Problems of Finding Linguistic Equivalence When Translating & Interpreting for Special Purposes

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Abstract
This study was intended to explore the difficulties experienced by translators and interpreters as they strive to find equivalences during translation and interpretation exercises. With the observed changes in phenomena and increased innovations globally, it is expected that the translators and interpreters would ideally need to keep at par with the resultant development and even changes in choices of lexical items to be able to render their messages from the source texts (ST) into the target texts (TT) both effectively and efficiently. In doing this, the translators and interpreters may need to apply various approaches. This study used secondary data which included excerpts from texts translated from English into Kiswahili and from English into French. The analyzed data indicate that the translators will usually find it so difficult to find equivalence of some terminologies in Kiswahili and in French. Consequently, a number of strategies are employed by translators and interpreters to ensure effective and efficient translation and interpretation.

Key terms: Translation, Interpretation, source text (ST), source language (SL), target text (TT), target language (TL)

1.1 Introduction
Each language articulates or organizes the world differently. Languages do not simply name existing categories, but rather, they articulate their own (Baker, 1992). Languages have different concepts for conveying meanings as a result of which certain problems in finding a translation equivalent may arise in the translation process. Translation is the transfer of meaning from one language to another. Ideally, a quality translation should read as if it was originally written in the target language (TL), while finding a middle ground between linguistic form and cultural acceptability. This is conditioned by the choice of suitable translation equivalents in the target language.

Texts and speeches which are meant for specific purposes display many linguistic peculiarities ranging from lexical, semantic, through pragmatic specificity. Because these peculiarities are mostly deeply rooted in the culture, finding their equivalence from the source text (ST) to the target text (TT) is not an easy task when translating or interpreting. Some words, phrases and statements which are used to designate facts, objects, events and other phenomena are usually so entwined in the culture and sometimes unknown to the target audience. According to
Baker’s taxonomy, the comparison of texts in different languages inevitably involves a theory of equivalence. Equivalence is said to be the central issue in translation although its relevance, definition and applicability within the field of translation theory have caused controversy, and many different theories of the concept of equivalence have been elaborated.

Terminological equivalence is one main issue in translation. To find equivalence in translations for special purpose languages, the translator has to structure the terms of a given text by reference to a conceptual system and thus independently identify the conceptual system in which a specific term is embedded for both source and target language. Language for Special Purposes (LSP) is defined as "a formalized and codified variety of language, with the function of communicating information of a specialist nature at any level in the most economic, precise and unambiguous term possible," (Picht & Draskau, 1985:198). Special purpose texts are typically characterized by context-specific terminology and discourse. Therefore, the chances of encountering significant equivalence problems are quite high. This study helps interpreters and translators to understand the complex nature of their work and also suggests the necessary skills and approaches that interpreters and translators can apply to ensure the efficiency and effectiveness of their tasks.

1.2. Statement of the Problem
Finding equivalence in both translation and interpretation is usually very difficult. This is usually made more challenging by the constant development of terminologies in some languages, coupled with increased innovations and changes in phenomena. Consequently, translators and interpreters are in a constant struggle to keep up with the changes and find relevant, efficient and effective equivalents during their translation and interpretation exercises. It is based on this understanding that this study, already recognizing the difficulties of finding such equivalents, strives to explore how the translators and interpreters mitigate against such difficulties.

1.3 Research Questions
This research was guided by the following research questions:
   a) Is it possible to find equivalence in translation and interpretation exercises from English into standard Kiswahili and French?
   b) What are the strategies that translators and interpreters use to enable them deliver the intended message from the ST into the TT in instances where there are no equivalents.

1.4 Scope
This paper specifically deals with the problem of finding equivalence in both translation and interpretation exercises from English into Kiswahili and French. Even though there are a number of other challenges that translation and interpretation exercises may face, this study will be limited to the challenge of finding equivalence alone. Moreover, two translated texts, one in the legal and another in the medical field, will be used as cases for this study. The study, however, recognizes the fact that the problem of finding equivalence in both translation and interpretation would, ideally go beyond these two fields. The texts used in this study were...
translated from English into Kiswahili and from English into French. The texts were chosen merely on purpose and it is important to note that the purported challenges could be experienced in translation and interpretation exercises from English into any other language of the world. The study will, however, be based on the texts translated from English into French alone.

1.5 Theoretical Framework
This study is based on the theoretical approach of Communicative and Semantic Translation developed by Newmark (1981). This approach will be considered as a theory to the extent that it is capable of providing the basis and terminology of analysis to the data used in the study. The theory is considered to have both descriptive and explanatory adequacy of any linguistic theory. In observing that many attempts to develop theories around translation have ended up only offering possible processes of translation, Newmark concludes that there can never be a universal theory on the subject of translation. In this controversy, Newmark ends up with the communicative and semantic approaches to translation. This study will rely on these approaches for the analysis of the data.

1.6 Literature Review
A variety of literature has been reviewed in this section. The sections that follow provide this review.

1.6.1 Theories of Equivalence
In 1965, Catford developed what he calls linguistic theory to translation. This theory has been adversely criticized as his overreliance on linguistics as it leaves out very important aspects of translation such as culture and paralinguistic features. Baker (1992) combines both linguistic and communicative approaches to translation. She analyzes equivalence at different levels taking into account the problems that translators may be faced with during the translation process. Baker introduced such notions as equivalence at word level, above word level, and grammatical, textual, and pragmatic equivalence. Nida (1964) brought in formal equivalence which concentrates on the message itself in form and content and dynamic equivalence, which focuses on the transfer of meaning from the ST to the TT that will trigger the same impact on the target culture.

Jacobson’s study of equivalence gave new insight to the theoretical analysis of translation since he introduced the notion of 'equivalence in difference'. On the basis of his semiotic approach to language and his aphorism, ‘there is no signatum (meaning) without signum’ (sign or verbal code), he suggests three kinds of translation; intralingual (within one language, i.e. rewording or paraphrasing), interlingual (between two languages), and intersemiotic (between sign systems) (Jacobson, 1959). Jacobson (1959) further claims that the translator makes use of synonyms in the case of interlingual translation in order to get the ST message across. This means that in interlingual translations there is no full equivalence between code units. According to this theory, translation is about two equivalent messages in two different codes.
(Jacobson, 1959). He continues to say that from a grammatical point of view, languages may differ from one another to a lesser or greater degree, but this does not mean that a translation cannot be possible. In other words, the translator may face the problem of not finding a translation equivalent. He suggests that when there is deficiency, terminology may be amplified and qualified by loanwords or loan-translations, neologisms or semantic shifts and by circumlocutions (Jacobson, 1959).

1.6.2 Types of Equivalence
From the literature, it is notable that there are a number of types of equivalence. The sections that follow present brief descriptions of the types of equivalence.

Equivalence at word level: A word is commonly defined as the basic meaningful element in a language. It may contain more than one element of meaning. However, even a unit smaller than a word, a morpheme, may convey meaning. Equivalence at word level is the first element to be taken into consideration by the translator in order to find a direct 'equivalent' term in the TL. The translator should pay attention to a number of factors such as tense, gender, and number when considering a single word (Baker 1992).

Equivalence above word level: The combination of words is not random. Each language imposes certain restrictions on the combinations of words as to how they can be combined to convey meaning. Some restrictions are written down in the form of rules. These apply to classes of words and admit no exceptions.

Grammatical equivalence: This refers to the diversity of grammatical categories across languages. Certain grammatical categories may or may not be expressed in different languages and this influences the translation process. The lack of certain grammatical devices in the TL may cause changes in conveying the message. Amongst the grammatical devices which may cause problems in translation, Baker (1992) focuses on voice, tense, aspect, number, gender, and person.

Textual equivalence: This is the equivalence between a SL text and a TL text in terms of cohesion and coherence. Being able to detect these features in the SL text helps the translator to convey them adequately in the TL text since they provide useful guidelines for the comprehension and analysis of the ST.

Pragmatic equivalence: This refers to what is implied rather than what is explicit. The translator’s role is to transfer the author’s intention in another culture in such a way that enables the target culture reader to understand it clearly.

Dynamic equivalence: Nida’s Science of Translating states that the most important fact in translation is that the message should go through. The emphasis is on the TT receiver and to achieve this, translators need to be free in their style. Since the general context of the message is the priority, the foreign elements in the text are eliminated by rearranging the TT structure and word order, sentence order, by modifying or replacing some parts of speech (e.g. noun-pronoun, verb-noun, adjective-verb etc). Consequently, the translator leaves the author of the ST in peace and focuses more on satisfying the target audience. This approach is, sometimes, called the close natural equivalence of the ST.
Formal equivalence: This is also known as word for word translation. Preference is given to the SL text. The translator seeks to reflect the content and form of the ST in the TT as closely as possible. This is achieved through grammatical units such as the use of words and sense of terms i.e. the translator translates verb for verb, noun for noun, thus maintaining the sentence and paragraph boundaries and in the end, the ST foreignness is brought into the TT.

Directional equivalence: Kade (1968) highlights four types of directional equivalence. These were observed to include:

- Zero equivalence: one unit ST = Zero unit of TT e.g English ‘incubator’ has no unit in Kiswahili.
- Total equivalence: one unit ST = One unit of TT e.g English ‘law’ has ‘sheria’ in Kiswahili.
- Approximate equivalence: one unit ST = Two units of TT e.g Kiswahili ‘mshtakiwa’ has ‘accused’ and ‘defendant’ in English. French ‘ciel’ has ‘sky’ and ‘heaven’ in English.
- Optional equivalence: one unit ST = Many units of TT e.g Kiswahili ‘utaratibu’ has ‘regulation, procedure, schedule, process’ in English. English ‘Voltage’ has ‘tension électrique, puissance électrique, courant électrique or énergie électrique’ in French.

Functional equivalence: In translation of communication acts between experts, the first and foremost aim is to ensure that the translation has the same communicative function as the ST. The translator will, therefore, use the same functional style as a person writing the text in their language (Stolze, 2009). Pommer (2006) equally stresses the principle of functional equivalence when it comes to developing a translation strategy.

1.7 Methodology
This research relied on secondary data. It used a purposive data sampling technique. A legal text translated from English into French and a medical text translated from English into Kiswahili was identified on purpose. Data was put in a bilingual format and comparisons done against the premises of semantic and communicative approaches to translation. The chosen texts had been translated, edited and proofread by professional translators. These texts were, therefore, considered as final. The selected bilingual texts were studied and analyzed. On the basis of the considerations made on the achieved translations and the motivation behind them, the analysis was made.

1.8 Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion
The section that follows presents the data obtained and used in this study. It presents translated texts both of a legal and a medical text.
### 1.8.1 The Case of Legal and Medical Texts

**Case Study 1:** Legal text translation and interpretation from English to French

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Strategy / Stratégie</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English: The exercise of civil rights is independent of the exercise of political rights, which are acquired and preserved in accordance with constitutional and electoral statutes.</td>
<td>Conformément = is a French adverb. Accordance/conformity is an English Noun. To solve the problem of linguistic equivalence, stylistique comparée (transposition) can be used. i.e. conformement which is an adverb has its equivalent in accordance or in conformity which is a noun. The strategy used here is transposition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French: L’exercice des droits civils est indépendant de l’exercice des droits politiques, lesquels s’acquièrent et se conservent conformément aux lois constitutionnelles et électorales.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English: Each French citizen shall enjoy civil rights. French: Tout Français jouira des droits civils.</td>
<td>Droits = laws, rights. Here again, the directional equivalence may be useful. However, the context will guide the translator in choosing the best equivalent as the concept ‘droit’ in French can either be ‘law’ or ‘right’ in English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English: Everyone has the right to respect for his/her private life. French: Chacun a droit au respect de sa vie privée.</td>
<td>Sa = her, a possessive adjective (‘sa’ is used in French for feminine nouns only. The gender of the subject is not considered here. The noun is ‘vie’). In contrast, in English, ‘her/his’ will be used based on the gender of the subject. To solve the problem of equivalence, a mastery of French/English parts of speech (such as pronouns and adjectives...) is paramount.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English: France must strengthen its institutions and operate according to the rule of law. As such we will not accept that it should be prone to instability and lawlessness. French: La France doit renforcer ses institutions et fonctionner comme un état de droit, nous ne tolèrerons pas qu’elle soit en proie à l’instabilité et à l’absence d’état de droit.</td>
<td>un état de droit = rule of law, constitutional state, state of law (directional equivalence, one = many units). L’absence d’état de droit. = lawlessness (here the modulation approach of translation is used).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English: A French (person) may be brought/prosecuted before a court of France for obligations contracted by him in a foreign country, even with a foreigner.</td>
<td>In this example, the Nida’s dynamic equivalence is applied. As in French ‘on traduit quelqu’un devant un tribunal’ is literally ‘to translate somebody before a court’.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
French: Un Français pourra être traduit devant un tribunal de France, pour des obligations par lui contractées en pays étranger, même avec un étranger.

**Case Study 2:** Medical/Legal text translation and interpretation from English to Kiswahili

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation Problem</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Equivalence in Medical Translation</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No direct term but known concept e.g. Gynecologist /Diabetes</td>
<td>Paraphrase ‘Daktari wa wanawake /Ugonjwa wa sukari’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept not known e.g. Dialysis</td>
<td>Explanation ‘Tiba mbadala inayofanya kazi ya figo’. (Alternative treatment to help the kidney perform its function).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No equivalent terms lexical gaps e.g. incubator, wheelchair and laboratory.</td>
<td>Borrowing - Terms used as they are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate equivalent - e.g. stroke, paralysis</td>
<td>Terms used as translated but vague and can have other interpretations i.e. numbness/epilepsy – ‘Kiharusi/kupooza’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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The following are excerpts from a postpartum depression early detection tool for mental health (EDPS questionnaire), adaptation & translation from English to Kiswahili.

1. I have been able to laugh and see the funny side of things.

2. I have been anxious or worried for no good reason.

3. Things have been getting on top of me.

There is no clear term for Postpartum Depression in Kiswahili. It is described as a psychological illness, i.e. ‘Mfadhaiko, /Akili Kuhangaika (baada ya kujifungua).’

1. Seeing the funny side of things is a phrase and it was difficult to settle on an exact translation and meaning. Most translations read ‘Nimeweza kufurahia mambo’ which was back translated as to be happy about things, a translation which the team thought had lost the original meaning and so settled on ‘Nimeweza kucheka na kuona jambo la kuchekesha katika mambo’ - I have been able to laugh and see the funny things in different situations.

2. There is no clear translation of the word anxious. In Kiswahili, ‘anxious’ and ‘worried’ have similar expressions ‘wasiwasi’. Hence the team decided to use the word ‘wasiwasi’ for both anxious and worried.
4. I have been so unhappy that I have been crying.

5. I have felt scared or panicky for no good reason.

6. I have been so unhappy that I have had difficulty sleeping.

Findings

A translation by a linguist was observed to be too technical for the general population to easily understand. The use of simple terms that could easily be understood by the target population was suggested. A controversy between colloquial Kiswahili versus grammatically correct one was observed. In some instances the grammatically correct word was inserted in brackets so as not to lose meaning. The questionnaire retained the meaning of the English version statement. Semantics and medical meaning were kept intact. Following the translations, there was

3. ‘Things have been getting on top of me’ is an English phrase. The team was careful not to translate directly but instead focused on the semantic implications of the phrase and translated it as ‘Mambo yamekuwa yakinilemea’.

4. Observation of the cultural meaning and understanding of the term crying was made. In the African setting, it is more acceptable for adults to shed tears than to cry ‘kulia’ when sad. Hence, the team settled for the translation ‘tokwa na machozi’, back translated as shed tears rather than ‘lia’ which means ‘to cry’. Another observation made here was in understanding the meaning behind the question. The lay translator understood the question as ‘having been sad because they had been crying’. This meant that the crying actually resulted in their sadness and not the other way round.

5. There was no clear word to directly translate ‘panicky’. They settled for ‘hofu na uoga’. ‘Uoga’ means ‘fear’ while ‘hofu’ means a ‘deeper fear’. The meaning of the question was retained in this way.

6. Different interpretations of the question brought out different translations. One interpretation gave the impression that ‘I have been lacking sleep hence unhappy’ translated as ‘Sijafurahi kwamba nimekuwa na shida yakulala’. The team gave emphasis to the sadness that resulted in the lack of sleep ‘Nimekuwa na huzuni sana hadi nimekuwa na ugumu kupata usingizi’. The back translation of this was: I have been so sad, that I have had difficulties getting sleep.
difficulty in attempting to tease out the different intensities of each likely response (anxious. vs. worried, panicky vs. fear) Recommendations were made to also include a visual aid e.g. a chart to help the participants understand the different degrees of intensity each choice offered.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equivalence in Legal Translation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Disputable</strong></td>
<td>Paraphrase/Use of general terms ‘Yenye uwezo wa kuleta mzozo/ubishi’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>No one is above the law</strong></td>
<td>Word for Word ‘Hakuna mtu yeyote alye juu ya sheria’ ‘Watu wote wako sawa mbele ya sheria’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>By virtue of...</strong></td>
<td>Directional equivalence: One to many</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In light of.....</td>
<td>} ‘Kwa mujibu wa’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In view of...</td>
<td>Although in English the phrases across can carry different meanings, in Kiswahili all are expressed in the same way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In accordance to...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this regard....</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Foreign term – lexical gap</strong></td>
<td>Loan/transliteration - taking over a term from another language but adjusting its pronunciation, spelling &amp; morphological characteristics to fit into the target language. ‘hebasi’ ‘kopasi’ ‘ekisipati, and ‘semansi’, ‘waranti’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Habeas Corpus, Ex parte, Summons, Warrant.</em></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**1.8.2 Problems in Finding Linguistic Equivalence for Special Purposes**

There was an observed lack of sufficient terminology to name concepts of the subject field. In some instances, there were no equivalent terms at word level (target language has no direct equivalence for a word in the ST). The translator was, therefore, left to find other strategies of ensuring that the audience is efficiently and effectively informed of the intentions of the ST in the TT. Several strategies would be used in such instances. There were also instances where the terms that are used are not standardized. In such scenarios, the communicative purpose of the translation and/or interpretation would be overemphasized.

There are also observed lexical gaps which lead to language expansion i.e. borrowing & loaning. Kiswahili is observed to have inadequate expression of technical terms. In such circumstances, the translator and/or interpreter is tasked to bridge the gap and enhance the intended communication in moving the information from the ST to the TT.
It has also been observed that there is lack of specialist dictionaries/glossaries. This resulted from the scarcity of well trained technical experts in creation of new terminologies, distribution and dissemination to users. Such inadequacies were observed mostly in Kiswahili. Finally, there was an observed challenge of finding a balanced language that is not too technical for the layman user and not too general for the expert – doctor to patient, lawyer to client, social workers to community members etc. and also the fact that some registers are unknown to other speakers.

1.8.3 Strategies of Solving the Problems of Linguistic Equivalence in LSP
Because of linguistic dependence in the process of transferring a message from a source language to the target audience, some theorists have come up with approaches to handle issues of equivalence. Examples include: *stylistique comparée* which include; emprunt/borrowing, calque/loaning, and *traduction littérale*/word for word, Nida’s dynamic and formal equivalence, Kade’s directional equivalence, Newmark’s linguistic shifts and others. The approaches are hereby briefly discussed in the sections that follow.

**Borrowing/Emprunt:** It entails transferring an SL word to a TL. This is used when the TL does not have a lexicalized correspondence. E.g. *coup d’état, rendezvous, menu* in English and *weekend/wikendi* for Kiswahili.

**Loan/Calque:** This literally means to copy. Here, a copy of an SL word or expression is made into the TL using literal translation of its elements. The translator/interpreter here imitates in his text or speech the structure or manner of expression of the SL. For example, the champions league in English translates into *la ligue des champions* in French.

**Word-for-word translation:** It ranges from Word to word to sentence to sentence:
- Word to word/ group of words to group of words
- Collocation to collocation
- Clause to clause
- Sentence to sentence

**Transposition:** This reflects the grammatical changes from the SL to the TL (singular-plural, Noun-verb, Noun-adjective, etc). This is used as a way to replace a lexical gap.

**Modulation:** It refers to a change in point of view that allows the interpreter/translator to express the same phenomenon in a different way. This can be seen in cases where, for instance, the positive is used to express the negative.

**Equivalence:** This is the situation whereby a TL statement is substituted for one expressing the same situation when there is no formal semantic correspondence to render a phrase from a SL with a set of phrase in the TL which expresses the same idea. For example; Too many cooks spoil the broth translates into *deux patrons font chavirer la barque* in French. This can also be demonstrated in the following translation in Kiswahili; Ability is wealth = *Akili ni Mali* (Kiswahili).

**Adaptation:** Here, the translator/interpreter creates a new situation because the event in the SL is unknown to the TL culture. For example, ‘the rule of law’ translated into *Un état de droit* - constitutional state, state of law.
1.8.4 Equivalence in the Case of Legal Texts - LSP

Law is a system of social convention defined by social agreement and legislation that regulate the orderly living together of people within their culture. Law also deals with all aspects and values of life (offence, crime, family, affairs, health, education, administration, trade, politics, etc). It is an amalgam of different systems which have evolved separately and are generally confined within national and linguistic boundaries (Groffier, 1990). People with a given cultural background (though they might have the same view about human values) will definitely not have the same considerations about the legal treatment of these values. Therefore, the legal translator/interpreter is faced with the problem of finding equivalents for culture-bound terms, particularly those related to institutions, concepts, personnel and procedures.

Pommer (2006) shows that legal concepts have their origins in different legal systems with different cultural roots, leading to the conclusion that absolute equivalence between legal terminologies of different legal orders is not possible. De Groot (1999), however, concedes that absolute equivalence is possible if two different legal orders have adopted their terms from a third system and where harmonization and standardization has occurred.

As a language for special purpose, legal discourse has two kinds of addressees: the lawyer and the general public. Its terms have a double coding; a specialist concept and a lay meaning using the same linguistic frame. One of the hallmarks of legal discourse is arguably that it is not restricted to specialists, but is (at least in theory) intended for the lay person. In some cases, the lawyer acts as an intermediary or surrogate addressee, ‘translating’ the word of the law into everyday language (Cornu, 1990); in others the layperson becomes a substitute lawyer (e.g. as juror or lay justice) and makes utterances having legal effects (wills, the verdict of ‘guilty/not guilty’ or the words ‘I do’ during a wedding ceremony).

Another hallmark of law is that language is both the object studied and the means of analysis (Legault, 1979). For the lawyer, language is not simply a medium but can also be manipulated to win a case. Law falls into the same category of knowledge as politics, ethics and metaphysics, which exist within the realm of rhetoric; their reliance on natural language causes them to be ‘rotten with ambiguity’ (Raymond, 2000). Whereas most special-purpose communication is based on empirical knowledge and consequently aims at uniformity, ambiguity in a contract of law can be used to reach a compromise (Doonan, 1995) or to create uncertainties which one of the parties will subsequently seek to exploit (Cornu, 1990). In the case of international treaties, ambiguity can be a diplomatic tactic.

The legal text is in this respect comparable to the literary text, in which ambiguity is viewed not as a defect but as an inherent feature which should be retained in translation (Posner, 1988). But, whereas literary interpretation often sees an inexhaustibility of meaning, both in its depths and in the potential proliferation of its different interpretations, readings in law, by contrast, are more constrained; they are usually not free. The problem of translating ambiguity then leads to the question of interpretation. It can be said that translation, like any act of reading,
necessarily involves interpretation (Gémar, 1995) and that placing restrictions on this process prevents the translator from producing quality work. On the matter of fidelity in the translation of legal texts, the United Nations instructions for translators stipulate that “…fidelity to the original text must be the first consideration,” (Sarcevic 1997:16). Translators working in the America are advised not to alter the length of sentences to avoid imposing their own interpretations. This literal view of fidelity reflects the positivist tradition in legal interpretation, which holds that the meaning of a legislative text is ‘declared’ rather than being construed or created, by the person interpreting it. A similarly narrow view of fidelity is apparently still encountered by the court interpreter. Since lawyers are well aware that language is an empowering tool, they are evidently reluctant to give translators leave to choose the words to use. Another feature of legal texts is speech acts, expressed through per-formative verbs as actions and relations have to be designated verbally.

1.9 Conclusion
Although legal discourse and medical terminology fall under the category of languages for special purposes, these texts must also appeal to natural language in order to be understood by the lay person. Moreover, both also use general language, as it would not be possible to write texts without it. Achieving an equivalent impact on the target reader may sometimes justify changes to the original text to respect the stylistic conventions of the target culture. The challenge here is attributed to the many difficulties mentioned in this paper and in instances where literal linguistic equivalence is imposed by the curious legal conditions. The translator or interpreter has to observe these aspects, in order to render equivalent and precise information.

In reference to the case study of legal discourse, law is a notoriously unstable discipline; it cannot be clearly defined. As a result, legal discourse is constantly fluctuating. Its meaning constantly shifts depending on the language in which it is expressed and even on the reader. From this perspective, it is not different from other special languages, like medical, because the aim is to render exactly what is written. Consequently, translation only facilitates understanding and is bound to the original. Understanding therefore, needs to be arrived at by way of interpretation and finding the most equivalent terms to express meaning.

Finding linguistic equivalence calls for different approaches to translation and interpretation. There are different levels of equivalence and translators/interpreters need to make decisions on how to tackle them as the translation/interpretation progresses. Equivalence at sentence level-semantic may not be enough, especially where implicature is concerned. To communicate the same content or to find pragmatic equivalence does not necessarily mean that there is semantic equivalence. Sometimes, equivalence at the semantic level may not bring about cohesion or will not work as meaning is culture specific and social-cultural dimensions need to be considered. Therefore, expressions in languages for special purposes just like in natural or general language have to represent the same things, ideas and intentions for them to be equivalent.
References