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EQUIVALENCE AND THE COGNO-CULTURAL DIMENSION IN SCIENTIFIC, PROFESSIONAL AND OFFICIAL TRANSLATIONS

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Abstract. *Equivalence is of essential importance for a translation, but at the same time, it is the subject of contradictory attitudes among theorists. On one hand, there are those who believe it to be necessary for the translation; on the other hand, there are those who claim it is unimportant, even harmful for the translation. When it comes to scientific, professional and official translations, equivalence is of immense importance as it may be one of the main causes of imprecise and inaccurate translations. Yet, there are some techniques that may be applied to surpass the problem of equivalence in scientific, professional and official translations. If the scientific, professional and official text is analysed as based on the cogno-cultural model of perceiving and conceptualising both the source and the target text content, the translation of the said text may be rather simplified. The aim of this article is to offer an overview of important issues regarding equivalence, an introduction to the cogno-cultural approach to translation as well as a short presentation of two simple techniques for the successful realisation of scientific, professional and official translations based on the cogno-cultural approach..*

Key Words: *Translation, equivalence, problem, imprecise and inaccurate translations*

INTRODUCTION

Translation as a discipline within linguistics was not established before the eighties and the early nineties of the twentieth century. Only in 1993 did Gentzler publish his *Contemporary Translation Theories* at a moment when the theory of translation was changing rapidly. However, before that, opinions had been various and rather undefined. The first and almost bold step towards defining the discipline was made by Susan Bassnett in 1980 when she published Translation Studies. In those days, translation studies were a frequent topic of discussion because humanistic sciences in general, in those days referred to as social sciences, were literally exploding. Theorists were quite sceptical and even reluctant when it came to defining new scientific disciplines. That is exactly the rea-

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son why Bassnett's book was published as part of a series named "New Accents" by Methuen (today Routledge). In spite of heated dispute among theorists, the editor of the series, Terence Hawkes wrote in the preface to the edition that every next volume will "suggest the distinctive discourse of the future" (Bassnett 1980: x). It may actually be said that Bassnett laid a cornerstone for translation studies as a discipline and that Gentzler then, in the form of a retrospective study, systematically presented all the knowledge that had been developed in the discipline in the meantime.

Similarly, the term equivalence in the theory of translation is a topic of radical and almost contradictory interpretation. On one hand, translation as a discipline within linguistics is defined as equivalent relationships on various linguistic levels, such as the phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic ones (Catford 1965, Nida 1969, Pym 1992, Koller 1995, etc.), whereas others deny any theoretical importance of equivalence, claiming that it is unimportant (Snell-Hornby 1988) or even harmful for translation (Gentzler 1993). Most theorists have decided in favour of the neutral position. Mona Baker (Baker 1992: 12-13), for instance, thinks that equivalence is there "for the sake of convenience – because most translators are used to it rather than because it has any theoretical status." She also suggests that equivalence is "used here with the provison that although equivalence can usually be obtained to some extent, it is influenced by a variety of linguistic and cultural factors and is therefore always relative" (ibid. 13). In brief, equivalence is either a necessary precondition for translation or an obstacle on the route of the advancement of translation studies or a useful category by means of which translation may be defined.

Those in favour of translation as dependent upon equivalence, define it as the relationship between the source text (ST) and the target text (TT) due to which the TT can actually be considered a translation of the ST. Furthermore, a prevailing opinion is that the equivalent relationship may also be found between only parts of the ST and the TT. Contrary to that, Pym (1992: 37), among others, emphasises the problem of the circular relationship between equivalence and translation, because equivalence defines translation and vice versa. In a practical sense, this circularity imposes the necessity that the former mentioned authors either define this relationship in further detail or contradict it entirely. Unfortunately, no attempt has been made up to now to define equivalence in such a way that would help avoid this circularity.

Those theorists who still claim that equivalence is the very essence of translation have mainly been working on developing various typologies of equivalence on the level of words, sentences or texts, Baker probably being the most important among them (1992). Others have been working on the typology of meaning (denotative, connotative, pragmatic, etc.) which they claim is the foundation of translation. Valid theoretical grounds that would define equivalence as a system of techniques within translation studies are still missing so that it may be said that there is no theory of equivalence in translation in general, let alone in the theory of scientific, professional and official translation.

EQUIVALENCE IN TRANSLATION – TYPOLOGY

The theory of translation offers different classifications of equivalence according to different criteria deemed crucial. Theorists, though constantly suggesting new definitions, agree at least on one point – the notion of equivalence is problematic. Because of that it might be better to present the various types of equivalence offered by authors rather than look for one unified definition of that obviously controversial term. The typology of eqivalence seems to be a kind of safe ground for theorists to investigate the issue of equivalence from different points of view.

According to its essential meaning, equivalence is the relationship between the source language (SL) and the target language (TL). As based on a generally accepted classification offered by Koller (Koller 1989: 100-104), the following kinds of equivalent relationships may be identified:

1. **referential** or **denotative equivalence** – the equivalent elements in the SL and TL refer to the same thing in the real world;

2. **connotative equivalence** – the equivalent elements in SL and the TL trigger the same associations in the minds of the speakers of both languages;

3**. text-normative equivalence** – the equivalent elements in the SL and the TL are used in same or similar contexts in their respective languages;

4. **pragmatic** or **dynamic equivalence** – the equivalent elements in the SL and the TL create the same effect on their respective readers and

5. **formal equivalence** – the equivalent elements in the SL and the TL have the same orthographic and phonological features.

However, Mona Baker makes a step further (Baker 1992) stating that equivalence should not be based only on the differences between the SL and the TL, but also on the similarities that may exist between them as well as on what cohesive role either the differences or the similarities might play in the ST and the TT. That is why she named these two factors together as **textual equivalence**. Unlike that, other authors (Neubert 1994) suggest that not all variables in translation are relevant for each particular case and that the translator has to decide which one to give preference and thus establish a **functional equivalence.** Kade (1968) and other authors (Arntz 1993, Hann 1992) in favour of **lexical equivalence**, especially in the area of specific registers, combine the above mentioned qualitative differences with quantitative schemas so as to enable the categorisation of equivalence depending on whether there is: one unit in the TL for the same one in the SL, i.e. a **one-to-one** relationship; or that relationship suggests that there are more than one unit in the TL for a single one in the SL so that the equivalence is **one-to-many**; or a TL unit covers part of an entire concept named by a SL unit, i.e. **one-to-part-of-one**; or no TL unit for a SL one, i.e. **nil equivalence**. Such a quantitative approach has its limitation in the case of professional texts, because translators tend to seek for equivalent expressions on the word level only.

That is why the following section is about scientific, professional and official translations (SPOT)[1] discussed from the point of view defined as cogno-cultural dimension in order to define the nature of equivalence and its importance in this area and to suggest solutions to resolve the issue of equivalence in SPOTs.

[1] In English the acronym ESP (English for Special Purposes) is used as a term covering a particular area of knowledge or science. In accordance with that, the acronym TSP (Translation of Special Purposes) has been derived referring to the translation of texts from a particular area of knowledge or science. The acronym SPOT shall be used here as a convenient way to refer to more areas of translation in general, i.e. scientific, professional and official ones.

SCIENTIFIC, PROFESSIONAL AND OFFICIAL TRANSLATION – A PRODUCT OF COGNO-CULTURAL CONCEPTUALISATION MODELS

Given the basic premises that the language of one community[2] is a product or artefact of culture[3] produced by that community and that a particular community may be defined by its specific model of conceptualising[4] the reality they live in, it may be said that a scientific, professional and official discourse[5] is an artefact of culture produced by a community in accordance with the model of conceptualising reality characteristic for that community. Thus the translation of a scientific, professional or official text is the transfer of an artefact (the scientific, professional and official discourse) from the source model of conceptualising into an equivalent target model of conceptualising (s. Figure 1), whereby the equivalent models of conceptualising will most likely differ in some aspect, because the respective models of conceptualising are limited and conditioned by the existing artefacts created in the community speaking the TL.

SL: House of Lords
- Institution in the British government
- Part of Parliament
- Limited legislative and executive powers

↓

TL: Gornji dom Britanskog parlamenta
- institucija u okviru vlade u Velikoj Britaniji
- deo Parlamenta
- u njemu sede članovi koji pripadaju višem staležu britanskog društva pošto postoji i Donji dom u kome sede članovi srednjeg staleža

Fig. 1 An example of translating the meanin of an artefact from the source model of conceptualising (SL) into an equivalent artefact in the target model of conceptualising (TL)

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[2] The term community is used to refer to a group of people sharing a living space. Such space may be defined from the aspect of language as a speech environment which is considered a regionally and socially determined community using one language system. From the aspect of culture of such a community, the term native culture may be defined as referring to a particular community of people who share some common characteristics, such as nationality, religion, language etc. (Kristal, 1985)

[3] The term artefact is defined as an object that is made by a person, especially something of historical or cultural interest (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2005). In a cultural sense, the term artefact refers to both the physical object and the abstract notion of knowledge, meaning and understanding related to the object. For instance, a novel written by an author during the period of classicism in the United Kindom, clearly indicates the rationalistic approach to life.

[4] The model of conceptualising reality characteristic for one community may be defined as a system of mechanisms used by the native speakers of one community to perceive, understand, conceptualise, comprehend and interpret the reality they are living in. In accordance with that, Katan (1999) suggested a cognitive approach to the study of culture, because culture may be seen as a system of "models of perceiving, relating and interpreting" that the native speakers, those who belong to one culture, "have in mind".

[5] The term discourse is used here to stand for "verbal or written texts that extend beyond the level of a single sentence" (Findlay, 1998), or "a continuous stretch of (esp. spoken) language larger than a sentence". (Crystal, 1997). Accordingly, a scientific, professional and offical discourse may be defined as a text, spoken or written, in the context of a particular science, profession or official situation, such as those at court or with some government authorities.

Since the model of conceptualising reality in one community is limited and conditioned by the existing artefacts (especially the abstract notions of the artefacts), it may be assumed that when translating a scientific, professional and official discourse, it is not always easy to find equivalents in the TL. The model of conceptualising reality is to a large extent limited by the artefacts produced in a particular community and it may often be the case that some artefacts do not even exist in another community. Clearly, the translation of such a discourse may not be realised on the linguistic level only, that is by finding equivalents on the level of words, sentence and text. In other words, a scientific, professional and official discourse may be translated appropriately and accurately only if the translator constantly bears in mind the models of understanding and comprehending reality in the source culture in relationship to the same models of understanding and comprehending in the target culture. In accordance to that, equivalent artefacts are found or those that cannot be found in the target language are realised in a different manner, which shall be discussed in the last section of this article.

COGNITIVE MAPPING AND THE CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR

It seems appropriate at this place to shortly review Mandelblit's 'Cognitive Translation Hypothesis' (Mandelblit 1995). Mandelblit proposed two schemes of cognitive mapping[6] conditions: a) Similar Mapping Conditions (SMC), based on similarities established between new and existing concepts and b) Different Mapping Conditions (DMC), based on the differences established between new and existing concepts (Mandelblit 1995: 492).

The area in which Mandelblit tried to verify his hypothesis is the translation of metaphors whereby his basic assumption was that much more time and effort are needed to translate metaphors because the translator is "required to make a conceptual shift between the conceptual mapping systems of the source and target languages" (ibid. 493). In other words, the translation of metaphors largely depends on the SL cognitive domain[7] they

[6] The most basic interpretation of the term mapping, or rather a working definition of cognitive mapping has been offered by Downs & Stea in their textbook Cognitive Mapping and Spatial Behavior: "A process composed of a series of psychological transformations by which an individual acquires, codes, stores, recalls, and decodes information about the relative locations and attributes of phenomena in their everyday spatial environment." In other words, cognitive mapping is the means through which individuals process their experiences in their immediate surrounding, solve problems and use memory. It was first identified in the late 1940s by Edward Tolman, a professor at the University of California-Berkeley, and it began with laboratory rats. In his experiments, Tolman challenged each rat with a maze that offered food at the end. He noticed that each time the rats passed through the myriad small paths and blind alleys, they made fewer mistakes. Eventually, they were all able to move swiftly to the goal with no false starts. Joseph D. Novak developed a theory as based on that according to which "concepts may have their origin in the learning movement called constructivism. In particular, constructivists hold that prior knowledge is used as a framework to learn new knowledge. In essence, how we think influences how and what we learn. Concepts identify the way we think, the way we see relationships between knowledge." (Grayson H. Walker, Concept Mapping and Curriculum Design, Teaching Resource Center, The University of Tennessee at Chattanooga, http://www.studygs.net/mapping/, accessed on 01/05/2010.

[7] In its most basic sense, a cognitive domain refers to the processes and the measurable results of learning and the practical skills of an individual to apply their intelligence. It is generally accepted that the major breakthrough in this area was made by Bloom in 1956 by defining the method of classification of the cognitive domain, known as *Bloom's Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain* (Bloom et. al, 1956). This taxonomy is based on the assumption that what the student is expected to learn, defined as the objectives of education, may be presented in the form of a hierarchy from the most simple to the most complex levels of the cognitive domain. Those levels are assumed to be succeeding each other which is why they have to follow the suggested order. Bloom offered the first hierarchy in 1956: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and

come from. The translator will most probably go through a different process of cognitive mapping in the TL when searching for an equivalent, which is most likely to be found in the appropriate cognitive domain of the TL, but may, quite frequently, be entirely different from the term in the SL cognitive domain.

In cognitive linguistics, great importance is attributed to the conceptual metaphor or also known as the cognitive metaphor, both terms being associated to a particular conceptual domain[8]. Basically, the conceptual domain /A/ (source domain), is understood/ comprehended/ conceptualised by means of the conceptual domain /B/ (target domain). What we do is use an obvious concept to understand a less obvious concept. In speech, metaphors are common because the speaker wants influence, either directly or indirectly, the behaviour of interlocutors and thus achieve an initially set purpose of communication.

Example 1

"This goal is almost unattainable."

The meaning of this sentence is metaphorical and it conveys that what we want to achieve involves a lot of effort and that what we want to achieve is "this goal". The idea that it is difficult to achieve is emphasised by the phrase "almost unattainable". The intention is to point out "that it is very difficult to achieve what we have planned".

This example shows that the intention of the speaker is to trigger an image of, for instance, the finish line at the end of a race track and that those expected "to reach the finish line" should see themselves as participants in the race in order to try as hard as possible to realise the goal set ahead of them, that is to win the race.

It goes without saying that the psychological effect exerted over the ones expected to realise the goal is rather strong. Obviously, the speaker wants to enhance the ambition to win, and at the same time, to motivate and encourage.

An important question to be asked is what happens when such a metaphor is to be translated into a foreign language. However, that is a topic to be discussed in a new research. In this article, the following section will be an attempt to illustrate two techniques that may be used to overcome the problem of equivalence. Both these techniques, localisation and transposition, may be based on Mandelblit's idea referring to the mapping of the culture of the SL in relationship to the TL as based on SMC and DMC.

Localisation and transposition – two techniques to resolve the problem of equivalence

Both the term localisation and transposition have long been topics of discussion in the study of translation. As far as localisation is concerned, theorists discovered it potentials for translation only at the end of the last century, whereas transposition cannot even be discussed on a universal level, as it is different for every language pair.

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evaluation. However, in 2001, Anderson & Krathwol (2001) offerred a revised hierarchy of levels in order to fit the contemporary concept of education. First, they changed the names of the levels into verbs emphasising thus the importance of the activity suggested by the names and then they changed the order of the last two levels. The newly offered hierarchy was: remembering, understanding, applying, analysing, evaluating and creating. In 1992, Huitt suggested that the last two levels could actually be considered equal and thus be on the same level.

[8] In its broadest sense, a conceptual domain may be defined as the overall system of objects and activites that may be found in a language. For instance, Kövecses (2002: 4) defines the conceptual domain as "any coherent organisation of experience", which is probably the best definition to serve the purpose of this article.

Among the first to recognise the importance of localisation for translation, was Pym (2004) who pointed out how useful this technique for individual cases of translation might be. Basically, localisation is used in relationship to industrial discourse by means of which some marketing material, a text, an add, a commercial presentation or some web pages are adapted to the needs and preferences of a local community where the advertised product is to be launched and sold.

Example 2

By means of localisation, a commercial for a particular product is redesigned in the TL and changed to fit the target community based on the original source material. This means that the speech of the actors in the commercial is dubbed, the background music may be changed, that is some locally recognisable tune may be used. Even entire parts, inscriptions and other details in the commercial may be substituted because otherwise the cultural elements from the SL might be unrecognisable for the members of the target community.

Translation comprises only a minor part in the example from an industrial discourse. Pym, like many others, thinks that it should rather be the other way round – localisation should be a minor part of translation. Either way, localisation may be a strategy in translation with the sole purpose to make the translation into the TL acceptable and recognisable to the target readers of the translation. What should be mentioned at this point is that the term itself, localisation, causes quite some disagreement among theorists (Pym 2004). One stream of thought refers to localisation being a convenient substitute for terms, such as 'linguistic and cultural factors' or 'linguaculture', which seem quite unfortunate. A recurring topic has been the question about the meaning of 'local'. If this term refers to the locality of the target audience, which term should then be used for the source or origin of the text? Suggestions addressing this issue vary from 'internationalisation' to 'globalisation', and Pym actually suggests terms, such as 'interlocalisation', 'delocalisation' and 'interlocal'. Since the area of translation has just become a topic of discussion in general, the terms are yet to be defined.

On the other hand, transposition is a strategy in translation used to transpose (transfer) the meaning of a unit from the SL into the TL by exchanging one part of a discourse for another without changing the meaning of the entire discourse. Transposition in Jakobson's study (Jakobson 1959: 261), for instance, is defined even as 'transmutation' and refers to the emphasis of implicit text features whereby the translator is constantly faced with the unavoidable imposition of choice and semantic variations present in the translation. Similarly, Nicola Dusi (Dusi 2000) suggests that transposition is a strategy by means of which the translator may either choose or refuse an equivalent unit in the TL for one in the SL depending on whether the environment of the text in the TL suits the equivalent unit or not.

Transposition may be applied on both linguistic and extralinguistic elements in the ST that may otherwise cause problems in the translation. This means that even cultural artefacts unknown in the target culture may be resolved by means of transposition. For the sake of simplification, the first example of transposition offered here shall be on the level of grammar where it usually appears whereas the next example will illustrate transposition on the level of a cultural artefact, but combined with localisation because the two are most likely to be used together.

Example 3

Basically, transposition refers to the translation of a grammatical structure in the SL by means of another grammatical structure in the TL because the SL structure does not exist or simply is inappropriate in the TL. The problem of equivalence in this example is, obviously, resolved on the level of text and/ or context.

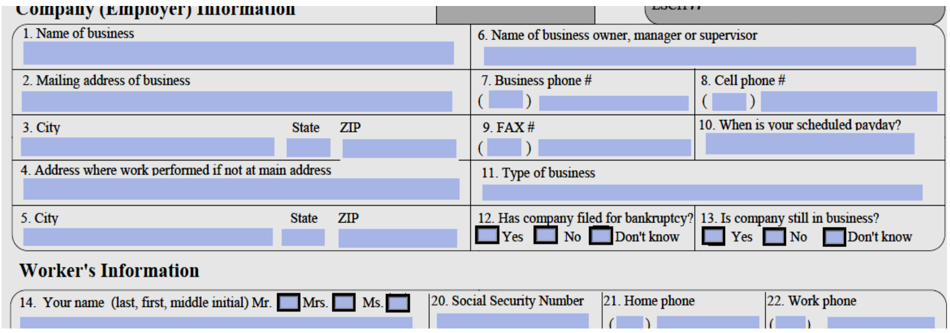
SL: Unemployment is still high on the agenda of the government. – AdvPhr
TL: Nezaposlenost je i dalje prioritet vlade. – NPhr

The following example is an illustration of localisation and transposition used as strategies/ techniques in SPOT where the translator creates an opportunity to adapt either the entire discourse or just part of it to the TL as much as possible so that the reader of the translation will not recognise it to be a translation, but rather a text written in their native language.

Example 4

SPOT realised by means of the application of the localisation and transposition techniques where needed.

1. Form in SL (English)


Company (Employer) Information

1. Name of business	6. Name of business owner, manager or supervisor	
2. Mailing address of business	7. Business phone # ( )	8. Cell phone # ( )
3. City State ZIP	9. FAX # ( )	10. When is your scheduled payday?
4. Address where work performed if not at main address	11. Type of business	
5. City State ZIP	12. Has company filed for bankruptcy? Yes No Don't know	13. Is company still in business? Yes No Don't know

Worker's Information

14. Your name (last, first, middle initial) Mr. Mrs. Ms.	20. Social Security Number	21. Home phone ( )	22. Work phone ( )

2. Translation of the form into the TL[9] (Serbian)

Podaci o društvu (poslodavcu)

1. Naziv preduzeća	6. Ime vlasnika, direktora ili odgovornog lica	
2. Sedište preduzeća	7. Broj telefona	8. Broj mobilnog telefona
3. Grad Država Poštanski broj	9. Broj faksa	10. Datum isplate ličnog dohotka
4. Mesto obavljanja delatnosti ako je van sedišta	11. Vrsta delatnosti	
5. Grad Država Poštanski broj	12. Da li je u preduzeću pokrenut stečajni postupak? da ne nepoznato	13. Da li preduzeće i dalje obavlja svoju delatnost? da ne nepoznato

[9] The techniques of localisation and translation have been applied on the underlined phrases and words.

3. Illustration of words and phrases with which the problem of equivalence has been resolved by means of the application of the techniques of localisation and transposition

SL	TL Translation with the techniques of localisation and transposition	TL Translation without the techniques fo localisation and transposition
Name of business	Naziv preduzeća	Ime preduzeća
supervisor	odgovorno lice	nadzornik
Mailing address of business	Sedište preduzeća	Adresa preduzeća
Business telephone	Broj telefona	Broj poslovnog/ službenog telefona
When is your scheduled payday?	Datum isplate ličnog dohotka	Kada po rasporedu isplaćejete lični dohodak?
Address where work performed if not main address	Mesto obavljanja delatnosti ako je van sedišta	Adresa gde se posao obavlja ako to nije glavna adresa preduzeća
Has company filed for bankruptcy?	Da li je u preduzeću pokrenut stečajni postupak?	Da li je preduzeće podnelo zahtev za bankrot?
still in business	obavlja svoju delatnost	još uvek u poslu
Don't know	nepoznato	Ne znam

4. Analysis[10]

SL: Has company filed for bankruptcy?
TL: Da li je u preduzeću pokrenut stečajni postupak?

1) The technique of localisation:

The law in the USA (the conceptual domain of the SL), the part governing debtor/ creditor relationships, i.e. "Debtor-Creditor Law", stipulates that a company, unable to settle debts with creditors, pledgees and government authorities, such as Internal Revenues, National Securities, etc., has to file for bankruptcy to the bankruptcy court. What follows is the procedure known as the bankruptcy procedure handled by an insolvency lawyer, who is supposed to handle and manage the bankruptcy procedure for the company. "Has company filed for bankruptcy?".

In the Serbian law (the conceptual domain of the TL), it is written that the bankruptcy procedure is initiated by the pledgee, trustee or the debtor, the last one less commonly, though. The pledgee or the creditor submits a claim to the court when they believe the debtor is insolvent and thus unable to settle debts. The bankruptcy court appoints a receiver, i.e. an appointed court representative to proceed with the procedure. However, the court also appoints a so-called Pledgees Assembly (Skupština poverilaca).

The essential difference, referring to the problem of equivalence tackled in this article, may be seen in the fact that the American company files for a rescue procedure, that is for professional help to save the company, preserve its assets and most of all provide further employment for their workers. Unlike that, the bankruptcy procedure in

[10] Since a detailed analysis of all the illustrated phrases and words would exceed the suggested scope for an article like this, only the analysis of the most illustrative example shall be provided here.

Serbia is a liquidation process, with as few painful consequences as possible. Usually, privileged creditors get paid whereas everybody else's faith is rather uncertain.

Obviously that is the reason why this difference should be reflected in the translation. Of course, there is the argument that the meaning of the SL conceptual domain should be preserved in the TT. However, it is questionable whether the readership addressed with the TT will be aware of the fact that bankruptcy in the USA does not necessarily involve liquidation. The translation of the question in the SL with an equivalent question in the TL may only seem awkward to the TL readership.

2) The technique of transposition:

In addition to the technique of localisation, transposition was applied in the above illustrated example to aid the translator to resolve the problem of equivalence on the level of grammar. The question in the SL is active, whereas the question in the TL is passive. The model of conceptualising in the culture of the SL is based on the fact that a company actively participates in the bankruptcy procedure by initiating it and by expressing the wish to save it. This notion is translated by using the model of conceptualising in the culture of the TL based on the fact that somebody else initiates the procedure, i.e. the liquidation with the only aim to satisfy the pledgees, trustees and creditors. A translation of the SL grammar structure with an equivalent TL grammar structure would actually distort the meaning.

CONCLUSION

It might seem that SPOT, as illustrated in this article, is quite simplified and presented from one point of view only. It goes without saying that this problem has yet to be discussed. Since the theory of translation itself was acknowledged as a discipline in linguistics only a few decades ago, theorists are most likely to deal with it in the future in much greater detail. Therefore, suggestions and solutions for the successful realisation of problematic translations will most probably be offered in the near future. Localisation and transposition are two possible strategies based on the cogno-cultural dimension in translation, which is open to various other approaches.

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EKVIVALENCIJA I KOGNITIVNO-KULTURNA DIMENZIJA U NAUČNIM, STRUČNIM I ZVANIČNIM PREVODIMA

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Ekvivalencija je od suštinskog značaja za prevod, ali je u isto vreme i predmet krajnje suprotstavljenih stavova među teoretičarima. Na jednoj strani preovladava mišljenje da je neophodna za prevod, a na drugoj je zastupljen stav da je ili nebitna, ili čak i štetna za prevod. Kada je reč o naučnim, stručnim i zvaničnim prevodima, ekvivalencija je od velikog značaja i može biti jedan od glavnih uzroka za neprecizne i netačne prevode. Ipak dostupne su neke tehnike koje se mogu primeniti kako bi se problem ekvivalencije u naučnim, stručnim i zvaničnim prevodima prevazišao. Ako se naučni, stručni i zvanični tekst analizira sa stanovišta kognitivno-kulturnih modela poimanja i konceptualizacije u izvornom i ciljnom jeziku, prevod takvog teksta postaje jednostavniji.

Ovaj rad ima za cilj da ponudi osvrt na značajna pitanja u vezi sa ekvivalencijom, uvod u kognitivno-kulturni pristup prevodu, a potom i da prikaže dve jednostavne tehnike za uspešnu realizaciju naučnog, stručnog i zvaničnog prevoda upravo sa stanovišta kognitivno-kulturne analize.

Ključne reči: *prevod, ekvivalencija, problem, neprecizni i netačni prevodi*