancy norms would seem to incorporate the regulative and constitutive conventions of Nord. It would also be fair to say that failure to observe Nord’s two types of translation conventions could well result in criticism and even sanction. Furthermore, her differentiation between grammatical rules, stylistic norms and text-type or speech act conventions is not watertight. Many text-type “conventions” are, in fact, rules, as in the case of formal correspondence and report writing. And what of norms of usage? Are they not rules too?
There is less confusion and imprecision regarding the degree of explicitness, or
codification, of norms. It is fair to say that Chesterman’s norms and Nord’s regulative
and constitutive conventions are explicitly stated by norm authorities (dictionaries, style
manuals, translation guides, etc.) and are thus in accordance with Lewis’s and Ullmann-
Margalit’s definitions.

It is also noteworthy that these norms and conventions embrace text-level items, such as
cohesion. In a similar context, that of interpretative semantics, Rastier too proposes a set
of extrinsic text-level instructions for interpretation—instructions that he calls the norms
of cohesion, relevance and coherence. The norm of cohesion refers to the semantic
isotopes, or thematic strings, present in any cohesive text; the norm of relevance serves to
assess and validate the semantic contribution of tautologies; and the norm of coherence
refers to the reader’s interpretation of isotopes in such a way that they fit his ideological

Another tentative conclusion is that norms correspond to very broad process/professional
requirements (accountability, communication, relation), to general linguistic requirements
(cohesion, coherence), or to specific linguistic rules (grammar, usage, text-level
conventions).

Finally, the preceding discussion gives credence to Chesterman’s contention that
translation is a “normative science” (1993: 11) and Hermans’ claim that translation
decisions are motivated by norms (1991:166).

9.3. From norm to standard

Clearly, then, the norm (or convention, in Nord’s terminology) is akin to a linguistic or
discourse instruction (or regularity) governing a specific problem (e.g., split infinitive) or
discrete parameter (e.g., cohesion).
The translation theorists with an interest in norms all draw on the work of Renate Bartsch, who focuses on language issues and establishes a similar delineation between general and specific norms. Her research is of particular relevance here in that she relates norms to standards; her ideas can therefore serve as a model enabling us to move from the specific and general norm of communication and translation to a translation quality standard.

Like Lewis and Ullmann-Margalit, Bartsch sees the norm as an explicit, codified rule expressing a notion of correctness and, in the language domain, making for efficient communication by removing, or attenuating, complexity and contingency. Linguistic norms are norms of product, not of method or process, and are exemplified by models or standards, in the sense of forms to be imitated:

...norms consist of relationships between people, in which it is determined what the model or standards which have to be followed are, who has to follow which models, who provides models, and who enforces, if necessary, adherence to the models. There are central models and less central models. [Our emphasis] (1987: 70)

Specific linguistic norms may be morphosyntactic, phonological, semantic and pragmatic, and are all subsumed under a single highest-order norm expressing the need for effective communication:

All specific linguistic norms are justified relative to the highest norm of communication, which is: “Express yourself in such a way that what you say is recognizable and interpretable by your partner in agreement with what you intend him to understand.” (1987: 212)
For Bartsch, this “highest norm” is closely tied to the requirement of textual coherence and the illocutionary point of discourse, which must be achieved (and preserved, for our purposes, in translation?) for communication to be effective.

Bartsch raises the highest-order, general norm, which corresponds closely to Chesterman’s process/professional norms, to the level of principle, and as such it is unchangeable. Specific norms can be changed, however, as circumstances, society and requirements evolve, as in stylistic norms (e.g., letter-writing styles), “which vanish with the disappearance of certain social relationships” (1987: 201).

Within the limits of the effective communication requirement, there is room for considerable variety and tolerance in a language community, Bartsch finds. As long as the highest-norm is observed, “functional deviation” from specific norms is tolerated:

...deviations are acceptable in communication under the restriction that we are able to count on the other’s understanding the expressions as we do, i.e., on the other’s being able to follow the deviation. (1987: 209)

Thus she is able to conclude that acceptability in communication does not necessarily coincide with correctness of language use:

Acceptability of appearance and use of expressions, therefore, is not simply identical with correctness with respect to valid specific linguistic norms; rather, it is correctness with respect to the highest norm. Correctness with regard to specific norms is only necessary as long as this serves correctness with respect to the principle of communication. What is correct with respect to this principle largely depends on the special demands of the particular situation of communication. In standard cases, correctness with respect to this highest norm is achieved by correctness with respect to specific linguistic norms. Cases in which this is not so
justify deviance from specific linguistic norms and lead to change of linguistic norms, if these kinds of situation become important and occur regularly. (1987: 213)

Bartsch makes yet another distinction, this time between categorical and hypothetical norms. The former apply to all circumstances and uses of language. The latter come into play only if specific situations or purposes are present; Bartsch gives style and register norms as examples.

She uses the same dichotomies in discussing standard language, which is a codified selection of varieties of language items and, as such, is a "central model" or "reference point" to be imitated by members of the language community. The same flexibility and tolerance of variety exists in what Bartsch calls the empirical standard, within the limits prescribed for effective communication. At the same time, a normative, prescriptive, codified standard is required to control variety and ensure that the language can meet the common communication expectations of the community.

But what is the standard language? It is a composite of all the specific linguistic norms accepted as part of the central model. In this sense, it mirrors the relationship between the translation quality standard and the individual transfer and language parameters or criteria; conformity with those criteria means that the overall standard is observed.

We will be able to use Bartsch’s arguments to work toward a definition of the translation quality standard and a relevant rating grid.
9.4. Translation quality standard

*The Canadian Oxford Dictionary* defines the noun “standard” as follows:

1. an object or quality or measure serving as a basis or example or principle to which others conform or should conform or by which the accuracy or quality of others is judged (*present-day standards*).
2. a) the degree of excellence, etc. required for a purpose (*not up to standard*).
   b) average quality (*of a low standard*)
3. the ordinary procedure or quality or design of a product, without added or novel features.
4. ...
5. ...
6. ...
7. a document specifying nationally or internationally agreed upon properties of manufactured goods, etc.
8. a thing recognized as a model for imitation, etc. (1998: 1415)

We see from these definitions that “standard” is a polysemic word, and Bartsch’s work seems to corroborate this fact, at least as far as definitions 1 and 8 are concerned. The standard language is an object serving as an example or basis for conformity and is recognized as a model for imitation. In some respects it also fits definition 2 a) and b) in that it presents a level of linguistic excellence that members of the community may strive for and that, conversely, some instances of language may be of a “low” standard in relation to the normative, central standard.

In respect of a translation quality standard, all five definitions are pertinent. In addition to the obvious concept of a standard of translation excellence, to be taken as a model and imitated, there is that of the document specifying accepted properties of products (7). This corresponds to the purpose and content of a typical ISO standard. However, there is an interesting parallel here between Chesterman’s process and product norms and Bartsch’s methodological and product norms, on the one hand, and ISO’s 9000 series and its product standards:
The applicable technical specifications of the product (e.g., as set out in product standards) and technical specifications of the process are separate and distinct from the applicable ISO 9000 family requirements or guidance. (ISO 1996: 71)

Applying the dichotomy to our study, we may say that the argumentation-centred TQA parameter grid established in chapters three and four and tested in chapters seven and eight is a combination of process specifications and guidance on how to conduct TQA, while the rating grid elaborated earlier in this chapter is in essence a product standard, serving to give a value to the translation as end product.

Bartsch also gives us a theoretical basis for solving some other dilemmas of translation quality standardization, not the least of which are the notions of flexibility and tolerance and, concomitantly, that of acceptable deviation embraced by the standard. At the core of Bartsch's standard lies the highest-order norm of understandability and effective communication. If these requirements are met, even deviant utterances become acceptable rather than incorrect. In the same way, we have suggested that translations are adequate if the essential argument is accurately rendered, notwithstanding other weaknesses.

Another important notion is that of use-specific norms, which may be applied in legal or administrative writing, for example, but not in general writing. Similarly, the end use or area of specialization of a translation will dictate the application of specific parameters—we have already suggested grammar and usage, style and terminology as sets of norms, or parameters, to be applied in the case of translations for publication.

The notion of translation adequacy as refined on the basis of Bartsch's view of norms and standards is relevant to the industrial product, where usability is the primary yardstick of success. But what of student translations and performance? The standard, or target quality level, necessarily depends on the learning objectives to be attained and the accurate rendering of argument macrostructure may be too lofty a goal to reach, even for
graduating students. This does not prevent us, however, from incorporating the macrostructure into the student translation rating grid and weighting it differently from industrial translations. In short, a flexible, comprehensive standard must include a number of "standard" grades.

In his article "On Grading," the philosopher J. O. Urmson points out that the grades assigned to products do not necessarily imply poor quality. He gives the example of a qualitative grading that includes the word "good" as the third highest of four levels, after "excellent" and "very good" but before "fair." Such a grading terminology shows the order of various products, but not their absolute position, whereas "first-rate," "second-rate" and so on show both order and absolute position. These are general grading labels, which can be applied to many different products and mean many different things. There are also specialized labels such as those applied to fruit and vegetables—"super grade," "extra fancy grade," etc. The key, says Urmson, is to specify, and win agreement on, the criteria to be met to warrant each grade. Specialized labels often come with a set of criteria against which each unit is examined with a view to grading: size, shape, ripeness, etc. in the case of apples, for example. As a result, "specialized grading labels show absolute position as well as order more explicitly and more frequently than more general ones" (1957: 387). Urmson remarks, further, that the criteria will differ with the product being graded: the criteria for cabbage will not be exactly the same as for apples.

Because of the heterogeneous nature of translation, an appropriate grading scheme would, it seems, reflect the difference in products and their use rather than, or not just, their order or absolute position. In other words, we should be able to establish a criterion-referenced quality level of a given translation product, depending on the type of evaluation at issue. We therefore propose, on the basis of our research, the following initial grade scheme, which also serves as a set of general and use-specific standards, in the sense of levels of quality to which professionals or students are expected to conform:
1. **Basic standard**

The text accurately renders all components of the argument (reasoning) macrostructure.

2. **Publication standard**

The text renders all components of the argument (reasoning) macrostructure and satisfies all target-language parameters.

3. **Student standard**

The text renders the argument (reasoning) macrostructure and satisfies target-language parameters *in accordance with assigned learning objectives.*

In fact, what we are defining here is the quality of the text exemplifying each standard or model—an exemplar, if you will. There is no single, universal standard here, such as “zero defects,” but a set of specific standards to be applied according to context and text function (of course, “zero defects” could be a specific standard in itself or subsumed under a given standard). It follows, particularly from a student assessment perspective, that there would be several levels of *excellence* to be attained, with each quality level representing a milestone standard against which to gauge progress (Wiggins 1993: 286-87).

We can, however, make the definitions more precise by reintroducing a necessary component—that of the defect. We saw in Chapter Five that quality control theorists defined critical and major defects in relation to safety, prevention of performance and usability. Now that we have a theoretical basis for determining what constitutes the “essential message” of the text, we can narrow down the definition of the major defect as presented in Sical. We can describe it as one that entails failure to render an element of the argument or reasoning macrostructure, since in our view such a defect materially reduces the usability of the translation. Switching our terminology, we can now call such a defect “critical” and reserve the term “major” for those defects involving a failure to render an important part of the microtext, but not of the macrostructure—in other words, the balance of the defects that would have been assessed as major under Sical. We refine our definitions accordingly, adding a fourth grade to represent translations that meet none of the standards:
Maximum/publication standard
The text renders all components of the argument macrostructure and satisfies all target-language parameters. It contains no critical or major defects.

Minimum professional standard
The text accurately renders all components of the argument macrostructure. It contains no critical defects.

Student standard
The text renders the argument macrostructure and satisfies target-language parameters in accordance with assigned learning objectives.

Substandard
The text fails to render the argument macrostructure and fails to satisfy one or more of the target-language parameters relevant to its specific function or the assigned learning objectives.

The three standards correspond to the “grades” proposed by Nord (see 1.1.2.6.) in light of the varying functions of individual translations. Standard 1 (maximum/publication) corresponds to translations such as the criminology articles (texts 7 and 8) and even the statistical reports (5 and 6) examined in Chapter Seven, Standard 2 (minimum), to the quality level required for information purposes. We use the word “minimum,” in keeping with Wiggins’ nomenclature (1993: 288), to represent a minimum acceptable performance “in the field.”

If there can be a minimum standard, there can also be a maximum one. Walton (1989: 276-77) posits “two extreme possibilities of ... standards” of precision in making or assessing arguments: the high one (no chance of error) and the low one (reasonable assurance of accuracy). By analogy, we have used the term “maximum” as an alternative descriptor for the high standard, so as to apply it not only to publications but also to translations such as ministerial speeches, which, while not for publication as such, may
nonetheless require work of top quality. Indeed, the maximum standard may even, in some contexts, equate to "zero defects," depending on the degree to which specific-use parameters are applied.

The evaluator is responsible for deciding, on the basis of his knowledge of the context (work statement, etc.), what standard is to be applied and selects an appropriate grid and weighting factors; he thus retains discretionary power. However, because of the precise, text-level definition of defect and error, the evaluator is able to work with clear directives on how to weight weaknesses, so his assessments will reflect a strong degree of validity: i.e., the conclusions (grades) will be based on objectively verifiable reasons (weighting of defects/errors in relation to argument macrostructure).

Note

♦ For industry translation evaluations, the weight given to argument macrostructure within the grid determines the numerical value of adequate quality: if macrostructure counts for 40%, the minimum standard of adequacy is 40%; if it is 70%, the minimum standard is 70%, etc.

♦ Because the minimum standard requires appropriate rendering of all components of ST argument macrostructure, it is, from that perspective at least, based on "zero defects" tolerance.

♦ All three standards, even the student one, are predicated on the requirement of textual coherence (see Adab 2000: 224).

♦ The proposed nomenclature avoids the ambiguity of the terms "revisable" and "deliverable." Under specific circumstances, revisable translations containing numerous errors are deliverable, even "fully acceptable," and in reality most translations are revised by the client.
With respect to student assessment, the differentiation between critical and major defect will be of particular relevance to extending the grid to encompass substandard quality levels and passing grades for certification and examinations.

We can now revisit the summary table of our test results, presented at the start of Chapter 8, and apply the proposed set of ARTRAQ standards.

**Revised Comparative Summary Table of Assessments**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>ARTRAQ Result</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Sical result</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Letter to Minister</td>
<td>Maximum Professional Standard</td>
<td>No defects</td>
<td>0 errors</td>
<td>A: Superior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Letter with c.c. to Minister</td>
<td>Maximum Professional Standard</td>
<td>Macrostructure and other argumentation features of ST rendered</td>
<td>4T, 3L</td>
<td>B: Fully acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Letter to Minister</td>
<td>Substandard</td>
<td>Mistranslation of warrant affects argument macrostructure. Therefore, critical defect present</td>
<td>2T, 10L</td>
<td>B: Fully acceptable Deliverable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Statistical report</td>
<td>Substandard</td>
<td>Grounds mistranslated, in large part through failure to render conjunctives and thereby clarify propositional functions appropriately; therefore, argument macrostructure not preserved in TT and critical defect present</td>
<td>9T, 9L</td>
<td>C: Revisable Unsatisfactory in the case of contract work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Substandard</td>
<td>Grounds mistranslated, in large part through failure to render conjunctives and thereby clarify</td>
<td>10T, 8L</td>
<td>C: Revisable Unsatisfactory in the case of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. of errors
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>propositional functions appropriately; therefore, argument macrostructure not preserved in TT and critical defect present</th>
<th>contract work Note: 1 maj. T outside sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Substandard</td>
<td>Grounds, claims, narrative strategy misinterpreted; therefore, argument macrostructure not preserved in TT and critical defects present</td>
<td>1 maj. T, 7T, 8L C: Revisable Unsatisfactory in the case of contract work Note: 2 maj. T outside sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Minimum Professional Standard</td>
<td>Argument macrostructure rendered</td>
<td>9T, 7L C: Revisable Unsatisfactory in the case of contract work Note: 1 maj. T outside sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Minimum Professional Standard</td>
<td>Argument macrostructure rendered</td>
<td>4T, 5L B: Fully acceptable Note: 1 maj. T outside sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Substandard, Political science article</td>
<td>Argument macrostructure, propositional functions misinterpreted; critical defects present</td>
<td>3 maj. T, 1L D: Unacceptable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note

- The translation of Text 2 meets the Minimum Professional Standard, not the Maximum, because (1) it was for information purposes only and (2) "Regulation of Bill 4" is a serious terminology error.
- The translations of texts 7 and 8 meet the Minimum Professional Standard, not the Maximum, because they require revision for publication and because they contain major defects (based ARTRAQ definition of major defect).
- The translation of Text 11 has been rated Substandard because of the critical defects. However, it is a student translation, and the grade would therefore depend on the applicable learning objectives against which the work was being assessed.

9.5. Standard conflict and resolution

Our final remarks in this chapter pertain to the difficulty in achieving consensus in matters of translation quality standards and assessment. According to Bartsch, in order for a norm to operate effectively, it must meet the following requirements:

1) It must regulate the behaviour of the population.
2) It must be accepted by the population as a guide for behaviour and correction.
3) It must be adopted by the population.
4) It must be valid, i.e., members of the population refer to it as the reason for justifying certain behaviour and for criticizing behaviour. "That is, validity of a norm justifies certain conduct. Validity is backed up by norm authorities and norm enforcers."
5) It must be justified with respect to a higher norm. If it is rational with respect to that norm and does not conflict with another norm or value, then it is justified. "In the case of conflict, between favouring one higher value or norm and hindering another value or norm, there can only be justification to some degree, but not absolutely" (1987: 301-302).
While these requirements apply to linguistic norms, a parallel can be fairly drawn with the translation quality standard. The stumbling block to acceptance and adoption of translation quality standards over the years has, in our view, been the failure to justify standards such as Sical and quantitative assessments with respect to the highest norm of understandability, effective communication and, by extension, text usability. In other words, the criticisms levelled at texts deemed unsatisfactory were not justified with respect to the norm of communication. The introduction of a new minimum standard, the avoidance of quantitative tolerance levels, and the redefinition of the major defect in terms of what is essential to the text as a whole lends the model a new flexibility that could help resolve some of the conflicts of the past.
CONCLUSION

We conclude with an assessment of our project in light of the anticipated results stated in Chapter Three.

1. TQA model

Our first anticipated results related to the selection and application of assessment parameters:

- a TQA model that is both criterion- and discourse-based, but is flexible enough to allow for microtextual TQA for specific purposes such as target-language quality assessment

- a comprehensive set of parameters that covers transfer of meanings at all levels

The testing has shown that an argumentation-centred model offers a prime advantage. The assessment parameters are such that each unit of text, whether a word or a paragraph, is explicitly and necessarily related to macrotextual elements. Thus the mistranslation of an individual word, phrase or sentence in the translations is not analysed from the standpoint of degree of equivalence to the corresponding units in the source; it is judged according to the contribution the ST unit makes to the purpose, or illocutionary point, of the text—a point made through the tools of reasoning and/or rhetoric, whatever the text type.

The argumentation parameters are thus macrotextual and microtextual at one and the same time. It is in this sense that our model responds to Bartsch's highest-order norm of communication and understandability, or text coherence, which is determined by macrostructure:
...the build-up of texts and their coherence are globally determined by the general theme, the "macrostructure" of the text, and the kind of text, or "superstructure"... (1987: 18-19)

All the microtextual grammatical and semantic norms are validated by this higher-level requirement.

In addition, the refinement of the model enabled us to incorporate a more conventional, microtextual error analysis of various target-language parameters as required by the nature of the text, client or end use, and thus respond to the functional requirement of an assessment/evaluation system adaptable to different purposes and client needs. We can therefore say that the model already covers transfer of meanings at all levels and, through the extended, weighted variant, even offers the potential for a comprehensive set of parameters for target-language assessment as well.

- a minimum level of acceptable overall quality for instrumental translations, thus avoiding the problem of how to graduate from assessment of discrete criteria to a measurement of overall quality

- a means of measuring quality of texts of varying lengths while avoiding the pitfalls of sampling and quantification

By applying Toulmin's argument macrostructure to TQA, we have established a minimum level of acceptable quality and performance based on theory instead of convention, experience, and an arbitrary quantification of quality ratings. In answering the fundamental question as to whether TT accurately conveys the argument macrostructure, i.e., the core message, the evaluator proceeds according to very exacting criteria that leave little margin for variation and inconsistency between assessments (assuming consistency in evaluator competence).

If the translation deviates from the argument macrostructure, it does not meet the
minimum standard for delivery. This serves to counter the criticism of excessive subjectivity often levelled against evaluators and TQA systems.

Regarding the issue of graduating to an assessment of overall quality from a compartmentalized assessment of discrete parameters, we contend that the argumentation-centred TQA model covers all elements of transfer. The extended model provides the flexibility needed to incorporate non-transfer features. As such the model fits the definition of an “aggregate measure” proposed by theorists of modern quality control:

A measurement can be aggregate if it represents a set of simple phenomena or a combination of several measurements into one on the basis of a pre-established, preferably simple law.

[Une mesure peut être agrégataire dans le sens où elle représente un ensemble de phénomènes simples ou encore la combinaison de plusieurs mesures en une seule suivant une loi préétablie, de préférence simple.] (Fatzer and Stora 1990: 220)

The weighting of parameters has enabled us to generate an aggregate TQA without requiring too many calculations. Quantification does come into play in the weighting for non-argumentation parameters, but the intensive quantification of minor defects can be replaced by the evaluator’s own judgment as to the importance of those parameters in the overall assessment.

Note also that the passage from parameter analysis to aggregative, overall assessment is facilitated by the fact that ARTRAQ focuses on and gives weight to effectiveness of message transfer; it is not based on an unweighted mix of transfer and target-language parameters, as in the case of the conventional models.

- a reliable measurement tool in that, from one text to the next, acceptable quality is
predicated on whether the argument macrostructure elements have been preserved in translation

- a valid measurement tool in that, as it entails text-level assessment, the results of TQA will automatically be representative of the whole text

It is the consistent recourse to argument macrostructure analysis and the rating of translations on that basis that ensures reliability and stability over time. The evaluator has been given a precise framework and procedure for determining, not judging, what is essential in ST. The model should therefore provide for greater reliability in assessment over time.

Validity is ensured by assessing all parts of the text that contain components of the macrostructure. We accept that this does not necessarily make for efficiency. It does, however, obviate the need to assess the whole translation. Gouadec’s suggestion of an assessment of at least 20 consecutive pages would seem a reasonable solution in the case of long texts for a large readership (1989: 45).

- tools for valid, comprehensive assessment of students’ work, which highlights the importance of textological parameters in interpreting meaning and gauging transfer quality and also, by establishing a new hierarchy of errors, suggests new directions for translator training

- a minimum standard of performance expected of graduating students—proven ability to understand and accurately transfer all elements of the argument macrostructure

- a clear rationale for the distinction between errors resulting from insufficient
translation competence, on the one hand, and insufficient discursive competence, on
the other, along with a new tool for identifying the problems involved and showing
how discursive constraints can affect/limit translators' decision making

Assessment of student performance has to be conducted in relation to specific learning
objectives. We have proposed a broad student quality standard, or grade, but it would be
possible to make it more precise in light of the objectives of a given course or program
and thus counter the accusations of inadequacy, vagueness and inaccuracy often levelled
at grading tools (Harper et al. 1999: 219). Furthermore, it would no doubt be reasonable
and, indeed, pedagogically productive to apply the minimum professional standard with
increasing frequency to graduating students.

Based on the evidence presented in Chapter Seven and Chapter Eight, application of
the argumentation-centred TQA model serves to differentiate between professional and
student competence. It also has the potential for helping students to solve problems of
transfer and for contributing to the etiology (explanation of the causes) and typology of
errors. Major errors in the test cases were consistently due to a failure to take the
argument macrostructure into consideration.

The potential of the ARTRAQ model for translator training, both as an explanatory and
as a learning tool, suggests that Andrews is right in advocating greater use of
argumentation in the learning process.

In terms of assessment/evaluation principles, the model meets

(1) the criteria for construct validity, in that it provides for accurate
measurement, over time, of the skills being measured;

(2) the criteria for content validity, in that assessment covers the skills necessary
for performance, i.e., for rendering argument and reasoned discourse in
translation and for demonstrating achievement of learning objectives;

(3) the criteria for generalizability, in that the components of the model are broad and precise enough for the evaluator/teacher to make a valid statement about the translator's or student's overall translation competence. The model is thus appropriate for testing and examinations;

(4) the criteria for predictive validity, in that, because it focuses on assessment of actual performance and on both microtextual and macrotextual aspects of the translation task, it can provide a good indication of how the student will perform "in the field";

(5) the need for clearly defined criteria, in that the argumentation parameters are precise and the ARTRAQ grid reflects that precision;

(6) the need for qualitative information on which to base conclusions and actions. It meets this need because it focuses on specific quality criteria, whereas the focus of the quantitative models is technical, functioning primarily on the basis of numerical thresholds and information.

2. Definition of error

- The definition of translation error will provide a coherent and defensible concept for error analysis and assessment. The definition of major/critical error, around which the determination of minimum acceptable quality revolves, will be based not only on empirical judgment but also on established theory.

See our earlier remarks (Chapter Ten). In the realm of modern quality control, Fatzer and Stora define "criticalité" as a key characteristic of a quality indicator:

A critical measurement is one associated with a critical stage in a process; non-conformity in completing the stage means that the ultimate objective cannot be achieved. Any process or procedure can be broken down into a number of major
subprocesses; the process and its major subprocesses are guided by means of a control board, which is bound to include all the quality indicators: e.g., correct address on an invoice.

[Une mesure critique est une mesure associée à une étape critique d'un processus, elle-même caractérisée par le fait que la non-conformité d'exécution entraîne l'impossibilité de réaliser l'objet final. Tout processus ou procédé peut être découpé en quelques sous-processus majeurs; ce processus et ses sous-processus majeurs sont pilotés suivant un tableau de bord, comprenant nécessairement tous les indicateurs de qualité. Exemples : exactitude de l'adresse dans une facture... ]

(1990: 220)

While the statement seems to focus on process rather than product, the example is indeed one of product, and of the type of criterion applied in TQA. Because of the theoretical underpinnings of the model, which provides a clear definition of those elements in a process or product that are to be deemed major/critical, we now have a defensible definition of critical and major defect based on the notion of criticality.

3. Definition of translation quality standard

- The definition of the translation quality standard (and any related normative statements) will provide the profession with a draft standard that incorporates actual quality levels in a textological framework. It will also relate the translation standard to the concepts of standardization in industry.

See our earlier remarks (Chapter Ten). Both the model as a process or guiding standard and the rating grid as a product standard offer the theoretical rigour and the flexibility required to meet most TQA needs and functions. We also suggest that they provide the reliability, validity, comprehensiveness and criticality required to resolve many of the conflicts that have raged over translation quality assessment.
Robert Larose concluded that a comprehensive translation quality assessment model was in all likelihood impossible to design. We hope that, by changing the focus of assessment from lexical and syntactic items to text, we have offered, if not a comprehensive alternative, at least an approach that covers all the significant elements in instrumental translation and places emphasis on quality according to translation function and end use.
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6. **Translation studies**


7. **Dictionaries and terminology studies**

