

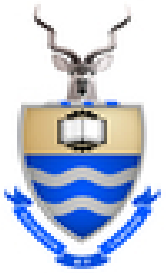
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Prepare for take-off: proposing a functionalist, genre-based guideline for legal and institutional translators

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University of Witwatersrand
Faculty of Humanities
School of Literature, Language and Media
Translation Studies Department

RESEARCH REPORT

Prepare for Take-Off: Proposing a Functionalist, Genre-Based Guideline for Legal and Institutional Translators

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A Research Report Submitted
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in Partial Fulfilment for the Degree of Master of Arts in Translation.

PLAGIARISM DECLARATION

University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

School of Language, Literature and Media

SENATE PLAGIARISM POLICY

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ABSTRACT

There are numerous tools available for legal translators to help them navigate a job's difficulties that simultaneously demand knowledge and expertise in Comparative Law, Translation, and Linguistics. Additionally, the growing trend toward greater interdisciplinarity in Translation Studies (TS) has provided an array of new tools available to aid the translator, primarily due to technological advancements in Computer-Aided Translation tools (CAT tools) over the last few decades. Despite the relative infancy of some of these resources, the extent of their usefulness reaches the highest levels of specialised language, as is the case of highly technical legal translators working in aeronautical law and other specialised fields of legal translation. Moreover, recent studies have shown that resource-related issues, such as a lack of awareness and the mismanagement of digital resources, are unnecessary obstacles for legal translators. The literature review confirms this praxis-related shortcoming, revealing that translators could rapidly employ strategies to overcome salient problems when translating legal texts. Additionally, several studies point to novel technologies, especially digitised corpora, as presenting new avenues of research and as a mode of dealing with translation problems. Thus, the Research Paper aims to answer calls by scholars of Legal- and Corpus-Based and Corpus-Assisted Legal Translation Studies (LTS and CBLTS/CALTS) for further investigation into the best accessible approaches and digital resources available to legal-technical translators who lack the ideal expertise. The results indicate that popular Corpus Linguistics software can have numerous helpful applications for the cohort group, especially in specialised legal sub-genres and their corresponding Units of Specialised Meaning (USMs) tasks.

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I want to express my gratitude to my Chilean family at the Civil Aeronautics Board of Chile (*JAC*) in downtown Santiago, who allowed me to learn not only about translating Treaties but also about myself. Additionally, I would like to thank my mentor and friend, Orión Aramayo, who taught me the importance of discipline and living more intelligently, for which I am deeply grateful.

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TABLE OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

TS	Translation Studies
LTS	Legal Translation Studies
CBLTS	Corpus-Based Legal Translation Studies
CALTS	Corpus-Assisted Legal Translation Studies
SL	Source Language
TL	Target Language
ST	Source Text
TT	Target Text
TLC	Target Legal Culture
USM(s)	Units(s) of Specialised Meaning
CAT	Computer-Aided Translation
CAT Tools	Computer-Aided Translation Tools

1. INTRODUCTION

Las innovaciones más originales y fecundas resultan de la recombinación de especialidades situadas en el punto de confluencia de varias disciplinas[1]

1.1. INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH PROJECT

This research aims to produce a Guideline for legal and institutional translators who translate legal documents in an organisational setting. The Guideline (See Chapter 5) comprises an amalgamation of pertinent elements identified in studies that have similarly endeavoured to provide practical, well-researched ways of improving translation praxis among legal and institutional translators.

The theoretical framework used is a genre and supergenre analysis in professional applications. Contributions are drawn from, among other things, corpus linguistics, jurilinguistics (AKA legilinguistics), and corpus use for learning applications. Furthermore, at a theoretical level, this research arguably forms part of the work of a novel research tradition of Legal Translation Studies (LTS) scholars, which posits a counterclaim to a notion previously held in translation scholarship. This arguably archaic notion that legal translators must be legal experts to translate legal texts is disconcerting to the translator because it implies that translators have not acquired the ideal spectrum of leg-linguistic education to execute adequate translations.

Therefore, the "Guideline" proposed in this Research project comprises the project's final research product and draws its inspiration from the following central ideas: Firstly, legal texts are complex and challenging, mainly because the translator must be aware of extratextual factors conditioning the reception of the Target Text (TT) in a target legal system; secondly, the assumption drawn from the literature is that legal translators do not have to be legal experts to translate legal texts; and, thirdly, following an extensive documentary search in the preliminary stage of this project, the literature revealed several authors who have produced promising research findings regarding

[1] Dogan, 1997. Cited in Prieto Ramos, 2014, p. 261.

implementable strategies for non-expert legal and institutional translators. These strategies focus on integrating critical aspects of Comparative Law and Corpus Linguistics and will be discussed in the literature review section of this Research Report.

Consequently, the literature review expounds on the postulated strategies and techniques from the various scholars, which can arguably help the cohort[2] in remedying some of the inevitable "blind spots" they probably suffer through non-exposure to legal translation training. However, before elaborating on the concept of "blind spots," it must be pointed out that the hopeful beneficiaries of the project and the recipients who might find it worth exploiting the Guideline represent the cohort group.

Although this project will not study a traditional cohort, the cohort group referred to in this project comprise translators lacking legal expertise and the ability to create technical corpora. Consequently, the focus of this project is not on a conventional cohort group for study. Instead, it aims to research and simulate a practical translation aid (i.e., a praxis-based Guideline) for a collective compilation of translator profiles that various scholars have individually and collaboratively examined (e.g., freelance versus institutional). The cohort group will be discussed in more detail in 2.1 to explain the relevant criteria for demographic delimitation, resting mainly on a shared lack of experience translating legal documents. Nevertheless, future studies involving translation experiments can be applied directly to a study of the Guideline's effectiveness among this broadly delimited group of professional translators.

In this light, the project argues that cohort translators suffer "blind spots" due to insufficient exposure to the appropriate professional formation. In this sense, the project hopes to extrapolate the possible benefits of integrating sophisticated corpus-assisted praxis into their working

[2] Note: This is not a traditional cohort that will be studied. In this Research Project, the cohort refers to a conglomerate of individual translation profile groups, from freelance to full-time legal translators, identified in the literature. The main defining feature of this group is their need for formal training and experience with Comparative Law and Corpus Linguistics. These two competency fields are particularly relevant to contemporary Legal Translation Studies. Considering that many professional, institutional legal translators do not use corpora, the widespread misuse among professional translator groups is a curious anomaly, given the success of corpora in Legal Translation Studies (Prieto Ramos, 2020). See 2.1. for a more detailed description of the cohort and the reasoning behind its delimitation, particularly regarding the critical competencies identified in the literature for legal translators.

methods. It is precisely this shared lack of experience that this project argues the cohort's "blind spots." These lacking skills are addressed throughout the literature review. They relate to the skills many legal translators lack.

Conversely, studies have shown that highly ranked legal translators at various International Organisations (IOs) generally rely on the skills and knowledge they have honed over time instead of those learnt in pedagogical settings (Lafeber, 2012; Prieto Ramos, 2021a). The project further argues that these "expert" translators' passively honed expertise set is indelible in producing superior translation quality (Prieto Ramos, 2019a). Therefore, in following this logic, the ensuing statement may be rationalised: Since the cohort group does not hold the perfect legal translation knowledge and skill set, its respective members, including students and inexperienced translators, *must* find alternative modes of accessing the necessary legal and linguistic information they might require when faced with related problems in a professional scenario.

Considering the translator must be familiar with the legal systems of the Source Text (ST) and the TT, this project addresses the concept of inter-systemic legal translation as a pervasive challenge to most translators who represent the cohort group. Familiarity with both legal systems is a demanding task. Therefore, scholars often describe Comparative Law as an essential pre-requisite for effective inter-systemic legal translation, as pointed out by Prieto Ramos and others (Engberg, 2020). Considering this, the project departs by describing some of the challenges of legal translation to ascertain how translators could navigate a profession that requires significant time and energy to master.

Besides integrating aspects of Comparative Law, several scholars featured in the literature review consistently pointed to the need for legal translators to employ more responsible resource management systems to compensate for their lacking experience. Exemplifying "responsible management systems" is the systematic approach undertaken in the Robertson Legal Linguistic Profiling Analysis Scheme (Robertson, 2018) . Thus, the project will demonstrate how this tool can apply to the cohort when uncovering the correct and reliable legal translation resources in organisational settings. Moreover, this project further argues for innovative computer-based praxis in legal translation, especially considering the wealth of peer-reviewed literature that accounts for

the shortcomings of some traditional paper-based resources, such as bilingual legal dictionaries (Biel, 2009; Biel & Engberg, 2014).

The chief complaint against these paper-based lexicographic resources is that dictionary searching could be more time-consuming than alternative digital-based practices, primarily since legal translators work with terminology and phraseology. The literature consistently calls for legal translation equivalents to be precise, as they must be accurate and consistent. The demand for translators to produce consistent and specific term- and phraseological matches are more significant in legal translation than in genres associated with Language for General Purposes (LGP). Terms are words bound by a legal definition in a specific legal and linguistic culture, making it almost impossible for non-experts to master highly specialised inter-systemic legal translation. Thus, considering that different authors have pointed out that terminology and phraseology management are the most time-consuming aspects of a legal translator's work (Prieto Ramos, 2021b), it makes sense to supplement these traditional lexicographic resources with automated ones. Automated corpora, for example, have shown promise in facilitating the legal translator's working methods.

A corpus mainly refers to a large body of texts compiled for automated linguistic analyses, and several studies indicate the potential for successful application to non-expert legal translation situations. In this regard, several scholars have shown that these popular legal translation tools can reduce speculation around terminological equivalents and significantly reduce the time translators spend finding, comparing, and understanding the concepts behind the terms and phrases (Biel, 2009).

Therefore, the argument forwarded in this project regarding traditional resources, such as paper-based corpora and bilingual dictionaries, is that they can be effective when used in tandem with automated lexicographic and terminographic resources. The project, therefore, bases its hypothesis on the notion that better working practices can contribute to more adequate and accurate legal translations. As such, a section of this project reviews the theoretical aspects of Corpus-Based Legal Translation Studies (CBLTS) and Corpus-Assisted Legal Translation Studies (CALTS), with a subsequent focus on the practical application of corpora in the cohort's working methods.

In this regard, the Guideline intends to help the cohort replicate a methodology based on extensive research and practical trialling (See 4.2), thereby fostering a sophisticated praxis-based approach that can potentially mitigate the consequences of the cohort translator not having the levels of expertise that would be required to deliver a perfect legal translation.

It must be noted that while Quality Assurance in LTS falls outside the scope of this project, a functionalist and genre-based approach will be explicated to justify how the translation equivalent of a legal system-bound term may be deemed "correct" or "incorrect" in the receiving Target Legal Culture (TLC).

To do this, the Guideline suggests the cohort commence with a comparative legal exercise using Colin Robertson's Legal Linguistic Profiling Analysis Scheme[3]. The cohort translator may use the findings from the said analysis as a starting point for any organisational, legal translation assignment. Before building a specialised legal corpus, they can use the study to understand the organisation's legal-linguistic regime. Additionally, the Scheme helps the cohort access Institutional Translation Resources (ITRs) (Prieto Ramos, 2021a, 2021b). These ITRs typically include tools such as term banks and institutional corpora particular to the organisation commissioning and executing the translation (e.g., at the European Union [EU] or the United Nations [UN]). Consequently, the strategic "Guideline" can aid translators, among other things, in locating the most appropriate and adequate institutional resources.

With general reference to translator tools and resources, the project argues for greater uptake of Artificial Intelligence (AI) and advanced Information Technology (IT) in the working praxis of legal translators when considering the amount of research evidencing high success rates in improving translation speed and quality. Moreover, software applications can significantly enhance legal translators' assignments while offsetting some of the expertise-related "blind spots" suffered by the cohort. However, there must also be an acknowledgement that working wiser means knowing how to deal appropriately with, among other things, the pervasive "automation anxiety" (Nunes Vieria, 2018), which stems partly from the abundant resources available to corpus

[3] Refer to Annex III for a detailed analysis.

linguists and translators in general. These resources will be reviewed throughout the literature review to justify a set of computer-based resources suitable for the translator.

Although the importance of legal and subject knowledge must be recognised, this project positions the problem of translating legal texts from a practical point of view. Thus, the Guideline proposed seeks to help the inexperienced legal translator, not merely to theorise about the professional viability of the cohort. In addition, this Guideline will hopefully facilitate the meta-level argument of this project, which is to argue that translators *can* access the legal tools they need to compensate for their lack of legal translation training, at least to the degree that will facilitate their work. Considering this, it is essential to prepare future translators for the complex problems of legal translation, especially in highly specialised legal genres.

Finally, this project argues that equipping future legal translators with the practical skills required for multifaceted legal and institutional translation requires a concerted effort from educational institutions in South Africa. The project argues that these efforts might include adopting more technical and specialised practical training programs for future translators, not only aspiring legal translators. Consequently, further research will be required to test the purported utility level of this Guideline. This "utility" essentially bases on its hypothesised capacity to foreground legal-linguistic information about a complex organisation that functions in several legal systems, including, among other things, its working sub-genres. Additionally, the excellent relationship between the Robertson Analytical Scheme and the corpus management phase, as demonstrated in the "Methodology" Section, will require qualification from further research.

1.2. Background and Rationale

This project drew on the researcher's experience as a new graduate translator when she worked as a legal translator for the Civil Aeronautics Board of a Spanish-speaking country during the first few years of her career. While working on the Board, she consolidated some opinions about digital resource management, specifically the lack of practical software-based training at some South African universities. It became apparent that pervasive knowledge gaps would significantly hinder her work without a systematic approach to personal resource and information management. She

opines that non-exposure to legal translation training at university would be a pre-ordained restriction on her capacity to execute something as contentious and complex as legal and institutional translation. Adopting a resolutory stance, she devised a unique translation "template" (i.e., "The Guideline") that arguably corresponds to high-level research trends observed in the "inter" disciplines of LTS and CBLTS/CALTS.

These high-level research trends relate to methodological expansionism instantiated through the various "translation turns" across the discipline of TS. These "turns" relate specifically to the cultural, technological, and interdisciplinary turns in TS; they are marked by high levels of interdisciplinarity and, at times, disciplinary hybridisation. This expansion of frontier-style research of an interdisciplinary nature can be seen in the fact that almost all the critically appraised studies in the literature review draw heavily on their "parent fields." For example, a study that observes teaching Corpus Linguistics methods to aspiring legal translators will draw heavily on the voluminous literature on that specific field and theoretical and methodological know-how from comparative legal theory and Corpus Linguistics.

Therefore, it is imperative to consider which aspects of Comparative Law and Corpus Linguistics are included in the final Guideline. The cohort remains the decisive factor in choosing alternatives while considering the skills mandate from different competence models. Moreover, given the cohort parameters (i.e., inexperience) and the fact that several scholars have demonstrated the potential benefits of targeted information mining practices, a step-by-step pathway to improved praxis for professional legal and institutional translators was envisaged.

This pathway (i.e., "The Guideline") details a process that the cohort group can replicate. The individual processes that underscore the Guideline, thus, aim to provide the amateur or beginner legal translator with a practical tool to uncover clues about the legal and linguistic dimensions of a highly complex organisation before compiling a specialised Do-It-Yourself legal corpus for professional ad-hoc application.

Thus, the first aim of the Guideline is to provide a reconnaissance strategy whereby the translator familiarises themselves with the legal and linguistic aspects of an organisation by applying a novel

analytical scheme called the Robertson Analytical Scheme. Therefore, Robertson's initial analysis will guide an analysis of the Civil Aeronautics Board of Chile in a comparative analytical form.

In this Analytical Scheme, Robertson presents a practical way for translators to become aware of extratextual factors conditioning translation expectations in the Target Legal Culture (TLC). Translators need to be aware of the existence of and interaction between legal charges and systems because these elements will influence the drafting and translation of institutional documents. Thus, the scheme explores, among other things, the different legal systems, legal codes, and legal orders which pertain to the organisation (e.g., Civil Law, Common Law, Mixed Systems, and national or international orders). The final two sections of this Research project elaborate on the practical implementation of the Scheme.

Furthermore, Robertson partly attributes the viability of incorporating his analysis into a legal institutional translator's work to his experience as a former legal linguist in the European Union. He notes the capacity for the analytical scheme (See the Annexes) as bringing to the fore categories of information related to an organisation's legal and linguistic aspects, which impact TT expectations and, consequently, the translator's working methods.

The hypothesis is that the scheme will extrapolate pertinent information about the organisation's primary legal context (national), and it would lead to further "uncovering" and "revelation" of important information about the broader international legal context that defines its "secondary" setting. Therefore, the Robertson Analytical Scheme would prompt the translator to become aware that the first legal contexts connect to the secondary context under an International Agreement (The Chicago Convention of 1944). Upon investigation, as prompted by the Guideline, the translator would become aware of the Convention's connection to the international legal body holding it in force (i.e., the International Civil Aviation Organization), a specialised organ of the United Nations.

So, if a translator were to envisage a pathway to the correct institutional resource for accurate reference information, then they have already confronted several pre-imposed blind spots, which they naturally suffer through non-exposure to legal translation training. Moreover, since

terminology and phraseology are quality markers of legal translation (Bestué, 2019; Vigier-Moreno, 2016; Prieto Ramos, 2020), it is apt to choose a strategy (Robertson) that invariably helps fill in the missing links of this nature. The whole process serves to develop an "aware" beginner translator. Awareness, this project argues, is the pathway to better praxis.

As observed in the literature (Prieto Ramos & Cerutti, 2021), praxis, primarily related to working methods, is becoming a fundamental consideration for all legal translators. This consideration about the imperative nature of praxis in legal translation holds not only for the translators forming the cohort group who stand to gain the most from the product of this project (i.e., the proposed Guideline) but for all translators interested in legal translation. It is important to note that the focus is on the translator, not the lawyer or the comparative linguist. Therefore, a legal method for translators was devised instead of translation for lawyers.

Consequently, the final hypothesis upon which this analysis rests is that by applying a comparative model of Robertson's Legal Linguistic Profiling Analysis before the corpus-building phase, the cohort group would glimpse the relevant organisation's critical legal and linguistic legal aspects and texts. These critical legal and linguistic aspects relate to the legal and linguistic systems within which "complex legal organisations operate" (Robertson, 2018, p. 113). They are deemed critical because, as the Scheme's author has emphasised, these interdependent attributes of the organisation's legal and linguistic regime will affect drafting and translation.

Therefore, Robertson's Legal-Linguistic Profiling Analysis forms part of an overarching translation Guideline built on the premise that advocates a standardised pragmatic approach (a translation method) to legal and institutional translation issues. It is argued that this scheme will become particularly useful for the cohort's absence of an ideal range of expertise or to help the translator through the pitfalls of specialised legal translation.

Fortunately, the literature depicts an overwhelmingly positive view of the usefulness of corpora, and this project will show how Robertson's Analytical Scheme can be used in conjunction with a specialised Do-It-Yourself corpus. In addition, the literature review appraises several more studies that both celebrate and critique corpus-based methods for legal translators. Other authors have

endeavoured to show that legal translators do not require a law degree if they can optimise their working methods. For example, Giampieri investigates if corpus consultation can compensate for lack of legal knowledge. Giampieri, like several of her more liberal contemporaries (like Prieto Ramos, Juliette Scott, and Łucja Biel), affirms that corpus consultation helps students without legal expertise carry out "quality legal translations". While several criticisms can be levelled at Giampieri's study- one of which is absolutism - there is no doubt that corpus consultation can help students translate legal texts, even if they are not legal experts.

1.3. Research Questions

This research project acknowledges the significant impact of corpus linguistics methods and comparative legal methods in specialised legal translation. Furthermore, it recognises the professional challenge translators face without formal legal education and practical training (i.e., the cohort), both in their lack of general (e.g., legal systems of the world) and specific (e.g., Units of Specialised Meaning [USMs]) legal understanding. As a result, the project aims to explore alternative methods for accessing necessary information to supplement the cohort's lack of legal and corpus methodology training. The literature review covers various plausible approaches before demonstrating the Guideline process by incorporating these amalgamated approaches into a single Praxis-Based Guideline that will help legal translators deal with the delivery of inter-systemic translation and, specifically, the translation of USMs. Consequently, the project's mandate seeks to elucidate potential approaches for filling the essential knowledge gaps of the cohort. As a result of the problem mentioned above of professional translators lacking essential knowledge and skills, the main research question takes a resolutory stance and asks:

1.3.1. How can legal translators lacking academic formation in Comparative Law and Corpus Linguistics (i.e., the cohort) improve translation praxis and overcome challenges using plausible methods, methodologies, guidelines and techniques extrapolated from the literature? The literature reviews the advantages of the cohort using a combination of methods, including Robertson's Legal-Linguistic Profiling Approach, tech-based strategies proposed by scholars, corpus analyses, and creating specialised genre Do-It-Yourself parallel corpora.

Furthermore, the following contingent questions aim to provide a more comprehensive view of specific questions this study hopes to answer:

1.3.1.1 If comparative law forms the basis of legal translation (Engberg, 2020), how could the cohort group exploit Robertson's Legal-Linguistic Profiling Approach as a translation aid? More specifically, how can comparative analysis assist translators in improving their working methods? In this sense, the working method aims to find the most reliable institutional repositories and online translational resources to assist the cohort translator in making methodical choices regarding the information required for effective specialised inter-systemic legal translation.

1.3.1.2 What tech-based strategies, resources, techniques, and approaches have scholars of LTS, CBLTS and CALTS proposed for facilitating legal translation among inexperienced translation practitioners? Which ones most apply to the cohort group for combating their perceived knowledge and expertise gaps?

1.3.1.3 How could the cohort employ corpus analyses in a professional context to draw ad-hoc insights into the use of legal sub-genres and their translations?

1.3.1.4 Can a legal translator working with specialised legal genres create their own specialised genre Do-It-Yourself parallel corpus?

1.4. OBJECTIVES

1.4.1. To find out what skills legal translators should possess. Therefore, this project intends to appraise relevant sources that focus on improving legal translators' praxis (i.e., their working methods). The journal search focused on isolating studies with highly relevant content matching the targeted keywords pertinent to this research

project. The articles' relevance was decided based on the number of matching keywords in the various studies. These keywords included “praxis,” “legal translator,” “information mining,” “Corpus Linguistics for legal translators,” “inter-systemic legal translation,” “Spanish and English inter-systemic translation,” and “aviation law,” among others. The reason for doing this was to access what other scholars have researched and tested. Finally, the most relevant and applicable methodologies were chosen based on their perceived capacities to further this project's aim. The project's primary purpose is to minimise the knowledge gaps suffered through non-exposure to legal translation training (which comprises practical courses in Corpus Linguistics and Comparative Law). Comparative Law is included as a “key blind spot (field)” because the literature points to the fact that Comparative Law methods are essential and cannot be divorced from the work of legal translators. For example, Jan Engberg (2020) states that Comparative Law forms the basis of all legal translation methods and is an inevitable part of an adequate translation (Engberg, 2020; Monjean-Decaudin Popineau-Lauvray, 2019). Additionally, Corpus Linguistics (Corpus building and analysis) stood out as the second field to draw methodological inspiration because of the potential and popularity of corpus methods to tackle the most pressing “blind spots” faced by the cohort group. The instrumentality of the corpus is discussed in 3.3.2; 4.2.2.4; and 5.4.

1.4.2. To investigate Robertson's Legal-Linguistic Profiling Scheme as a translation aid. More specifically, to comment on how foregrounding organisational information through his model can better assist the cohort group in understanding how organisational texts in their distinct legal sub-genres function and interact depending on their communicative functions.

1.4.3. To create a practical and functional link between the Robertson Analytical Scheme and the Do-It-Yourself specialised legal corpus.

1.4.4. To investigate different Corpus Linguistics Software Analysis Tools, specifically Anthony’s AntConc and AntPConc, and the software programmes NVivo and Trados Studio. The overall objective of experimenting with this class of software is to

demonstrate why and how the cohort should embrace technology as an imperative aspect of successful legal translation praxis.

1.4.5. To provide a hypothesis for future research, whereby a future study shall qualify the purported utility of the guidelines herein.

1.5. AIMS

The central aim of this Research project is to devise a practical Guideline that legal and institutional translators of the cohort group can employ. This proposed Guideline aims to mitigate some negative consequences of practising legal and institutional translators not being exposed to or acquiring the "ideal" set of legal and linguistic skill sets expected from professional translators working at institutions and International Organisations (IOs). The relevant international organisations may operate at several different "levels" (e.g., global - United Nations [UN]; and regional – e.g., Latin-American Civil Aviation Commission [LACAC] and The European Union [EU]. The methodologies that this Guideline replicates and tailors for inclusion in the cohort's working methods derive from observations from the existing literature. They will show how to disambiguate background noise for translators who must translate within and across several legal systems. These methodologies include Robertson's Analytical Scheme and the three-stage corpus creation phase based on the work of Juliette Scott (2012), Francisco Vigier & María del Mar Sánchez (2017). The methodologies will work together to demonstrate how the cohort group might implement the Guideline to fast-track the information mining procedure for subjects with little to no experience translating (specialised) legal texts. The legal sub-genres involved in this study include bilateral and multilateral Air Services Agreements (ASAs).

Thus, "The Guideline" will consist of two phases: First, Robertson's Legal Linguistic Profiling Analysis as Translator Aid (from now on referred to as "The Robertson Analytical Scheme, or Robertson's Legal Linguistic Profiling Analytical Scheme"), followed by the (three-stage) Corpus Creation Phase. The point of demonstrating the Guideline is to predict how the cohort may use the approach, in its entirety or in distinct parts. "A part" may correlate to the cohort implementing the Robertson Analytical Scheme while choosing to leave out the corpus-building phase, for example.

Either way, this preliminary project can be expanded in future research to verify how and the extent to which the proposed Guideline might influence the inexperienced legal translators' praxis.

The elements of praxis deemed most important in the context of a legal, institutional translators' work include information mining (through the Robertson Analytical Scheme), terminology, and phraseology management, with a specific focus on locating the correct inter-systemic translation equivalents within a Spanish and English corpus, or sub-corpus. As such, the overall goal of the Guideline is to prove that its design is conducive to improving information management practices among the cohort. The central hypothesis is that streamlined information mining practices can help translators deal with context-related contention at an ad-hoc level of professional practice, explicitly concerning inter-systemic legal equivalents in Spanish and English.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK INTRODUCTION

2.1. DEFINING THE COHORT GROUP

This research is aimed at a general group of professional legal translators who do not have an educational background in Comparative Law or Corpus Linguistics. Thus, the "cohort group" defines a set of loosely assimilable profiles identified throughout the literature: Translators without legal knowledge (Comparative Law) and who do not possess the technical knowledge and skills for successful corpus creation (Corpus Linguistics). The cohort group, therefore, does not represent a traditional group of individuals to be studied but rather a combined set of translator profiles that different scholars have studied individually and with each other (e.g., freelance vs institutional)[4]. Consequently, resting upon these primary cohort delimitators (i.e., lack of expertise in Corpus Linguistics and Comparative Law), the project attempts to envision a practical aid that can be useful for many legal translators who lack expertise in these fields. Moreover, the following section explores the primary expertise-related delimitators of this project's cohort group. It also considers the public and private law text distinction as supporting delimitators of the cohort group.

Regarding this private-public law text distinction, it should be noted that although corpus methods will be addressed later, it is essential to note that considerations from the literature indicate that the distinction between private and public law texts is crucial in a corpus project involving legal translation, especially in specialised legal "sub-genres" (Scott, 2012). Considering international civil aviation law features in the realm of public law, the methodologies promoted in the Guideline, namely Robertson's Analytical Scheme, are designed to deal with finding and processing public law documents in multilingual organisations that operate within distinct legal frameworks (e.g., primary and secondary jurisdictions). Accordingly, it is common for the literature to address the method and theory of private law documents separately and distinctly from public law documents. A practical example accounting for this difference is that the cohort's repositories to locate texts

[4] To illustrate the concept of scholars studying various profile groups, Prieto Ramos (2020), for example, investigates several types of translator profiles. Other scholars may also distinguish between freelance and full-time institutional translators (Scott, 2012). Notwithstanding the critically unique variables of each profile group, there are collectively defining variables that render an idea plausible to define a general "cohort group"; these shared variables are the translators' lack of Corpus Linguistics and Comparative Law expertise. Therefore, this project appeals to many professional translators, which it argues, falls into the "cohort group".

for corpus compilation will differ from private law repositories due to legal and copyright restrictions.

Besides the public-private law criterion, another crucial parameter for the delimitation of the cohort group is the group's general lack of exposure to Comparative Law and Corpus Linguistics education. Fernando Prieto Ramos, a seminal LTS and CBLTS author, illustrates this dichotomy through the structural division of his recent book, whereby one part of the book contains studies that focus on methods of researching translational phenomena occurring in private law settings. In contrast, the book's second part collates studies on institutional translation involving public law.

Furthermore, cohort translators lack Comparative Law and Corpus Linguistics education features as defining parameters for the cohort group. Firstly, several authors note that Comparative Law forms the basis of legal translation (Biel & Engberg, 2014). Therefore, considering the cohort's lack of legal translation training, an exercise in Comparative Law is mandatory, further rationalising the inclusion of Robertson's Scheme. The Methodology section of this Research Report details the comparative analysis process that hopes to fulfil this mandate. Likewise, the literature consistently references the importance of *corpora* in LTS. Therefore, to compete with expert legal translators, this Research project promotes the idea that translators must learn corpus methods for translation purposes. The literature review will address this, specifically in "Corpus-Based and Corpus-Assisted Legal Translation Studies (CBLTS and CALTS)."

Finally, delimitating the cohort group according to a broad parameter (i.e., "inexperienced") seems rational in this context because this study seeks to produce a research product that extends to as many "types" of legal translators as possible. While proposing a general strategy for all inexperienced legal and institutional translators may seem idealistic, this Research project contends that its applicability does not restrict itself to a specific branch or sub-field of law. Likewise, the decision to use international civil aviation legal texts as the focus of the study resides precisely in the fact that international civil aviation law is nuanced, niche, and difficult to translate. Besides the complexity hereof, the said task presents the researcher not so much with a challenge as it does with an opportunity to challenge the scholarly community. New and innovative ways of addressing critical legal translation issues can apply to this exciting cohort. The following section

delves into the problems of legal translation, discussed within the disciplinary framework of genre analysis within LTS.

In conclusion, this Research Study uses international civil aviation law texts as the main objects of study. Although international civil aviation law falls outside the scope of this study, the texts will be used to simulate a process to be used by the cohort translator when dealing with the translation of Units of Specialised Meaning.

Finally, the project seeks to address critical legal translation issues and present new and innovative approaches. Therefore, the project envisions a meta-profile (i.e., the cohort) of professional legal translators who need more formal Comparative Law or Corpus Linguistics education to compete with expert legal and institutional translators working at various global IOs. Consequently, the delimitation of the criteria for the cohort group is explained herein. As explained above, it is based on the public-private law criterion and the need for exposure to Comparative Law and Corpus Linguistics education.

2.2. A General Introduction to Legal-, Corpus-Based Legal, and Corpus-Assisted Legal Translation Studies (LTS, CBLTS and CALTS)

As mentioned in the Introduction, the theoretical framework currently being leveraged is genre and supergenre analysis in professional applications. Contributions will be drawn from, among other things, the fields of corpus linguistics, jurilinguistics (AKA legilinguistics), and corpus use for learning applications. Moreover, the ensuing review deals with general legal translation issues within the umbrella framework of LTS, followed by a review of the more technical aspects of corpus creation within the sub-discipline of CBLTS, including CALTS.

As such, the literature review aims to address general and high-level theoretical legal translation issues, followed by a microanalytic focus on the specific problems and solutions that the chosen cohort might encounter when creating the corpus. The primary purpose of the corpus is to show how the Guideline can help the cohort to identify and compare the frequencies and natural behavioural patterns of the Units of Specialised Meaning (USMs) typifying the specialised legal sub-genres of bi- and multilateral Air Services Agreements.

However, before delving into the specifics of legal translation, the first crucial high-level feature implicit in all legal translations is its adherence to the camp of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP), as opposed to LGP. At a macro-disciplinary level[5] within the scope of TS, LTS fall into one of two distinct "camps": LSP, as opposed to the alternative, LGP. To offer a simple point of view: While LGP may be associated with broad labels like "literary; creative; poetry and prose," LSP might lean towards a more rigid mental image, evoking ideas of "technical, precise, legal, formal and scientific."

As expressed in several relevant sources, the main reason is that LSP corpora are subject to distinct corpus-building practices from LGP. For example, a highly specialised legal corpus will almost certainly differ from a general corpus size. Additionally, legal translators are often associated with LSP practices, and in practical terms, LSP translation will require a more nuanced approach to corpus creation. Despite some apparent distinctions between LSP and LGP corpora, the most important one to point out in this project's research context are the differing degrees of precision with which translators are expected to deliver LSP and LGP translation equivalents. The variable expectation on LSP and LGP to produce terminological equivalents may influence the type of corpus and its constitutional criteria, respectively speaking. The following sections will further detail the specifics of LSP corpus creation.

[5] In this context, macro-disciplinary refers to the inclusion of both "camps" of language (i.e., LSP and LGP) under the umbrella discipline, Translation Studies.

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The following literature review discusses the viability of various selected empirical methodologies from the (sub)disciplines of LTS and CBLTS with the primary purpose of discerning whether to consider and tailor them for the cohort group. Additionally, given that these methodologies arguably form the bases of this project, the overall aim of reviewing them is to explain their usefulness to the relevant cohort group to which this project pertains.

Thus, to reiterate, the principal authors whose methodologies will be referenced in this project include Robertson (2018), Scott (2012), along with Vigier and del Mar Sánchez (2017). Like Scott, this Research project intends to create a specialised Do-It-Yourself corpus for non-expert legal translators. The primary purpose of the corpus is to detect instances of genre-specific Units of Specialised Translation (USMs) in a corpus composed of distinct specialised sub-genres.

In this regard, Robertson's Legal Linguistic Profiling Analytical Scheme adds an essential comparative legal aspect to the Guideline because it allows the translator to follow a suggested working process to discover these genres and their associated USMs. These will be discussed in more detail, but in the meantime, it should be noted that USMs usually comprise a mixture of genre-specific terms and phrases. Consequently, Scott's NIFTY corpus management methodology aligns with this project's theoretical and practical aims, which arguably justifies its inclusion if one considers the theoretical president pointed out[6].

Additionally, Vigier and del Mar Sánchez's (2017) deliberation about creating a specialised corpus will build strategically on Scott's methodology (2012). Scott's method aims to instil a systematic

[6] The developed corpus methodology, known as NIFTY, was refined through a pre-study conducted from 2009-2011, detailed in the master's thesis by Juliette Scott (2011). Scott later worked on professional research utilising the NIFTY methodology in specialised LTS research (2012). This methodology encompasses five steps: Defining corpus criteria, collecting corpus material, manual assessment, file conversion, and utilisation in translation. The acronym chosen reflects the methodology's Nimble, Individual, Fast, Fruitful, Tailor-made nature and ability to Yield excellent results; the focus is on maximising user-friendliness. The methodology is discussed in more detail in Section 4.

approach to specialised corpus creation, thereby accounting for the specific procedures implicit in creating an LSP specialised legal sub-genres corpus in a particular combination of language (i.e., Spanish and English).

This project favours the authors mentioned above, as these methodologies were selected due to their proximity to the current Research project's aims and scope. This project ultimately hopes the cohort may derive utility from an amalgamation of the most pertinent features of these methodologies. However, clarification on what "pertinence" means in this context is warranted; it is not a naïve assumption that these methodologies will "save" the cohort translator from the inherent complexity of legal translation. Instead, "pertinence" is defined as the methodology's purported capacity to bring awareness of specific categories of information related to the legal and linguistic regimes of a complex public organisation operating in multiple legal systems.

In this sense, for example, Robertson's Analytical Scheme is hypothesised to bring awareness of, among other things, the generic term and phraseological conventions implicit in the organisation's texts (produced within distinct internal organs), which leads to a comparison of genre-specific texts. Similarly, Scott, Vigier and del Mar Sánchez's corpus creation methodologies are remarkably aligned with the operationalised variables in this research project. These similar variables relate to the intended cohort group's delimitations, such as the highly specialised subject matter (e.g., bilateral and multilateral aviation treaties) and the specified language combination (Spanish and English).

Therefore, the first section of this literature review addresses the high-level theoretical aspects of legal translation, including the nature, scope, and history of LTS. Once the general aspects of legal translation have been discussed, the following sub-section reviews how general problems of legal translation, such as legal and cultural asymmetry, might affect the cohort group specifically. For example, the discussion around inter-systemic legal translation foregrounds how the cohort group's educational profile might be wholly at odds with the desired skills of a legal translator, indicating a need for professional legal and institutional translators to resort to reliable resources. Resource reliability is further explored in section 3.2.1. This review considers several criticisms

of traditional lexicographic reference works. Consequently, the Guideline arises from the need to address the shortcomings that have been evidenced in various studies.

Exemplifying this professional puzzle is the fact that there exists a significant gap between the various competence models stipulating the required skills and expertise for legal translators. Adding to this sense of professional ambiguity, one may consider the impossibly broad spectrum of the ideal expertise to be acquired by legal translators, which questions whether all legal translators must be legal experts.

Despite the longevity of this debate, several contemporary LTS scholars have started challenging previously normative ideas about the skills, education, and general "know-how" required by legal translators. For example, Prieto Ramos (2020) states that UN translators do not require law degrees, but those working at the Court of Justice of the European Union (CJEU) will require a law degree (Prieto Ramos, 2020, 2021a, 2021b). The said example means to illuminate some of the discrepancies in the skills promoted, not only through the distinct competency models but also those skills authors have individually deliberated on and confirmed as necessary for specialised legal translation.

Thus, the different legal translator competency models must be acknowledged in the literature before predicting the utility of Robertson's Analytical Scheme. These models include Kelly, the PACTE Corpus project, and general observations of required legal translator competencies. In this sense, speaking from a genre-theory perspective, Dorka Balogh emphatically calls for non-expert legal translators to be made aware of the possible consequences of the mistranslations of legal texts. This comes in response to Balogh's pressing observation about non-legal translation students running the risk of not "recognising the pitfalls of legal texts or recognise them much less frequently than their counterparts with law degrees, who are aware of the meaning behind legal concepts" (Balogh, 2019, p. 32).

Additionally, researchers now recognise the unparalleled potential of exploiting technological resources, such as corpora and online translation software, to improve translators' know-how. Giampieri's study falls within a tradition of LTS research that realises the potential of "working

smarter" to circumvent critical knowledge gaps that some legal translators suffer through non-exposure to legal translation training. Giampieri's study refutes the notion that to translate legal terms and phrases, formal legal education of the translator. Despite the possible critiques this project lends to Giampieri's approach, it is a bold and promising way of promoting corpus methods in legal translator training.

3.1.1. Definition, Context, Scope, and Evolution of Legal Translation Studies

This section introduces the disciplinary parameters of LTS, which simultaneously considers the pervasive feature of interdisciplinarity in contemporary TS. It also examines the genesis of LTS and the hybridisation of disciplinary methods in TS, particularly the impact of the "Cultural," "Interdisciplinary," and "Technological" turns on the discipline. It notes that the turns facilitated a re-envisioning of the disciplinary parameters of TS and enabled the discipline to move away from a purely linguistic tradition of translation. Moreover, the ensuing section also explains why, in the context of these Turns, LTS theory analyses the external sociopolitical forces affecting translation products and processes in LTS. It also reviews how translators can use interdisciplinarity to their advantage through CAT Tools and other resources deriving their genesis at the intersection of Comparative Law, Linguistics and Translation Studies.

Interdisciplinarity has a long trajectory in the history of TS, and it is apt to name this a pervasive feature of contemporary TS. An observation of LTS academic journal papers usually starts with recognising the significance of LTS's interdisciplinary makeup, followed by discussions on legal discourse definitions and the importance of Genre in LTS.

The prominent LTS scholar Prieto Ramos succinctly captures the significance of LTS's multi-disciplinary scope and nature when he expresses it as a "coherent integration of concepts from TS, Linguistics and Law" (Prieto Ramos, 2014, p. 260). Thus, the interlinking theories and methods that weave into a single discipline (LTS) from several parent fields (TS, Linguistics, and Comparative Law) become inextricable. This high level of specialised interdisciplinarity allows the translator to draw from highly specialised domains of knowledge that extend beyond general translation theory.

Furthermore, several scholars ascribe this type of high level of disciplinary borrowing to the methodological expansionism of TS, following the "cultural turn" of the 1980s and 1990s and later to what Edward Gentzler (2003, p. 11) called the "interdisciplinary turn." The latter refers to what Prieto Ramos characterises as "new paths of inquiry" in TS. After the "empowering" "cultural" and "interdisciplinary" turns, the "technological turn" occurred, "favouring new computer tools

and an interaction with Information Technology" (Prieto Ramos, 2014, p. 261). One remarkable feature shared by all these shifts in translation research (AKA, "turns") is a prominent level of hybridisation and disciplinary overlapping that has simultaneously occurred on a large scale across TS (Snell-Hornby, 2006, p. 71) since the initial cultural turn. Additionally, it is argued that hybridisation reveals novel research potential for nuanced and varied research precisely due to the frontier nature of interdisciplinary research.

Conversely, some scholars have opposed this growing trend toward disciplinary hybridisation. A common rebuttal in the argument against this rise of hybridisation in LTS might involve an attack on the highly variable research aims of LTS translators and their vastly different corresponding methodologies. As a prominent and widely cited LTS scholar, Biel acknowledges that LTS's future mandate for instilling a credible framework to deal with such a "complex" and "multifaceted" (inter)discipline would require the following: "methodological eclecticism and triangulation, as well as further integration along the interdisciplinary lines" (Biel & Engberg 2013, p. 1). Notwithstanding the preceding, LTS has been recognised as a developing academic field associated with TS since the 1970s, as pointed out by the prominent LTS and CBLTS scholar Prieto Ramos (2014).

Additionally, concerning the genesis of this (sub)discipline, Prieto Ramos explains that LTS was stimulated by the school of Jurilinguistics in 1970s Canada, thereby demonstrating the highly dynamic nature of an arguably peculiar academic discipline emerging at the intersection of three parent fields (in Biel & Engberg, 2013).

Notwithstanding the abnormal composition of this discipline, the "empowering" (Prieto Ramos, 2014, p. 261) Translation Turns, marked by similarly high levels of interdisciplinarity, facilitated the motion towards a re-envisioning of the disciplinary parameters of the discipline of TS. Consequently, the argument is that the Turns essentially made provision for scholars to move away from a prescriptivist linguistic tradition of translation. The prescriptivist linguistic tradition that preceded the first Turn (i.e., The Cultural Turn) held semantic and linguistic equivalence as the primary yardstick of translation quality (Nord, 1998). This primary yardstick refers to the fact that it had previously been the goal of TS to name a "good" translation as one that held fidelity to the

Source Text. In other words, it would have been the translator's main goal to find an objective and semantic equivalent to the unit of translation located in the ST. Consequently, ST fidelity typified the benchmark of quality translation before the Cultural and ensuing Turns.

As previously mentioned, these Turns enabled TS to move away from a purely linguistic, text-based discipline to one that considers the importance of incorporating a comprehensive understanding of extratextual constraints at a societal level. Additionally, the turns coincided with introducing *Skopostheorie* and functionalism in TS. Skopostheorie is similar to functionalism, as both theories recognise the fundamental importance of the text's communicative function and purpose as primary guiding factors for the translation product[7]. They call for quality benchmarking to consider the communicative function of the TT foremostly. Consequently, this would imply that the translator must understand the TT culture to produce a translation that can satisfy the same communicative role in the TT as in the ST.

After this so-called "Translation Turns," TS practitioners became increasingly aware of external dynamics beyond the text that invariably influence what is expected of a translation product (Gentzler, 2003). In this sense, Miia Santalahti & Mikhail Mikhailov show how external powers "exert an influence" on the translation product and process (2019). The authors studied how discourse analysis in LTS can be applied to treaty texts to detect irregular power relations exerted through State level diplomacy during the negotiation phase of a bilateral treaty.

The authors from the abovementioned study depict external factors influencing translation critically in the translational activity. These external factors may derive from the commissioning body's ideological leaning. Alternatively, there may be related systemic influences that the translator could easily neglect or be unaware of their existence and force. These "forces" invariably impact how a translation will be received by a target audience and, more specifically, what types of translation units will be deemed adequate by that particular cultural and linguistic group.

[7] Functionalism and Skopos theory focus on the purpose and function of translation. While they approach the subject from different perspectives, their main similarity lies in their emphasis on the communicative purpose of translation and the importance of considering the intended function of the translated text (Gentzler, 2003).

The authors point out that the conditions for "equivalence" between two USMs depend on cultural and political norms, not merely a linguistic norm inscribed in the grammatical structure of a language. Consequently, the previously mentioned study confirms that even in a legal setting where terminological and phraseological "equivalents" are expected to be delivered with absolute precision (accurate and consistent USMs), this may be a far more complex task because the translator cannot simply rely on a purely linguistic equivalent of a semantic expression to fulfil the communicative function of a text. Moreover, the study confirmed a correlation between the irregular diplomatic relations between the two States and the intended ambiguous nature of the translated discourse markers (e.g., terms and phrases) in the treaties wherein they become manifest. In other words, external factors of a political nature rendered formal semantic equivalences incorrect, considering a broader cultural and political intertextuality within the legal literature.

The study's transposable implications for a legal translation context imply that not even legal language can always be precise when considering the point made by many researchers. The point here is that there is a possibility for treaty texts to display non-neutral language, as diplomatic power relations rarely are neutral. Moreover, the said example draws attention to the fact that legal translation concerns global issues of both a legal and a linguistic nature; it is an expansive set of skills and general knowledge the legal translator must hold. That said, the translation Turns may have given legal translators greater freedom to explore new research avenues beyond the purely linguistic. However, it also engendered a burden on the new (inter)discipline to clarify and standardise the research variables within their corresponding researcher and translator profiles.

Nevertheless, as a widely referenced LTS scholar, Prieto Ramos (2014) posits LTS as an (inter)discipline concerned with all aspects of the translation of legal texts. This includes all aspects of "processes, products and agents" (p. 261) in legal translation. Similarly, Biel & Engberg (2013) note the potential for producing novel research of an interdisciplinary makeup while simultaneously acknowledging the challenge of providing a sound theoretical framework for an activity that straddles methodological lines. To this end, Chesterman (2002, p.4) offers recognition of the viability of emerging disciplines while reflecting on the concern demonstrated by Biel & Engberg:

> New disciplines emerge as knowledge grows and spreads and power relations and reputations change within academia. Historically, new disciplines have often emerged at the interface of existing ones, so at first, they inevitably have the nature of interdisciplines. […] Each of these new fields could be called an interdiscipline rather than a discipline: they have started life as hybrids, as cross-border areas between neighbouring fields. Indeed, these new fields query the borders they straddle, challenging us to think differently.

Mirroring LTS's interdisciplinary constitution is that of CBLTS and CALTS, which exemplify and arguably epitomise the interdisciplinary zeitgeist of contemporary translation research. CBLTS draws its impetus from the overarching mandate of LTS but diverges from its "sister discipline" in that it approaches the study of legal language and its translation from a corpus perspective.

A corpus is generally a large body of text or a repository of similar texts to find naturally occurring language patterns. Corpora are used primarily by Corpus Linguists but have also shown to be advantageous for translators. Interestingly, the proliferation of computer technology in the adjacent field of Corpus Linguistics effectively created the conditions necessary to automate corpora (Bowker & Pearson, 2002). Therefore, the significance of introducing automation to Corpus Linguistics must be considered. Additionally, one must consider that developments in Corpus Linguistics trickle down to TS, and the consequent hybridisation of the two disciplines has instantiated a resurgence of research interest in CBLTS (Baker, 1995). The point is that hybridising disciplines is often exciting and productive.

Despite the pervasive challenge of methodological standardisation in both LTS and CBLTS and the high variability of research aims and methodologies used by distinct researcher profiles, Prieto Ramos asserts that LTS' (and CBLTS') overall concern is the "long-debated issue of what defines legal texts" (Prieto Ramos, 2014, p. 262). The following sections will address issues related to the qualification of legal translation "problems". However, it is essential to point out that there is inadequate academic consensus on the viability of designating the term "legal language" as an inherently indeterminate concept.

In this sense, Stanislaw Goźdź-Roszkowski (2012) points out that although most laymen would claim legal language is unique due to the incomprehensibility of legal texts to "ordinary" people, the concept paradoxically evades strict definition (Goźdź-Roszkowski, 2012, p. 1). Although several scholars do attest to the general verbosity and formulaic expressions (Cao, 2007; Goźdź-Roszkowski, 2012), they claim that are unique features that set legal language apart from "ordinary" language, the concept of "legal language" has caused a long-running nomenclature-related debate within the disciplines of LTS and CBLTS (Prieto Ramos, 2020; Cao, 2007).

More recently, some scholars have called into question the relevance of using such general umbrella terms (e.g., "legal language"), suggesting that the complexity and intertextuality within legal language should be ideally viewed in terms of domain-specific disciplinary genres (Bhatia, 2004; Goźdź-Roszkowski, 2012). Scholars generally note the indeterminacy of this debate, which is why a functionalist genre-based approach could work to distinguish legal sub-genres within an organisation. This approach aligns with the theoretical framework under which Scott developed the NIFTY corpus methodology.

Moreover, the Guideline's inclusion of Robertson's Analytical Scheme helps to illuminate these domain-specific sub-genres. By illuminating the said genres, the idea would be to raise awareness so that the translator knows the different types of texts the organisation uses for distinct purposes (e.g., bilateral treaties vs compliance reports corresponding to various internal organs' work). In turn, the information foregrounded by the Robertson Analytical Scheme will inform both the information mining practices relating to corpus building and provide the translator with a much-needed point of reconnaissance for understanding how the organisation's legal texts interact (i.e., institutional intertextuality). Besides these initial benefits, the Robertson Analytical Scheme will also raise awareness around the other organisational texts that operate for distinct professional groups (e.g., lawyers vs linguists vs legal translators) at varying levels of governance (e.g., national and international laws). Therefore, the following section reviews the concept of legal discourse from a functionalist, genre-based perspective.

Before delving into text typologies and genre-related issues, reviewing salient characteristics of the general concept of "legal language" or "legal discourse" may be helpful. In a quest to define the most generally valuable features of legal language, Malcolm Harvey (2002, p. 179) sets out four aspects that are often highlighted by scholars who claim that legal translation is different from other types of translation:

- Legal discourse gives rise to legal effects.
- Law is a system-bound discipline.
- Requirements for fidelity are higher than in other areas.
- Legal texts are characterised by ambiguity and interpretation.

Van Laer (1999) reports that Harvey cites all the above as inherent sources of difficulty in legal translation. Thus, it is claimed that before approaching legal translations, translators should be acquainted with Comparative Law (Van Laer, 1999). On the other hand, some scholars argue that legal translators do not necessarily undertake legal studies but tend to develop legal expertise through practice and lifelong learning (Prieto Ramos, 2020, p. 29).

Mariana Orozco-Jutorán and Pilar Sáchez Gijón (2011) lend a more nuanced view of the broader relationship between subject knowledge gaps and translation difficulty the cohort is expected to face; the authors illuminate several categories of subject-knowledge "blind spots." Although these knowledge gaps present grave challenges to the cohort, understanding them and their origins can illuminate the existing tools that cohort translators can use to mitigate the risks of producing erroneous translations. In this sense, the authors refer to the scheme wherein they identify legal translation problems resulting from a lack of legal and subject knowledge. One of the most enticing finds from the article is the assertion that focusing on the genre can help inexperienced translators to work with a functionalist approach. Therefore, the following sections deal with the theoretical aspects of genre in translation.

Genre analysis is a broadly applicable subject in the humanities addressed by researchers from various fields, including literary scholars, rhetoricians, sociologists, language teachers, machine translators, cognitive scientists, and computational linguists. Even with the expansive range of disciplines in which genre theory can be applied, Balogh (2019) points out that classifying legal

texts into different genres is imperative to legal translation practices. This section, therefore, explores the concept of genre and genre analysis concerning the cohort group.

A brief description follows of the types of texts constituting the objects of study (i.e., bilateral and multilateral Air Services Agreements) per their generic conventions. The purpose of discussing genre in connection with the cohort group is to point out the benefits of increasing genre awareness among inexperienced legal institutional translators and to ultimately demonstrate how increased genre awareness can facilitate the functional ends of this project's "Guideline".

As it will be demonstrated, the comparative legal processes underscoring the legal aspect of Robertson's Legal-Linguistic Profiling Analysis can foreground helpful genre-related features in the STs and TTs. The hypothesis is that if the comparative analysis can sufficiently foreground critical genre-related elements of the type of text in question, then those observed patterns can be applied as criteria for contrasting and comparing genre markers in other texts. More specifically, the target genre discourse features include terms and phrases typical of a specialised legal "sub-genre" (See Scott [2012]).

In this sense, several authors emphasise how a functionalist and genre-based perspective can help translators. Balogh (2019) asserts that genre awareness is, in fact, also a vital issue in legal translator training. Regardless of the setting, pedagogical or otherwise, Balogh's view finds support among several scholars who argue that semantic text comprehension depends significantly on the recognition of genres/text types (Scott, 2012). Thus, it is no surprise that Robertson also emphasises the usefulness of conducting a generic profile of all the organisation's texts produced within the different situational contexts of its internal structure before starting an institutional, legal translation. Robertson's application of genre analysis aligns with this project's focus on finding the quickest ways to circumvent the most pressing knowledge gaps to produce the highest possible yield of quality translation units in the final product.

Similarly, from a theoretical perspective, Bhatia (1987, p. 227) provides a structure distinguishing the main legal genres according to their "communicative purposes" and the "lexico-grammatical, semantic-pragmatic, and discoursal resources" used in different legal contexts. Additionally,

Bhatia clarifies a distinction between "frozen legal documents like contracts, agreements, insurance policies, etc." and "formal" documents such as "legislation, rules, and regulations, etc." classifying them both under the term "legislative." In this regard, Balogh (2019) comments that this differentiation by Bhatia causes undue confusion.

Consequently, Bhatia offers a different view of legal genres, dividing them into a "primary" genre – legislation and "secondary". These may include, for example, judgements and case report "enabling academic genres, such as textbooks, critical essays, etc." In this sense, Scott (2012) notes that these latter three categories become collectively termed "derived" genres, as being interpretations of legislative intentions" (Bhatia, p. 6). Additionally, Robertson's Scheme operationalises the concept of primary and secondary genres at an organisational level, further rationalising the Scheme's inclusion in this Research project.

As previously mentioned, there are numerous existing text typologies. However, functionalism is a popular approach to legal translation, and its application to legal translation seems equally weighty (Scott, 2012). In this sense, Scott (2012, p. 89) points out that functionalism is a crucial consideration for genre theorists in legal translation because a functionalist approach will help translators decide the best type of equivalent.

Historically, functionalism draws a strong undercurrent across contemporary, post-Chomskyan Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS). The German School of functionalist theorists (AKA The Manipulation School), of particular interest to this project, are Katherina Reiss and Hans Vermeer's Skopostheorie, which has left an indelible mark on all aspects of translation theory and practice. Aiding this notable impact is that functionalism has infused LTS and TS with a level of pragmatism previously lacking from the linguistic equivalence model that had previously defined what "fidelity" and, consequently, "adequacy" was.

Therefore, a functionalist approach to translation empowers the translator to organise and tailor their working methods according to the "text type" instead of focusing on a single translation unit to determine the equivalence scale. As a result, fidelity no longer implies that terms can only have one equivalent, despite the argument favouring the precision (accuracy and consistency) of terms

and phrases in legal translation. Instead, with a functional approach, the "best" equivalent now depends on extratextual factors governing the reception of the TT in the Legal Target Text Culture (LTTC). These factors may range from a country's diplomatic relations with the relevant Contracting Party to the communicative situation (i.e., the treaty negotiation process) and the ad-hoc variables which need to be accounted for in a scene of meaning-making and interpretation (i.e., from signing to ratifying to interpreting ASAs). Thus, the logic espoused through functionalism and Skopostheorie would imply that the communicative function and the text type shall underscore the search for specialised translation units, not necessarily the range of possible linguistic equivalents provided in any given bilingual legal dictionary.

Additionally, this evolution towards Functionalism manifests through the translator posing a simple yet often contentious problem - "What am I translating, and whom am I translating for?" Before the cultural turn, this question would have pitted the translator against a tradition of Chomskyan linguistics that had not yet accounted for issues of the target culture and text expectations. In this light, Scott (2012) notes that Sparer and Covacs extend the functionalist focus of the "Translation Turns" to a legal translation perspective. These authors state that "specialists in legal translation now define fidelity as achieving an equivalent impact on the target reader […] to respect the stylistic conventions of the target legal culture" (cited in Scott, 2012, p. 90). The implication of this statement is far-reaching because the information would imply that the legal translator must understand both the ST and TT's "stylistic conventions", which include, among other things, being able to recognise and reproduce these stylistic conventions. In this project's context, these stylistic conventions correlate mainly to the translational accuracy and consistency between text-type USMs.

Moreover, regarding the importance of and how to go about classifying legal texts, Balogh (2019) and Biel (Biel et al., 2019) point out the popularity of functionalist approaches in legal translation, such as Susan Šarčević's functional typologies, which differentiates legal texts according to their field of application. Šarčević's system presents legal genres under three main functions (See Šarčević in Balogh p. 24). Another distinction based on the function of legal texts is Tiersma's typology, which differentiates operative (pleadings, petitions, deeds, and contracts), expository

(office memoranda, judicial opinions, client letters), and persuasive (briefs to a court and memoranda of points and authorities) documents.

Nevertheless, the literature notes how different professional profiles interact with legal language and texts. The consensus is that many text typologies in LTS exist as a natural consequence of other actors (e.g., lawyers or translators) utilising the text for different and often specialised reasons (Vigier-Moreno, 2016; Scott, 2012). In turn, lawyers, and legal translators' roles in negotiating, drafting, and translating bilateral and multilateral treaties may overlap, but they are distinct. In this regard, Scott opines that lawyers and paralegals are taught legal language at law school, paralegal staff undertakes training on legal writing, and translators are "rarely trained in this singular sect" (Scott, 2019, p. 88).

In this case, several authors would point to the different communicative functions of the actors involved in legal text production and analysis as a point of exclamation. In a functionalist stance, for example, the communicative process (which considers the actors involved) is the driving force behind the choice of a text typology. Additionally, the communicative function serves as the base to define the criteria for equivalence in the given ad-hoc translation assignment context. Furthermore, Prieto Ramos first points out the similarities between the different actors' functional interaction with a legal text, stating that "texts drafted by legislators, judges, scholars, or notaries on a particular aspect of probate law […] will share key concepts and phraseology. However, purposes and discursive conventions will vary by text type" (Prieto Ramos, 2014, p. 263). In turn, the said stance may argue that a functionalist approach to translating legal sub-genres aligns with popular contemporary notions of using functionalist typologies and the communicative function of a legal text to determine the criteria for the quality of a translation product.

Other authors have relayed resonant messages in this regard. For example, in their book, Enrique Alcaraz and Brian Hughes (2002) advocate for "a more systematic awareness of text typology" (p. 103), to which Prieto Ramos concurs on the importance of systematising the legal and institutional translator's approach to text typology. Prieto Ramos further emphasises the value of a text-type approach by quoting Alcaraz and Hughes, stating: "[T]he translator who has taken the trouble to

recognise the formal and stylistic conventions of a particular original has already done much to translate the text successfully" (Alcaraz and Hughes in Prieto Ramos, 2019a, p. 30).

This is why Robertson's Scheme become instrumental, as its unique utility as a practical translation aid for legal translation can foreground generic discrepancies between founding documentation and the domain-specific legal sub-genres of the relevant institution or organisation (e.g., Bilateral Air Services Agreements and Multilateral Air Services Agreements of the Civil Aeronautics Board of [country X], respectively). In doing so, the translator can distinguish between genres and their textual conventions. In the Methodology section, the rationale behind this is explained.

Nevertheless, the following section delves into a theoretical observation of general translation problems, followed by brief reflections on how these "problems" might manifest at a micro-analytic level within the cohort. An additional focus of the following section is to review the concept of inter-systemic legal translation. Translators must find the "best" translation equivalent for legal terms and phrases in legal text. Regarding this, a central factor that hinders finding a Unit of Specialised Translation (UST), such as a term or a phrase equivalent that typifies a legal sub-genre, is that legal translators often lack the necessary formal education and training in the legal domain.

3.2. Problems and Challenges of Legal Translation

This section aims to explore pertinent problems and challenges of legal translation. Moreover, it deals with both general issues of inter-systemic translation, with interspersed reflections on how these might manifest and influence the cohort.

In this regard, Orozco-Jutorán and Sánchez-Gijón (2011) propose a four-tiered classification scheme for problems encountered by all legal translators, correlating to three distinct textual "levels": Firstly, the micro textual lexical level; secondly, the broader micro textual level, which includes sentence level translation units; and finally, at the textual level, respectively. In this sense, the authors argue that these "problems" arise due to shortcomings in translators' knowledge of the law and subject-specific or industry-specific legal knowledge. For example, the authors attribute

the first level of legal translational difficulty (i.e., "the micro textual lexical level") to a lack of knowledge of the "terminology, register, collocations, or units of specialised meaning (USMs)" (p. 1). Considering the importance of USMs in specialised legal sub-genres, this classification scheme can help systematise an approach to classifying translation problems to illuminate the possible resources that could be used to locate the "correct" translation units.

This scheme also allows the translator to gauge how their inexperience predisposes them to erroneous and inadequate translations. For example, suppose a newly employed graduate translator (either freelance or formally employed) starts working in a highly specialised and technical field of legal translation, such as international civil aviation law. In that case, they may perform better than a colleague with similar education and working history if they can optimise their working methods (Prieto Ramos & Cerutti, 2021; Pontandrolfo, 2015).

In this sense, improving legal translators' working methods refers to what other LTS scholars have approximated with similar concepts in the literature, such as "know-how" and a focus on "praxis." Tatiana Istomina (2021) defines Know-how as "includ[ing] all innovations and new technology which have or could have an impact on legal translation and the workflow, processes and quality" (Istomina, 2021, p.5). In addition, Istomina suggests that such technologies "can include CAT, human-assisted machine translation (HAMT), AI, blockchain technologies and various other tools."

Moreover, Istomina's typology points to a rising trend in LTS, which is relevant for the current research project: *researchers realise that there is untapped potential in exploiting certain technologies in conjunction with a set of pre-defined strategies*. In adopting this stance, Istomina's view supports this project's ethos, which seeks to find the most viable tools, strategies, and translation techniques for the interested cohort group. Moreover, the authors discussed have drawn attention to finding innovative ways of dealing with "inter-systemic" legal translation.

Inter-systemic legal translation problems are pervasive, regardless of the translator profile. These pervasive LTS and CBLTS concepts relate to indeterminacy and asymmetry in LTS. In this regard,

Deborah Cao (2007) proposes the following scenario, recalling Hart's observation to explain the concept.

Cao asks, “if the law says no vehicle is allowed in the park, what would 'vehicle' mean?” (Cao, 2007, p. 134). The rhetorical effect this question seeks is to prompt the reader's curiosity: What does “vehicle” really mean in a legal context? Cao proceeds to explain the crux of the contention from a legal perspective. She recalls the case of a Danish company that queried the translation of the word 'vehicle' because the Danish translation of the EU law containing the term “vehicle” was inconsistent with several other language versions, including the Spanish one. The language versions are said to be inconsistent because a Danish translation may conceive the term in a much more precise way than the Spanish one. In other words, the Danish conception of the term “vehicle” may designate a legal concept limited to a specific type of vehicle, as opposed to the Spanish version, which legally conceives aircraft as vehicles. Understandably, from a legal perspective, that would raise a concern about the types of “vehicles” that one may be allowed to drive (or fly) into a Danish public park.

The translational phenomenon described above is called **inter-systemic legal translation** and relates to the specific problem of translating system-bound terms and phrases. A system-bound term is a term that holds a legally binding definition within the specific authority where the term applies.

Consider Harvey's portrayal of the difficulty of inter-systemic legal translation for the legal translator: “[T]his [inter-systemic legal translation] results in the problem of finding equivalents for culture-bound terms, particularly those related to concepts, procedures, institutions, and personnel (Harvey, 2002). Prieto Ramos elaborates on the problem of inter-systemic legal translation. He pinpoints “hybridity” and “polysemy of legal terminology” as the central compounding factors to legal translation difficulty. Subsequently, he adds that “multiple interactions co-exist between legal orders, legal fields, and other specialised domains, and between legal and general language” (Prieto Ramos, 2020, p. 175). In the same light, Prieto Ramos asserts: “higher degrees of legal asymmetry or singularity of terms […] as correlat[ing] to higher levels of

terminological difficulty and methodological competence required for decision-making" (Prieto Ramos, 2021b, p. 279).

The erroneous or inadequate inter-systematic translation is primarily conditioned by the translator's lack of legal and subject-specific knowledge (Orozco-Jutorán & Sáchez Gijón, 2011). Subject-specific, or specific subject knowledge, refers to the specialised legal domain in which the translator works (e.g., International Civil Aviation Law). Robertson, for example, notes the highly specialised nature of aviation terms in national and international law, respectively (Robertson, 2018). In this sense, Robertson adds that a lack of experience in such a highly specialised field could only be detrimental to the inexperienced legal translator, specifically when searching for system-bound terms and phrases.

Understandably, without an awareness of inter-systemic translation and the extratextual factors that condition the TT's reception within the intended legal target culture, the chance of a translator producing a precise equivalent for an aviation term from a different legal system is markedly low. Consequently, the implications for the cohort group, as defined by a lack of experience, are far-reaching, especially considering that the cohort may need to know that different legal systems exist.

Further exemplifying inter-systemic legal translation would be translating from Common Law in Spanish to Civil Law in English. This activity would immediately impose a two-fold challenge on the cohort: Firstly, the translator would have to find the correct terminology and phraseology to suit the legal system of the TT while adhering to the translation brief. Moreover, as previously pointed out, different legal systems are bound up with the specific culture and legal history of the country in which they operate and even specific legal processes: legal problems are resolved in different ways in different countries, through various institutions, based on terms of specific technical structures tailored to individual legal systems (Groot, 1991).

Regarding relatable research found in the literature, Vigier & del Mar Sánchez (2017) propose using a corpus of balanced and representative texts to locate and contextualise system-bound

terms, such as the names of Spanish courts within different legal contexts. The following section explores the "problems" of translating terms and phrases between legal codes, orders, or systems.

3.2.1. Terminology and Phraseology as Sources of Difficulty in Legal Translation

Terminology and Phraseology constitute two central aspects of legal translation competence (Prieto Ramos & Cerutti, 2021), and they should see due consideration within any legal translation context. However, as pointed out by several authors, this due consideration of terms and phrases is arguably more critical for LSP working with the legal supergenre than LGP translators due to the mandate on legal translators to deliver term and phrase equivalents with precise accuracy and consistency. Thus, this project's guidelines focus not on perfecting a translator's legal expertise but on demonstrating a process that aims to simplify, standardise, and promote institutional legal translation praxis (future research) among comparable cohorts. The defining feature of the cohort is its previous non-exposure to legal translation training, which is why this section, firstly, explores some of the competence models to ascertain what types of skills and specific technical and legal knowledge would be valuable for the cohort to display. In this sense, special attention is paid to rationalising information mining practices while considering that honing these skills aims to produce a specialised Do-It-Yourself sub-genre corpus. The corpus will be comprised of ASAs, to help the cohort recognise critical generic features of the texts they (the cohort) interact with within an organisational setting. These genre-specific features focus on the terminology and phraseology typical of the specialised sub-genres but can include formatting and page layout parameters.

A term is a legal designation of a concept within the legal system, or legal code, of a particular country or trade bloc (e.g., the EU). When the translator engages with two different legal codes or legal systems (e.g., ST = Chile; TT = South Africa), they effectively engage in "inter-systemic legal translation." Likewise, a phrase may comprise one or several terms; for example, a translator needs to know that "Entry into Force" translates into "*Entrada en Vigor*" in a context conditioned by legal and linguistic variables, which the Robertson Scheme attempts to extrapolate. Moreover, the phraseological equivalence can only be justified under the text's communicative function when considering this study's functionalist genre-based theoretical framework. Consequently, the classic

TS problem of "fidelity" and "equivalence" surfaces in legal translation at the point of discerning the "correct" term or phrase equivalent. "Correct" is a vague qualification, to which Sparer and Covacs posited a decidedly functionalist stance (See 3.2 [Problems of Legal Translation]).

Nevertheless, Cao (2007) recognises terminology as "the most visible and striking linguistic feature of legal language as a technical language" (p. 53) and "one of the primary sources of difficulty in translating legal documents." Furthermore, it is essential to note that terminology plays an even more significant role in translating specialised legal genres, such as ASAs, due to the highly regulated standards of terminology by the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO; Balogh, 2019; Orozco-Jutorán & Sáchez Gijón, 2011; Pontrandolfo, 2019; and, Bowker & Pearson, 2002). The preceding stance validates Robertson's (2018, p. 116) observation of the "highly specialised" *nature* of institutional civil aviation law terminology and phraseology. Additionally, Prieto Ramos (2021b, p. 278), who has worked extensively on numerous relevant studies in both LTS and CBLTS, relays his interpretation of the importance of terminology, stating that:

> Effective information mining for legal terminological research in translation is largely determined by the ability to contextuali(s)e concepts in their legal framework and to resort to relevant legal sources. Specialised knowledge of the sources thus emerges as a competence marker that is expected to converge with that of comparative law practitioners.

Prieto Ramos & Georgina Cerutti (2021) further relay the importance of terminology and phraseology, stating that: "terminological and phraseological features are considered key components of institutional discourses and translation decision-making" (p. 156). Additionally, Robertson's attitude expressed throughout his work (2012) would imply that inexperienced translators will undoubtedly fall short in the quality of their translations, given their inexperience and relative lack of experience with legal genre typology.

In this sense, quality may be affected because the translator may be unaware of, among other things, all the different legal sub-genres produced within the organisation's respective text-

producing organs and their corresponding communicative purposes. This would be problematic because a genre-based approach requires the translator to be acutely aware of each of the organisation's text-producing organs and their corresponding sub-genres.

In this sense, the literature reveals one of the most reported categorical problems relating to legal terminology and phraseology as the requirement for an "adequate" translation to bear consistent and accurate renderings of terms and phrases in the LTTC. Most LTS and CBLTS scholars mention the importance of maintaining consistency and accuracy in the translation of terms and phrases of legal texts (Balogh, 2019; Bestué, 2019; Biel, 2009; Olohan, 2004; Pontrandolfo, 2019; Engberg, 2020; Prieto Ramos & Cerutti, 2022; Pontandrolfo, 2015; and Santalahti & Mikhailov, 2019).

Prieto Ramos regards consistency and accuracy as fundamental aspects of legal translation quality (2020, p. 128). Additionally, Karolina Stefaniak underscores the relevance of consistency as a primary criterion for adequacy: "[V]arious translations of the same term, especially in legal acts, may mislead the reader to think that these terms denote different concepts and make it difficult to interpret legislation" (Stefaniak, 2017, p. 16). In addition, Marie-Josée De Saint Robert (in Prieto Ramos, 2020) concurs with seminal authors like Prieto Ramos and Biel, as he refers to the consistency or "continuity in a text" as a central aspect of translation quality assessment at the United Nations.

Thus, it is no coincidence that terminological consistency and semantic accuracy are the first two requirements established for the translation process in the quality standard ISO 17100: 2015 includes "compliance with specific domain and client terminology and any other reference material provided and ensuring terminological consistency during translation" and "semantic accuracy of the target language content" (ISO, 2015, 10). Consequently, and as Tomáš Svoboda et al. (2017, p. 3) points out, "standardi[s]ation may [, therefore,] be regarded as one of the defining features of institutional translation".

Prieto Ramos leverages the argument that "standardisation of international legal discourses also crystalises through phraseological conventions that serve the purposes of the shared legal framework and may differ from phraseological features of analogous legal genres in the same

language in national legal settings" (Prieto Ramos, 2020, p. 179). Herewith, Prieto Ramos links standardisation with accuracy and consistency in legal translation.

However, despite the historically persistent focus on the association between accuracy and consistency of legal terms in legal, institutional translation, and translation quality (Prieto Ramos, 2021), LTS rendered an apparent gap in its conception of terminology *difficulty*. To this end, Prieto Ramos & Cerutti (2021) recently proposed the first empirical classification scale of terminological difficulty within legal and institutional settings.

The relevance of this scale arguably relates to a prior observation made by Prieto Ramos, who stated that "it is presumed that higher degrees of legal asymmetry or singularity of terms […] correlate to higher levels of terminological difficulty and methodological competence required for decision-making" (Prieto Ramos, 2021, p. 279). This scale, therefore, provides a practical guide for all legal translators to distinguish between different categories of terms and their corresponding difficulty levels. The interested cohort could, therefore, use the classification scheme as a means to gauge the "cognitive effort [likely to be applied] in decision making" (Prieto Ramos & Cerutti, 2021, p. 157). Consequently, although Prieto Ramos' scheme remains generally relevant to this literature review, it would be interesting to test its utility in future research experiments.

Besides using the abovementioned Scheme to anticipate the level of effort required of the translator, it can benefit the cohort's profile groups (e.g., freelance vs full-time, legal, institutional professional translators) by allowing the cohort to anticipate which channels will be most efficient for filtering the correct term and phase information (e.g., ITRs vs Institutional corpora). By gauging how difficulty levels of terms and phrases might implicate working methods, it is argued that legal translators will have a better overview of the efforts and resources required to exercise before commencing a legal, institutional translation.

Furthermore, given that this project focuses on instilling better praxis among the intended cohort group, a brief discussion of the appropriate resources is warranted. After all, several scholars have undertaken to appraise various mainly tech-based strategies for improved accuracy and consistency in legal and institutional translation. In this sense, it is arguably necessary to ascertain

which resources could best facilitate term and phrase management for the cohort. Thus, the various helpful applications of Corpus-Based and Corpus-Assisted methods to legal translation will be dealt with in more detail in the following sub-section (See 3.3 [CBLTS and CALTS]).

Although each specialised ad-hoc translation project may likely call for a unique set of competencies, as Scott (2012) pointed out, the standardised models for legal translators must be acknowledged. Although several different models exist, describing their most pertinent requirements is to provide a general view of the types and degrees of expertise that specific translator profiles should hold and hone.

In this sense, Prieto Ramos cites Kelly's model. Kelly's model stipulates "the use of documentary resources of all kinds, terminological research, information management for these purposes" within the category of "professional and instrumental competence" (See Prieto Ramos, 2019). Similarly, PACTE defines "instrumental sub-competence" as: "Knowledge related to the use of documentation sources and information technologies applied to translation" (PACTE in Beeby, A., *et al.*, 2005, p. 610).

Now the focus shifts to appraising traditional legal translator resources to supplant their functions with corpora. The literature reveals a largely negative stance on these conventional resources' capacities for fulfilling subject and domain-specific legal-linguistic information.
A general problem commonly pointed out in the literature about applying lexicographic resources in a legal translation setting is these resources' impracticality (Biel & Engberg, 2013; Bowker & Pearson, 2002). Some authors attribute this impracticality to its physical aspects. For example, Lynne Bowker and Jennifer Pearson (2002) deem the sizes of dictionaries problematic because lexicographers must condense the sometimes-critical information in a dictionary (2002, p. 15). This "condensing of information" invariably occurs in the spirit of economising space.

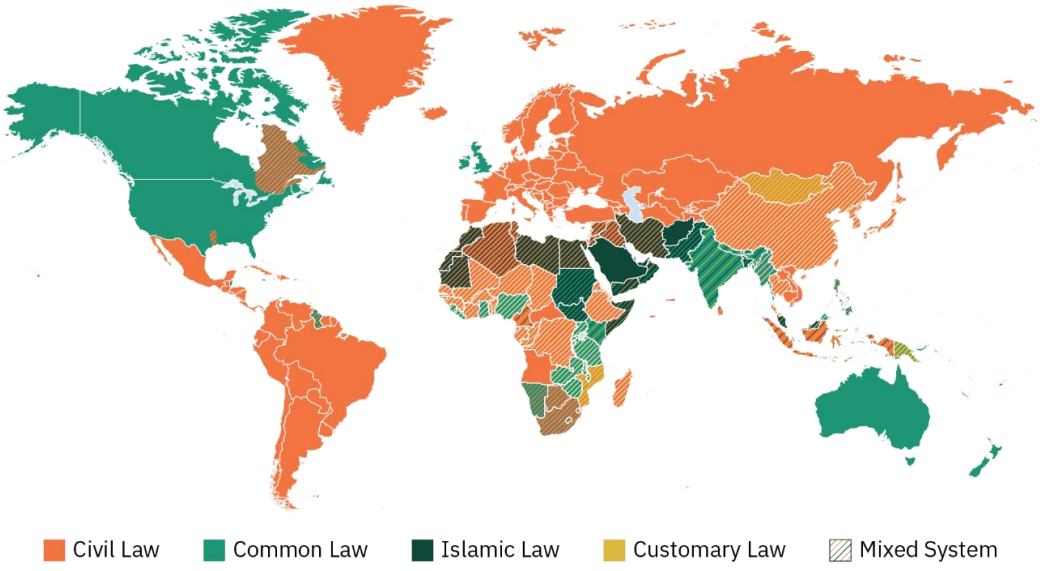
Alternatively, Orozco-Jutorán and Sáchez Gijón (2011) esteem terminology databases as credible tools to counteract subject-knowledge blind spots "provided that an individual term does not feature in more than one genre" (p. 3). Nevertheless, these authors note that it is "not very common in legal texts" for generic discourse markers to be used interchangeably between text types.

Similarly, Prieto Ramos has also remarked that (institutional) terminology databases can facilitate the identification of the branch of law to which the document pertains and even the textual genre to which it belongs. Without these resources, the cohort might derive less function from the dictionary while having to contend with an overwhelming sense of "feeling lost" among a wealth of possible functional equivalents.

Feeling lost among translation equivalents may be amplified in the case of global languages, such as Spanish, which operate within and across several different legal codes and legal systems. Additionally, the legal cultures of individual Spanish-speaking countries are often subject to their internal conditions, not to mention the twenty-one different Spanish verbal accents, which add to the complexity of translating texts based on oral negotiations. To this end, the Robertson Analytical Scheme will foreground possible discrepancies in the textual representation of geographically specific legal codes and the other categorical sets of subject-knowledge information depicted in the classification scheme by Orozco-Jutorán and Sánchez-Gijón (2011).

Consequently, the problem of non-exposure to legal theory training in the cohort coincides with the abovementioned problems that underscore the said classification scheme. To illustrate the legal knowledge required of a legal translator, Figure 1 below depicts the concept of different legal systems at the State level.

Figure 1 - The different types of legal systems around the world. (Copyright Rice University, OpenStax)



Moreover, the problem of translating between varieties of legal Spanish and having to contend with twenty-one different spoken varieties of this global language is discussed in the paper by the Italian translator and LTS scholar Gianluca Pontandrolfo (2015). What stood out from this piece of literature was an awareness of the limitations of traditional paper-based lexicographic resources, which can be counteracted by creating and analysing a "well-designed" specialised legal corpus. However, the hypothesised legal sub-genres are extrapolated in the next section before proceeding to corpus management for the cohort.

3.2.2. Specialised Legal Sub-genres – A Closer Look at Bilateral and Multilateral Aviation Treaties

This section briefly describes the history, development, and generic features of bi- and multilateral aviation treaty texts. This project operationalises the generic features that distinguish different specialist legal sub-genres. Thus, exploring some extratextual (legal and linguistic) conventions that give rise to the negotiation, translation, and ratification of international civil aviation treaty texts would be helpful to narrow down the criteria for corpus creation.

3.2.2.1. Bilateral Air Services Agreements

One type of legal text pertaining specifically to the realm of international civil aviation is the *bilateral treaty*, which, according to the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties (UN, 1969, Article 2), refers to an international agreement concluded between states in written form and governed by international law. In international civil aviation, bilateral treaties – more commonly known as ASAs (Aeronautical Air Services Agreements) have always been essential instruments of law. Since the *Chicago Convention of 1944* was celebrated, states have resorted to the conclusion of bilateral ASAs to grant, specifically, to regulate traffic rights from/to their territory. Today, more than five thousand bilateral ASAs worldwide function within the meta-level

regulatory framework of the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO), the highest regulatory body of international civil aviation (Scott & Trimarchi, 2020).

Historically, the most influential ASA, which also catalysed the proliferation of bilateralism in international civil aviation, is *Bermuda I* Agreement, concluded between the United Kingdom and the United States of America in 1946. The said States set a precedent for international civil aeronautics bilateral relations. It is also the first time that states have exchanged air traffic rights.

Air Traffic Rights, or Freedoms of the Air, as conventionally termed, constitute the core elements of ASA negotiations (Scott & Trimarchi, 2020, p. 93). These are the stipulation of the levels of freedom that State A, for example, affords State B. Thus, this process allows State A to grant specific levels and conditions of air traffic rights, thereby authorising State B's legal entry into State A's airspace. Without the exchange of these rights, there would be no legal basis for international air travel, as travelling in the sovereign air space of another State is illegal under international law unless otherwise conditioned by an ASA. Without ASAs (bilateral or multilateral), air travel would be restricted to domestic operations (Scott & Trimarchi, 2020, p. 99). Once the representative air authorities of the respective state conclude a series of negotiations; sign the agreement; and ratify it, the Freedoms become manifest in the textual "Agreement" (AKA, "Convention," or simply, "Treaty").

The preceding allows the translator to recognise the term and phrase conventions corresponding to internal and external settings. Considering the preceding, it would be crucial for the translator to pay attention to certain comparative aspects of the texts, such as the specific normative terms used in each respective legal culture and the terms and phrases that typify the institution's internal organic texts. The translator can "pay attention" by comparing specialised term and phrase translation units among aeronautical air services agreements in distinct genres. In the said scenario, the translator may gain awareness of the terms and phrases directly related to aviation safety and security. Conversely, an erroneous translation of inter or intra-systemic terminology may affect passengers' safety. Thus, it is vitally essential for translators to maintain a flawless display of term and phrase consistency and accuracy.

The following section reviews multilateral treaties and their anticipated conventions.

3.2.2.2. MULTILATERAL AIR SERVICES AGREEMENTS

If the State's goal is to expand its business of international air travel for economic benefit, then the primary purpose of the institution responsible for implementing the State's aviation policy (e.g., a State's Civil Aviation Board) would be to acquire the most significant number of Air Traffic Rights through the negotiation and ratification of an International Air Services Agreement. As the previous section detailed, the institution comprising the initial object of study (i.e., The Civil Aeronautics Board of Chile) exerts its executive role in furthering Chile's national aviation policy through negotiating (verbal), signing and ratifying bilateral ASAs. Usually, these ASAs would be drafted in English, given its status as the global Lingua Franca.

However, this section argues that a corpus-assisted study of multilateral treaties imports a unique set of translation-related opportunities in an international civil aviation context. Additionally, this project argues that the Robertson Analytical Scheme can be used to "realise" these translation-related opportunities under the information that theoretically gets foreground therein. One such opportunity derives from observing differences between bilateral and multilateral treaties.

Thus, the hypothesis is that the Guideline can foreground some important discrepant features between the sub-genres of bi- and multilateral ASAs. This hypothesis is grounded in the functionalist genre approach adopted in this project, which dictates that text comprehension (and, consequently, the translation) depends strongly on the translator's capacity to identify generic features (Balogh, 2019; Scott, 2012). These features can include paragraph styles and layouts to the frequency patterns of individual terms and phrases that typify either genre.

While supporting the preceding view, Orozco-Jutorán and Sáchez Gijón (2011) state that it is uncommon for more than one genre to use individual terms interchangeably. Upon reflection, the hypothesis is that if legal genres do not typically use individual terms or phrases interchangeably, an institution's different texts can indicate genres produced therein. When applied to a corpus setting, these discourse markers may not only be illuminated and isolated, but their "correct" inter-

systemic specialised translation units will also be automatically located (See 4.2.2.4 [Bi-Text Alignment]).

However, as the literature consistently portrays, the success of any corpus-based or corpus-assisted translation project depends on the level of systematisation of the chosen approach, starting with a rational design scheme (See Giampieri, 2012; Vigier and del Mar Sánchez, 2017; Scott, 2012). Consequently, the highly relevant authors (mentioned above) have consistently deemed the tripartite structure of the corpus management phase essential; without it, the collection of texts would be arbitrary, and the texts not representative of the natural incidences of the specific discourse markers that typify a particular genre.

Overall, this means, in practical terms, that a translator's approach to the corpus management processes will generally determine the "quality" of the search results, which reinforces the hypothesis of this project. The project's central hypothesis is that a systematic praxis-based approach (i.e., the Guideline) can yield fast and reliable lexicographic and terminographic searches for pertinent inter-systemic translation units across various specialised legal genres, which, in turn, directly affects the cohort's (and other profiles' i.e., private law translators) translation quality. Therefore, the methodologies tested in this study aim to provide practical solutions for existing problems among many (i.e., the cohort) legal translators.

3.3. Corpus-Based and Corpus-Assisted Legal Translation Studies (CBLTS and CALTS)

3.3.1. Introduction

This section reviews some critical arguments from the literature, specifically regarding providing a rationale for managing a specialised Do-It-Yourself corpus. Firstly, a discussion follows expressing the development of corpora in LTS. The ensuing argument will also address essential themes related to the distinct types of corpora to elaborate on the specifics of managing a "specialised" Do-It-Yourself comparable and parallel corpus.

Historically, the proliferation of corpora in the discipline of TS can be attributed to developments in the adjacent field of Corpus Linguistics with the automation of previously paper-based corpora. Since Mona Baker's seminal paper (1993), corpora have steadily gained ground in legal translation research for assorted reasons. As demonstrated in the literature, corpora can be used for the study of elements as varied as the textual fit of translated EU law (Biel & Engberg, 2014), legal phraseology (Pontandrolfo, 2015), or the use of binomials in legal discourse (Monzó-Nebot, 2008).

Definitions postulated in the literature describe electronic "corpora" as "often defined as a machine-readable representative collection of naturally occurring language assembled for linguistic analysis" (Biel, 2009, p. 1). Other definitions include: "[A] collection of examples of language collected for linguistic study; it can also describe collections of texts stored and accessed electronically." These tools have been used primarily by corpus linguists to investigate linguistic phenomena by exploiting corpus query software. However, corpus linguistics methodologies have successfully transposed into the most specialised fields of legal translation. In this sense, Biel, a prominent CBLTS scholar, emphatically points out that corpus linguistics is not, as Gries argues, "a homogenous methodology, as it is used with varying granularity and reliance on quantitative and qualitative methods" (Biel, 2009).

A significant body of literature accounts for corpus methodologies applied in translation, but this is unsurprising, considering the potential benefits for the various inexperienced translator profile groups (i.e., cohort). It is, thus, argued that these benefits stem from corpora's capacity for digital automation and, more specifically, allowing the translator to instantaneously locate terms and phrases in their naturally occurring linguistic contexts. Similarly, Stubbs (2004, p. 111) ascribes corpora and their varied and relevant application to TS because a corpus shows what is "central and typical, normal and expected." Likewise, Biel (2009, p. 2) comments: "[T]hey [corpora] emphasise that language use is highly patterned and that such patterns are not accidental but cognitively motivated (Stubbs 2004, p. 111).

Despite the previously mentioned variability, Michael Stubbs lays down the following shared features of all corpora: "[A] machine-readable representative collection of naturally occurring language assembled for linguistic analysis (using software)" (Stubbs cited in Biel, 2009, p. 2). Biel

elaborates on Stubbs' construct, adding that "the corpus is intended to be balanced and representative of the modality/register/variety the study is aimed at" (Biel, 2009, p. 2). Moreover, several scholars note corpus software as catapulting Corpus Linguistics from an overly qualitative discipline, lacking empirical methods, to adopting methodologies and practices (i.e., corpus creation) that aid in data triangulation through an integrative, mixed methods approach to research (See Biel & Engberg, 2013).

Furthermore, despite deriving from the adjacent discipline of Corpus Linguistics, corpus methods have become commonplace in both TS and, more specifically, in LTS, for translating legal texts. Moreover, as technology plays a fundamental role in the proposed Guideline, this software will be elaborated on later to show how the cohort can effectively exploit the software for an array of their functional, ad-hoc, translation assignment-based needs.

Regardless of the intended cohort of CBLTS research, the literature unanimously points to the fact that corpora are popular tools for both professionals and translators in training. Both professional and translators-in-training profiles can benefit from corpora, as a corpus shows what is "central and typical, normal, and expected" (Stubbs, 2004, p. 111).

Additionally, Wolfgang Teubert (2002) recognises another vital influence of corpora, as they (corpora) take linguistics "beyond the single word as the basic semantic unit" (p. 111). Teubert's stance resonates with this project's ethos, which broadly welcomes the consequences of disciplinary hybridity, which, in this case, relate to the hybridisation of Machine Translation and Corpus Linguistics. Herewith, Teubert underscores much of the rationale in the decision to include corpora in this project due to its nature and, consequently, its capacity to contextualise specialised legal terms in their natural language patterns (e.g., the concordance function). In this light, Biel offers a concise summary of the advantages of corpus-based language studies. These translator-oriented advantages include (but are not limited to) "reduced speculation and subjectivity; the authenticity of data; and the potential to verify research hypotheses systematically and based on more extensive linguistic material" (Biel, 2009, p. 2).

On the other hand, corpus studies receive fair criticism, as well: Biel (2009) notes general "problems with representativeness and balance", adding that "any claims and generalisations we make about language are representative of the language sample we research, not of the entire language" (Biel, 2009, p. 2). Biel's view holds for several authors who agree that balance and representativeness are crucial in the corpus creation phase and only sometimes achieved. Nevertheless, there is a deviation in the opinion of generalist users of corpora and those using corpora for specialist legal translation. Consequently, as noted by Scott (2012) and others, specialised Do-It-Yourself corpus projects will benefit from systematic approaches to the corpus management processes (to ensure balance and representation). However, having a large corpus is not always necessary when studying an organisation's specialised legal sub-genres. Consequently, the following section details the specific considerations of corpus management in an LSP set.

Firstly, nomenclature-related disambiguation is warranted: CBLTS vs CALTS is an additional distinction commonly pointed out in the literature. In light of this, purely corpus-based studies rely more heavily on statistical analyses, whereas corpus-assisted studies may be more qualitative (See Vigier and del Mar Sánchez, 2017). It should be pointed out that the Guideline herein considers corpora as tools, along with more traditional lexicographic resources and other software that may facilitate a translator working based on the proposed Guideline. Consequently, a corpus-assisted approach appeals to the aims of this Research Paper.

Irrespective of the chosen approach, one could not negate that corpora have the potential to improve translation practices for students and professional translators vastly. Several authors concur on corpus instrumentality for translation students, primarily praising the versatility of its use due to its dual-purpose application in translation. The dual purpose refers to the fact that corpora can be used as either objects or methods of study across various interdisciplinary topics.

In this sense, Vigier and del Mar Sánchez (2017) attribute the popularity of corpus methods in TS to their versatility, in that they can add value to various translator profiles in diverse professional and pedagogical settings. Laviosa also elaborates on the versatility claim of corpora, stating that: "Corpus approaches have revolutionised TS research […] since corpora enable the "empirical

study of the product and process of translation, an elaboration of theoretical constructs, and the training of translators" (Laviosa cited in Scott, 2012).

Although the promise of improved corpus-integrated praxis among legal translators remains enticing, the literature that touches on legal translation competencies indirectly acknowledges that legal-; corpus; -and "domain-specific" subject-knowledge gaps disadvantage any representative member of the cohort group. Additionally, some authors opine that legal- and corpus-translation methods cannot erase the legal knowledge gaps that naturally disadvantage the cohort group. However, corpora can - as several authors have shown - offer handy ways of "plugging" those knowledge gaps to the degree that allows them to produce adequate translations (Giampieri, 2021; Scott, 2012; Biel et al., 2019; Pontandrolfo, 2015; Vigier-Moreno, 2016; Scott, 2012).

However, even with the benefits of corpora for legal translators (below), the initial impression of the processes involved in corpus management will seem less than endearing to a novice. In addition, if we examine some of the studies in more detail, it will appear that "proper" corpus management requires training in the technical aspects of the specific type of corpus (e.g., specialised legal sub-genres used in bilingual parallel corpora). This level of training needed is significant; in her study, Patrizia Giampieri (2021) spent an entire semester training a group of postgraduate TS students on compiling and exploiting a specialised legal corpus. While the results were mostly positive, in that most of the students were able to produce "adequate" translations of "short" legal texts by the end of the semester, many of the details that would be imperative for methodological replication were condensed or omitted for the economy of space in a journal article.

Nevertheless, Giampieri is one of the most relevant authors to this research project, as her study bears several significant resemblances to this current Research project. Giampieri's and the current research project concur on a central hypothesis; both studies posit that a thorough knowledge of legal knowledge is not as much of a hindrance to legal translators as many scholars have previously theorised (Giampieri, 2021; Goźdź-Roszkowski, 2012). This conclusion results from Giampieri noting that insufficient legal training in the legal field was not the main reason for the student's shortcomings (Giampieri, 2021, p. 20). Instead, as she points out, the primary source of the

students' shortcomings was, in fact, “inaccurate corpus analysis.” In addition, both studies define inexperienced translators working with legal language as the primary demographic of the respective studies. Additionally, both studies look at translating legal texts from the inexperienced student/translator's perspective while problematising the concept of working methods.

Finally, Giampieri's study concluded that critical knowledge gaps from a lack of legal expertise could be bridged with effective corpus consultation. While the research aims are similar, Giampieri's study is purely corpus-based and does not investigate other Computer-Aided Translation (CAT) tools. However, the article's findings shed light on the importance of digital resources by showing the marked improvement between pre-corpus and post-corpus translation. Moreover, Giampieri's study also resonates with the present study's emphasis on “approach setting” (implicit in the Guideline), which is a broad way of defining how a translator will approach the anticipated translation problems of the delegated translation task or assignment. Notwithstanding the variable research aims and their ad-hoc technical challenges, corpora have undoubtedly significantly impacted LTS for the better.

In terms of its scope and disciplinary mandate, many TS scholars regard CBLTS as an entirely new discipline, primarily facilitated by the methodological expansion resulting from the Translation Turns in TS. In fact, upon reflecting on these Translation Turns through the thematic analysis of the literature review, it becomes clear that computers changed corpus linguistics methods for linguists and translators. Thus, digitisation and automation of corpora stand out as impressionable features of contemporary corpus studies.

Reflecting on the preceding, Stig Johannsson (1995, pp. 243-244) captures the significant impact of introducing computers to corpus linguistics when he posits the concept of “corpus linguistics (BC)” (i.e., corpus linguistics **B**efore **C**omputers). In this regard, Stubbs poignantly (2004, p. 107) compares the impact of corpus methods on translation to the effects of telescopes on astronomy. These references relay the significant transformation that occurred in LTS as a direct result of integrating technology into the legal translator's praxis, which draws attention to the broader importance of incorporating technology in the legal translator's work.

However, one of the problems pointed out by Biel & Engberg (2013) regarding this methodological expansionism, arguably driven by technological developments in both Computer Science and Machine Translation, is the difficulty in instilling disciplinary consolidation[8] due to the vastly variable research aims (Gentzler, 2003; Zanettin, 2009).

Consequently, to import credibility in this Research project, it proved imperative to identify studies holding thematic and methodological consistency with the present Research project. Therefore, to maintain congruity with similar research projects, Scott's (2012) and Vigier and del Mar Sánchez's (2017) methodologies would effectively be amalgamated for integration in this Guideline.

Hence, the Do-It-Yourself corpus methodologies adapted for this project were selected for replicability and purported utility among the cohort. Nevertheless, there are several uses for the various corpora, and Biel lays out a concise table to summarise the otherwise convoluted depiction of the various corpora with their corresponding applications:

[8] Bassnett and Johnston (2019) explain that Translation Studies as a discipline (TS) has faced challenges in consolidation due to its interdisciplinary nature, limited recognition, and dominance of Anglophone perspectives. The authors additionally argue that the discipline's relevance is threatened by declining language learning, the divide between language and literature, and a lack of impact beyond academia. Consequently, TS needs to engage with other disciplines and emphasise the importance of translation for global understanding.

Figure 2 - Corpus Typology (Biel 2010, p. 3).

Type of analysis	**Intralingual**		**Interlingual (cross-linguistic)**	
Number of languages	Monolingual (1 language)		Bilingual/multilingual (2+ languages)	
Corpus design	(1) MONOLINGUAL 1 corpus	(2a) COMPARABLE 2+ corpora	(2b) COMPARABLE 2+ corpora	(3) PARALLEL 2+ corpora
Type	typical linguistic corpus	translation-driven corpus	translation-driven corpus	translation corpus
Number of languages	1 language	1 language	2 or more languages	2 or more languages
Corpus content	non-translated language A	translated versus non-translated language A	non-translated language A and B	non-translated language A aligned with translation in B
What may be examined	legal language against other genres	translated language against non-translated one	differences and similarities between languages	translation process

To comment on the table in Figure 2: Corpus typology may seem overwhelming and overly technical to an unfamiliar eye. Additionally, at a practical level, corpus management cannot be described as less than "arduous" due to its highly technical nature. Therefore, before commencing a translation project, it warrants a preliminary understanding of the theoretical and practical issues that may apply to the corpus type. Additionally, the word "arduous" is the descriptor used by researchers whose corpus management methodologies have been studied and adapted for this Research project (Vigier and del Mar Sánchez, 2017; Scott, 2012). Notwithstanding the relevance of discussing these corpus types individually, it is prudent to reiterate that this project focuses on managing "bilingual parallel" and "bilingual comparable" corpora, respectively, and drawing function, to a lesser extent, from the monolingual corpora.

Considering this, caution must be given to the voluminous theory associated with the different types of corpora. Therefore, delimitating the following review to parallel, comparable, and monolingual (in Spanish and English, respectively) was considered a measure to import clarity and conciseness in this project. The following quote by Biel (2009, p. 12) (citing Teubert, 2002,

2004) succinctly captures the essential functional distinction between monolingual and parallel corpora (i.e., bilingual and multilingual corpora) through a comparative lens:

> Similarly to [how] monolingual corpora have revolutionised lexicography, parallel corpora offer new vistas to bilingual lexicography and terminography. Since parallel corpora reflect translation practice and contain many relevant translation units and their equivalents that tend to be overlooked by lexicographers not working with a parallel corpus (and that is the majority), they are used to complement and validate existing dictionaries and reduce arbitrary and idiosyncratic decisions concerning entry selection (Teubert, 2002, 2004), with special extraction software accelerating terminologists' work.

Regarding previous research in this field, Vigier and del Mar Sánchez (2017) undertook a study using a specialised Do-It-Yourself bilingual (Spanish and English) parallel corpus to investigate the translation of legal system-bound terms. The methodology chosen by the authors first described the phenomena (terms and phrases) that they hoped to encounter (i.e., inter-systemic translation equivalents) to compare the legal contexts and the legal situations associated with the texts in which the discrepant terms and phrases occur. They consequently described the technical process of corpus management, which contains three distinct phases: The corpus design phase, the corpus compilation phase, and the corpus analysis phase (the following sections elaborate on this phase). The authors used corpus management to verify the existence of two distinct legal varieties of Spanish used in the European Union (i.e., Eurolects).

Similarly, Scott has worked extensively over several years to develop the first procedural methodology for corpus management among non-expert legal translators working with specialised legal sub-genres. The cohort Scott's methodology aims for coincides with the current project's cohort. It is worth noting that Scott asserts that legal translators can effectively compile their own balanced and representative corpora. Additionally, these corpora, she argues, can successfully demonstrate the natural language behaviour of highly specialised legal genres (such as civil aviation law) if they apply a systematic approach to corpus creation (Scott, 2012, p. 92).

Relating to the concept of "specialised legal (sub)genres" in this project's context is the discussion around genre conventions in bi- and multilateral ASAs. These legal "sub-genres" (as termed by Scott (2012), comprise highly specialised terms and phrasemes in the respective texts. These are the genre-specific discourse markers that the Guideline attempts to foreground.

Additional resonance is found in Scott's work, as she is one of few researchers who have prioritised the topic of *specialised* Do-It-Yourself corpora. She applies a functionalist genre-theory approach to refine a methodology for managing specialised legal corpora (i.e., NIFTY methodology). What is particularly relevant from Scott's methodology is that Scott's project focuses specifically on two features that distinguish it from other Do-It-Yourself corpus-building methodologies research: the "specialised" aspect of legal "sub-genres."

The second distinctive feature that sets Scott's work apart and pushes it into further alignment with this project's scope, aims, and methodologies is that the recipient and hopeful benefactor of the proposed methodology is defined as all "professional" translators, as opposed to student translators. This is significant because the authoritative text by Bowker & Pearson (2002) explains the need for congruity between research aims and the type of corpus that will be used. Considering the said congruity mandate and the specialised nature of the legal language used in civil aviation, it is apt to replicate Scott's methodology in the final corpus-building process.

The difficulty of suggesting corpus-creation strategies for this specific cohort is their near lack of understanding of the technicalities of the corpus management processes. Additionally, and congruent with Scott's views, some of the procedures that underline alternative methods to building specialised corpora might only be applicable in a pedagogical setting where the conditions for designing, building, and analysing corpora do not sufficiently coincide with the realities of a professional context. Thus, Scott's methodology effectively adds a level of credibility to this project under its high level of thematically nuanced resonance with the current project, as well as the studies' shared mandate to refine a methodology for the professional uptake of Do-It-Yourself corpora among "non-expert" and "professional" legal translators working with a "specialised" legal genre.

Finally, it is argued that despite the novelty of the approaches laid out by Scott (2012) and Vigier and del Mar Sánchez (2017), their (the authors' corpus creation methods) capacity to improve translation praxis among the cohort group arguably stands as an enticing selling point for the proposed Guideline. Therefore, a short discussion about Corpus Analysis Software follows before turning the forum to more specific aspects of the Do-It-Yourself parallel corpus management processes described by the preceding three authors.

3.3.2. CORPUS ANALYSIS SOFTWARE

The final stage of the three-stage corpus management phase proposed in this "Guideline" consists of a series of analytical functions carried out with corpus linguistics software (AKA "corpus query software"). Corpus analysis software is an umbrella term encapsulating an extensive range of software programmes available to corpus linguists and translators, aiming to help users visualise and understand words and phrases in context.

Regarding the shared features, Bowker & Pearson (2002, p. 13) point out that most corpus analysis tools have two main components: generating word lists and concordances (Bowker & Pearson, 2002, p. 13). These features can be subdivided to include an array of functions, which may differ according to the capabilities of the software being used, as there are many forms that corpus analyses software can take.

Therefore, two distinct types of software programs were chosen for this study: NVivo (qualitative data analytics) and Laurence Anthony's range of corpus software, including AntConc (2017) (Version 4[9]) for analysing comparable corpora and AntPConc[10] (2022) for analysing bilingual parallel corpora. The author of this Research project reviewed both tools and deemed both equally useful.

[9] The URL link to Anthony's AntConc website. The cohort can easily download the freeware (including AntPConc) and install it on their computers: https://www.laurenceanthony.net/software/antconc/.
[10] The URL link to Anthony's AntPConc website. https://www.laurenceanthony.net/software/antpconc/

Nevertheless, despite the variability of uses, it is worth exploring the general application features of this software type. Firstly, a "*concordancer*" allows the user to visualise a particular word's instances in immediate contexts. This information is typically displayed using a keyword in context (KWIC) format, as modelled in the figure copied from Bowker & Pearson (2002). The concordance search in Figure 3 below indicates two general concordance features that this Research project deems particularly relevant: *collocations* and word lists.

A collocation is "generally regarded as words that 'go together,' or words often found in each other's company" (Bowker & Pearson, 2002, p. 30). In the case of bilateral and multilateral treaties, a collocate may include "Entry into Force" (translated as "*Entrada en Vigor*"). This example shows that phrases can help clarify the distinction between terms and phrases that are semantically and grammatically correct, but which may not be "normal" or "idiomatic" in the LSP of bilateral or multilateral legal sub-genres (Scott, 2012; Bowker & Pearson, 2002, p. 32).

In addition, Scott (2012, p. 88) points out that traditional lexicographic resources fail to deliver accurate translation equivalents because sublanguage conventions applying to an organisation's legal sub-genres need to be more specific for successful inclusion in a bilingual legal dictionary.

Consequently, the relevant hypothesis is that a concordance search of the specialised civil legal aviation terms can produce more reliable natural language collocations than specialised legal dictionaries. The collocation function can also elicit the "correct" functional equivalents in a bilingual or multilingual parallel corpus. However, creating a bilingual parallel corpus is an intimidating and frustrating task. Nevertheless, legal collocates expressed in traditional lexicographic resources, such as (specialised) legal dictionaries, may be lacking. The insufficiency of legal dictionaries has led to famous debates, with legal translation scholars pointing out that corpora may be more beneficial than their traditional predecessors.

The example below (Figure 3) relates to an LGP corpus; the utility of these corpus software analysis applications (e.g., a text concordancer) extends its relevance equally to LSP and LGP texts, respectively. However, given the previous discussions surrounding the importance of maintaining consistency and accuracy of *terms* (not words) and phrases in LSP texts, visualising

the collocational relationship of terms and phrases will arguably be of more import to an LSP translator than an LGP translator. The reason for this difference relates to the precision with which LSP translators must produce legal-linguistic equivalents of intra- and inter-systemic system-bound terms is an ultimate marker of translation quality in a specialised legal sub-genre (Istomina, 2021; Olohan, 2004; Biel & Engberg, 2013; Giampieri, 2021; Prieto Ramos, 2014; 2018; 2019; Vigier-Moreno, 2016; and, Scott, 2012).

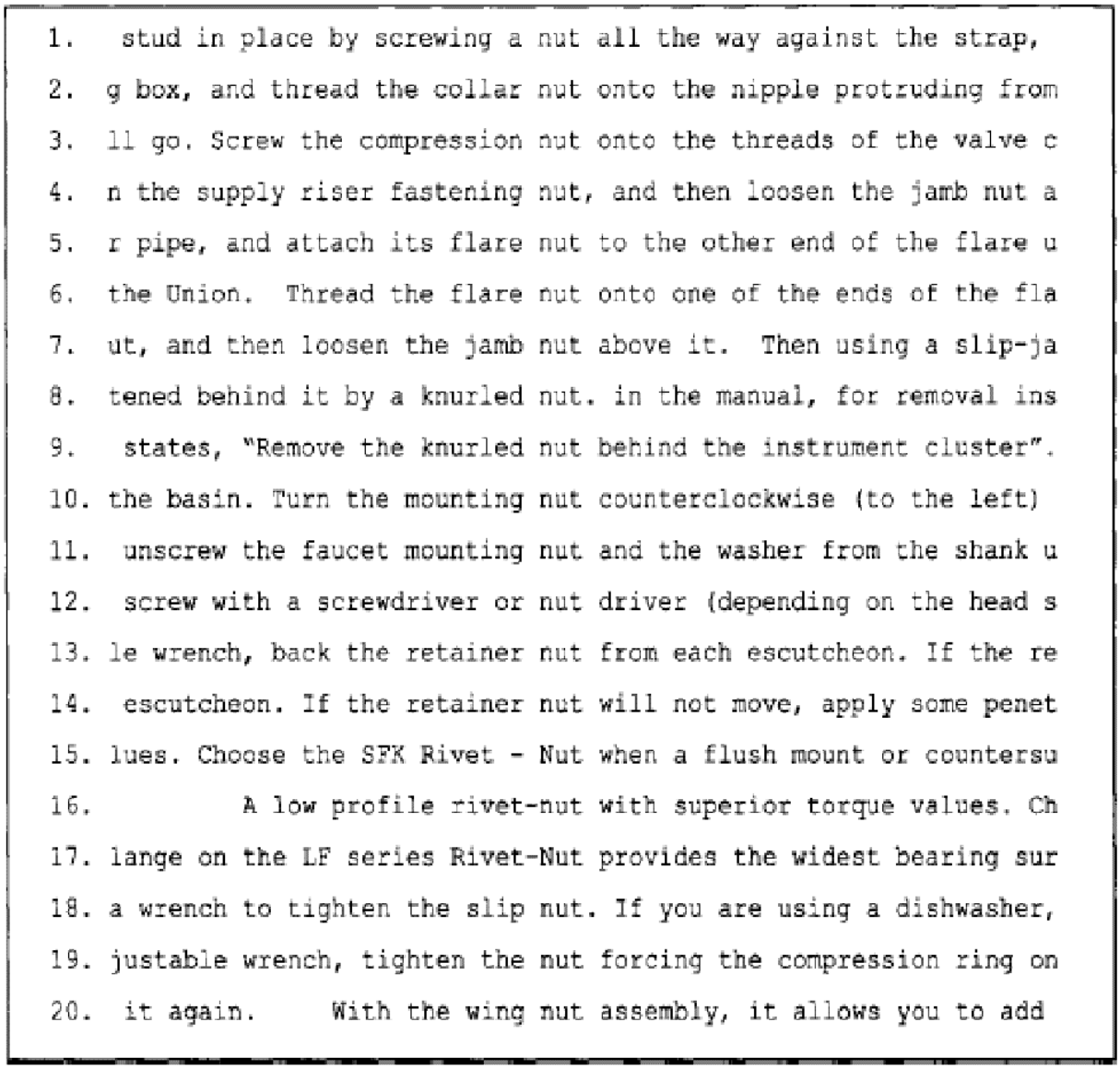
Several studies piloted and refined corpus management processes (i.e., corpus design, corpus compilation, and corpus analysis) invariably resort to a predictable set of software alternatives. Even with the extensive range of different software available, there is a unanimous preference among the authors. The clear winner in popularity among Do-It-Yourself theorists is Anthony's "AntConc" Freeware.

Scott's innovative NIFTY corpus methodology utilises AntConc consultation instead of the most proximate software, WordSmith Tools, while some researchers prefer using NVivo. Nevertheless, the decision to opt for AntConc over WordSmith is expressed in a similar research context by Pontandrolfo (Pontandrolfo, 2015). Besides this software's general applicability, the KWIC concordance function is expected to be most beneficial for the cohort in conjunction with keyword lists and cluster/collocate functions. Other functions include "Plot,"; "File View,"; "Cluster analysis,"; "N-Gram,"; "Collocate,"; "Word,"; "Key Word,"; and "Word Cloud."

NVivo shares some of the said features, but it is significantly more potent than AntConc, making learning more tedious. It would be advisable that the cohort purchase a training product from the software developers of NVivo because it is a complex tool.

Since the cohort is not expected to be trained in corpus methodology, the aim of suggesting a specific software would be to justify its usability by the cohort within this research context. Therefore, attention must be paid to the intended cohort's perceived user-friendliness when constructing a Do-It-Yourself specialised legal corpus. That is why AntConc and AntPConc stand as cohort-friendly tools, while NVivo would require the cohort to undergo some training.

Figure 3 - Example of a concordance search in an LGP displayed in the KWIC function (Bowker & Pearson 2002, p. 46).



A Do-It-Yourself corpus refers to a manually compiled corpus and is sometimes called "disposable" corpora, which Varantola (2002) described as "intelligent tools for translators" (p. 171). Additionally, a handful of specialised LTS scholars have confirmed the potential for these corpora to help translators locate and understand the natural "behaviour" of the USMs that they are interested in (e.g., the term "Safety" in bilateral ASAs).

The particularly enticing study by Scott (2012) asserts that with a systematic approach based on the ad-hoc translation assignment's aims, legal translators can effectively compile balanced and

representative corpora demonstrating the natural language behaviour of highly specialised legal genres (such as civil aviation law).

The natural language patterns are expressed through the KWIC function in AntConc (See Table 1). Likewise, Scott argues that a balanced corpus of specialised language texts (e.g., bilateral treaties) can provide a real-time view of how technical language distributes the various discourse markers that typify a legal-sub genre.

Table 1 - An example of the search results from AntConc's KWIC function to display naturally occurring language patterns in bilateral treaties (i.e., in this case, bilateral Air Services Agreements).

Name of the Uploaded File (These files contain the sanitised, plain text versions of the bilateral treaties used to build the "Bilateral Sub-Corpus").	**Text Immediately Preceding the Term/Phrase**	**Instances of the Searched Term/Phrase**	**Text Immediately Succeeding the Searched Term/Phrase**
The Government of Iceland and the Government of the Republic of Chile.docx	services for which it has been designated, abiding by the	provisions of this	Agreement and with a minimum procedural delay.
AIR SERVICES AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF LATVIA AND THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHILE.docx	agreed on services, provided that the airline complies with all applicable	provisions of this	Agreement. ARTICLE 4 REFUSAL, REVOCATION, OR SUSPENSION OF
Alignment NORWAY_English.docx	the Annexes provided that the airline complies with all applicable	provisions of this	Agreement. Article 4 Revocation of Authorization, Suspension of

The Government of Iceland and the Government of the Republic of Chile.docx	to this Agreement, its implementation, and satisfactory compliance with the	provisions of this	Agreement. If any dispute arises between the
The Government of Iceland and the Government of the Republic of Chile.docx	that the other Party has departed from the aviation security	provisions of this	The article, the aeronautical authorities of that Party
AIR SERVICES AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF LATVIA AND THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHILE.docx	an emergency, or to prevent further non-compliance with the	provisions of this	The article, the first Contracting Party, may take
AIR SERVICES AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF LATVIA AND THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHILE.docx	believe that the other Contracting Party has departed from the	provisions of this	The article, the first Contracting Party may request

Furthermore, Do-It-Yourself corpora are usually parallel or specialised comparable corpora used for ad-hoc situations. Comparable corpora are "collections of individual monolingual corpora" which use "the same or similar sampling procedures and categories for each language but contain completely different texts" (McEnery and Wilson, 1996, p. 57 cited in Scott, 2012). Similarly, Orozco-Jutorán and Sáchez Gijón (2011) describe parallel texts in legal translation as "texts that are related to the ST which provide information on text-type conventions or particularities of field-specific language use: terminological, collocational, phraseological, syntactical, etc." Sánchez-Gijón (2002, p. 86-88) distinguishes between two basic types of corpora as translation aids: Stable corpora, which are large corpora available on the internet, and ad hoc corpora, which the Translator

builds. As Zanettin (2002) suggests, it is possible to add a third type, translation memories, a very specialised kind of parallel corpus, which are usually relevant, reliable, and well-integrated into the translation workflow.

Finally, it is worth reiterating that Scott is one of few researchers who have prioritised the topic of specialised Do-It-Yourself corpora. This is important because Scott's research focuses on the same defining variables implicit in this project. It thus follows a similar logic, which is to refine a methodology for the professional uptake of Do-It-Yourself corpora among “non-expert” and “professional” legal translators working with a “specialised” legal genre. Finally, Scott's methodology effectively adds credibility to this project through its high level of thematically nuanced resonance with the current project.

Therefore, considering the preceding rationale, the following sections describe and dictate the corpus management processes.

4. METHODOLOGY

This project is primarily qualitative. Nevertheless, quantitative measures have also been adopted to triangulate the data. This section will explain the link between the Robertson Analytical Scheme and the Do-It-Yourself corpus-building process.

4.1. RESEARCH DESIGN PHASE

The main research question seeks to understand how the cohort group could improve translation praxis to overcome some of the challenges typically experienced by legal translators needing more expertise in Comparative Law and Comparative Linguistics.

The research steps below represent a conceptual summary of the Guideline, and they demonstrate how the cohort translator could follow suit:

1. Conduct a comparative analysis of Robertson's Legal-Linguistic Profiling Scheme using an organisation and its texts (of multiple genres) as the objects of study.
2. Review the comparative analysis to rationalise the criteria s/he imposes on the eventual corpus.
3. Proceed to the three-stage corpus creation phase, according to the recommendations by Vigier and del Mar Sánchez, while taking note of Scott's NIFTY methodology.

It should be noted that the Comparative Legal-Linguistic Profiling Analysis will be conducted using the Civil Aeronautics Board of Chile and its texts as the object(s) of study. This will be executed on an MS Excel spreadsheet; Robertson's original analysis will act as a template and serve the function of thematic comparison, meaning that a cohort translator conducting the analysis can use Robertson's answers in comparison to their own as a self-imposed measure of corroborating the meaning of unknown concepts to the cohort group.

4.2. Data Collection Phase

The data collection phase comprises interlinking activities starting with a comparative exercise using Robertson's Legal-Linguistic Analysis Scheme. The Scheme lays out a series of word and sentence prompts (See Annexes), which encourage the Translator to document information regarding the legal and linguistic regimes of the organisation commissioning the translation (JAC Chile, in this case). The Scheme was selected for its applicability to the cohort group because it is simple enough for the cohort to understand the organisation and how it informs the corpus's selection criteria before attempting to translate a text subject to specific generic markers. Consequently, the researcher undertook a comparative analysis to demonstrate how the cohort could replicate the process.

The following extract describes how the researcher approached the comparative analysis. Although it represents a mere micro-analytical element of the comparative analysis, which pertains only to the "Title" phase of Robertson's Scheme, it, nevertheless, portrays the functionality embedded in the Scheme's structure. This functionality of this word prompt resides in the Scheme's demonstrated capacity here, too, among other things, to assist the Translator in locating the ITRs and consequent texts that will be used for the corpus:

Figure 4 - Excerpt from the Comparative Analysis of Robertson's Legal Linguistic Profiling Scheme (Refer to the MS Excel Sheet in Annex III). The passage exemplifies how the cohort can copy the analytical model to analyse aspects of the relevant organisation's regime.

"The title of the organisation in its original Spanish form is Junta de Aeronáutica Civil, Chile. At first, the Translator will notice the discrepancy in the terms "aviation" and "aeronautics". Therefore, a simple Internet search reveals the basis to discern between these two alternatives when translating… As we observe Robertson's description of the process undertaken to identify critical aspects of the organisation's legal regime, we note the emphasis placed on identifying the following aspects related to the linguistic regime. The first question is how many language versions the founding documents have. In the case of JAC, the founding documents exist as authentic in Spanish only, which complies with Chile's national linguistic regime. Secondly, in terms of establishing a conceptual hierarchy of primary and secondary legal contexts, it can be argued that the founding documents constitute the primary legal sources, along with the supplemental

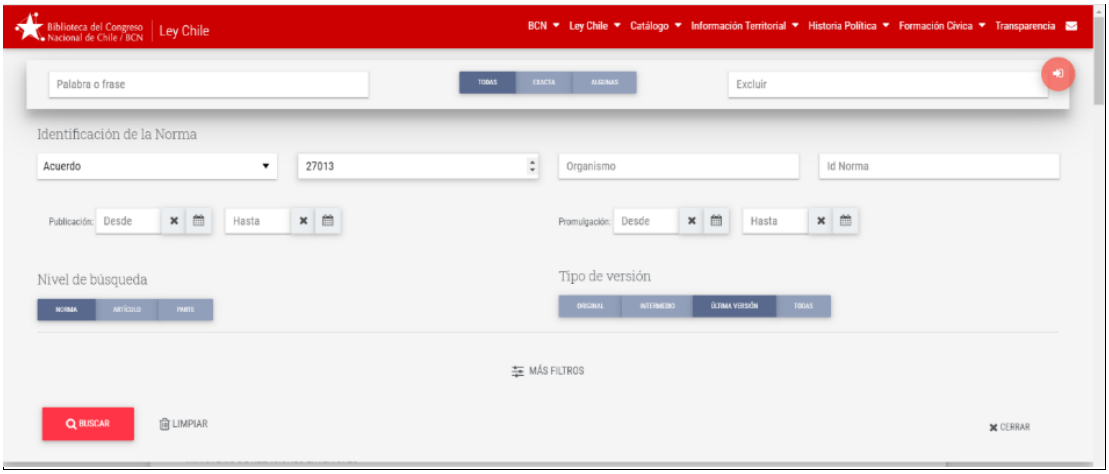
documents, such as the Aeronautical Code, which situate JAC as a dependent organism of the Ministry of Transport and Telecommunications. Therefore, the first thing to do is to examine the Ministry's webpage for information that might lead to discussions or legal provisions in contracts related to the linguistic regime about celebrating the Air Services Agreement. To this end, we conclude that no pertinent information related to the JAC's linguistic regime is to be found directly on the Ministry's Spanish-speaking webpage. Thus, we turn to the publicly available legal repository of the Chilean government (i.e., BCN [BCN Online, 2022[11]]). Therein, we identify related legislation via a simple BCN website search. The words searched include "Junta de Aeronáutica Civil" and "Idioma." The secondary legal context is created through the organisation's (JAC's) affiliation with the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), which was verified in a previous step (Founding Documentation). How do we learn about ICAO? We can observe the State's subscription to the Chicago Convention of 1944 with the use of a corpus to identify relevant terms such as "ICAO," "Agreement," and "Chicago Convention". We learn about the history of the Chicago Convention of 1944. Considering that our corpus will comprise different bilateral and multilateral treaties, we take note of the list of States subject to the Convention. After learning about the ICAO affiliation, we investigate the ICAO webpage to understand better the relational link between ICAO and what happens in a translational context. We conclude that ICAO is a specialised organism of the United Nations. We proceed to investigate the texts published by ICAO and conclude that several manuals related to the organisation's Regulatory Framework may be useful when compiling the corpus. We identify these sources as data-rich because they constitute the official and legally binding documents representative of the United Nations. We also consider all six of the languages of the United Nations via the International Civil Aviation Organization. Thus, the chances of encountering official (high-quality) industry-specific terminology and phraseology translations are projected to be high."

Following the analysis, the researcher hypothesised the existence of two types of specialised legal genres connected to the organisation's Legal Department (namely, bilateral and multilateral ASAs) signed with second and third parties, respectively. The next step would require sampling bilateral and multilateral texts from the Internet repositories. These "texts" correspond to individual treaties available online and could be retrieved by the researcher after extrapolating the correct

[11] URL link to *Biblioteca del Congreso Nacional de Chile* (BCN) - https://www.bcn.cl/portal/

organisational resources. This process included the researcher having to find pathways to the UN-ICAO and JAC treaty repositories, respectively (See Figure 4). The following three screenshots visually detail how the researcher used Robertson to inform corpus file selection.

Figure 5 (Collection) - Applying insights from the Robertson Scheme (i.e., Finding Repositories). The screenshots show how to Source Corpus Files from Govmnt. Repositories.

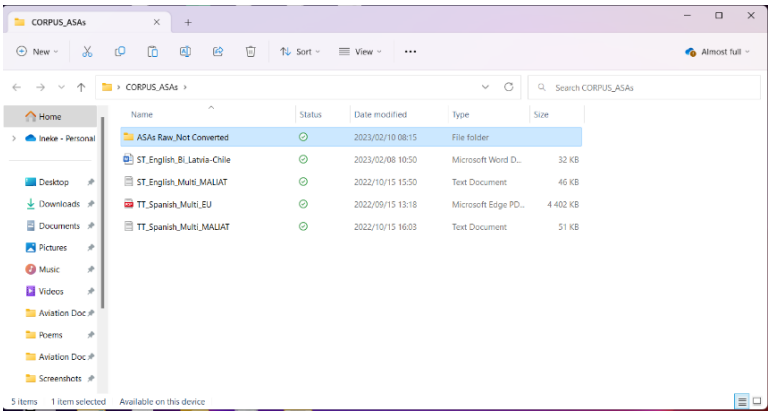






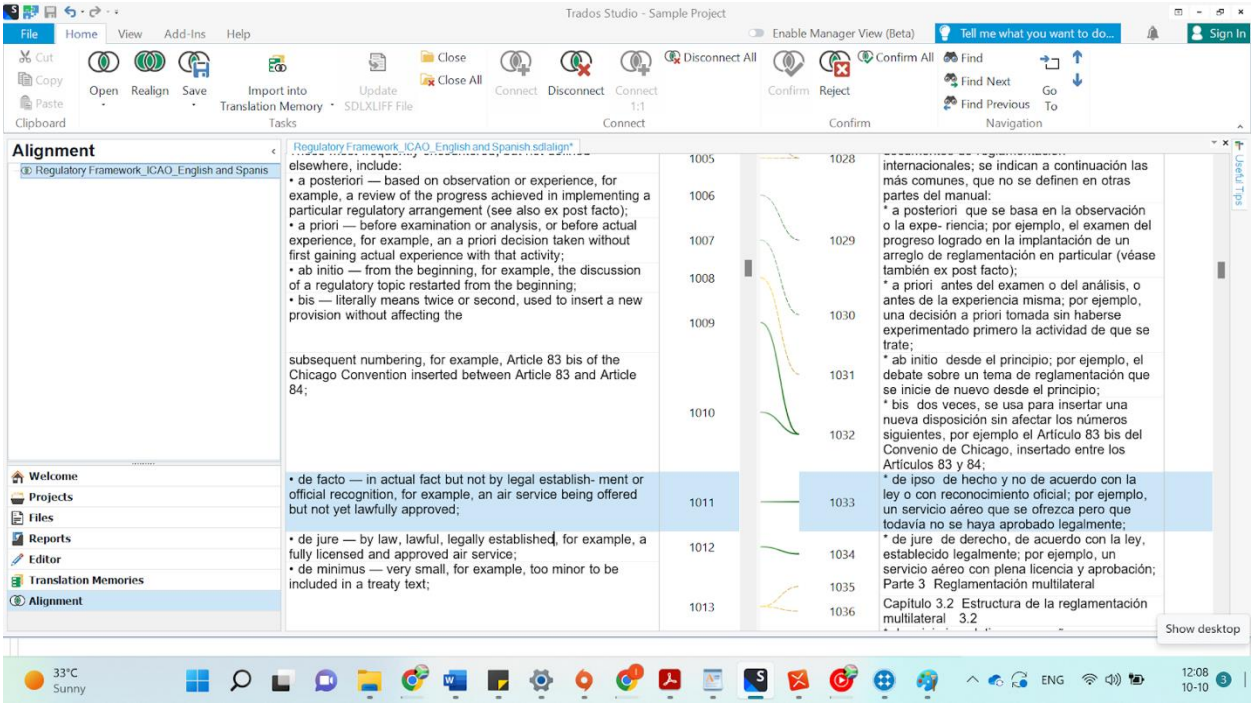
Additionally, the image above displays how (a portion of) the texts were located and saved in the indicated file formats. This further demonstrates a systematic approach to collecting and saving texts, an approach underscored by the arguments espoused in similar works conducted in TS research. For example, considering Scott (2012, p. 92), Vigier-Moreno, (2016), and Vigier and del Mar Sánchez (2017) are crucial authors for this project, they have collectively inspired the corpus creation phase of this Research project. Moreover, in this regard, they address the unnecessary confusion and extra work that will occur if the Translator or researcher does not approach the process cautiously. Consequently, files must be named correctly, and the corpus must be delimitated to their corresponding sub-genres (i.e., bilateral and multilateral ASAs).

Figure 6 - Systematic Approach to Naming Text Files as per the Authors' Recommendations



Subsequently, the researcher executed the OCR function on Adobe Acrobat DC, specifically for scanned ASAs. This is to render images of text (i.e., the .PDF file) into text form for computer processing (e.g., the .txt file). For example, to complete the next step (bi-text alignment for Translation Memory), the texts needed to be laid out in an easily readable format (i.e., ".txt"). Additionally, bi-text alignment streamlines corpus analysis, as the corpus analysis software requires certain modifications. These modifications included sanitising the Spanish text, as the conversion process from PDF to Word to .txt resulted in a "messy" .txt file. The Spanish accent markers were mainly erased through the conversion process. So, the researcher had to undertake an unforeseen effort through the sanitation process, which proved time-consuming and confusing.

Figure 7 - Example of Bi-Text Alignment using Trados Studio



The process of bi-text alignment was done in parallel with the process that required uploading the two sub-corpora to the software programme, "NVivo". The researcher decided to incorporate NVivo as an ad-hoc contingency tool if the corpus analysis software that was planned to be used (i.e., "AntConc" and AntPConc) did not function as expected. Another factor contributing to the researcher opting for NVivo was that the document sanitisation process was proving to be more tedious and time-consuming than expected. The researcher deemed NVivo a viable backup tool

because it can perform several functions similar to AntConc, but not AntPConc. No sanitisation is required because NVivo can process most file types, not only plain text files converted from .PDF format into .Txt files. These files usually require some form of sanitisation (e.g., fixing incorrect Spanish accent marks in a converted text).

Figure 8 - Example of Creating an NVivo Comparable Corpus

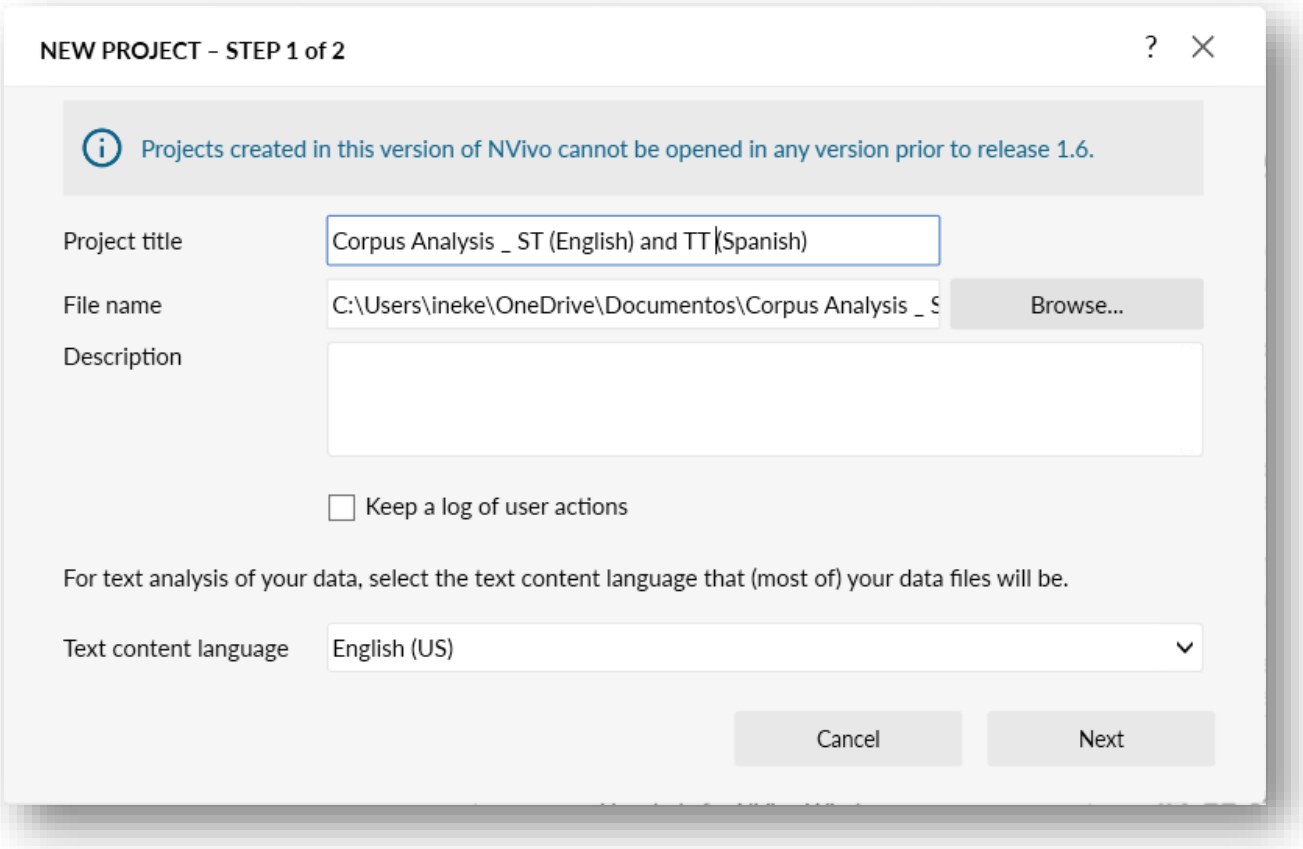


Figure 9 - Display of File Organisation and Sub-Corpus Structure on NVivo

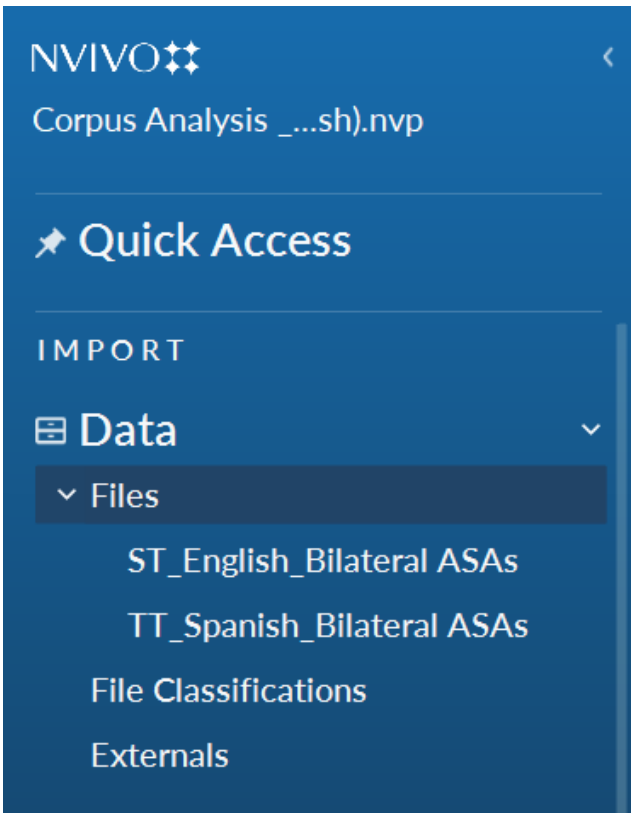


Figure 10 - Screenshot of NVivo Interface Showing Comparable Monolingual Corpora (i.e., the ST in English and the TT in Spanish)

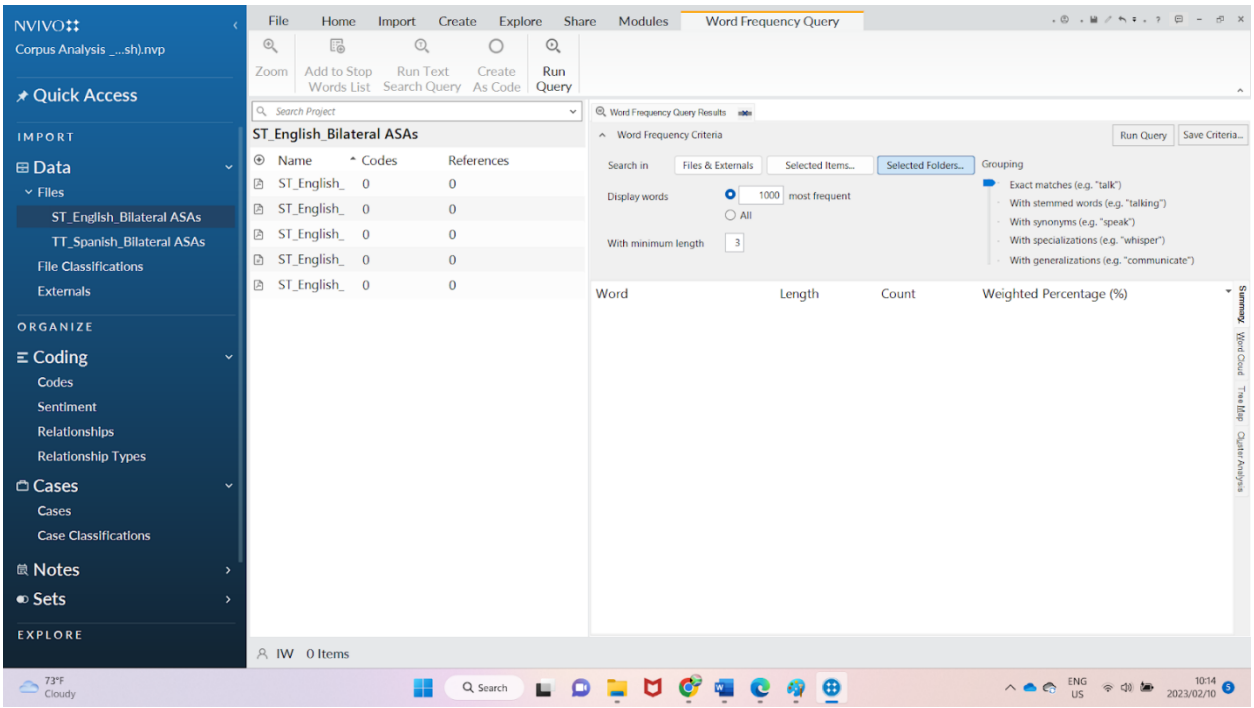
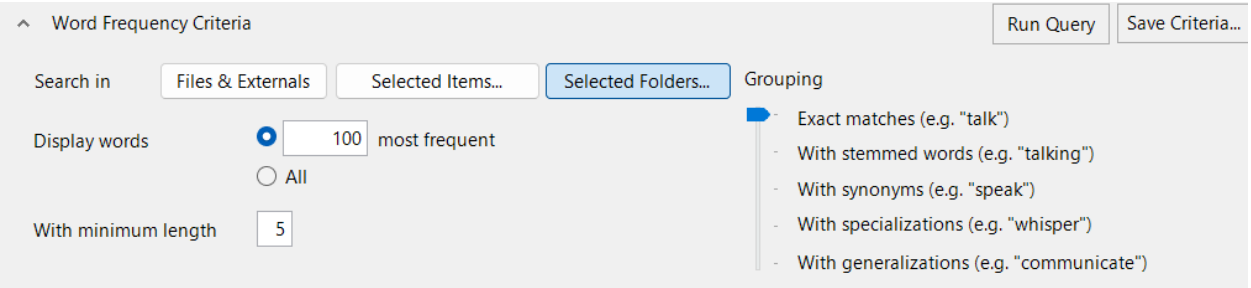


Figure 11 - NVivo Word Frequency Search Criteria (Enlarged)



4.3. Data Analysis Phase

This Data Analysis seeks to demonstrate how the cohort can use the Guideline to draw specific insights from the various corpus analyses involved in the project. It divides into two parts; the first is a description of how the researcher used the analysis, following data collection, to draw insights from the comparative word frequency lists of bilateral and multilateral ASAs. Additionally, the second part illustrates a summative overview of the specific software tools that were deemed particularly useful for the cohort group.

4.3.1. A Comparative Analysis of Genre-Specific USMs in the Study

Consequently, once the corpora were created, the researcher analysed the data using Anthony's AntConc and AntPConc Freeware and the qualitative data analysis software NVivo. This series of analyses aimed to show, among other things, how the cohort might replicate this experimental step when comparing term frequencies between text types. In this case, the legal sub-genres comprised bilateral and multilateral STs in English and TTs in Spanish, respectively.

Table 2 - Depicting Comparative Word Frequency Analysis of Bi- and Multilateral ASAs

Bilateral	**Multilateral**

Word	Length	Count	Weighted Percentage (%)	Word	Length	Count	Weighted Percentage (%)
contratante	11	498	1,57	inferior	8	1219	0,24
contratantes	12	266	0,84	excepto	7	1063	0,21
territorio	10	209	0,66	servicios	9	998	0,20
aéreas	6	192	0,60	partida	7	938	0,19
acuerdo	7	185	0,58	materiales	10	858	0,17
líneas	6	184	0,58	artículo	8	817	0,16
servicios	9	181	0,57	productos	9	732	0,15
artículo	8	173	0,54	fabricación	11	729	0,15
transporte	10	148	0,47	utilizados	10	718	0,14
presente	8	140	0,44	compromisos	11	685	0,14
convenio	8	129	0,41	producto	8	683	0,14
cualquier	9	126	0,40	acuerdo	7	656	0,13
aeronaves	9	117	0,37	presente	8	610	0,12
autoridades	11	102	0,32	consolidar	10	575	0,12
aviación	8	102	0,32	precio	6	526	0,11
designadas	10	100	0,31	ninguna	7	511	0,10
internacional	13	97	0,31	indicado	8	505	0,10
seguridad	9	94	0,30	horizontales	12	496	0,10
derecho	7	92	0,29	incluso	7	496	0,10
república	9	92	0,29	aparatos	8	487	0,10
designada	9	90	0,28	máquinas	8	427	0,09
derechos	8	86	0,27	descripción	11	421	0,08
seguridad	8	81	0,25	fábrica	7	408	0,08
cualquiera	10	76	0,24	franco	6	406	0,08
conformidad	11	74	0,23	limitaciones	12	398	0,08
aeronave	8	72	0,23	exceda	6	392	0,08

While the terminological discrepancy between the bilateral and multilateral treaties was generally very low, the researcher highlighted two differences between the Spanish TT sub-corpus's most frequent words and terms. Consequently, these terms were inserted into the AntConc to analyse individual terms' "Plot" structure. The reason for incorporating this tool is explored in the table below (4.3.2).

Once the researcher had a clearer mental image of where the critical terms may be concentrated, she explored the collocation patterns between the distinct sub-corpora. They noted the plot positions of essential terms in an MS Excel sheet for future reference. Subsequently, they moved towards the manually compiled bilingual corpus in AntPConc to see if the bilateral and multilateral collocational patterns were matched. In other words, the researcher was interested to know how terms and phrases of a legal sub-genre compare in frequency and their use within their respective communicative functions.

Even with the usefulness of these basic corpus applications to the project, the following individual analyses were highlighted for their purported usefulness to the cohort group in general. These tabulated analyses below (5.3.2) show how the cohort can use various corpus analysis software functionalities to achieve the objectives described on Page 81.

4.3.2. TABLE OF CORPUS LINGUISTICS SOFTWARE EXPLOITATION FOR THE COHORT

Example 1 - General Objective: Show how the cohort can identify each sub-genre's most frequent words and phrases using NVivo's word frequency lists. Results below indicate the search parameters (NVivo) set to "longer terms" (i.e., 5- or 6-letter words) to increase nuance. The highlighted terms indicate the appearance of synonyms for further disambiguation.			
The example below shows a <u>Word Frequency List</u> analysis for longer terms in a corpus (5+ letters), exported from NVivo into MS Excel.			
Word	**Length**	**Count**	**Weighted Percentage (%)**
Contracting	11	507	5,18

airline	7	166	1,70
designated	10	149	1,52
agreement	9	144	1,47
territory	9	122	1,25
airlines	8	120	1,23
parties	7	104	1,06
services	8	97	0,99
convention	10	64	0,65
authorities	11	61	0,62
republic	8	61	0,62
either	6	60	0,61
international	13	59	0,60
aviation	8	58	0,59
consultations	13	51	0,52
accordance	10	47	0,48
request	7	47	0,48
within	6	46	0,47
regulations	11	45	0,46
european	8	44	0,45
security	8	43	0,44
aeronautical	12	42	0,43
safety	6	42	0,43
transportation	14	40	0,41
agreed	6	38	0,39
passengers	10	38	0,39
rights	6	38	0,39
provisions	10	35	0,36
operating	9	34	0,35
paragraph	9	32	0,33
provided	8	32	0,33

traffic	7	32	0,33
action	6	29	0,30
established	11	28	0,29
service	7	28	0,29
charges	7	27	0,28
conditions	10	27	0,28
customs	7	27	0,28
facilities	10	26	0,27
operation	9	26	0,27
unlawful	8	26	0,27
prices	6	25	0,26
member	6	23	0,24
necessary	9	23	0,24
notice	6	23	0,24
authorisation	13	22	0,22
points	6	22	0,22
purpose	7	22	0,22
receipt	7	22	0,22
referred	8	22	0,22

Description: The above example describes using NVivo's Word Frequency Tool to identify a corpus's most frequently occurring words.

Example 2 - General Objective: To analyse collocations and lexical bundles using AntConc's Cluster Analysis Tool.

The results from the simulated cluster analysis below will illuminate how the cohort can use this tool to look for common word combinations or phrases that frequently occur within each sub-genre.

The example below shows a Cluster Analysis of ST-Multilateral ASAs exported from AntConc into MS Excel

Cluster	Rank	Freq	Range	Norm	Freq	Norm	Range	
security of civil	1	10	4	0.159	0.667			
security in international		2	4	3	0.063	0.500		
security measures to	2	4	4	0.063	0.667			
security of aircraft	2	4	3	0.063	0.500			
security provisions each		2	4	4	0.063	0.667		
security facilities or	6	3	3	0.048	0.500			
security provisions established			6	3	3	0.048	0.500	
security provisions of	6	3	3	0.048	0.500			
security each contracting		9	2	2	0.032	0.333		
security provisions required		9	2	2	0.032	0.333		
security use of	9	2	2	0.032	0.333			
security agreement that		12	1	1	0.016	0.167		
security and narcotics	12	1	1	0.016	0.167			
security and safety	12	1	1	0.016	0.167			
security applied within		12	1	1	0.016	0.167		
security article consultation		12	1	1	0.016	0.167		
security article intermodal		12	1	1	0.016	0.167		
security binding upon	12	1	1	0.016	0.167			
security commercial representation			12	1	1	0.016	0.167	
security computer reservation		12	1	1	0.016	0.167		
security considerations and		12	1	1	0.016	0.167		
security consistent with		12	1	1	0.016	0.167		
security in accordance	12	1	1	0.016	0.167			
security laws and	12	1	1	0.016	0.167			
security or with	12	1	1	0.016	0.167			
security provisions are		12	1	1	0.016	0.167		
security provisions in	12	1	1	0.016	0.167			
security provisions referred		12	1	1	0.016	0.167		
security provisions set	12	1	1	0.016	0.167			
security ratified by	12	1	1	0.016	0.167			

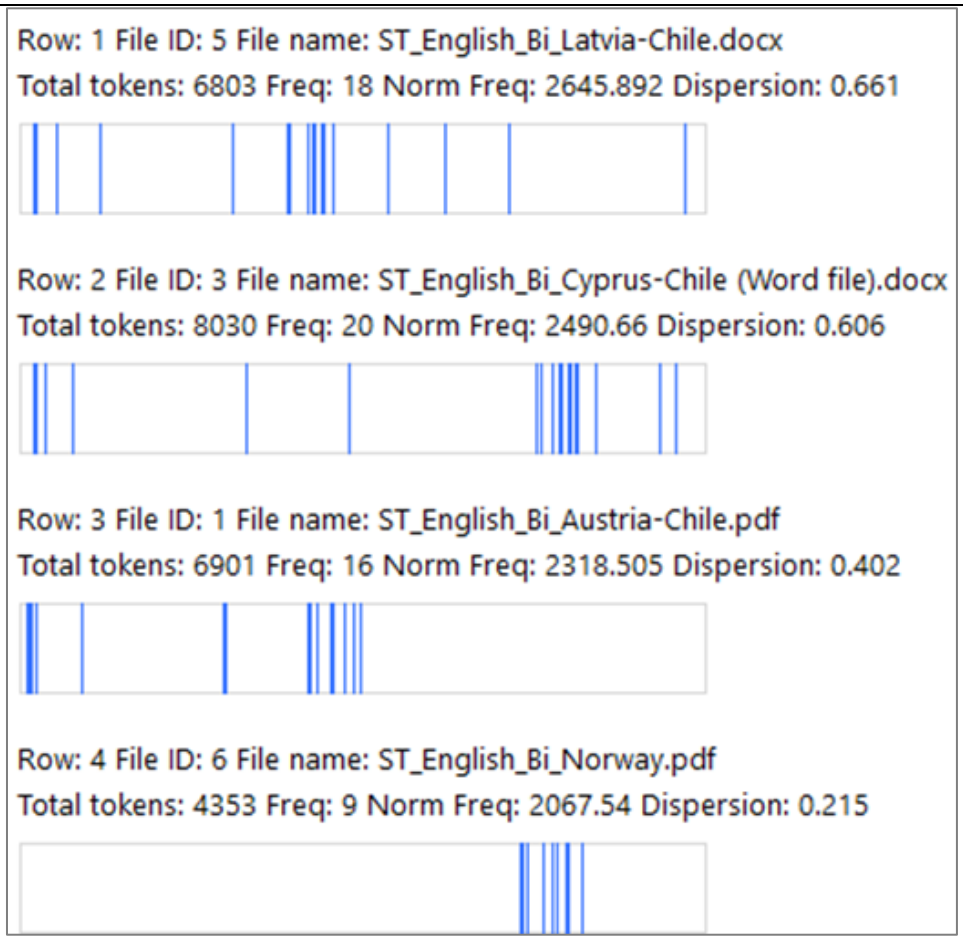
security requires action	12	1	1	0.016	0.167
security standards in	12	1	1	0.016	0.167
security the rights	12	1	1	0.016	0.167

The example below depicts how the cohort can draw insights from the Cluster Analysis (above). The cohort can follow suit to autogenerate valuable diagrams.



Interpretation: The cohort can use the Cluster Analysis tool to anticipate the likelihood of translating frequent collocational clusters. In the above example, the most frequent cluster involving the searched term "Security" in the comparable monolingual corpus is "Security of civil". Graphic representations extrapolated from a raw data set can facilitate the cohort's work through chart generation, showing where the translator would need to concentrate their efforts. For example, once the translator generates the above graph, they can save time translating the correct functional equivalent. They can cross-check the Spanish corpus to see how these collocates are translated in their corresponding TTs.

Example 3 – The Objective: To show how the cohort can use AntConc's Plot Tool to compare the distribution of words and phrases in the ST Bilateral English Sub-corpus. The project hypothesised that the cohort could use this tool to look for differences in the frequency and distribution of words and phrases between the two sub-genres, revealing insights into comparative language use.



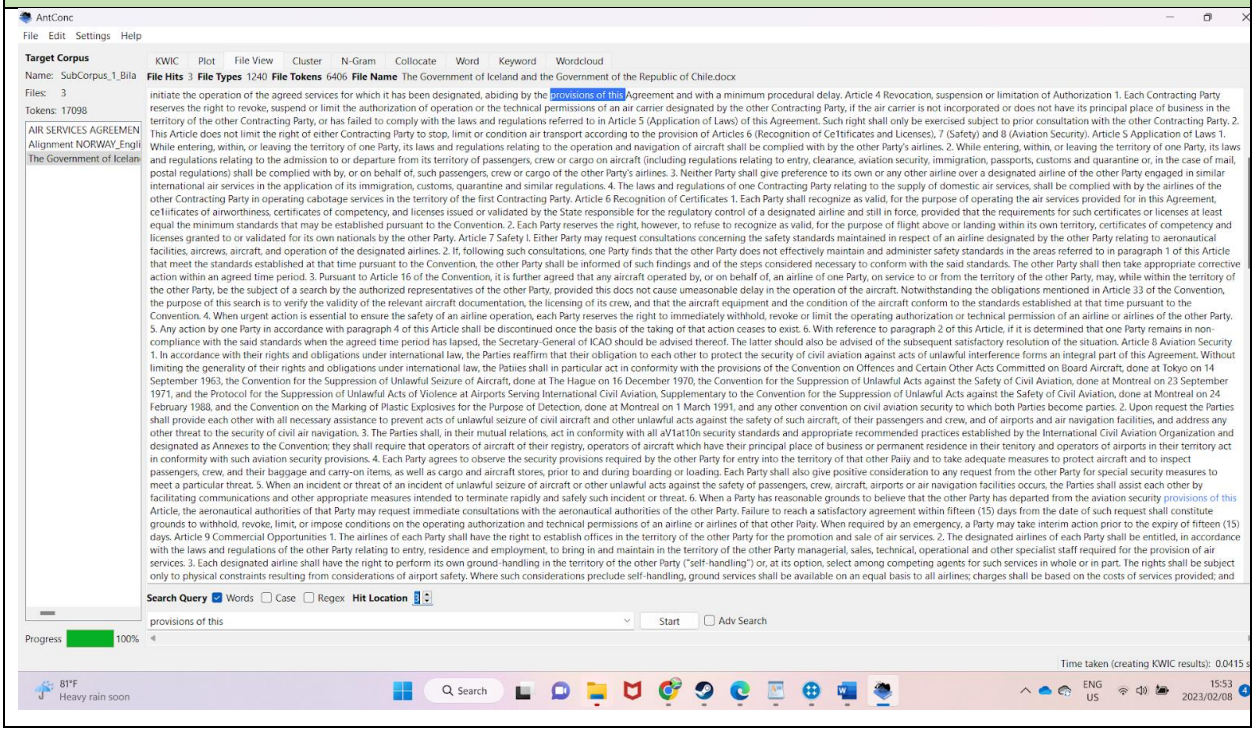
Interpretation: Considering the blue lines represent the relative locations of the searched USM (the term "Security" in this case) in each corpus file, the cohort can use this tool to anticipate the relative in-text location and the weight of the interested USMs. In this case, the researcher was interested in comparing plots of the term "Security" between corpus files of a comparable monolingual sub-corpus on AntConc. The Plot tool also allows the translator to create "overlays", whereby the cohort can compare the distribution of critical USMS between bilateral and multilateral ASAs. If the translator knows how USMs are distributed, it can help them cut time and increase the consistency of critical USM delivery.

Example 4 – The Objective: To show how the cohort can use AntConc's Concordance Analysis Tools			
Name of the Uploaded File (These files contain the sanitised, plain text versions of the bilateral treaties used to build the "Bilateral Sub-Corpus").	**Text Immediately Preceding the Term/Phrase**	**Instances of the Searched Term/Phrase**	**Text Immediately Succeeding the Searched Term/Phrase**
The Government of Iceland and the Government of the Republic of Chile.docx	services for which it has been designated, abiding by the	provisions of this	Agreement and with a minimum procedural delay.
AIR SERVICES AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF LATVIA AND THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHILE.docx	agreed on services, provided that the airline complies with all applicable	provisions of this	Agreement. ARTICLE 4 REFUSAL, REVOCATION, OR SUSPENSION OF
Alignment NORWAY_English.docx	the Annexes provided that the airline complies with all applicable	provisions of this	Agreement. Article 4 Revocation of Authorization, Suspension of
The Government of Iceland and the Government of the Republic of Chile.docx	to this Agreement, its implementation, and satisfactory compliance with the	provisions of this	Agreement. If any dispute arises between the
The Government of Iceland and the Government of the Republic of Chile.docx	that the other Party has departed from the aviation security	provisions of this	The article, the aeronautical authorities of that Party
AIR SERVICES AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF LATVIA AND THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHILE.docx	an emergency, or to prevent further non-compliance with the	provisions of this	The article, the first Contracting Party, may take
AIR SERVICES AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF LATVIA	believe that the other Contracting Party has departed from the	provisions of this	The article, the first Contracting Party may request

AND THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHILE.docx			

Example 5 – The Objective: To show how the cohort can use AntConc's File View tool to study the grammatical structures in context.

The cohort can use the File View to comprehensively contextualise the term or phrase.



4.4. Discussion of Findings

The point of undertaking this study was to demonstrate that the guidelines herein explored and tested can be transposed into any legal and institutional setting, thereby aligning with Robertson's ethos, which is to build strategies and methods of translation that are universal to legal translators and not entirely contingent on the number of years of experience they have as professional legal and institutional translators. Despite this project's sustained effort to prove alternative modes of accessing information for inexperienced legal translators are possible, the project does not claim that experience is irrelevant to the practice of specialised legal translation.

Thus, the study confirmed that there must be a systematic approach to all legal translation projects, but more so for the cohort group. The literature abounds with calls from researchers to improve and standardise legal translator praxis through more efficient information mining practices. Therefore, the Guideline devised herein considers the profile variability (e.g., freelance vs full-time) among the cohort translators (See 2.1), in conjunction with the challenges that institutional legal translators usually face, as two unique "selling points" that justify the proposed Guideline. Consequently, the research questions should be revised considering findings extrapolated in the Data Analysis Phase.

The first question was intended to be broad and exploratory; documentary research was conducted on a comprehensive set of contemporary and seminal literature. This search aimed to find strategies, tools, and techniques within the framework of LTS that could be incorporated into the final Guideline with the primary purpose of simplifying the legal translator's work through enhanced praxis. Furthermore, as discussed in the literature review, this praxis must be aligned with the legal translator's duty of delivering term and phrase translations with accuracy and consistency.

Options and combinations were abundant of viable strategies to choose from. Still, the researcher focused on literature with a high contextual and thematic proximity to the present study. Hence, Robertson's Legal Linguistic Profiling Scheme stood out as a viable tool for the translator to use before compiling a specialised Do-It-Yourself legal corpus. The reconnaissance provided through the Robertson scheme gave the researcher essential insights into the legal and linguistic functions of the commissioning organisation; it led to the hypothesis that the organisation's legal department utilises two distinct genres with their corresponding roles and communicative purposes. Additionally, the comparative exercise in the Robertson Scheme expounds a path for extracting reliable texts for the subsequent corpus creation phase and eventual corpus analysis.

The most critical aspect illuminated in the preceding Scheme was the discovery of a governmental repository of legal texts, including the ASAs Chile has signed and ratified. This illumination immediately added a practical benefit, as it became apparent that almost all the textbooks used in the corpus could be sourced from the BCN (see Annex III). Following this step, the Scheme further

illuminated the organisation's connection to a broader context of international civil aviation to which the JAC pertains (i.e., ICAO and its connection to the UN). This information made it possible to find the correct texts on the ICAO website and their official parallel translations from the United Nations network. Finally, as anticipated, the information mining practices illuminated through the Robertson Analytical Scheme served as starting points to create the specialised legal corpus.

Regarding the next analytical step, further analysis aimed to identify discrepant words and phrases between the sub-corpora and compare the frequency of terms and representations between the bilateral and multilateral texts. Therefore, the researcher used insights from Robertson to find the correct readers to compile two corpora simultaneously: A bilingual parallel corpus on AntPConc and two comparable corpora on AntConc and NVivo, according to the guidelines stipulated in Vigier and del Mar Sánchez (2017) and Scott (2012). These guidelines proved helpful but not flawless.

Similarly, the comparable corpus on NVivo aimed to extrapolate word, term, and phraseological frequency statistics typical of each genre. In this sense, NVivo proved helpful, as a reliable data set was provided. The individual data sets were then exported to an Excel file. The Excel file tabulated the two sub-corpora's frequency statistics (See 5.3.2). Once tabulated, viewing the discrepant frequencies in generic markers between the two sub-corpora was possible.

Once the researcher interpreted the above table (Table 2), she confirmed the terminological and phraseological diversion level between the sub-corpora—subsequently, the final part of the analysis comprised building a "quick corpus" on AntConc. The purpose of a "quick corpus" was to locate the operationalised terms and phrases generated in NVivo. The goal was to use AntConc's KWIC concordance and collocate functions to observe discrepancies between the sub-genres' naturally occurring language patterns, specifically regarding the operationalised terms and phrases.

Notwithstanding the plethora of helpful corpus applications, the most impressive corpus feature was NVivo's Word Frequency Tool. This tool offers greater flexibility in adjusting search

parameters than similar tools, such as AntConc's Word Frequency Tool. For instance, the translator can adjust the parameter to five or six letters instead of the default three and search for synonyms. This allows for a more nuanced corpus analysis in NVivo. Additionally, the example in Table 1 highlights, among other things, the importance of disambiguating legal terminology, as specific terms can have different legal meanings in different jurisdictions. The concept of inter-systemic translation discussed in the literature review would explain that, depending on the jurisdiction, "*tarifa*" does not necessarily translate to "tariff". Likewise, "*precio*" does not necessarily translate to its most proximate English cognate ", price". To disambiguate these legal terms, the translator can use a corpus to study similarities and differences between USMs.

In conclusion, the analyses (See Table 1) performed at various stages of the translation project prove that the corpus view does not allow the cohort to understand the legal theory. However, it can provide a real-time view of how legal patterns embedded in language behave in specific genres and communicative situations. Consequently, the findings show that a corpus context can help verify the usage of USMs within specific legal sub-genres. Moreover, the examples on Page 94 highlight the potential benefits of corpus analysis for translators in identifying USMs in specialised monolingual and bilingual comparable corpora using AntConc/PConc and NVivo. However, these findings also underscore the importance of careful analysis and consideration of legal terminology in specific contexts and the need for translators to be proficient with their software tools.

5. A Praxis-Based Guideline for Legal and Institutional Translators

This section demonstrates the Guideline, which starts with Robertson's analytical model before constructing and exploiting a specialised Do-It-Yourself-corpus. The methods described below consist of Robertson's Legal Linguistic Profiling Analysis (i.e., the Robertson Analytical Scheme), followed by an outline of the three-phase corpus management phase. Consequently, the methods mentioned above strategically combine for practical translation aid.

5.1. Robertson for Reconnaissance

Colin Robertson's Legal-Linguistic Profiling Analysis Scheme is attractive for its applicability to the said approach because it foregrounds both the linguistic and the legal information about an organisation. That said, three main reasons underscore the rationale for including Robertson's Legal Linguistic Profiling Analysis Scheme in this research paper: Firstly, it situates comfortably within the contemporary zeitgeist of LTS, marked by the increasing adoption of computer-based approaches and strategies for tackling problems that arise in LTS; secondly, Robertson's Analytical Scheme stands out because of its practical application value, which, in the context of this project, is conceived as any tool, or systematic manipulation of tools that aim to reduce the load on the Translator, who may find themselves overwhelmed by the precision and expertise required for legal translation, and thirdly; Robertson's Analytical Scheme receives important endorsement from prodigious LTS scholars, such a Prieto Ramos, who included Robertson's Analytical Scheme in his latest book (Prieto Ramos, 2018). In this sense, Prieto Ramos' book represents a collaborative effort by several of LTS's most remarkable scholars, who are critically respectful of the high interdisciplinarity that has facilitated novel approaches to studying the problems and strategies of legal translation and for different profiles of legal translators.

Proponents of the Robertson Scheme stress that it would be helpful for a legal institutional translator to understand the organisation they are working in before attempting to translate a highly technical legal document that forms part of the organisation's work. In that sense, and as Robertson affirms, the focus of the analysis collectively targets the textual, organisational, and global factors

exerting an expectation on the translation product instead of focusing the translational activity at merely a linguistic and textual level (Robertson, 2018).

Therefore, Robertson's Analytical Scheme forms part of an overarching strategy that advocates for a pragmatic approach to legal and institutional translation issues, especially without an ideal range of expertise or experienced mentors to guide the translator through the burdens of specialised legal translation. The practical value rests on the fact that the model can be implemented in any research project. The Scheme works in the following way: The Translator must answer and document their responses under a series of headings (e.g., What legal environment does this organisation function in?)[12]. An additional hypothesis, in this regard, is that addressing the question prompts can assist, among other elements, with terminology decisions and legal translation methodology (Šarčević, 1997; Cao 2007; on the parameters of legal translation decision-making, see Prieto Ramos 2014).

This type of foregrounded information will become imperative for distinguishing system-bound terms based on the source of legislation. Thus, the project will show how Robertson's model can be combined with the Do-It-Yourself corpus. The combination of Robertson's Scheme and systematic corpus management can bring the inexperienced legal Translator's attention to relevant categories of information (i.e., related to subject-field related intra-systemic terms and phrasemes) and significantly enhance praxis. In this sense, enhanced praxis concerns helping the translator locate inter-systemic translation units through data collection, subsequent bi-text alignment, and running corpus analysis software.

The hypothesis surrounding the software states that corpus analysis primarily functions as a quantification mechanism for verifying hypothetical linguistic phenomena. Therefore, it lends a much-needed empirical "edge" to the otherwise defunct practice of paper-based corpus linguistic consultation. Nevertheless, these claims will be tested in the Methodology section, as the alternative may be valid: statistical analyses may not provide the cohort with substantial insight into translational phenomena.

[12] See Annex I for a basic layout of the question prompts by Robertson (2018).

5.2. Corpus Building for the Cohort Group

5.2.1. Description of the process with a focus on the cohort

This section deals with the three-part corpus-building phase. To reiterate: The corpus building phase will succeed the comparative legi-linguistic analysis (See 4.1). In other words, Robertson's analysis of EASA will be used as a template. Consequently, the user (e.g., the cohort) will adopt Robertson's reasoning style to complete the relevant question prompts. Finally, the comparison between JAC and EASA will highlight some of the cohort's challenges in applying the Robertson Analytical Scheme as part of their working methods.

Considering this, several possible corpus creation methodologies were identified after analysing the different sources. These previously discussed methodologies served as viable corpus management models for replication in this project: Scott details her NIFTY methods, aimed at aspiring legal translators in a *professional* context; Vigier and del Mar Sánchez (2017) propose a similar methodology, which is also highly relevant for this project; and, Bowker & Pearson (2002), which is generally considered as the go-to reference work on the compilation and use of corpora in the field of LSP Translation (Scott, 2012, p. 91), expounds several different methodologies. Although these methodologies in Bowker & Pearson can be referentially significant, explaining the technical aspects of corpus building in ways that could be of general application to specialised corpora, their application to this project is arguably limited. This limitation is due to what several authors indicate as the arguable sine qua non of corpus building, which is to make sure that the processes underscoring the methodology effectively support the research aims (Bowker & Pearson, 2002).

Following this logic, the procedural frameworks proposed in the research studies by Scott (2012), Vigier, and del Mar Sánchez (2017) were adopted in this project under the following shared features that were deemed necessary in both respective research contexts:

- The specialised nature of the research aims (CJEU Court Judgements and Bi/Multilateral ASAs, respectively)

- The relevance of the language combination of Spanish and English
- The overall adherence to cohort parameters means that the methodology should be implementable by LSP graduate translators as an indication of this proposed methodology's overall viability for the intended project aims.

Legal sources exemplify one category of information related to the cohort's blind spots, which Robertson's Analytical Scheme hopes to extrapolate before commencing a translation assignment. Furthermore, several LTS and CBLTS scholars have undertaken to study the relevance and reliability of legal translation profiles. One example is Prieto Ramos' novel study (2019) on institutional resources for legal translators. It entails a correlative analysis of translator profiles tested against the relevance and reliability of the resources with which they engage.

The study previously mentioned (Prieto Ramos, 2019) proves that legal translators prefer specific resources over others according to their profile types, whether freelancers or full-time legal translators working at the Court of Justice of the European Union. Interestingly, in the same article, Prieto Ramos identifies primary legal sources as the most trusted sources; this revelation immediately illuminates a blind spot for the cohort group, as their understanding of “primary” and “secondary” legal sources” may be non-existent.

Additionally, when choosing a translation resource, there are many Guidelines for legal translators, depending on the Translator's institutional situation. If the Translator works in the EU, their legal writing requirements will differ from someone translating in the LACAC Airspace region, for example. Consequently, this implies that the Translator's access to and relationship with international institutional resources vary according to the institutional context and the ad-hoc translation assignment brief, which impacts the Translator's working methods.

In the context of IOs (specifically), Prieto Ramos appears to be an active proponent of Institutional Translation Resources (ITRs), which is a consideration that simultaneously prompts the researcher's next question: What if the Translator in question does not have access to an ITR, perhaps in the case of a tiny government organism (e.g., civil aeronautics boards) where ITRs are either non-existent, defunct (e.g., paper-based corpora), or unhelpful for the specific task?

Moreover, considering the preceding rationale and the practical mandate on LTS for consistent and accurate legal term and phrase translations, the following steps are advisable for the cohort:

5.2.2. Corpus Creation Stages

Firstly, integrating the Robertson Scheme into the corpus management process is entirely new as far as published research in Corpus and Legal Translation Studies is concerned. To reiterate the rationale behind this, and as pointed out by Vigier and del Mar Sánchez in a similar study, "specialised research into translation phenomena requires a corpus that can shed light on specific translation issues" (2017, p. 262). Additionally, it is crucial to acknowledge the highly specialised nature of civil aviation law, the technical nature of digital corpus management, and the difficulties that inexperienced translators will encounter (See the rationale above [4.2.1.]). Considering the need for a systematic approach to corpus management, the following three steps instil a credible systematic approach to corpus creation. These steps are highlighted by Scott (2012) and Vigier and del Mar Sánchez (2017).

1. **The documentation stage** - to establish design criteria and search for original texts that will comprise the corpus. The specialised legal Do-It-Yourself corpus used to study term and phrase patterns will comprise two sub-corpora
2. **The compilation phase** - involving the downloading, logging, and naming of original texts, their organisation in folders, the conversion of formats and alignment to create bitext files; and
3. **The corpus analysis stage** - Makes use of corpus analysis software.

5.2.2.1. Documentation

Suppose corpus design requires a procedure or compilation protocol to guide the research and obtain the desired results (Vigier & del Mar Sánchez, 2017). In that case, it makes sense to base

the corpus creation phase on the respective guidelines by Scott, Vigier and del Mar Sánchez, given the proximate research aims and inherent methodologies between the said studies.

As pointed out by Vigier and del Mar Sánchez (2017), "[t]he texts that make up a corpus cannot be selected randomly" (p. 263). Therefore, several authors' recommendations were considered. These recommendations unanimously point to the need for a systematic approach to corpus creation, including a systemised approach to corpus-file collection. As such, the following headings are regarded as vital categories of information that the Translator must stipulate before the subsequent compilation phase. These categories "direct" the Translator's attention to functional criteria that underpin the need for managing a corpus, including: "Reason for compilation, size, medium, topic, text type, authorship, date of publication and finally, language."

Regarding the first point, "Reason for the compilation", this project aims to identify system-bound aviation terms and phrases by comparing bilateral and multilateral treaties (i.e., Air Services Agreements). More specifically, the reason for creating the corpus is to compare instances (qualitatively and quantitatively) of USMs between two legal sub-genres. The hypothesis is that the Robertson Scheme will facilitate a critical review of internal genres used within the organisation and the different legal systems and orders to which the text categories (e.g., bilateral treaties) pertain.

Additionally, the authors propose a second criterion regarding the contentious issue of corpus size. Thus, an extensive documentary search was conducted to understand the optimal size for a Do-It-Yourself specialised legal corpus. In this sense, Scott (2012) defends "smaller" corpora. Scott's stance finds support in seminal works, such as the "authoritative text" by Bowker & Pearson (2002), who state that sometimes it may be better for specialist genres to use smaller corpora with higher lexical density items. In this case, the quality of a text will be measured by the working methods extrapolated through the Robertson Scheme. This information will underscore the relevance of a term or phrase (i.e., lexical item).

The pre-identified lexical items, in this sense, relate to the specialised legal terms stipulated by Robertson. In other words, a corpus can measure the "lexical density" of the attractive terms and

phrases in a text; this will further justify the criteria for building a corpus. Furthermore, regarding the second category, the suitable medium is written texts. The text type and the topic are delimited to the genre reflected in the bilateral and multilateral treaties.

5.2.2.2. COMPILATION PHASE

Following the authors' recommendations, all relevant texts will be identified and located following the Comparative Legal Linguistic Profiling Analysis. The STs, primarily available as .html and .pdf files, will undergo OCR recognition in Adobe DC to convert images to readable text. The downloaded texts will be organised into two main delimited sub-corpora. This sub-corpora must coincide with the languages of the study (Spanish and English, in this case) and their corresponding legal sub-genres. Each sub-corpus will be organised in folders reflecting the organisation (civil aviation boards) to which the files belonged. These folders will be divided into two sub-folders: one for English files and another for Spanish equivalents. The next step is to name and log the texts for proper management and analysis. Thus, as texts are saved, they will be assigned specific names and logged in an MS Excel spreadsheet with summary data on the parallel corpus. The texts will be named as follows: [“ST” or “TT”] _ [“English” or “Spanish”] _[“Bi” or “Multi”]_[name of the treaty] = Examples: ST_English_Multi_MALIAT; TT_Spanish_Bi_Barbados-Chile.

5.2.2.3. SUGGESTED PHASE: BI-TEXT ALIGNMENT USING SPECIALISED TRANSLATOR SOFTWARE

The second corpus-building stage will align the texts for “subsequent exploitation and contrastive linguistic analysis” (Vigier & del Mar Sánchez, 2017, p. 264). The alignment process is particularly relevant for the cohort, as shown later. Regarding definitions, the prominent Swedish Computational Linguist Jörg Tiedemann paints bitext alignment as making symmetric correspondences explicit to enable further processing of parallel resources. Correspondence can, for example, be translational equivalence in the case of bilingual bitexts.

Thus, original texts (STs) and their translations (TTs) are aligned manually on a word processing software program to produce a set of two texts called a bitext. Alignment functions are based on identifying segmentation levels, whether paragraph, sentence, or word. Segmentation at the sentence level — the typical practice (Vigier & del Mar Sánchez, 2017, p. 264) will be applied during the bi-text creation on Trados Studio (software). It is hypothesised that the bitext alignment phase will hold the most value for a cohort executing the function of identifying system-bound terms due to the interactive nature of the software alignment process.

5.2.2.4. FINAL PHASE: CORPUS ANALYSIS

The third contingent research question (Page 18) is general and explorative, asking, "How could the cohort use corpus analyses to draw insights into the use of legal sub-genres and their translations?". Following promising indications for the cohort group from the literature, the hypothesis is that the tested software (QSR's NVivo [12] and Anthony's AntConc & PConc [ver.4]) can significantly help the translator identify genre-specific USMs and their corresponding translation units. The translator could use their own corpora's statistical analyses to assess their hypotheses about patterned language use before turning to a self-compiled parallel bilingual corpus for targeted USM translation units. Nevertheless, before attempting to use the software, the translator should familiarise themself with the interface and its functionalities before applying them to a professional translation project. The cohort can follow the steps below to ascertain a comparative advantage between various software types and concretise corpus analysis's usefulness in professional contexts.

1. **Identify the most frequent words and phrases in each sub-genre**: The translator should examine the most common words and phrases in each corpus sub-genre. This comparison can give the cohort a sense of the key concepts and themes most relevant to each sub-genre. To do this, the researcher intends to compare word frequency lists between two types of software.

2. **Analyse collocations and lexical bundles**: Results will illuminate how the cohort can use this tool to look for common word combinations or phrases frequently occurring within

each sub-genre. Considering the information extrapolated in the literature review, this project hypothesises that the abovementioned collocations and bundles can reveal how visualising common word clusters can accelerate the cohort's decision-making process.

3. **Compare the distribution of words and phrases across sub-genres**: The project hypothesises that the cohort can use this tool to look for differences in the frequency and distribution of words and phrases between the two sub-genres. This comparative overview can reveal essential distinctions in language use in each sub-genre.

4. **Conduct a concordance analysis**: Based on evidence from the documentary research described in the literature review, the project hypothesises a concordance analysis can help the cohort identify patterns in how specific words are used in each sub-genre. This can be achieved by identifying patterns in how words are used across different contexts within each sub-genre.

5. **Analyse grammatical structures**: Look for differences in how grammar is used in each sub-genre. Comparing grammatical structures can reveal essential distinctions in how information is structured and communicated within each sub-genre.

Consequently, the results from the comparative analyses of the above categories will show how various manipulations of distinct software can render useful corpus linguistics software for an assortment of ad-hoc scenarios. These scenarios additionally illuminate the feasibility of supplementing the cohort's (lacking) expertise with empirical data from a corpus analysis to identify and translate genre-specific USMs. Ultimately, integrating qualitative and quantitative results adds to the methodological robustness that authors typically attribute to CBLTS and CALTS (Biel, 2009; Biel & Engberg, 2014).

6. CONCLUSION

This project aimed to develop a translation Guideline for inexperienced legal and institutional translators. The primary research question was *How can the cohort group improve translation praxis to overcome some of the challenges typically experienced by legal translators lacking expertise in Comparative Law and Corpus Linguistics?* It was further indicated that contingent questions would narrow down how the relevant praxis-related mechanisms can most apply to the cohort group.

Regarding the main research question, the study emerged from a broad documentary investigation to ascertain whether there was an existent body of academic literature to support the main aim of this project. Consequently, it was noted that the expected skills of legal translators could vary according to competency models. Still, there is an irrefutable dependence on Comparative Law and Corpus Linguistics parent fields. Therefore, the methodologies selected to be refined, tailored, and incorporated into a unified Guideline for legal and institutional translators rested on the mandate of covering up the cohort translators' so-called “blind spots”. In this sense, Chapter 1 discusses the concept of “blind spots”, intending to elucidate the primary skills the cohort may be missing due to their relative lack of legal translation education and training.

Subsequently, with sufficient evidence from the documentary search to verify the existence of alternative modes and models of translation available to non-expert legal and institutional translators, the researcher simulated the Guideline's first step, comprising a comparative analytical model of Robertson's Legal Linguistic Profiling Analysis Scheme on a Microsoft (MS) Excel spreadsheet. Comparing Robertson's original analysis with a simulated one was to replicate Robertson's formulaic reasoning (i.e., how he answers the question prompts in his Analytical Scheme). This proved necessary, as the researcher (and probably the cohort) will require contextual examples of unknown concepts, including, among other things, “legal source”; “linguistic regime,”; and “legal intertextuality”, respectively.

Despite the justified criticism of the Scheme being tedious and time-consuming, the benefits of undertaking it outweighed its time-related limitations. Notwithstanding its limitations (See 5.4), the Scheme played a pivotal role in the consequential corpus creation phase. Results from the comparative analysis proved referentially significant throughout the project's life cycle, but the specific results concerning the organisation's departments were most relevant. For example, among its varied applications, the Robertson Analytical Scheme encourages the researcher to investigate the organic structure of a multilingual organisation to identify its communicative functions.

Hence, applying this logic allows for the desired explication of the individual departments' texts, their corresponding functions and sub-functions, and the communicative functions of the unique texts. Thus, Robertson helped verify the existence of two distinct *types* of legally binding documents produced by the legal department of the organisation under study (i.e., *JAC* Chile), namely bilateral and multilateral treaties.

Ultimately, the Data Analysis Phase of this project (See 5.3) provides an overview of how the Guideline incorporates corpus analysis software to tackle cohort blind spots. For example, the discussion around inter-systemic legal translation in the literature review aims to show how many legal translators' professional formation lacks at the point of understanding crucial issues related to legal theory. The project consequently affirms its most important research questions. Although this is a positive indication that the Guideline could be helpful, further studies will be required to test the empirical value of a corpus-based approach for the cohort group broadly delimitated in this research report.

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ANNEXES

ANNEX I – GUIDELINE PT. 1. COLIN ROBERTSON'S LEGAL LINGUISTIC PROFILING ANALYSIS SCHEME AS A PRACTICAL TRANSLATOR AID

Appendix: Legal-linguistic profiling of an organisation

(A) The organisation and legal aspects of its texts

(i) title
(ii) foundation documents
(iii) legal status
(iv) objectives
(v) organs and bodies that produce documents.
(vi) legal aspects:
  a. system of which founding texts form part (external)
  b. legal context created by founding texts (internal)
  c. sub-contexts created by documents in different areas.
(vii) types of documents produced (genres)

(B) The languages of the organisation and its documents

(i) linguistic regime of the organisation and its documents:
  a. authentic languages of the foundation texts
  b. linguistic regime (primary, secondary texts or practice):
    - its official languages
    - it is working languages
  c. languages of each type of document of each organ
(ii) users of the texts and their linguistic/cultural context(s)

(C) Specialist terminology domains and particular terminology

(i) specialist terminology domains
(ii) sources of guidance on terminology in relevant language
(iii) possible overlaps of terms by different bodies
(iv) relationship between activities of the organisation and different legal orders, 'positioning' its texts

(D) **Drafting, translation, and interpretation methods**

(i) drafting:
  a. styles, precedents, and methods for source and target languages where translation included
  b. how all language versions are produced, whether through translation or co-drafting
(ii) translation: methods of making texts in all required languages
(iii) interpretation: methods of interpretation of the texts and whether undertaken through courts

ANNEX II - SCREENSHOTS OF APPLYING ROBERTSON SCHEME TO THE REPOSITORY SEARCH FOR COLLECTING CORPUS FILES & SCREENSHOTS OF CORPUS SOFTWARE APPLIED TO THE GUIDELINE

Figure 12 - Example of Data Collection (i.e., Corpus File Sourcing)

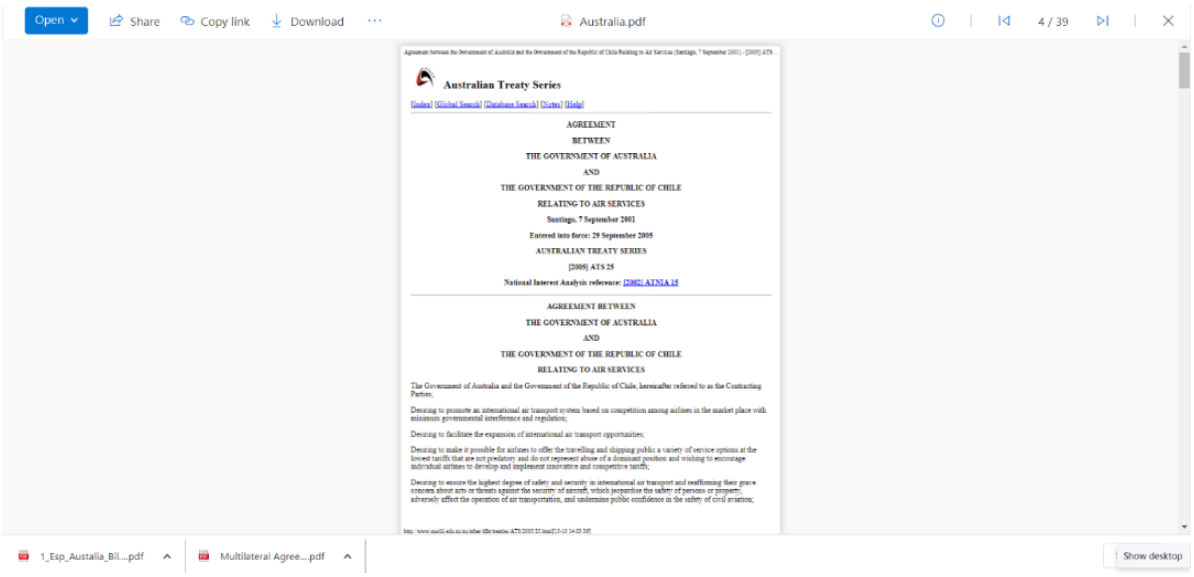


Figure 13 - Example Aligning .Txt Files before Bi-Text Alignment in Trados Studio.

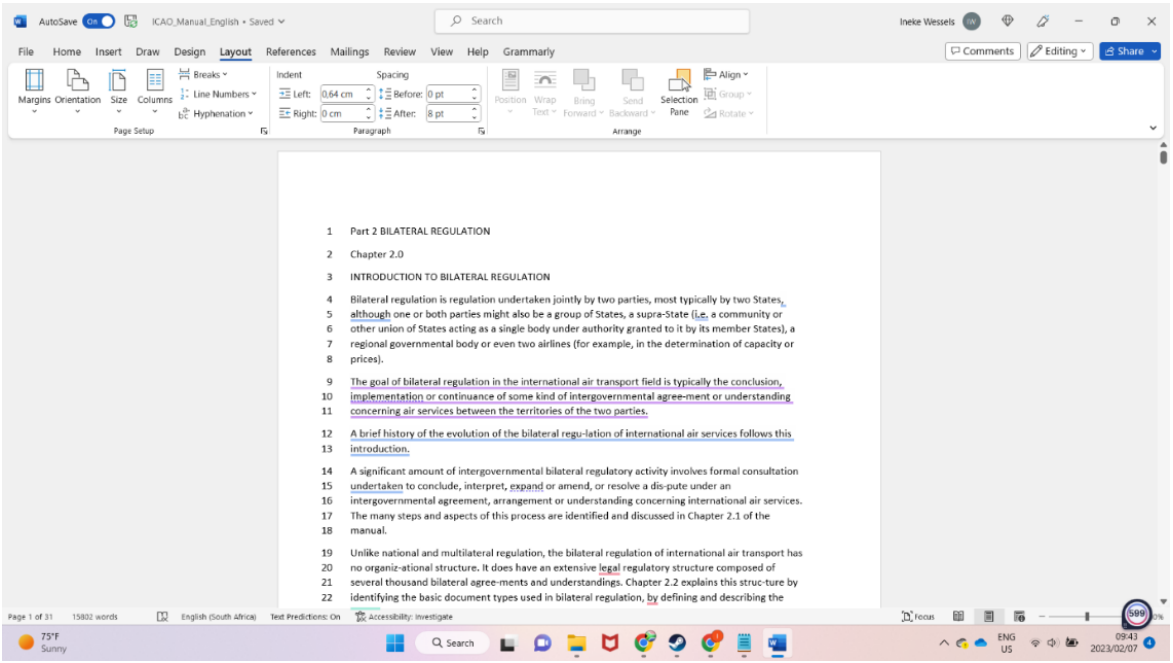


Figure 14 - Example of Potential Errors that may Occur with Latinate Syntax. The Cohort must Consider this as a Time Concern.

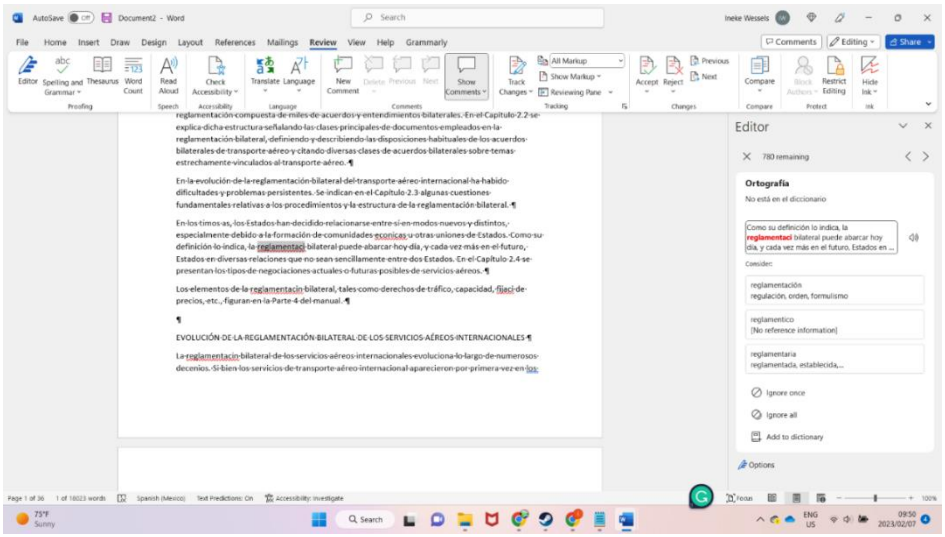


Figure 15 - Example of Preliminary Bi-Text Arrangement on MS Word before Trados Studio.

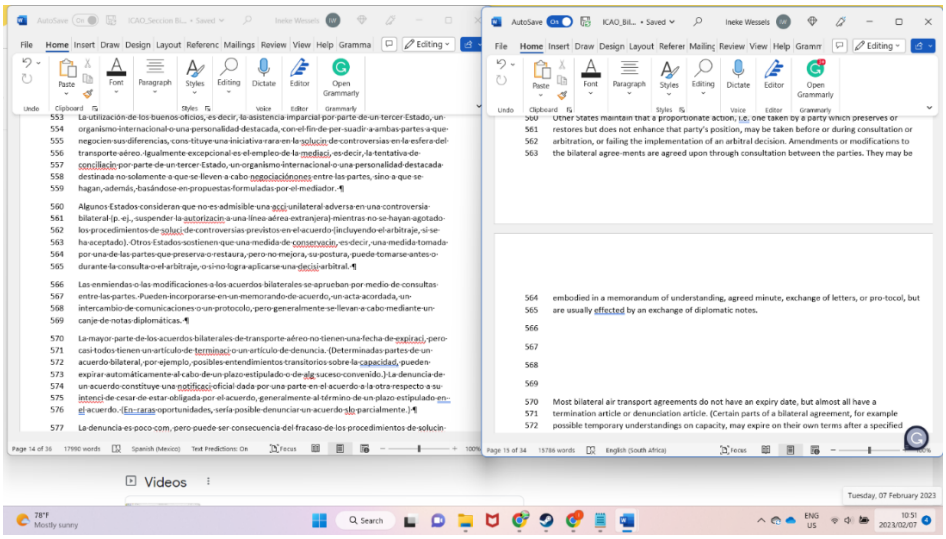


Figure 16 - Example of a Raw. Txt File to be used for Corpus Analysis

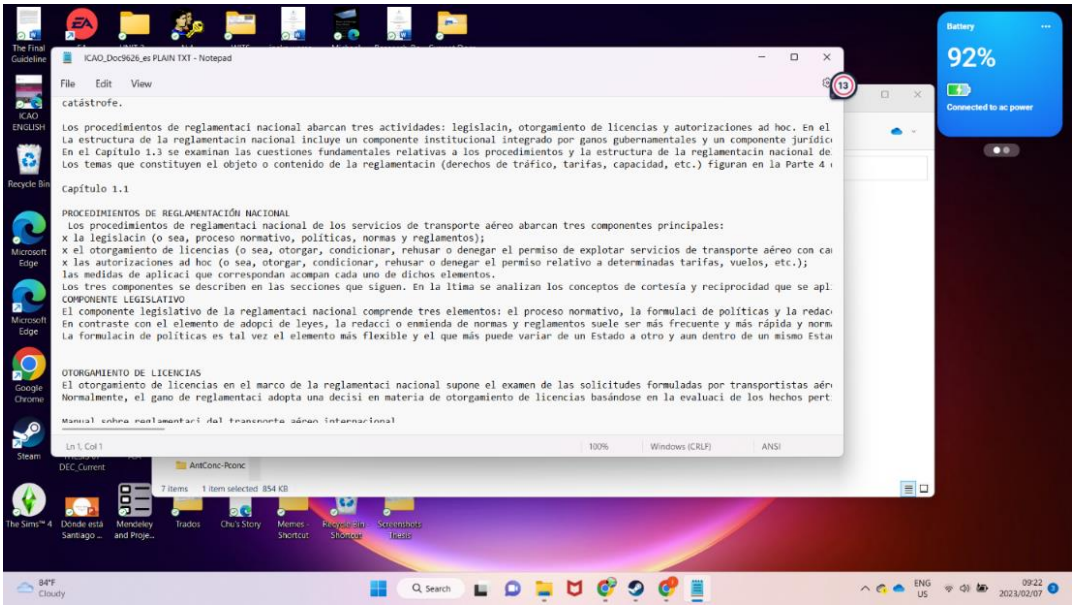


Figure 17 - Example of the Researcher Performing a Collocate Search (AntConc) for "Air" in an Individual Corpus File

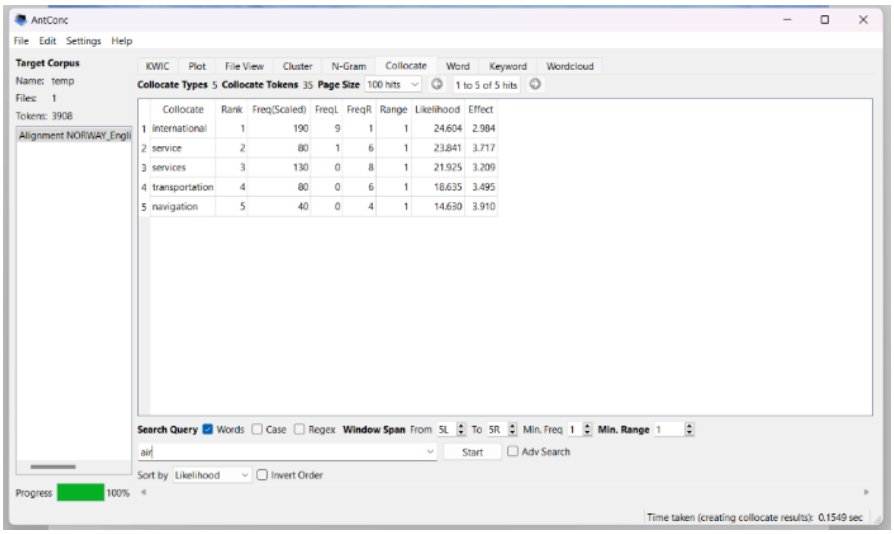


Figure 18 - Example of what Happens when the Translator Clicks on a Specific Word or Term from the Collocate Search Results Above

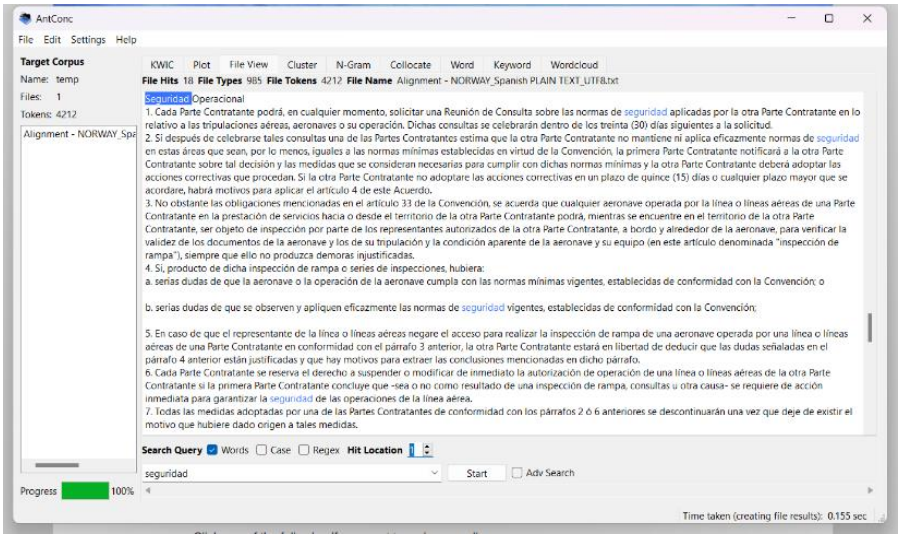


Figure 19 - Example of a Sigle Corpus File's KWIC Search for the Term "Aviation". The Purpose was to find Inconsistencies between "Aeronautics" and "Aviation" in the Corpus File.

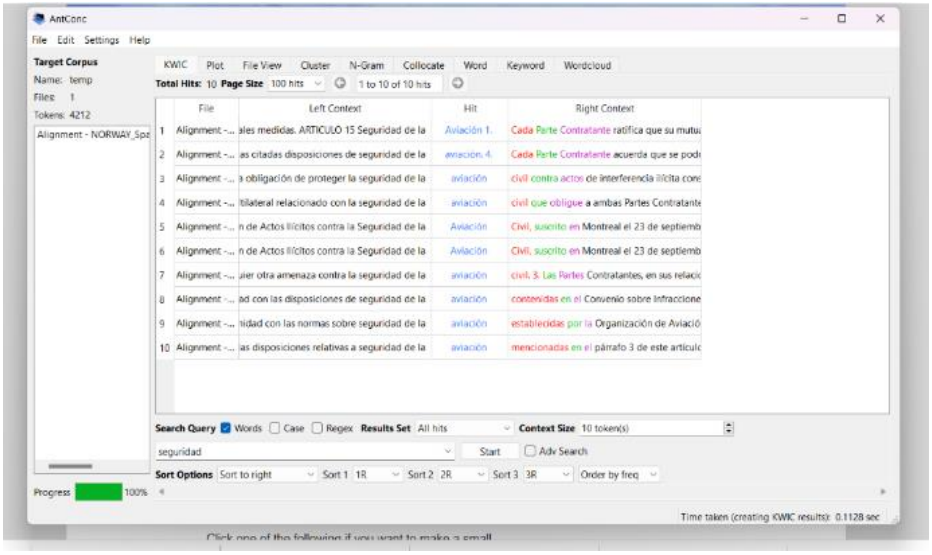


Figure 20 - Example of NVivo's Word Cloud Feature

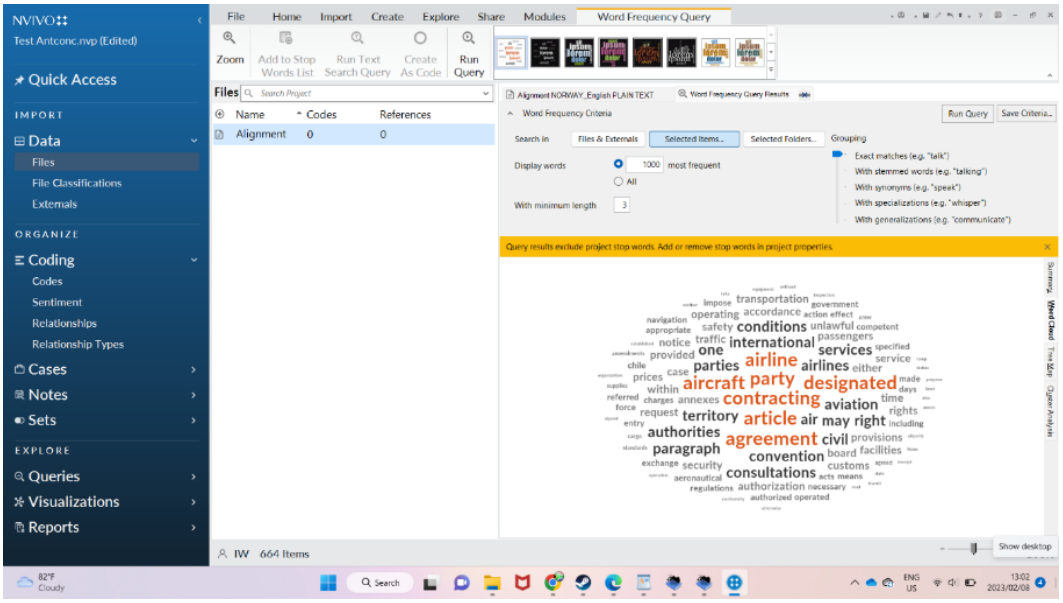
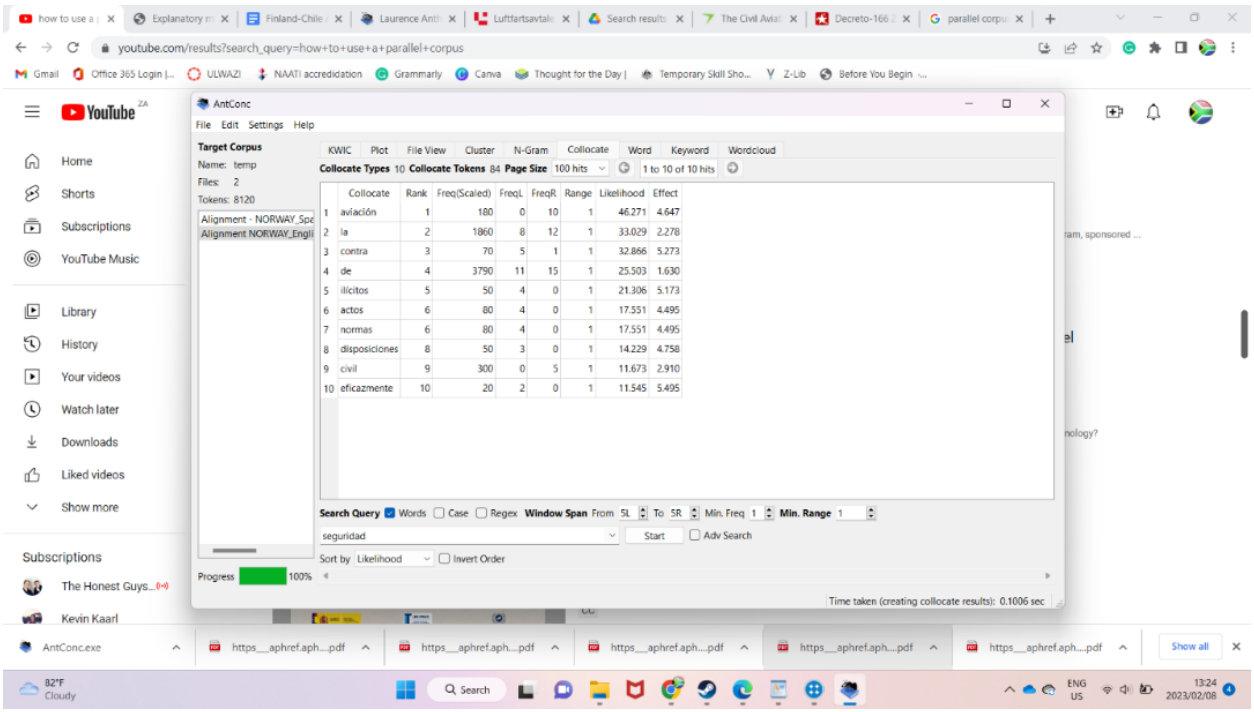


Figure 21 - Example of a TT Collocate Search



ANNEX III - EXAMPLE OF A COMPARATIVE LEGAL LINGUISTIC PROFILING ANALYSIS SCHEME (FORMAT ADAPTED FROM MS EXCEL).

	The European Union's official aviation authority: European Aviation Safety Agency (EASA)	The State of Chile's supreme aviation authority: Junta de Aeronáutica Civil (JAC)
(A) The organisation and legal aspects of its texts		
	Robertson explains that this section studies an organisation's general aspects to understand its function and place in the broader scheme. Specific attention is given to the organisation's title, foundation documents, legal status, objectives, and organs and bodies that produce documents. The emphasis is on the legal aspects that pertain to the external and internal dimensions of the organisation. The goal is to explore how each organisation creates its specialised culture through law, language, and terminology and examine its subcultures using discourse analysis methods. Once a broad overview of the legal dimension is formed, the focus shifts to examining the linguistic considerations in more detail (p. 117).	

(i) title	The title of the organisation is the European Aviation Safety Agency (EASA)	The title of the organisation in its original Spanish form is Junta de Aeronáutica Civil, Chile. At first, the translator will notice the discrepancy in the terms "aviation" and "aeronautics". Therefore, a simple Internet search reveals the basis to discern between these two alternatives when translating. Additionally, it may be prudent for the first-time legal translator to conduct a complementary corpus search of these seemingly interchangeable terms to verify the contexts in which each is used in legal aviation literature. A second recommendation would be to store all the relevant search results in a Desktop folder for future reference. The reason for making this recommendation is because the literature consistently points to issues of accuracy and consistency in legal terminological translation; and, if the translator maintained a personal term bank, it would be helpful to recognise salient (and probably necessary) legal terms and phrases, and their correct application would, therefore, be fostered by the support of a resource (i.e., a term bank) that facilitates the mechanisation of terminology mining. It is argued that terminology takes up about 75% of the translator's decision-making time.
(ii) foundation documents	Established in Regulation (EC) No 216/2008, 3 the foundation text" (Robertson, C., in Prieto Ramos, F. p. 117).	Three pieces of legislation govern the powers, duties, and other functions of the JAC: Código Aeronáutico (Aeronautical Code) Decreto con Fuerza de Ley (DFL) No. 241 of 1960 (Decree with Force of Law) Decreto de la Ley de Aviación Comercial (DL) Decree No. 2564 of 1979 (Commercial Aviation Act)" [See: https://www.bizlatinhub.com/aviation-laws-business-opportunities-chile/]We note the structure of the Decree that founds the JAC through a merger with a now-defunct organism. Therefore, we take special notice of the duties and objectives that repeal and replace former ones. The document currently being reviewed is the organisation's Organic Law, set out in the Decree with Force of Law 241. We observe the repealed laws and their ties to the secondary aeronautical authority, the "DGAC". We visit the DGAC's website to check for thematic consistency concerning the founding documentation published in Spanish on the JACs official webpage. Furthermore, we

		take particular caution not to overlook contextual information (on the JAC's website) that may relate to the organisation's celebration of bi- and multi-lateral Treaties with third-party States, especially concerning the languages in which the Treaties are authenticated.
(iii) legal status	See p. 119 - 121 for context	Chile applies the International Civil Aviation Convention to its local aviation regulations. The Dirección General de Aeronáutica Civil (DGAC) and Junta Aeronáutica Civil (JAC) regulate the aviation industry. Utilising the Air Force, the DGAC's objective is to regulate and inspect air activities in Chilean airspace. It manages the country's airport infrastructure and all aspects of flight and ground safety (including meteorological elements). Alternatively, The JAC is in charge of the promotion and commercial aspects of the Chilean aviation sector and relies on the Chilean Ministry of Transportation to achieve its objectives. JAC depends on the Ministry of Transport and Telecommunications, while the DGAC does not. Instead, it is related to the government's defence force. From this information, we understand that JAC operates on both a national and international level.
(iv) objectives	"Chapter III deals with EASA (Articles 17 to 64). Article 17 establishes the agency and states its duties: to undertake tasks and formulate opinions on matters covered by Article 1(1) (aeronautical products, aircraft operating personnel, aerodromes, aerodrome equipment, air traffic management and air navigation services [ATM/ANS] and personnel and organizations involved with them)" (p. 11).	The main functions of the Civil Aviation Board are derived from its Organic Law (DFL N° 241, 1960) and D.L. N° 2.564, 1979, and are the following: To exercise the executive management of civil aviation in the country; to exercise the management of commercial aviation and administer the corresponding policies; to represent the Government of Chile before international civil aviation organisations; to participate as the Chilean counterpart in the negotiations of international agreements related to civil aviation; to qualify the reciprocity of rights granted by third

		countries to national air companies, to apply restrictions when appropriate; To prepare official air traffic statistics; to assign international air frequencies among Chilean companies, using public bidding when these are restricted; to promote the facilitation of international air transport; to keep the register of air transport tariffs; to establish and control commercial aircraft insurance.
(v) organs and bodies that produce documents	"As regards organisational structure, we see the Agency as a legal person (Article 28) and note the internal organs: management board (Articles 33–37), executive director (Article 38–39), one or more boards of appeal (Articles 41–43) and the staff (Article 29). The organs make texts, and for each of them, we may expect a particular structure, style and content adapted to the author and the tasks at hand. In the case of the Staff, the EU Staff Regulations apply (Article 29)" (p. 120).	The Legal Department holds records of document-producing bodies. It is also noted that the facilitation department produces significant literature. This would encourage the cohort to sub-classify departmental texts according to their sub-functions.
(vi) legal aspects:	"The Agency is responsible for the duties in Article 17(2) mentioned above. Article 18 specifies a range of Agency measures, which means texts that (a) issue opinions addressed to the Commission; (b) issue recommendations addressed to the Commission on Article 14, which provides flexibility for Member States to react immediately to a safety problem; (c) issue certification specifications and guidance material; (d) take decisions in relation to airworthiness and environmental certification, pilot certification, air operation certification, ATM/ANS, air traffic controller certification, third-country operators, inspections of Member States and investigation of undertakings; and (d) issue reports following standardization inspections" (p. 120).	See the Objectives (above)
(a) system of which founding texts form part (external)	See Roberston for the required context	ICAO and its regulatory framework expressed in Doc. 9626

(b) the legal context created by the founding text (internal)	See Roberston for the required context	National Air Legislation - The cohort will identify whether they require a copy of the State's relevant internal aeronautical code (e.g., the Chilean aeronautical code booklet).
(c) sub-contexts created by documents in different areas	See Roberston for the required context	For example, the cohort must define the sub-contexts where different genres are used. For example, the bilateral and multilateral ASAs will correspond to different sub-contexts.
(vii) types of documents produced (genres)	See Roberston for the required context	Genres of interest would be bi- and multilateral Air Services Agreements. Following a brief overview of the organigram, several text-producing bodies would be of interest. However, the cohort will recognise where to focus their attention if they can identify and match the communicative function of the text to its text-producing body (i.e., organisational department [e.g., Legal vs Facilitation].

(B) The languages of the organization and its documents

Under this section, Robertson identifies four critical aspects of an organisation's linguistic regime to consider: (1) paying attention to the authorised language versions of foundation texts and the linguistic regime that applies to each genre of text produced; (2) examining the language of each type of document produced by the organisation's internal organs; (3) taking into account the linguistic and cultural contexts in which users operate, as it may impact how they read and interpret texts; and (4) being aware of possible misinterpretations that may arise due to different national law meanings versus intended international meanings. In practical terms, translators must know different text genres' unique constraints and characteristics to ensure accurate translations (p. 117).

(i) linguistic regime of the organisation and its documents:	"4.1. The organisation's title is the European Aviation Safety Agency (EASA), as established in Regulation (EC) No 216/2008, 3 the foundation text. We see in its title the letters '(EC)', which tells us that it is an EU text; we need to know the meaning of the letters and that previously the EU was referred to as the 'European Community' (EC). We identify the authors: European Parliament and Council of the EU. We are accordingly in the EU supranational legal-linguistic environment. Terms and concepts are those of EU law and language. We study Regulation (EC) No 216/2008 for the information it provides. The title informs us that it applies to civil aviation, establishes EASA and repeals earlier legislation. We note the structure of the act, its chapters, sections, articles and technical annexes. The forty numbered recitals commencing with 'Whereas' provide background information and introduce the articles that contain the rules of law or normative provisions. We note four chapters and over seventy articles. 5 Chapter III deals with EASA (Articles 17 to 64). Article 17 establishes the agency and states its duties: to undertake tasks and formulate opinions on matters covered by Article 1(1) (aeronautical products, aircraft operating personnel, aerodromes, aerodrome equipment, air traffic management and air navigation services [ATM/ANS] and personnel and organizations involved with them). A second duty is to assist the Commission in preparing measures to implement the Regulation. Third, EASA takes measures authorized by the Regulation or other EU legislation. Fourth, it conducts inspections and investigations. Fifth, it carries out on behalf of Member States functions and tasks ascribed to them by applicable international conventions, in particular the Chicago Convention (Article 17(1) and (2)(a) to (e)). From Article 28(1), we learn that the agency is 'a body of the Community, which means it is	The JAC's official legal and working language is Spanish, with English as a semi-official auxiliary function. English also automatically becomes the operative language during the negotiation phase of bi- and multi-lateral treaties. So, from observing the JAC webpage, we conclude that all legal functions besides international agreements and Memorandums of Understanding are to be fulfilled in Spanish only; further evidence hereof rests on all founding documents under the heading "Marco Normativo" on the webpage exist in Spanish only.

	now an EU body. **It can act on behalf of Member States, which are national-law entities, in respect of international conventions, in particular the Chicago Convention, defined in Article 3(b) as the Convention on International Civil Aviation and its Annexes, signed in Chicago on 7 December 1944.** From this information, we understand that the Agency operates in several different legal environments: EU as it is an EU agency; international, as it has a role in connection with the Chicago Convention; and national, as the day-to-day operations of civil aviation take place within the jurisdiction of individual countries. There are potential implications for terminology should terms be differently used between these legal environments. As regards organizational structure, we see the Agency as a legal person (Article 28) and note the internal organs: management board (Articles 33–37), executive director (Article 38–39), one or more boards of appeal (Articles 41–43) and the staff (Article 29). The organs make texts, and for each of them we may expect a particular structure, style and content adapted to the author and to the tasks in hand. In the case of the Staff, the EU Staff Regulations apply (Article 29). 6 The Agency is responsible for the duties in Article 17(2) mentioned above. Article 18 specifies a range of Agency measures, which means texts that (a) issue opinions addressed to the Commission; (b)issue recommendations addressed to the Commission on Article 14, which provides flexibility for Member States to react immediately to a safety problem; (c) issue certification specifications and guidance material; (d) take decisions in relation to airworthiness and environmental certification, pilot certification, air operation inspections of Member States and investigation of undertakings; and (d) issue reports following standardization inspections. The management board appoints the executive director and		

	the directors, adopts the Agency's annual general report, adopts the Agency's annual programme of work, adopts guidelines for the allocation of certification tasks to national aviation authorities and qualified entities and carries out other tasks, as set out in Article 33 of the Regulation. One of these is to 'decide on the linguistic arrangements for the Agency' (Article 33(2)(k)). The executive director approves agency measures, decides on inspections and investigations, allocates certification tasks to national aviation authorities or qualified entities and carries out other duties (Article 38(3)). A board of appeal decides on appeals against decisions of the agency (Article 40). The duties of the Agency and its organs imply the creation of texts. Provision is made for actions before the Court of Justice of the European Union (Article 50), so that the case-law of the EU Court of Justice concerning EASA also forms part of the legal-linguistic picture" (p. 119).		
(a) authentic languages of foundation texts	See p. 123 for context	See above - The organisation's founding documents' authentic language complies with the State's official linguistic regime, which recognises Spanish as the only official language.	

(b) linguistic regime (primary, secondary texts or practice):	"Having formed a view on the legal features of the organization, we turn to the linguistic aspects and its texts. This is a legal question as it is governed by rules, but it is also linguistic, as it is implemented through practice. Regulation (EC) No 216/2008 exists in twenty-four language versions in accordance with EU rules set down in Council Regulation No 1 determining the languages to be used by the European Economic Community. Regulation (EC) No 216/2008 does not itself lay down rules on languages for the Agency. That might suggest that the general EU rules on languages should apply, but Article 33(2)(k) of the regulation states that the management board is to 'decide on the linguistic arrangements for the Agency'. So, we look for a management board decision. That takes us into the question of publication: Is that is relevant to the question of linguistic regime, insofar as it lists the documents that must be produced in the EU official languages: safety reviews aimed to inform the public of the general safety level, opinions addressed to the Commission, annual general reports and programmes of work. For those documents, translation into the EU languages is required. The same article states that 'The translation services required for the functioning of the Agency shall be provided by the Translation Centre for Bodies of the European Union' (Article 32(2)). What about other Agency documents? The emphasis on publishing a short list of key documents in the EU languages implies, *a contrario*, that different rules on languages may apply to other documents, and we note in passing that the Agency website is in English" (p. 121).	As we observe Robertson's description of the process undertaken to identify critical aspects of the organisation's legal regime, we note the emphasis placed on identifying the following aspects related to the linguistic regime: The first question to ask is how many language versions do the founding documents appear in? In the case of JAC, the founding documents exist as authentic in Spanish only, which complies with Chile's national, linguistic regime; Secondly, in terms of establishing a conceptual hierarchy of primary and secondary legal contexts, it can be argued that the founding documents constitute the primary legal sources, along with the auxiliary documents, such as the Aeronautical Code that situate JAC as a dependent organism of the Ministry of Transport and Telecommunications. Therefore, the first thing to do is to examine the Ministry's webpage for information that might lead to discussions or legal provisions related to the linguistic regime about celebrating the Air Services Agreement. To this end, we conclude that no pertinent information is to be found directly on the Ministry´s Spanish-speaking webpage related to the linguistic regime of the JAC. Thus, we turn to the publicly available legal repository of the Chilean government (i.e., BCN). Therein, we identify a related piece of legislation following a simple search on the BCN website. The words searched include "Junta de Aeronáutica Civil" and "Idioma". The secondary legal context is created through the organisation's (JAC's) affiliation with the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO). How do we learn about ICAO? We can observe the State's subscription to the Chicago Convention using a corpus to identify relevant terms such as "ICAO", "Agreement", and "Chicago Convention". We learn about the history of the Chicago Convention of 1944. Considering that our corpus will comprise different bi- and multi-lateral treaties we take note of the list of States subject to the Convention. After learning about the ICAO affiliation, we investigate the ICAO webpage to understand better the relational link between ICAO and what happens in a translational context. We conclude that ICAO is a specialised organism of the United Nations. We investigate the texts published by ICAO and conclude that several manuals related to the

		organisation's Regulatory Framework may be helpful when compiling the corpus. We identify these sources as data-rich because they constitute the official and legally binding documents representative of the United Nations as a whole - and all six of the languages in which they are published are officially recognised and disseminated by the United Nations via the International Civil Aviation Organization. Thus, the chances of encountering official (high-quality) industry-specific terminology and phraseology translations are projectively high. The patterns observed in these legal texts can help substitute the cohort translator's terminology/phraseology decisions at an ad-hoc level.
*** Its official languages**	"Under this heading, we study the linguistic regime of the organization and its documents. Of particular interest are the authorized language versions of the foundation texts and the linguistic regime that applies to each category, or genre, of text produced, for it is possible for different rules to apply according to the category of a text, and a distinction is to be drawn between official languages and internal working languages of an organization. From there, one shift s attention to the language of each type of document produced by the internal organs of the organization. Lastly, there are the users of the texts and the linguistic and cultural contexts in which they operate, which may have impacts on how the users read and	Spanish is the founding documentation's official language and reflects Chile's national, linguistic regime. But, since we identified the secondary legal context to which the JAC belongs (i.e., ICAO and the UN), we must focus on the fact that different languages are involved in negotiating and celebrating different types of treaties (i.e., bi- or multi-lateral treaties). Additionally, it should be noted that bilateral treaties in Chile may be celebrated in English or Spanish. Still, in multilateral treaties, multiple languages may be used. In these ASAs drafted and published in languages other than Spanish, it would be essential to take note of the language authentication provision, as texts authenticated in multiple languages are generally recognised as holding equal legal representation. Thus, an agreement containing a provision of this nature may render the formulaic expression

	interpret the texts. Multilingual drafters and translators of international texts need to pay attention to possible misinterpretations, 118 Institutional Translation for International Governance which can arise, for example, where a reader associates particular words and terms with a national law meaning rather than an intended international one" (p. 117-118).	similar to that used in the MALIAT Agreement. MALIAT is used as an example because it demonstrates what happens when there are multiple languages present in the negotiation and drafting process of a multilateral air services agreement: "*HECHO en Washington, hoy one de mayo de 2001, en los idiomas inglés, español y malayo, siendo cada texto igualmente auténtico. En caso de divergencia entre los tres textos, prevalecerá el texto en idioma inglés*" (See Treaties on the web page: http://www.jac.gob.cl/politica-aerocomercial/acuerdos-de-transporte-aereo/).
*** Its working languages**	See p. 119 - 121 for context	The working languages are Spanish (primary), with English used for auxiliary functions. One of them is the negotiation of air traffic rights, a process that precedes the signing and ratification of the Treaty.
(c) languages of each type of document of each organ	See p. 119 - 121 for context	Treaties: From the JAC's website, in conjunction with findings from the 'BCN Portal', we conclude that bi- and multi-lateral Treaties constitute the main products of the organisation's efforts to liberalise the global aviation industry through conceding the greatest range of Air Traffic Rights between States.
(ii) users of the text and their linguistic/cultural context(s)	See p. 119 - 121 for context	The users of the texts we are interested in partly analysing, as Chile's Open Skies policy offers liberal business insertion opportunities for foreign air carriers. Consequently, given the broad spectrum of user profiles and considering Chile's focus on air liberalisation goals, a conservative approach might envisage the most critical recipient as the corresponding aeronautical authority from another State, followed by a group of secondary recipients that might include lawyers, linguists, politicians, academics, and businesspeople.
(C) Specialist terminology domains and particular terminology		

Robertson states that this section focuses on the range of specialised terminology domains covered, sources of guidance on terminology, overlaps and divergences in the meanings of terms used by different bodies, and relationships between the organisation's activities and those of other entities in the same field. Prior analysis of wider dimensions makes addressing individual terms easier, as one must be aware of how a term may shift meaning depending on the type of text in which it appears. This leads to considerations about selecting terminology to position texts within matrices of law and languages, a task for drafters, translators, and revisers (p. 118).		
(i) specialist terminology domains	"The language of Regulation (EC) No 216/2008 is highly technical, with terms such as ATM/ANS, Chicago Convention, certification, complex motor-powered aircraft, aerodrome, airworthiness, type-certificate, pilot, air operation, product integrity and cyclic loading. These terms are connected to civil aviation. However, Chicago Convention also connects to a (management board, appointment, guidelines, procedures, disciplinary authority) and terms that link to the law (regulation, treaty, shall, appeal, Court of Justice), which can be subcategorised into substantive law terms and procedural law terms"... p. 121	Note: This is perhaps the most critical section, as terminological accuracy and consistency constitute the primary markers of legal translation (See Prieto Ramos, 2014a, b; 2020). From an organisational point of view, it is helpful to categorise the organisational texts according to their legal and communicative functions. NB. One of this project's central arguments is to show how the technical processes involved in the overall effort to create a Translation Memory or a corpus. Alignment stands as one of these potentially exploitable processes; through the alignment of the (ST) and the (TT) [in Trados Studios], the translator becomes aware of individual translation units and their equivalents.
(ii) sources of guidance on terminology in relevant languages	… "There are also terms relating to safety, environment, legislative technique (repeal, amend), criminal law (penalties) and general language. Institutional online resources are available to deal with these terms, including Interactive Terminology for Europe (IATE), specialised glossaries" (Robertson, p. 121) ... Robertson also refers to the EUR-Lex.	A logical question for the cohort group to ask themselves at this point in the process is: If the preceding sections of this analysis reveal that the organisation operates in a similarly complex legal sphere to JAC and EASA; of primary (national) and secondary (regional-LACAAC & international - ICAO) legal contexts, then a good starting point might be inquiring into resource bases that prioritise the terminology and phraseology of each respective context. For example, Robertson makes reference to the "Interactive Terminology for Europe (IATE)" in his EASA-based analysis, as he proposes consulting national drafting and translation guidelines for primary legal contexts and Institutional Translation Resources for 'secondary-context consultation'. As Robertson affirms, one of the reasons for suggesting using different resources for different contexts is that several interlinking factors might result in different semantic expressions for the same concept, so it is essential to choose a reputable source. In this regard, we proceed to the ICAO website > document library >

		download documents in English and Spanish (official translation). Furthermore, we proceed to take note of the EUR-Lex website mentioned by Robertson (see the adjacent text by Robertson). Taking note of EU resource management systems such as EUR-Lex could prove beneficial when comparing language variations and additional information about the terms provided by EASA.
(iii) possible overlaps of terms by different bodies	See p. 120-121 for context	A possible way of testing for overlaps between the texts produced in distinct institutions is to use a corpus comparing all the terms from the different sources.
(iv) relationship between activities of the organisation and different legal orders, 'positioning' its texts	See p. 120-121 for context.	By comparing Robertson's initial observations about the "highly technical" language of the Regulation being analysed, the cohort translator could follow suit by using a corpus to generate word clouds on NVivo and Word Frequency Lists as a way of understanding the "jist" of different genres used by the organisation's different departments. Nevertheless, the formal observations made by Robertson (in this category) can be transposed to the cohort translator's analysis in the following way: The cohort can list the organisation's departments and their sub-functions. Next, the cohort can find examples of texts corresponding to those departmental sub-functions. Eventually, all these different text types could represent individual sub-corpora. The translator can run analyses to compare word frequencies and identify salient terms and phrases before investigating how these USMs act and interact within their generic and organisational frameworks.
(D) Drafting, translation and interpretation methods (Summaries)		

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Robertson explains that this section covers various issues related to drafting in a multilingual context, including constructing written documents in the source language and translating and interpreting texts. Questions surrounding translation and interpretation methods are discussed, focusing on legal interpretation by lawyers and courts. The scope of these questions can be extended beyond translation to analyse an organisation’s discourse style. The European Aviation Safety Agency (EASA) is used as a model for practical application, and publicly available information is used to apply the profiling concept to EASA (p. 118).</td></tr>
<tr><td>(i) drafting:</td><td>Robertson states: "The underlying concept behind this heading is that of communication" (p. 122). Therefore, we must detangle who creates the language, why, and who interprets it. The communicative function will determine the reason for driving communication. Therefore, it is advised that the translator focuses on function.</td><td>* Who drafts the treaties? - The Legal Department; why? The functions relate to the identified sub-genres (i.e., bilateral and multilateral ASAs)</td></tr>
<tr><td>(a) styles, precedents and methods for source and target languages where translation included</td><td rowspan="4">- SUMMARY of Page 123 -* The concept is about communication through language and interpretation.
* In a multilingual environment, translators are receivers and utterers.
* EASA texts are drafted in English by technical experts from different nationalities, which may lead to non-mother-tongue drafting and the need for linguistic revision.
* EASA does not have a translation department, and translation is done by the EU Translation Centre based in Luxembourg.
* Interpretation of EASA texts is done by specialists in the field, requiring expert knowledge of legal texts, the discipline, and language use.
* Legal texts are interpreted and applied by courts, and lawyers determine their meanings according to legal methods.
* The existence of different legal systems affected by a text requires efficient coordination, terminology control, and regularly updated terminology guidance.
* Computer technology can be used to check the use of terms and equivalences adopted for other languages as part of legal linguistic revision undertaken by specialist lawyer-linguists at some EU institutions.</td><td rowspan="4">Commentary - How this can be transposed to the cohort's analysis - The cohort must use Robertson's reasoning style to answer the questions related to drafting and interpretation. The translator must also be aware of calques and legalese in the English versions (as noted by Robertson [p. 122-123]), which the cohort can tackle with corpus methods of investigating linguistic patterns and discrepancies. The methodology section expounds on the corpus management processes. Nevertheless, the cohort's lack of legal understanding will be a limitation. However, by anticipating probable and possible blind spots, the cohort can use this part of the scheme to indicate whom they need to approach for guidance. For example, suppose the cohort performs the entire Robertson analysis before starting a translation project. In that case, they will at least have identified the principal actors and who drives the meaning-making intentionality behind the organisation's texts. Through this type of documentary investigation, the project argues will provide the cohort with an adequate framework to understand the extent of their expertise-related blind spots and will drive them to uncover the tools (and people) they might require for effective legal and institutional translation. For example, by anticipating a particular blind spot regarding legalese, the cohort will use this scheme to find the relevant lawyer who may help them disambiguate legal terms from their LGP synonyms.</td></tr>
<tr><td>(b) how all language versions are produced, whether through translation or co-drafting</td></tr>
<tr><td>(ii) translation: methods of making texts in all required languages</td></tr>
<tr><td>(iii) interpretation: methods of interpretation of the texts and whether undertaken through courts</td></tr>
</table>