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**ANALYSIS AND TRANSLATION OF SOME DOCUMENTS FROM ENGLISH INTO
SPANISH AND FROM SPANISH INTO ENGLISH FOR A PUBLIC UNIVERSITY'S
LIBRARY**

Thesis Submitted to Obtain the Bachelor in English

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Abstract

The following investigation refers to the effect of the procedures and methods used to translate the documents *Bioética y Tecnociencia* from Spanish into English and *From 'gender equality and 'women's empowerment' to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development* from English into Spanish for a public university's library. For this research the semantic method was chosen for the translation process, since this type of translation aims to render the exact contextual meaning of the original text. Moreover, the researcher was able to work with small units of language through the creation and use of different instruments that were helpful to ease the translation process and have a better understanding of the information present in the source texts. These instruments include a text analysis chart, a color-coding chart, and a glossary for each source text, which were key to identify and analyze the different translation procedures and methods present in both documents. Finally, it was possible to achieve more natural, cohesive and accurate results with the implementation of these techniques.

Resumen

La siguiente investigación hace referencia al efecto de los procedimientos y métodos utilizados para traducir los documentos *Bioética y Tecnociencia* de español a inglés y *From 'gender equality and 'women's empowerment' to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development* de inglés a español para la biblioteca de una universidad pública. Para esta investigación, se escogió el método semántico para el proceso de traducción ya que este método tiene como objetivo reproducir el significado contextual exacto del texto original. Asimismo, la investigadora logró trabajar con unidades de lenguaje pequeñas a través de la creación y el uso de diferentes instrumentos que le ayudaron a facilitar el proceso de traducción y adquirir un mejor entendimiento de la información presente en los textos fuente. Estos instrumentos incluyen una tabla de análisis de texto, una tabla de codificación por colores y un glosario para cada texto fuente, los cuales fueron clave para identificar y analizar los diferentes procedimientos y métodos de traducción presentes en ambos documentos. Finalmente, al implementar estas técnicas, fue posible obtener resultados más naturales, cohesivos y precisos.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTORY FRAMEWORK

Translation is fundamental for mediation and intercultural communication, since it breaks down language barriers. Several fields like science, academic research, business, medicine, management, and education require the use of translation to have something understood, accomplished, or proved taking into consideration the social and political background in which the translation takes place. In this chapter, some translation aspects will be developed to provide a clear understanding of the importance of translation for this research. The general and specific objectives are the results to be measured or verified. The justification and antecedents will provide different explanations and points of view that will also be analyzed to support the investigation.

1.1 Problem Statement

Translators can encounter several difficulties in their work since it demands a deep understanding of grammar and culture. Nida in his book *Linguistics, and Ethnology in Translation-Problems* (1945) states: “The person who is engaged in translating from one language into another ought to be constantly aware of the contrast in the entire range of culture represented by the two languages” (pp.2). A language may not have an exact match for a certain action, object, social, or religious practice that exists in another language which is the reason why different cultural backgrounds will always be reflected in the use of language in any present society. Moreover, it is challenging when a translator has to translate a word that has no equivalence in the target language.

The translation process implies difficulties related to ambiguity in meaning, variance, equivalence, contextual or situation meaning, and grammatical meaning. Every language has a defined structure and rules, so translators are often compelled to rearrange, add, or remove source words to communicate effectively in the target language. Consequently, the key question for this research that will be answered in the next chapters is: What is the effect of the procedures and methods used to translate the documents *Bioética y tecnociencia*, from Spanish into English and *From 'gender equality and 'women's empowerment' to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development* from English into Spanish for a public university's library to be used by students and professors of this institution?

1.2 Objectives

1.2.1 General objective

To analyze the effect of the procedures and methods used to translate some documents from Spanish into English and from English into Spanish for a public university's library to be used by students and professors of this institution

1.2.2 Specific objectives

- To translate the documents *Bioética y tecnociencia*, from Spanish into English, and *From 'gender equality and 'women's empowerment' to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development*, from English into Spanish for a public university's library to be used by students and professors of this institution
- To apply various translation techniques to the documents in order to achieve accurate, natural, and cohesive texts
- To evaluate the effect of the translation techniques applied on the documents

- To create a glossary with the most relevant terminology found in both texts

1.3 Justification of the Study

Translation is an ancient activity that has allowed people to acquire and communicate knowledge globally. Without the use of translation, it would be impossible to understand all the information that there is available both online and on written texts. This area of expertise allows people to be aware of different situations of great global impact such as scientific discoveries, changes in politics, or even progress in human rights. Through translation, it is possible to learn about the contributions or repercussions of this information in a way that is better understood by the readers in the target language. Therefore, translation makes possible to analyze, accept, reject, or learn about what is being read.

There are five qualities that a good translator needs to have. The first important characteristic according to Stephanou (2019), is to have extensive skills in both the source and target language. Being native is not always a requirement but having good grammar and spelling skills and being aware of cultural norms and values makes you an exceptional translator. The second important characteristic is writing. Skilled translators will not just translate word for word, they will read and understand the entire context of a written piece, so that it flows as if it was originally written in that language. The third important characteristic is expertise. The linguist should have a full understanding of the industry they are translating for, as well as an awareness of the right terminology associated with this field. The fourth important characteristic is knowledge, that is, staying informed about the latest translation technology and advancements in the linguistic sphere. Finally, there are certain personal characteristics that will help a translator to succeed. As a linguist, it is critical to maintain organization skills, patience, the ability to handle stress, and discipline.

An important area within translation is academic translation. Through academic translation, new knowledge has been made accessible to professors, students, and researchers who could not read texts in their original language. However, today, it is uncommon for foreign-language texts, at least in the humanities and social sciences, to be translated to English, while English, still considered the language of science, is a must for all non-English speaking academics. In this way, English-speaking researchers find themselves at a disadvantage because they cannot always access the complete existing body of research in a particular field, not all of which may be in their language.

For this academic translation project, several magazine articles with different emphasis were selected from the Mariana Campos library at the Universidad Nacional of Costa Rica. These texts are already available to professors, students, and researchers involved with this public university. The documents will be used to produce a reliable translation from English into Spanish and from Spanish into English that will then be provided to the institution. The goal is for the users of the Mariana Campos library of the Faculty of Exact and Natural Sciences, to be able to access these texts in a language they can understand. The translated documents may be used in class, and for constant instruction of the students and professors of this institution who do not speak the language in which they were originally written.

To translate the texts, the semantic translation method will be used. This method was created by Peter Newmark, who was one of the main figures in the founding of the translation process. Semantic translation aims to transmit the exact contextual message present on the source text. The documents that will be used include information about psychology, medicine, bioethics, and gender equality. Therefore, there is terminology that has to be translated semantically.

1.4 Antecedents

Antecedents provide information about previous investigations that were carried out, which are related to the topic selected for a research paper. Moreover, they are useful to get to know different authors' point of view, their methodologies, and results. In addition, antecedents present information in a synthesized way so that a researcher can be clear on the aspects that have been addressed, the ones that remain to be explored, and define a direction for the project. For this research paper historical, international, and national antecedents will be analyzed and used as a reference in order to define a starting point for the investigation.

According to Gabriela Palermo on her monograph: "The translator's role as a cultural mediator in the process of intercultural communication" for the University of Acongagua (2011), translation is such an ancient activity that its exact origins are unknown. On the first book of the Bible, Genesis, the story about Babel's Tower is told and it is affirmed that God confused the languages of the world. At this time, tradition locates the origin of translation due to the fact that intercultural communication did not exist previously because of a shared language. As translation was present on the origins of the world, it has also been present in certain moments in history. In the East, on year 1790 B.C, there were scribes who worked and translated several languages for Hammurabi, king of Babylon. They were Hittite translators who translated from Egyptian into Aramaic, and they conformed a caste of political caste with honorary titles such as princes. In the year 1799 A.D, the Rosetta Stone is found in Rachid, Egypt. This stone dates from the third century and records a decree in honor of King Ptolemy the 5th in three different languages. The first section is expressed in hieroglyphs, the second part in Demotic (popular language used in Egypt), and the third section in Greek. This black tile was vital to be able to interpret and translate the hieroglyphs that had been impossible to understand for

centuries. In Asia, Buddhists required their supporters to learn the word of the Buddha in their own language. Consequently, in the 5th century with the expansion of Buddhism in China, a translation center was created in Luoyang China. The center adopted a rigorous method: a Buddhist sutra reader read a text and commented it in that language, another sage repeated it in Chinese and a scribe took the version.

This school faced a translation problem that has carried over to modernity: cultural adaptation. Buddhist concepts were very difficult to translate because they belonged to a completely different world of thought than the Chinese philosophical tradition. The Luoyang translators had two options: the first was to explain the meaning of the philosophical terms in the glosses, and the second one was to use a Chinese term that was the closest to the original. Palermo's monograph mentions some challenges that have historically arisen in translation and its development throughout the years. Some of these challenges are still present in translation nowadays, but different techniques have been created to translate according to each type of text. The text also mentions the relationship between language and culture, and how the Renaissance was a time of progress thanks to the invention of the printing press. This invention allowed literary works to be translated into modern languages, it also promoted translation to be included in educational facilities and the creation of different types of dictionaries.

In 2014, Ariane Marie Harrison wrote a thesis about Technical Translation of Support Documents required in "Aduana Express Aereo" Guatemala City, for the School of Linguistic Sciences of the University of San Carlos of Guatemala. This project mentions how commercial translation developed through different eras, and also the role and competencies of a professional translator. An explanation about the different fields of translation can also be analyzed. Aside of commercial translation, Harrison mentions scientific, technical, medical, and literary translation

in her investigation. Since Harrison translated documents related to customs, an overview of the history of customs in Guatemala is presented. She concluded that translation has become very important for the development of international trade since the beginning of humanity. Without translation, it would not have been possible to reach the development and globalization that has occurred in recent decades. Furthermore, Harrison mentions that customs records and translation have been linked by law since 1537 to the Bilbao Ordinances, where the translator is given the task of translating documentation that supported the legal provenance of merchandise. The Ordinances also mention interpretation of delegates on the ships and merchandise supervision to be able to control the payments related to taxes in the customs of arrival. Moreover, Ariane concludes that the translation of documents presented at customs offices is very important since at the time of making the delegates' profiles, their knowledge of the English language is not given any importance which makes the goods entry process difficult. Finally, Harrison concluded that with the implementation of a standard format of the original document and its translation model, it will be possible to streamline customs processes and their compliance by law.

In 2014, Herson Wilfredo Cifuentes Cuxún wrote a thesis about The Problem of Literary Translation in Guatemala. This thesis was presented to the School of Linguistic Sciences of the University of San Carlos of Guatemala in order for him to obtain his Bachelor's Degree in Language Sciences with an emphasis on Translation and Interpretation. Within the topics discussed in his investigation, he explains the definition of literary translation and mentions its characteristics, problems, translation processes, and methods. Cifuentes makes reference to literary translation theorists like Eugene Nida, Peter Newmark, and Catford. He also explains the different techniques that can be used in literary translation which are important guides to follow to produce a successful translation. These techniques are adaptation, linguistic extension,

compensation, linguistic comprehension, elimination, and modulation, among others. Finally, Cifuentes explains how a literary translator's profile must be, and he classifies their corresponding competencies for a better understanding.

After his research thesis Cifuentes concludes that literary translation, like any type of translation, may have several problems that can hinder the job of a translator who specializes in literature. He expresses that this type of translation can be more challenging when transferring the message from one language to another, and one reason why is due to the use of collocations. In addition, he concludes that there is a wide variety of translation techniques that can be chosen by a translator according to his own criteria. The technique used will depend on the difficulty level of the literary translation. Additionally, the lack of training or preparation for this type of translation, makes professionals not to dedicate to it because they do not feel capable enough. Finally, Cifuentes concludes that well known translators have developed topics or theories about translation, where many of them have focused on literary translation as a way to support contemporary translators.

In 2016, Monica Kanne carried out a research about Translation Strategies and their Practical Use, which was presented to a university in Norway called Norges Arktiske University. This research thesis refers to challenges in translation due to cultural differences, differences in verbal systems, and linguistic interference. Kanne even studied how gender markers can affect translation into or from Spanish texts into other languages, and also mentioned achieved translation and untranslatability, which are topics that are not commonly discussed. Kanne concluded that despite of having almost twenty years of experience as a translator, there is always something new to learn, new strategies to consider, and new approaches or ways of approaching a new translation. Kanne (2016) expresses that her opinion has always been that

having a solid theoretical base is a great help to achieve an adequate strategy for each type of text.

After concluding her investigation, she says that she is more convinced than ever that a good knowledge of translation theories and the development of strategies based on a theoretical foundation, as well as an exhaustive knowledge of the differences between the grammatical and cultural systems of different languages are essential when working with all types of translation, especially with more demanding types of texts such as literary texts. Kanne also says that translating a literary text requires, not only a good knowledge of both structural and lexical systems, but also the culture in the geographic areas of the respective languages. Moreover, she mentions that it is essential to know the grammatical system of both languages and be very aware of the differences, possibilities, and limitations of expression that they offer. In addition, a wide and adequate vocabulary is very important but it is not enough to create a translation where most aspects as possible are included on the final result.

In 2008, Carolina Retana Mora carried out an investigation about Translation Memories in the Process and Product of Specialized Translation in Costa Rica. The research project was presented to the Philosophy Faculty of the National University of Costa Rica. Retana did a survey about the process that Costa Rican translators follow regarding preparation and consultation of glossaries, time management, the knowledge they have about the available technology to speed up the previous steps and their use as well. Retana also analyzed the demand of a specific sector of society that requires specialized translations and the characteristics of these types of texts are described. Moreover, the parameters within the definition of quality are formulated for her research are defined. Her goal was to detect which the difficulties that translators face are, both in relation to the process and the type of text, since they are directly

related to the advantages that the use of memory promises. Finally, she presented the results that were obtained based on an empirical study in which the quality of the translations made with and without the translation memory were compared, as well as the time invested in both processes in order to show the strengths and weaknesses of the tool used.

Retana concluded that only a 24% of the Costa Ricans that completed the survey make use of the technological tool proposed on a daily basis, and that a 52% does not know about its existence. Furthermore, she found out that there is not a significant difference when translating with the tool or without it because its use increased the quality of translations only by 0,8%. Finally, she proved that the tool used reduces the time spent on the translation process because the translators that participated on the study were able to translate an average of 46 additional words than without the use of the program.

1.5 Scope

- Determine the text styles present on the documents that will be translated in order to figure out if they are narrative, descriptive, a discussion, or dialogue to provide an accurate translation considering the texts' context and resulting features.
- Examine stylistic scales to identify the audience that the text will be addressed to, as well as the type of vocabulary that will be needed in the translation.
- Recognize if the source text function is expressive, informative, or vocative to reproduce the same effect on the target language.
- Analyze the procedures and methods used when translating documents from English into Spanish and vice versa to write a faithful target text.
- Design a glossary for English and Spanish terms to help the researcher identify relevant and frequent vocabulary and maintain a good time management.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The aim of this chapter is to make the findings of the research project more meaningful while setting a structure for the investigation. Therefore, it will act as a guide about the key information that will be analyzed working as a foundation for the research. Moreover, the information developed will contextualize formal theories as a guide that will stimulate the extension of knowledge for the researcher. Thus, the concepts that will be defined and explained below provide an overview of all the aspects that will be developed throughout the investigation

2.1 Text Analysis

When analyzing a text prior to translating from the source language, the translator can get a clear idea of how the target text should be developed. During this process, translators are able to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills that will need to complete their work. As Seresová and Breveníková (2019) stated:

Translator analysis of internal and external textual factors contributes to the knowledge of external and internal text factors of the source text and enables the translator to better understand the text itself, its function and aim, which the client (one who orders the translation) wishes to achieve, so that the translation fully meets the translation order. (p.1) In other words, through the process of text analysis a translator can evaluate the material that is present on the text written in the foreign language and search for information that can complement their knowledge.

On the research paper “The role of Text Analysis in Translation” that Seresová and Breveníková created in 2019, they divided the analysis of external and internal text factors in

three stages. In the first stage of the translation process, the translator has to read the text rigorously. Seresová and Breveníková (2019) explain that “During the process of understanding the source text, the translator first identifies the meanings of words and their relationships at first in sentences, then in paragraphs and individual parts of the text, and finally throughout the entire text” (p.1). Moreover, by reading the text carefully, translators can link this knowledge to real life situations and understand the text supported by their own intuition.

The second stage of the translation process relates to the analysis of the extratextual factors. Seresová and Breveníková (2019) base the information reviewed on this stage on the knowledge of a very well-known German translologist Christine Nord (1995;2005), who came up with questions like *who?*, *why?*, and *for whom?* in order for translators to have a better idea on how to identify the most important factors that can affect the nature of the source text. Therefore, by finding answers to these questions, it is simpler to be clear on what the purpose of the text is and who the text is directed to. It is important to evaluate the readership since their knowledge may vary according to age, educational level, and cultural background.

On the other hand, the third stage of the translation process involves the analysis of internal textual factors. According to Seresová and Breveníková (2019), Christine Nord (1995; 2005) describes textual factors as the ones that “significantly influence the nature of the source text” (p.2). Moreover, the questions that can be asked are *what?* referring to the content of the text and also *what the text is not?* Another question is *in what words?*, and Nord (1995; 2005) mentions that this question “concerns lexical properties of the text, including morphological ones, and the function of individual parts of words as carriers of information” (p.2). Finally, another question that is mentioned is *what tone?* regarding accent, intonation and rhythm, which can also establish the register that will be used in the target text.

2.1.1 Text Styles

In order to understand the different text styles and their use, it is important to keep a basic definition in mind. Style is defined as “A distinctive manner of expression (as in writing or speech)” (The Merriam-Webster Dictionary, n.d., definition 2). Therefore, style can be present in several areas including literature. According to Tarvi (2009), “text style is commonly defined as an abstract notion closely related to the personal emotional response of the writer and the reader, which can differ significantly” (p.1). The style of a text can vary according to the intention of the author, which defines the text’s word choices or range of vocabulary, the length of a sentence, the frequency of certain conjunctions, and even the register or jargon that will be used.

There are no rules to create text style, but there are several categories in which they can be classified. The most common text styles are descriptive, dialogue, discussion, and narrative. Descriptive texts help the audience create their own idea of what is being read. According to Salter (n.d.), “the author describes something from his own experience and, through careful choice of words and phrasing, makes it seem real. Descriptive writing is vivid, colorful, and detailed” (pp.1). On the other hand, the text style of dialogue involves an actual conversation where two parts exchange ideas and opinions. Then, a discussion type of text involves a question in an open and usually informal debate of thoughts. In addition, a narrative is a story that is being told and it describes events or experiences in detail. Moreover, the style present on a text is linked to the author’s expression, so it is key to identify it before beginning a translation work as this helps a translator optimize time and select the most appropriate translation method.

2.1.2 Stylistic Scales

The stylistic scale of a text is one of the main aspects that needs to be analyzed by a translator in order to identify the type of vocabulary that will be used in his or her work.

Heylighen and Dewaele (1999) cite Bell (1984, 1987) to explain that “Stylistic variation results from the fact that different people express themselves in different ways, and that the same person may express the same idea quite differently when addressing different audiences, using different modalities, or tackling different tasks” (pp.4). As the stylistic scale is based on the readers that the text will be addressed to, Peter Newmark (1988) suggests that a translator “May try to assess the level of education, the class, age, and sex of the readership if these are ‘marked’” (p.13). By doing this, it is easier to avoid making mistakes when selecting either a formal or colloquial register. Moreover, Newmark (1988) states that “This will help you decide on the degree of formality, generality (or specificity) and emotional tone you must express when you work on the text” (p.13).

2.1.2.1 Scale of Formality

It is common to find a distinction between formal and informal manners of expression in both written and spoken languages. The Cambridge Dictionary defines *formality* as: “Something that the law or an official process says must be done” (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d., definition 1) and as a “Formal and polite behaviour” (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d., definition 2). Therefore, both formal and informal speeches are associated with a specific choice of grammatical arrangements and vocabulary. However, these definitions provide only an idea of when to use this type of vocabulary or what a formal situation actually is, but it does not specify the words that must be used or the categories that there are within the scale of formality.

In 1988, Peter Newmark divided the scale of formality in his work *A Textbook of Translation*. He came up with eight different categories which are: officialese, official, formal, neutral, informal, colloquial, slang, and taboo. The most formal type of text is the one that contains an officialese formality, which is usually used for laws that are already imposed or

governmental documents, so it is not commonly used by the majority of the population. The next one is the official formality, that is still formal but a little bit easier to understand. Then the formal texts are longer because they require a more complex language since they are more often used in official, business, and academic documents.

On the other hand, neutral texts which are in the middle of the scale, use a type of language that is comprehensible to everybody no matter the education level. The next one on the scale is informal that is similar to neutral, but it uses vocabulary that belongs to a lower level of education or used in simpler sentences. Colloquial is often used among people who know each other like friends or family members, so it is used by the majority of the population and does not pay much attention to correct grammatical structures or errors. Slang is not only informal but vulgar, so it is directed to specific groups of society. Finally taboo, which is defined by the Cambridge Dictionary as: “Something that you should not say or do because people generally think it is morally wrong, unpleasant, or embarrassing” (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d., definition 1). Therefore, it is usually avoided since it will most likely not be well received by the audience.

2.1.2.2 Scale of Generality or Difficulty

The scale of generality or difficulty is used to establish the level of complexity that is present in a document. This scale was divided in six categories by Newmark (1988) which are: simple, popular, neutral, educated, technical, and opaquely technical. Starting by simple, it has a very low level of complexity, so it uses terminology with low difficulty. The next one is popular, which means that the context of the document contains daily life vocabulary. The third one in the scale is neutral and it has an intermediate level of difficulty, so it is not too simple nor too complex. Then the educated level of complexity is found on texts that are used for instructional purposes like in schools or universities. The fifth one is technical, which starts introducing terms

that are more related to a specific range of expertise, so it contains information that is no longer comprehensible by all readers. Finally, texts that contain an opaquely technical level of complexity are only understood by an expert who is familiar with terminology related to a specific area.

2.1.2.3 Scale of Emotional Tone

As in verbal communication, tone can also be present in writing and it conveys the author's attitude towards the topic. Delfino (2020) mentions that "just like tone of voice, tone in writing gives much more context beyond the words used. It can reveal intention or conceal it" (What is tone in writing? pp.1). The scale of emotional tone is divided in four main categories by Newmark (1988). The first category is intense, and it focuses on using intensifiers to transfer a message. According to Collins Dictionary: "An intensifier is a word such as 'very' or 'extremely' which you can put in front of an adjective or adverb in order to make its meaning stronger" (Collins Dictionary, n.d., definition 1). The second category is warm, which focuses on conveying a message in a gentle way that makes the audience feel comfortable. Next is the factual category that is related to facts and certainty, and some examples can be "significant", "presentable" and "considerable". Moreover, these words may convey the message in a colder manner, but they still remain as a gentle way of expression. Finally, understatement transmits a negative or pejorative meaning or tone with the words like "Not...undignified."

2.1.3 Text Function

The main function of a text is to communicate in a meaningful way to the readership. Moreover, Christiane Nord (2005) defines text function as "The communicative function, or the combination of communicative functions, which a text fulfils in its concrete situation of production/reception" (p.77). Therefore, a translator needs to have knowledge about the

communicative goals that each text aims to achieve in order to convey the same message in an accurate way. Additionally, Newmark (1988) took Bühler's Functional Theory of Language (1934) as his theoretical basis in which Bühler used to explain what the main purposes of using language are. This theory was adapted by Newmark (1988) and he expresses that, according to Bühler (1934), there are three main functions of language that are: Informative, Expressive and Vocative.

2.1.3.1 Informative

A text with an informative function can relate to any area of knowledge, but it focuses on fact-oriented writing following a standard format. These texts aim to keep the readership well-informed by conveying a message that is based on true situations or even scientific knowledge. In addition, they share information about external situations and do not try to please the reader or their personal point of view. In order to illustrate different categories that are present in the informative function, Newmark (1988) divided it in four different styles that will be reviewed in this chapter. The first style is formal and non-emotive, that is usually used in academic papers, so it includes more technical vocabulary.

The second style is neutral or informal, which is also informative, but it defines some technical terms that are present in textbooks characterized by using the first person. The informal, warm style is the third one and it is used in popular writing like science or art texts that employ simple grammatical structures. The last style is the familiar, racy, non-technical one that is usually found in popular journalism. It is characterized by using shorter sentences, unconventional punctuation, and sometimes even surprising metaphors. In his book, when talking about the informative function Newmark (1988) mentions that "A high proportion of

such texts are poorly written and sometimes inaccurate, and it is usually a translator's job to 'correct' their facts and their style" (p.41).

2.1.3.2 Expressive

Contrary to the informative function, the expressive function does express what the speaker or writer thinks. Newmark (1988) stated that the originator of the statement "Uses the utterance to express his feelings irrespective of any response" (p.39). In other words, the readership is not the main focus. The expressive function was also categorized by Newmark (1988) in three main types. The first type is serious imaginative literature, and it is divided in lyrical poetry, short stories, novels, and plays. Newmark (1988) adds that "lyrical poetry is the most intimate expression, while plays are more evidently addressed to a large audience" (p.39). The next type are authoritative statements, which as the name states are written by authorities or people with a high status and linguistic access. Some examples of authoritative statements can be political speeches, legal documents, and academic texts. Finally, the third type are autobiographies, essays, and personal correspondence. Newmark (1988) says that "These are expressive when they are personal effusions, when the readers are a remote background" (p.39).

2.1.3.3 Vocative

The vocative function focuses on the audience that the text is addressed to creating an effect on them. Newmark (1988) says that he uses the term vocative "In the sense of 'calling upon' the readership to act, think or feel, in fact to 'react' in the way intended by the text" (p.41). Some examples of vocative function can be found in persuasive texts, propaganda, publicity, and popular fiction. The first factor that can be encountered in vocative texts is the relationship between the writer and the readership, like ways to address somebody in a formal or informal

way (*usted, vos, tú*) that can show a relationship of power or equality. In addition, some expressions like ‘please’ can show request or persuasion in some cases. The second factor indicates that the texts should be written in a language that can be understood by the readership right away, which is also something that has to be considered by a translator. However, Newmark states that “Few texts are purely expressive, informative or vocative: most include all three functions, with an emphasis in one of the three” (p.42).

2.1.4 Translation Methods

There has always been different ways to translate texts and as translation studies and new research techniques develop over time, different methods and strategies have changed trying to determine the most adequate or functional ways to translate. Peter Newmark (1988) mentions that in the past “the purpose of the translation, the nature of the readership, the type of text, were not discussed. Too often, writer, translator, and reader were implicitly identified with each other” (p.44). Newmark also states that over time it has always been a dilemma to determine if the best way to translate is literally or freely, so translation methods were created to facilitate this process.

A translation method is the way a particular translation is performed and it affects the whole text, while translation procedures are more often used in smaller units of language like sentences for example. According to Yasmine Kellou (2020), “a method of translation encompasses various techniques and strategies applied at the textual level to transfer a text from a source language into a target language in the light of a translation assignment and a contextual situation of communication” (Methods of Translation, par.1). Regardless of the method that will be used, it is important to choose one prior to translating since each type of translation requires a different translation method depending on the aim of the translation.

2.1.4.1 Semantic translation

Semantic translation is not as free as communicative translation since it aims to transmit the exact contextual message conveyed on the source text. Furthermore, it tries to create a similar feeling or effect than the one the author intended on the original text. Therefore, it is based on the linguistic level of the author rather than the target text or the readership. Peter Newmark (1988) describes semantic translation as personal and individual and he mentions that this method “follows the thought processes of the author, tends to over-translate, pursues nuances of meaning yet aims at concision in order to reproduce pragmatic impact” (p.47). Newmark also believes that a semantic translation is usually inferior to the original text since there is a cognitive and pragmatic loss.

The difference between this translation method and faithful translation is that semantic translation takes more account of the natural sound of the original text. Consequently, Newmark (1988) says “It may translate less important cultural words by culturally neutral third or functional terms but not by cultural equivalents” (p.46). Finally, semantic translation is more often used in expressive texts that include components like unusual syntactic structures, collocations, metaphors, words peculiarly used, and neologisms, so when the translator encounters this type of text their translation is almost literal.

2.1.4.2 Communicative translation

Communicative translation is a flexible method that allows the translator to be creative and provide an interpretation of the source text. Moreover, it focuses on the readership in a way that the outcome can be acceptable and comprehensible for them. As a result, this method is thought to provide a better outcome than the original because it tries to correct and explain texts that are not clearly written. The communicative translation method is normally used on

informative and vocative texts in which the status of the author is not relevant. Therefore, Newmark (1988) explains that “Cultural components tend to be transferred and explained with culturally neutral terms in informative texts; replaced by cultural equivalents in vocative texts” (p.47). Newmark also states that “communicative translation is social, concentrates on the message and the main force of the text, tends to under-translate, to be simple, clear and brief, and is always written in a natural and resourceful style” (p.47-48).

2.2 Translation Procedures

There are several translation procedures that have been used since 1958 when the two French scholars Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelet started exploring the linguistic aspects of translation. They were looking at the actual process of translation and produced their pioneer work named: “Comparative Stylistics of French and English: a Methodology for Translation”, which was the first classification of translation techniques that had a clear methodological purpose at the time. According to Lucía Molina and Amparo Hurtado (2002), Vinay and Darbelet mention seven main processes or procedures to follow in translation.

These procedures are defined based on three levels of style: lexis, distribution, and message, and they were classified in two groups: direct translation and oblique translation. Direct or literal translation occurs when there is an exact structural, lexical, or even morphological equivalence between two languages. According to Vinay and Darbelet (1958), this is only possible when the two languages are very close to each other. Moreover, they also mention that oblique translation occurs when word for word translation is impossible. Both types of translation are divided in subcategories that will be analyzed and explained in this chapter.

2.2.1 Transposition

Grammatical structures tend to be different in every language, therefore in transposition certain parts of speech can change when they are translated. When translating between English and Spanish, for example, English usually has the verb near the beginning of the sentence while Spanish can have it closer to the end. Therefore, it is important that a translator knows about the possibility to replace a word category in the target language properly without altering the meaning of the source text. Transposition offers several ways to translate certain sentences, for example: “He will soon return”, can be translated as: “Volverá pronto,” “Volverá en breve,” or “Pronto volverá.” This means that literal translation is grammatically possible, but it may not sound natural in the target language. Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) referred to transposition as changing a word class without changing meaning, and considered this procedure to be either mandatory or optional. Finally, they refer to the source text as the base expression and the target text as the transposed expression.

2.2.2 Modulation

While transposition shifts grammatical categories, modulation involves a change of perspective in a message to avoid an awkward-sounding translation even though it is grammatically, syntactically, and lexically correct. Modulation becomes useful when trying to render a message in the target text using a different point of view than the one present on the source text. Moreover, this procedure can express a degree of naturalness without omitting the meaning or accuracy in the original text. An example can be found in the English phrase “from cover to cover” which means the whole book, but when translating it into Spanish it sounds more natural to say “desde la primera hasta la última página.” According to Umamaheshwari. J (n.d.), “Through modulation, the translator generates a change in the point of view of the message

without altering meaning and without generating a sense of awkwardness in the reader of the target text” (p.41). Modulation can also be used within the same language to transfer a message in a different way. The expressions “It is easy to translate” and “it is not difficult to translate”, both transmit the same idea or meaning but one expression conveys “easiness” and the other one conveys “the lack of difficulty.” Therefore, by knowing the readership a translator can use modulation to analyze and choose the type of point of view that sounds more natural to transmit a message on the target text.

2.2.3 Omission

Some people think that in order to translate successfully, it is necessary to transfer all of the words that are present in the source text. However, there are certain segments that may load up the target text with foreign elements if included in the translation. Therefore, sometimes it is important and even mandatory to exclude, concentrate, or suppress specific elements in the target language. This process is called omission, and according to Vázquez-Ayora (1977) “It follows the linguistic principle of ‘economy’ and the requirement of ‘naturalness’ of the equivalence that must be found in the target language” (p.361). In addition, Newmark (1981) states that translators are justified if they eliminate redundancy in informational texts that are poorly written, including jargon if it is not used for emphasis. Finally, he also mentions that it is sometimes necessary to omit filler verbs and connecting words that mark continuation or slight contrast at the beginning of a sentence in some languages.

2.2.4 Amplification

Amplification is a process where more words are used or added in the target text in order to re-express an idea or support the meaning of a word that is present in the source text. As defined by Molina and Hurtado (2002), “Amplification occurs when the TL uses more signifiers

to cover syntactic or lexical gaps” (p.500). A good example of amplification can be seen when translating “Yorkshire” into Spanish, which would be “condado de Yorkshire.” This can also happen when translating cultural elements like the word “Ramadhan” in Arabic, which would be translated as “Ramadhan, the Muslim month of fasting” in English. In both cases elements are added to reinforce the sense of the word, so that it can be easily understood by the readership.

Amplification is not limited to a specific grammatical category, but it can also be used for verbs, adverbs, adjectives, pronouns, and prepositions, among others. However, according to Vázquez-Ayora (1977) inexperienced translators have better results when using procedures that require the suppression of elements because they are afraid to “deviate from the lexical meaning.” Nevertheless, he agrees that translation procedures are usually not isolated, but they combine and complement each other. Finally, he states that even though it is a translator’s job to achieve clarity, this does not mean that everything has to be explained, since amplification can be used to add and not to inflate style.

2.2.5 Explicitation

Explicitation is a procedure that introduces precise details into the target text to provide clarification. This is another type of expansion procedure that is used to express what is implicit in the context of the source language. As mentioned by Vázquez-Ayora (1977), the reason why such elements may be implicit can be either due to individual linguistic habits, the characteristics of a specific language, or because the reader is familiar with the original message relating to aspects of their own culture or with the experience that is transmitted. When talking about explaining implicit elements, it does not mean that a translator has to clarify everything because sometimes the intention of the author in the original text is to maintain certain information disguised. Vázquez-Ayora (1977) also mentions that an author uses several resources to cause an

effect in his or her work and these resources have to be respected. In addition, he says that oblique translation seeks to convey the message in a faithful way without losing content to gain form.

Explicitation is required when a message can be misunderstood if it is translated word for word, or when the text might lose meaning in the translation process. Some examples can be illustrated in the following sentences: when translating the phrase “He shook his head” into Spanish, it is necessary to say “Movi6 la cabeza afirmativamente” or “Asinti6 con la cabeza” in order to show what type of head movement the person did and clarify the meaning of the action. Another example can be “living for the moment” which is translated as “Viviendo s6lo para el momento presente” to clarify which moment they are specifically talking about. Finally, certain elements do not have to be clarified in the original text because they are understood by the original reader who is familiar with the extralinguistic aspects. However, the information has to be analyzed by the translator to discern with which elements or scenarios this procedure should be used.

2.2.6 Literal translation

Literal translation, also known as word for word translation, is the direct transfer of a text from the source language into the target language. According to Lucía Molina and Amparo Hurtado (2002), “Literal translation occurs when there is an exact structural, lexical, even morphological equivalence between two languages” (p.499). Moreover, the fact that one sentence can be translated literally among languages does not mean that all sentences throughout a text can be translated literally. For example, when translating sentences like: “Los traductores experimentados est6n trabajando duro para entregar el proyecto a tiempo” into English, the result would be almost the same: “The experienced translators are working hard to deliver the project

on time”, both sentences look very similar but the words “experienced” and “translators” are inevitably reversed.

Some scholars also believe that literal translation can be used in a more precise way when translating between similar languages. Walinski (2015) states that “In practice, literal translation occurs most commonly when translating between two languages of the same family, such as French and Italian, and works most efficiently when they also share the same culture” (p.60). Walinski (2015) also states that “this procedure is among preferred ways of translating in those functional contexts where more emphasis is laid on preserving the verbatim meaning of the original text than attaining stylistic elegance” (p.60). Nevertheless, literal translation works only in certain situations depending on the sentence structures or idiomatic ways to express meaning used or required in each language.

2.2.7 Punctuation changes

Punctuation has a major role when forming logical sentences and communicating accurately in any written form. Moreover, every language has a different grammatical structure which a translator must be familiar with in order to produce a reliable and comprehensible text. A reader needs to take punctuation marks into consideration when interpreting a certain text for translation in order to avoid misunderstandings. Therefore, translation cannot depend only in vocabulary since it must transfer the correct use of punctuation marks in order to communicate the author’s intended meaning. Certainly, it is not always possible to use the same punctuation marks in the target text as the ones that were used in the source text. In the study written by Mohaged (2012), he states that punctuation marks have two main functions:

- Grammatical: They show where the boundaries are meant to be between segments of larger statements, and how segments of text are meant to relate to each other.

- Rhetorical: They show the emphasis or tone the writer wants to give to a word or word-group. (p.3-4)

This research paper focuses on translation from English into Spanish and vice versa, so some punctuation changes between both languages will be briefly analyzed following the information published by César Dávila Pérez in 2016. Starting with the full stop, the author mentions that it is used in both languages to mark the end of a sentence or in abbreviations. The full stop is more commonly used in English because Spanish has more connectors, subordinate clauses and punctuation marks that substitute the full stop. Another interesting example is seen in numbers. English uses a comma to separate numbers in thousands and a period to separate decimals, while in Spanish it is the other way around. Furthermore, the colon is another punctuation mark that can be used in both languages to start a list or to cite. However, in Spanish a lowercase is used after the colon while English uses a capital letter instead. The comma can be used in any language to number a list of words, but English uses it before “and” and “or” while in Spanish this is omitted. On the other hand, Spanish uses a comma before “because” or “but” and English does not. Furthermore, semicolons separate two ideas in two different phrases, but sometimes English uses a dash instead of a semicolon. Another punctuation mark that is more commonly used in English than in Spanish is the dash, and it usually helps to add information while Spanish uses a comma instead. English often uses dashes for age, prefixes and relationships like: ex-wife. Capital letters also vary in both languages because English uses capital letters with days of the week, months of the year, and nationalities while Spanish does not. In addition to these examples, English uses capital letters every time the pronoun “I” is used while Spanish does not. Finally, Spanish is well-known for the use of exclamation and question marks at the beginning and at the end while in English they are used only at the end.

2.3 Glossaries

Terminology management is part of the daily tasks that are present in several professional fields, both academic and commercial. Therefore, challenges may arise when trying to meet international standardization requirements if the use of guides is not encouraged and applied accordingly. The lack of appropriate tools can lead to a less precise use of specialized language, creation of incorrect terms, and hinder fluent communication. Through the creation and use of glossaries, terminology management can be streamlined and the use of available resources to meet different needs can be ensured.

Glossaries are an important tool in translation to help ensure that the correct terms will be consistently used throughout the text if more than one resource is used in the translation process. Moreover, these guides shorten the time it takes to translate documents and reduce the total cost of translation on a long-term view. Furthermore, glossaries include key terminology in the source language and approved translations for the terms in the target languages that will be used and clarified to the readership. In addition to definitions, a glossary may also provide context, part of speech, and approval or review dates. Consequently, a glossary is a key tool that can be used to make sure that the translated material meets all quality requirements.

Language is very flexible and there are many different ways to refer to the same terms, so with the creation of their own glossaries translators can keep essential information handy where they can look up the meaning of a specific term that might come up repeatedly. Furthermore, a translator may spend more time researching background information than with the actual translation, so narrowing down terminology can reduce the total time spent in the translation process avoiding unnecessary research or effort. Once the information needed is identified, a glossary can be created according to the requirements and users of each translation project.

Gapper (n.d.) mentions that when creating a glossary, there are three important aspects that must be considered:

- To determine the glossary's nature: Who is the glossary for? How is the intended user? What will the glossary be primarily used for? Where and in what circumstances will it be used?
- Define the content of the glossary: A. Which terms can be included? like terms for a specific topic or field, terms that are not found in general dictionaries, terms that are fundamental for the comprehension of the topic like words, expressions, proper names, abbreviations, and so forth. B. Information about each term that can be included in the glossary like a term's grammatical category, definition or explanation, equivalent(s) in the source and target languages, idiomatic expressions related to the term, synonyms or antonyms, and so forth. C. Information offered in the glossary for some terms like the use or restrictions, chronological indications, geographical indications, sociological indications, gender, scientific name, commercial name, and so on.
- Define the format: Determine how the terms will be organized, define the order of aspects in each article, specify the type of font, size, and so forth. for each aspect.

(p.76-77)

There is no rule regarding how broad a glossary must be as long as it contains the terms that are relevant for each translation in an alphabetical list with the equivalent in the other language next to them. Translators are free to choose the system that works better for them especially when they are not experts in a certain field and only requires to use the most frequent terms. Gapper (n.d.) also mentions that "It is possible to include all the terms that correspond to a

topic or particular field in an almost exclusive way, whether they are present in other dictionaries or not. If this is not considered convenient (due to the extension for example), there is an option to collect only the terms that are fundamental for the comprehension of the topic” (p.78).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

In order to gather the right information, it is important to have a methodology that will follow the requirements for this investigation about the analysis and translation of documents from English into Spanish and from Spanish into English. Moreover, *methodology* can be defined as: “A system of methods and principles for doing something, for example for teaching or for carrying out research” (Collins Dictionary, n.d., definition 1). According to Goundar (2012), people often confuse research methods and research methodology, and he says that “One of the primary differences between them is that research methods are the methods by which you conduct research into a subject or a topic. On the other hand, research methodology explains the methods by which you may proceed with your research” (Research Methodology and Research Method, pp. 1).

Through the use of a data recollection method, a researcher can analyze the information in a systematic order in a way that the results can be interpreted appropriately. This chapter is to be used as a tool to guide the user through the process that was followed during the research. In addition, the researcher will expand on defining the three different approaches of investigation processes. Moreover, other key points like the type of research design, the sources used, the different categories in which the text is analyzed, the instruments, and process of data collection and analysis will be detailed.

3.1 Research Approach

In order to understand the different types of approaches in investigation, it is important to have a clear idea on what research is and why it is used. Palmer and Bolderston (2006) define *research* as “The systematic investigation into and the study of materials, sources, and so on. in

order to establish facts and reach new conclusions” (p.16). A researcher can decide the approach that better fits their investigation based on the topic and the results to be achieved. Research approaches can be divided in three different types which are qualitative, quantitative, and mixed. The qualitative research can identify and define an area of interest for the investigation and produce descriptive information based on observable behaviors. In addition, it seeks to study and describe the topic in order to create a theory based on perspective. Palmer and Bolderston (2006) mention that:

Qualitative research is an interpretative approach, which attempts to gain insight into the specific meanings and behaviors experienced in a certain social phenomena through the subjective experiences of the participants. The researcher builds abstracts, concepts, hypotheses, or theories by asking such questions as “why”, “how” and “in what way”.
(p.16)

This approach uses qualitative data instruments that can be implemented depending on the purpose of the study and the researcher’s ability to use them effectively. Interviews for example guide a conversation between a researcher and a participant to collect relevant information. Group discussions gather a range of data related to behavior, activities, and experiences in a relatively short period of time. Another instrument can be creating an observation checklist, which contains a list of items an observer examines in the participant’s behavior. Finally, a documentary analysis guide can also be used to gather information from existing documents to answer a specific research question.

On the other hand, quantitative methods work with the results obtained. Moreover, it is a conclusive method that investigates the *what*, *where*, and *when* of decision making. Quantitative research follows a rigid and sequential process, since it cannot skip any phase in order to avoid

affecting the numerical data collected that is often presented in tables and graphs. It is also based on statistics, analyzing the relationship between variables. Therefore, by observing, experiencing, analyzing, and testing a researcher can deliver an exact outcome. There is also a mixed method which involves merging the two investigation approaches that were described previously. Moreover, it depends on the results to be achieved since each methods pursues different goals and use different designs. For the purpose of this investigation, the qualitative method will be used. This is due to the interpretative nature of the research and the analysis of the procedures and techniques that will be used.

3.2 Research Design

The research design defines the structure of the research project since it is a strategy to obtain the desired information. According to Kabir (2016), “Research is a scientific approach of answering a research question, solving a problem or generating new knowledge through a systematic and orderly collection, organization, and analysis of information with an ultimate goal of making the research useful in decision-making” (p.2). This means that among the main goals of the plan used, it also aims to resolve the problem statement that was defined at the beginning of the research project. Thus, the method is selected based on the objectives and the time that the researcher has available.

The research process in any field involves three main processes. The first process is data collection, that refers to observe, measure, and record information. The second process is data analysis, which refers to organizing the collected data to find out its significance. Then, the third process is report writing, that conveys information contained in the research to the audience. This investigation will use a descriptive research design, which tries to collect data by asking questions, observing and analyzing information about the subject of study. Kabir (2016) also

mentions that descriptive research “Deals with the question ‘what is’ of a situation. It concerns with determining the current practices, status or features of situations” (p.8). The researcher will try to resolve the research question through an investigation that involves reading books, academic thesis or articles, consulting dictionaries, and also translating and analyzing documents.

3.3 Information Sources

An information source can be anyone or anything that provides information. There are three types of information sources which are primary, secondary, and tertiary. The primary sources allow researchers to get a close look to original ideas events and empirical research. For this investigation, the primary sources that will be used are books that are less than fifteen years old. Secondary sources analyze, review or summarize information that was found in primary resources or other secondary sources. The secondary sources that will be used in this investigation are mainly academic articles and thesis. Finally, the tertiary sources provide basic information in order to understand the research topic. For the purpose of this research, the tertiary sources will be mainly dictionaries and glossaries.

3.4 Analysis Categories

The analysis categories derive from the specific objectives of the investigation, which will be briefly mentioned in this section. The definitions of translation, translation methods, color coding, text analysis and glossary will be established. Consequently, the research will be accomplished by creating instruments that will be key for the investigation.

3.4.1 Translation

According to Nida and Taber (1968) “translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in terms of meaning

and secondly in terms of style” (p.12). Nevertheless, this process requires careful evaluation of several elements and involves many grammatical and lexical adjustments.

3.4.2 Translation Procedures

Newmark (1988) explains that unlike translation methods, which relate or focus on whole texts; translation procedures are used for smaller units of language. He also mentions that translation procedures will always depend on several contextual factors, which will be analyzed in this research. However, translators must translate ideas and feelings rather than words as separate units of language.

3.4.3 Translation Methods

Translation methods and procedures focus on the different challenges that a translator may encounter, and how his or her competences lead them to make the best choice. The translation method used is related to the type of text, and each text requires the usage of different techniques. Kellow (2020) stated that “each translation type requires a different translation method” and she adds that “each type is defined by various criteria that go from textual typology, the intent of the original message, to the contextual situation of communication” (p.1)

3.4.4 Color Coding

The color-coding is a system that will help the researcher and the readers to identify and categorize the different translation procedures that are present on the text units, so their application can later be evaluated and justified. The process consists of assigning a different color to each translation procedure and creating a chart made by two columns. One column will have the name of the translation procedure, and the other column will have the selected color that will be used to identify each procedure in the text.

3.4.5 Glossary

A glossary is a list of definitions stated in alphabetical order that allows the readers to search for technical terms to have a better understanding of unfamiliar words they might encounter in a document. This index is also an important tool for the translator because it will facilitate future translation processes involving industry-specific terms. A glossary keeps the translation more consistent, since it is a way to have a record of words that will preferably be translated the same way in the future.

3.4.6 Text Analysis

Through text analysis, the translator is able to become familiar with the source text and its function, style, scale, and difficulty. It is also possible to identify the meanings of words and their relationship with the entire text in order to transfer meaning accurately. This can be achieved by reading, understanding, and analyzing the source text to be able to adapt it to the readership's culture in the target language.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

There are several data collection instruments that will help the researcher achieve the objectives of the investigation and find a solution to the problems proposed. The color-coding system, as mentioned before, will be used to identify the different translation procedures that are present on the documents that will be translated, by analyzing the data gathered. A text analysis chart and glossary will be the other two data collection instruments employed in the analysis, and will serve as a reference for the translator and readers.

3.5.1 Color Coding

For this research, the following translation procedures will be considered on the color-coding chart: transposition, modulation, omission, amplification, explicitation, literal translation,

and punctuation changes. This procedure will be applied to 30 paragraphs that will be extracted from the translated texts (15 paragraphs from the English text and 15 paragraphs from the Spanish one). Each paragraph will have approximately 100-150 words so that the analysis can be concise. Then, each procedure will be paired with its corresponding color and will be displayed on a seven-columns chart as a guide to identify their presence on the translated paragraphs selected.

Table 1

Translation Procedure	Color assigned
Transposition	
Modulation	
Omission	
Amplification	
Explicitation	
Literal Translation	
Punctuation Changes	

Table 1 shows each translation procedure with its corresponding color in the color-coding chart.

Source: Researcher's own creation

3.5.2 Text Analysis Chart

This instrument intends to classify the texts that will be translated into several factors on a chart form. Using the chart as a guide, the translator will have a better idea of the difficulty of the text and will know how to translate it according to the type of audience. The process to create the chart is carried out in three steps. First, the text analysis chart is divided into three columns.

The first column will have the factors to be analyzed, which are: text style, text function, scale of formality, scale of generality or difficulty, scale of emotional tone, and translation method.

Second, the next two columns will have the titles of the selected texts (English and Spanish accordingly) with their corresponding analysis. Third, the type of text analysis will be selected and written down in the chart. Text styles include: descriptive, dialogue, discussion and narrative. The text function comprises: expressive, informative, or vocative. The scale of formality's categories are: officialese, official, formal, neutral, informal, colloquial, slang, or taboo. The scale of generality or difficulty can be divided into: simple, popular, neutral, educated, technical, and opaquely technical. The categories present on the scale of emotional tone are: intense, warm, factual, and understatement. Also, the translation method can be semantic or communicative.

Table 2

Text Analysis	From 'gender equality and 'women's empowerment' to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development	Bioética y Tecnociencia
Text Style		
Text Function		
Scale of Formality		
Scale of Generality or Difficulty		
Scale of Emotional Tone		

Translation Method		
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Table 2 shows the factors in which the texts will be analyzed before being translated.

Source: Researcher’s own creation

3.5.3 Glossary

The last instrument is a glossary that will be created by the translator to register relevant terminology. This glossary will be useful when readers come across unfamiliar terms. In addition, it will serve as a database that will facilitate the translator’s future translations providing the information of the utterance in doubt. There will be one glossary for each document in its respective language and it will be listed in a chart in alphabetical order. The chart will contain the source language, target language, grammatical category, and definition.

Table 3

From ‘gender equality and ‘women’s empowerment’ to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development			
Término en el idioma de partida	Término en el idioma de llegada	Categoría gramatical	Definición

Table 3 shows the chart with the factors used to classify the terms and create the Spanish glossary.

Source: Researcher’s own creation

Table 4

Bioética y Tecnociencia			
Term in Source Language	Term in Target Language	Grammatical Category	Definition

Table 4 shows the chart with the factors used to classify the terms and create the English glossary.

Source: Researcher's own creation

3.6 Collection Data Process and Data Analysis

The first step in every translation must be reading the text given. A general reading provides the translator a general view of the main topics discussed, while applying a close reading will help the translator get familiar with the text. By reading carefully, several factors like jargon or other technical words can be identified, and the best technique can be chosen in order to convey an equivalent message in the target language. Next, the translator will identify the text factors to identify the complexity of the text and the type of audience. Once the translations are ready, the translator will review the final documents to check punctuation, accuracy, and naturality. When the translations are carefully revised, the translator will apply the color-coding system and the text analysis chart in the translated version to display the results in the investigation. Finally, the glossary will be added to provide a reference for the translator and the audience, completing the appropriate use of the data collection instruments mentioned.

CHAPTER IV

TRANSLATED DOCUMENTS

This chapter refers to the translations mentioned previously which were developed by the researcher. The first translation is the one from English into Spanish, and the last one from Spanish into English. This translation process was meticulously revised by the investigator and her tutor.

4.1 Translation from English into Spanish

**Desde “Igualdad de Género y Empoderamiento de las Mujeres” a Justicia Global:
Reclamando una Agenda Transformadora para el Género y el Desarrollo**

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El idioma de la “Igualdad de Género” y “Empoderamiento de las Mujeres” fue movilizado por feministas en las décadas de 1980 y 1990 como una forma de introducir los derechos de la mujer en la agenda de desarrollo internacional. Sus esfuerzos pueden declararse un éxito resonante. La industria de desarrollo internacional ha adoptado estos términos plenamente. Desde las ONG internacionales hasta los gobiernos donantes y agencias multilaterales, el idioma de igualdad de género y empoderamiento de las mujeres es una presencia omnipresente y ocupa un lugar de honor entre sus principales prioridades de desarrollo. Sin embargo, este artículo argumenta que el hecho de que estos términos han sido privados de fragmentos conceptuales y políticos compromete su uso como el marco primario a través del cual reclamar derechos y justicia. Examinando críticamente las trayectorias de estos términos en desarrollo, el artículo sugiere que si la promesa de la agenda post-2015 es cumplir con la justicia

de género, se necesitan nuevos marcos que puedan conectarse y contribuir a un movimiento más amplio de justicia global.

Palabras clave: Post-2015, justicia global, igualdad de género, empoderamiento de la mujer.

Introducción

En la cúspide del 2015 nos encontramos en un mundo diferente de aquel en el que se concibieron por primera vez los Objetivos de Desarrollo del Milenio (ODM). El reconocimiento de los logros, particularmente en la educación primaria de las niñas y la representación política de las mujeres, ha ido acompañado de una “profunda preocupación por el progreso general de las mujeres y las niñas en los ODM, el cual se mantiene bajo y desigual, tanto dentro como entre países”. Este progreso entrecortado ha sido un tema de mucho debate a medida que se han intensificado las discusiones sobre la agenda post-2015. En medio de discusiones sobre un objetivo independiente de igualdad de género y empoderamiento de la mujer y la incorporación de la igualdad de género y el empoderamiento de las mujeres, tal vez sea hora de preguntar: ¿esta es realmente la forma correcta de abordar y realizar un esfuerzo concertado para poner fin a la discriminación por motivos de género? ¿Es “empoderar a las mujeres y niñas” e “involucrar a los hombres y niños” (dividir dos géneros en categorías con soluciones universales únicas e ignorar a cualquiera que no se conforme) la forma de crear un mundo más justo para todos?

Sostenemos que la igualdad de género y el empoderamiento de las mujeres son marcos que han llevado a las activistas feministas a un callejón sin salida y las han alejado de una alianza de base más amplia de activistas del cambio social. Ambos se han reducido a palabras de moda que adornan los discursos políticos en los que hay poco o nada del clamor por la igualdad o la equidad que alguna vez fue una parte tan poderosa de la agenda de género. La reflexión crítica de

los esfuerzos feministas para transformar la política y la práctica del desarrollo internacional, ha llevado a una visión mucho más realista de los límites del alistamiento de las instituciones burocráticas (gobiernos, agencias de la ONU, burocracias donantes) en la tarea de transformación social. Esto, a su vez, ha reforzado la importancia de que las bases feministas se organicen como motor de cambio, y de la colectivización y la acción colectiva como contrapunto a los programas neoliberales de “empoderamiento” actuales dirigidos al individuo que se auto-optimiza. También se ha puesto de relieve el lienzo más amplio en el que se lucha por los conflictos de las mujeres, reenfocando la atención tanto en el capitalismo global y las desigualdades que fomenta, como en los modos de organización y resistencia que caracterizan la lucha por la justicia global.

Este artículo se ocupa de hacia donde podrían llevar estas percepciones la “agenda de género”. Iniciamos con una visión crítica de los debates principales sobre género y las ODM. A partir de esto, buscamos trazar una historia del momento presente, siguiendo las trayectorias de la “igualdad de género” y el “empoderamiento de las mujeres”. Luego examinamos el potencial que ofrecen otros marcos para resolver las contradicciones que caracterizan el enfoque actual en “mujeres y niñas” y en “hombres y niños”. Exploramos cómo los conceptos de rendición de cuentas, inclusión y no discriminación podrían ofrecer potencial para recuperar un enfoque transformador en la construcción de alianzas que puedan generar los tipos de cambios estructurales profundamente arraigados necesarios para lograr un mundo más igualitario y más justo.

Igualdad de género y las ODM

La promesa normativa de la Declaración del Milenio, le ofrecía mucho a aquellos que se preocupaban por las desigualdades persistentes y el costo de la discriminación en la vida y

medios de subsistencia de las personas. La declaración comienza expresando la determinación de establecer una “paz justa y duradera” en la que hay “respeto por la igualdad de derechos para todos sin distinción de raza, sexo, idioma o religión”. Se identifican seis valores rectores:

libertad, igualdad, solidaridad, tolerancia, respeto por la naturaleza y responsabilidad compartida.

Juntos, estos valores parecerían ofrecer un enfoque al desarrollo internacional en el que se puedan enriquecer la igualdad de derechos y oportunidades para todos los géneros, justicia social y la capacidad de “apreciar” la diferencia en lugar de “temerle o reprimirla”. Sin embargo, en la traducción de estos principios al idioma y objetivos de la intervención del desarrollo, vimos una reducción extraordinaria a un conjunto de objetivos instrumentalistas. Las críticas de las ODM desde una perspectiva de género, se centran en una serie de temas comunes.

Primeramente, destacan la naturaleza descendiente del proceso de desarrollar los objetivos, el cual tomó lugar entre un puñado de funcionarios de la ONU en Nueva York. Lejos de aquellos que probablemente se verían más afectados por su implementación y, como señala Kabeer, de “muchas de las organizaciones de mujeres que habían participado en las conferencias de la ONU en la década de 1990 y se comprometieron profundamente con los regímenes y principios que habían surgido de ellas”. En segundo lugar, los críticos señalan los límites de la lógica instrumentalista, la cual se adopta en los objetivos y el enfoque de estos últimos en la función que las mujeres y niñas pueden tener dentro de proyectos e iniciativas en lugar de explorar problemas de poder de género: hacer que las mujeres trabajen para el desarrollo en lugar de hacer que el desarrollo funcione para su igualdad y empoderamiento. Adicionalmente, como señalan las feministas, los objetivos no incluyen mecanismos que alienten a los gobiernos a invertir y en monitorear el progreso de la igualdad de género como tal. Hay poco énfasis en abordar los problemas estructurales subyacentes que conllevan a la discriminación y desigualdad, incluyendo

la violencia contra las mujeres y la disminución de los derechos sexuales y reproductivos. Los resultados definidos en estos estrechos términos instrumentalistas podrían lograrse sin hacer mella en las desigualdades existentes. En el Caribe por ejemplo, donde se superó el ODM 3 en la educación de las niñas, hay poca mejoría concomitante en el estado económico de las mujeres.

Los críticos también se han enfocado en el espíritu con el que se desarrollaron los objetivos. El enfoque se basa en la necesidad de regresar a la perspectiva de los derechos humanos y justicia social, que respaldó la Declaración del Milenio, pero se perdió en su traducción a objetivos, metas e indicadores “viables”. Después de todo, los ODM y las Metas de Desarrollo Internacional precedentes (IDT, por sus siglas en inglés) (1996) han sido una plataforma de organización para las prioridades de desarrollo en la década del 2000, pero también estaban destinados a reforzar la trayectoria de compromisos internacionales anteriores realizados en las décadas de 1980 y 1990. Estos incluyen la Cuarta Conferencia Mundial sobre la Mujer de las Naciones Unidas en Beijing (1995), la Conferencia de Río sobre Medio Ambiente y Desarrollo (1992), la Conferencia de Viena sobre Derechos Humanos (1993), la Conferencia de El Cairo sobre Población y Desarrollo (1994), la Cumbre Mundial de Copenhague sobre Desarrollo Social (1995), y la Conferencia de Estambul sobre Asentamientos Humanos (1996).

A diferencia del proceso de los ODM, la palabra de moda para post-2015 es “consulta”. Un sistema que consiste en un Panel de Alto Nivel de Personas Eminentes y una serie de grupos de trabajo, grupos operativos, y órganos de consulta definidos geográfica y temáticamente, se abalanzaron para garantizar la participación de actores externos. Estos incluían a la sociedad civil y empresas privadas. En términos de contenido, los críticos han exigido que se incorporen ahora problemas desatendidos en los ODM actuales. Entre estos se encuentran: el trabajo no remunerado para las mujeres, los derechos sexuales y reproductivos y la violencia contra las

mujeres. Estos esfuerzos de defensa han tenido cierto éxito. En mayo de 2013, el Panel de Alto Nivel de Personas Eminentes, publicó un informe en el que se propusieron 12 objetivos ilustrativos. El objetivo número 2: empoderar a las mujeres y niñas y lograr la igualdad de género, tiene 4 objetivos relacionados con la violencia contra las mujeres, el matrimonio infantil, el derecho a la propiedad para las mujeres y la discriminación. Recientemente, el Grupo de Trabajo Abierto sobre los Objetivos de Desarrollo Sostenible identificó el género tanto como un área de enfoque específica, como un área interrelacionada con varias otras como: erradicación de la pobreza, seguridad alimenticia, agua, energía, salud, educación, empleo y crecimiento económico.

La retórica de la inclusión en lugar de desafiar, ha servido para reformular los discursos dominantes problemáticos y las disposiciones políticas. Por ejemplo, en el discurso de la agenda post-2015, se han hecho compromisos para “garantizar que la lucha por el empoderamiento de las mujeres esté en el centro del proceso internacional”, manteniendo, como piedra angular, para el alivio de la pobreza, el fomento de mercados abiertos así como producir sociedades abiertas. De hecho, esta ecuación es un tema central tanto en el Informe sobre el Desarrollo Mundial (WDR, por sus siglas en inglés) de 2012 sobre Igualdad de Género y Desarrollo como en el WDR sobre empleos de 2013. Si bien mejorar las oportunidades de las mujeres para el empleo formal y el acceso a salarios más altos es indudablemente importante, la igualdad de género puede estimular positivamente el crecimiento económico. Labores recientes han destacado que el vínculo causal es inconsistente y complejo. Tal desorden se olvida claramente en este enunciado.

En segundo lugar, más allá del objetivo independiente propuesto, el enfoque en el empoderamiento de las mujeres y la igualdad de género se desvanece en gran medida, por lo que solo el Objetivo 1 de “Acabar con la pobreza” y el Objetivo 3 de “Proporcionar educación de

calidad y aprendizaje permanente” tienen alguna referencia explícita para las mujeres. De manera consistente, a lo largo del informe, el género está vinculado a un llamado a una mayor recopilación de datos desglosados por sexo. Más importante aún, el Informe del Panel de Alto Nivel de la ONU de 2013 parece ser víctima de la trampa común de concebir el género como algo que se refiere solo a mujeres y niñas y, mientras que el informe del Grupo de Trabajo Abierto de la ONU (2014) incluye a hombres y niños; ambos informes invocan el género como un término descriptivo y no analítico. Relegar el género a una sede descriptiva es una opción atractiva para quienes quieren hablar sobre género en la ausencia de debates reales sobre el poder. Como lo explican Woodroffe y Smeed: “las metas elegidas bajo un objetivo de género deben reflejar un cambio duradero en el poder y las opciones que tienen las mujeres sobre sus propias vidas, en lugar de solo un aumento (a menudo temporal) de oportunidades”.

El tercero es el tema principal elaborado en el resto de este artículo, la nueva agenda sigue estando enmarcada en el lenguaje antiguo. Las feministas y las organizaciones de la sociedad civil han desafiado el discurso del “empoderamiento” y la “igualdad de género” en el marco de los ODM, pero, por lo general, no han llegado a reflexionar sobre cómo estos conceptos han adquirido sus significados. Incluso se han elaborado llamados a un enfoque basado en los derechos para el empoderamiento de las mujeres y la igualdad de género sin deconstruir muchas de las suposiciones inherentes en cómo se discuten e invocan estas ideas. Al hacerlo, sucumben a un presunto consenso sobre lo que significan y a la tentadora comodidad de los mitos de género y las narrativas que se basan en los esencialismos, que a menudo presentan a las mujeres como sujetos que merecen la atención del desarrollo debido a sus cualidades inherentes. Estos discursos describen a las mujeres como más trabajadoras, cariñosas, responsables y conscientes del entorno que los hombres. Las virtudes de las mujeres forman

parte de la narrativa que presenta a las mujeres y niñas como una buena “inversión” para el desarrollo y, cada vez más para la plétora de actores corporativos, cuya llegada al mercado de desarrollo ha tenido un impacto tan significativo en años recientes.

En muchas críticas a los ODM, vemos una asociación discursiva de igualdad y empoderamiento con: representación, justicia, rendición de cuentas y derechos humanos. Sin embargo, estos vínculos se dan muy frecuentemente sin el reconocimiento de las conexiones estructurales y las relaciones de poder que producen situaciones de desigualdad y discriminación. En ausencia de una discusión seria sobre estas conexiones, gran parte de este texto y conversación, aunque suene atractivo, permanece en el nivel de la retórica. La narrativa consecuente a post-2015, aún tiene que alejarse mucho de un discurso de desarrollo familiar más antiguo arraigado en el deseo de ayudar. Se acompaña de una pequeña inspección crítica de lo que tal “asistencia” trae consigo o de la problemática más amplia de las relaciones de poder creadas y sostenidas por el hecho mismo de un aparato de desarrollo internacional en el que algunos países son considerados “donantes” y otros “beneficiarios”. Y, en su énfasis de “pobreza extrema”, este discurso permite que los gobiernos de los países más ricos no se sientan obligados a hacer nada sobre la injusticia social y la pobreza relativa en su propio territorio. Existe en este encuadre una falla abyecta para considerar las implicaciones de los factores estructurales y los procesos globales de poder. La implicación política resultante, en este caso, es la falta de claridad de las referencias a “asociaciones globales”, “entornos propicios” y “cambios transformadores” en los que se habla cómodamente de “empoderamiento de las mujeres” e “igualdad de género”, sin ninguna disonancia aparente.

Oímos hablar sobre el empoderamiento económico de las mujeres y sobre el “levantamiento” de las comunidades invirtiendo en las mujeres, con escasa consideración de las

barreras estructurales para la autorrealización individual de las mujeres, por no hablar de su movilización colectiva. En efecto, las mujeres “empoderadas” que se nos muestran en estas narrativas no están sujetas a las relaciones de género; ellas son “sacadas” de las mismas redes de relaciones sociales, culturales y económicas que producen y mantienen esas desigualdades y discriminaciones. Sin embargo, estas representaciones van acompañadas de otras en las que lo social y cultural cobra tanta importancia que se convierte en el foco de atención principal: considere por ejemplo, el enfoque dominante en los discursos de desarrollo popular en el Norte global de las víctimas de la trata, el matrimonio temprano y la circuncisión femenina.

Por tanto, las mujeres se convierten en heroínas o víctimas. Donde la “igualdad de género” destaca en todo, esto sigue siendo un punto cuestionable. La niebla del consenso que hace posible que se murmure en un suspiro “igualdad de género y empoderamiento de las mujeres”, contribuye a debilitar nuestro entendimiento sobre cómo podría ser una agenda verdaderamente transformadora. En última instancia, se necesita una transformación de paradigma para recuperar la agenda de género y abordar “las estructuras subyacentes de restricción que dan a estas desigualdades el carácter sistémico y la persistencia en el tiempo”. Para llegar ahí, necesitamos un interrogatorio analítico y político de los variados significados que estos términos han adquirido a lo largo del tiempo.

La trayectoria del “género” hacia el desarrollo

El término “género” ingresó al mundo de las ciencias sociales desde dos puntos de origen muy diferentes. El primero fue el trabajo de los sexólogos en la década de 1950, quienes se estaban enfrentando a lo que se conoció como “disforia de género”: personas que experimentan que su identidad esencial está en conflicto con los cuerpos en los que nacen. John Money fue el primero en usar el concepto de “identidad de género” para definir ese sentido de disonancia que

reportaban las personas transgénero. Para los “transexuales”, como se les conocía en ese entonces, la identidad de género era ontológicamente anterior a la anatomía. Ellos buscaron transiciones que realinearán sus cuerpos para que coincidieran con su identidad. El cuerpo maleable se convirtió en el lugar de prácticas que afirmaban una noción esencial de género: formas de modificación corporal emprendidas por muchas mujeres, como la eliminación de vello facial y corporal: el uso de cosméticos, ropa, y medidas más invasivas como la cirugía estética y el uso de hormonas sexuales. En este dominio del discurso en aquel momento, las características de la diferenciación sexual eran algo que los individuos podían modificar para que encajaran con su sentido interno de género.

El segundo punto de origen, el que se vio influenciado entre los científicos sociales involucrados en el desarrollo internacional a través del trabajo fundamental de las teóricas feministas de la década de 1970, planteó la relación inversa entre “sexo” y “género”. En este discurso, el “sexo” era la base sobre la cual se trazaba el “género”: el “género” era maleable y el “sexo” se denominaba “biológico” y se trataba como algo fijo. De ahí surgió el lema entonado en muchas capacitaciones sobre género: “el género es la relación construida socialmente entre mujeres y hombres”. Para las feministas de la segunda ola, fue la posibilidad de modificar el género (las creencias, comportamientos y prácticas asociadas con la diferencia de género y las relaciones de poder asociadas con el desarrollo de esas diferencias en la sociedad) lo que impulsó la acción. Proporcionó una base para el análisis crítico colectivo de los efectos de la naturalización del privilegio masculino, así como para el activismo destinado a derrocar la supremacía masculina y el sexismo, discriminación e injusticia asociados con ella.

Lo que ofrecía el sexo/género binario era un conjunto de afirmaciones politizadas con las que presentar argumentos a favor de una mayor igualdad entre hombres y mujeres. No había

nada “natural”, argumentaban las feministas, en la persistente desventaja de las mujeres en todo el mundo. Tampoco había nada necesariamente “natural” en la asociación de las mujeres con el trabajo de criar a los hijos y mantener a sus familias. Como mostró el trabajo fundacional de Edholm et al: de las tres dimensiones de la reproducción (biológica, social y la reproducción de la fuerza de trabajo), solo una tenía conexiones necesarias en lugar de contingentes con las mujeres. Se argumentó que los “roles de género” eran construcciones sociales y la evidencia antropológica proporcionaba material para promover el poderoso argumento político de que, como el “género” estaba construido social, cultural e históricamente, se podía reconstruir activamente y remodelarse en formas alternativas, más liberadoras e igualitarias.

La distinción de sexo/género, le brindó a las feministas británicas y estadounidenses un imán metafórico que unía fragmentos dispares en dos categorías distintas: “mujeres”, y “hombres”. Esto les permitió conservar la categoría de “mujer” como principio organizativo fundamental para la promoción y el activismo. Sin embargo, como un imán, el concepto de “sexo” polarizó el “género”, creando categorías opuestas que parecían repelerse mientras alejaban lo que era similar y acentuaban lo que era diferente. Las “identidades de género” se presentaban como opuestas, enmarcadas en términos de lo que el otro no era; los puntos en común entre mujeres y hombres como seres humanos fueron eliminados del marco conceptual. Las “relaciones de género” llegaron a enmarcarse en términos de una relación de poder opuesta entre los hombres y las mujeres en general, limitando el poder analítico del concepto de patriarcado para dar sentido tanto a la opresión de los hombres como a la de las mujeres.

Los temores feministas acerca de lo que podría suceder si el construccionismo fuera llevado a sus límites lógicos, y el cuerpo y el “sexo” en sí mismos fueran reconocidos como contruidos discursivamente en sí mismos, proporcionó un freno al uso del concepto de “género”

para teorizar el poder. Este punto muerto aún no ha sido superado en relación con el concepto de género en el desarrollo internacional, lo cual tiene dos consecuencias. La primera es que la contingencia radical de la relación entre la personalidad y el cuerpo ha resultado particularmente difícil de acomodar. El resultado ha sido el recurso persistente al esencialismo: la creencia implícita de que existe algún tipo de esencia persistente que constituye a las “mujeres” y los “hombres” como separados y diferentes. Esto toma forma en la retórica sobre el concepto de “sexo”, pero en la práctica también abarca el género. Así, la violencia masculina se naturaliza como una especie de propiedad corporal de todos los hombres, inherente a la masculinidad misma. Se necesitan pocos movimientos de esta ecuación para crear una visión poderosamente esencializadora de la humanidad como “el problema”. Este es uno de los marcos a través de los cuales se ha llegado a considerar la “igualdad de género”: no se trata solamente de corregir los errores del patriarcado reajustando las oportunidades, los recursos y el poder de posicionamiento para las mujeres, sino también, el contener, reformar y reorientar a los hombres en general, lejos de los daños potenciales que estos presentan para las mujeres. Lo anterior ofrece poco margen para explorar o, de hecho, abordar los daños que el patriarcado presenta para los propios hombres y, especialmente para aquellos cuyas masculinidades subordinadas están sujetas a estigmatización, abuso y violación.

Ir más allá de la distinción sexo/género, requiere una visión del “género” como literalmente inscrita en cuerpos moldeados y transformados por su desempeño diario. Esto exige el reconocimiento de que el género, como poder, está personificado. Lo cual insta a prestar más atención a las implicaciones políticas de la transposición irreflexiva de las nociones de dominación masculina o la vulnerabilidad femenina a relaciones sociales mucho más complejas y diversas. Precisamente estas implicaciones son las que salen a la luz en las narrativas de

desarrollo sobre los cuerpos de las mujeres. Estos marcos impiden la consideración de la complejidad de las identificaciones de género y de las poderosas formas de discriminación y exclusión asociadas con cuerpos no normativos y expresiones sexuales y de género. Esto limita el alcance conceptual y político de un análisis del poder que puede cambiar las narrativas dominantes de género más allá de afirmaciones simplistas basadas en generalidades a estrategias más efectivas para transformar las relaciones de poder que sostienen la injusticia social.

La “igualdad de género” como objetivo de desarrollo

A mediados de la década de 1990 se hizo evidente una disyunción. En la academia, el “género” había comenzado a separarse y abordar algo de lo que Gayle Rubin denominó como la “camisa de fuerza del género”. Pero el campo emergente de Género y Desarrollo (GAD, por sus siglas en inglés) llegó a depender del binarismo de género para sus marcos y herramientas. El “entrenamiento de género” consistió en equipar a los participantes con los medios para organizar el mundo en dos géneros. Esto dividió a hombres y mujeres en general, en categorías definidas por su acceso a recursos y oportunidades, lugar en el mercado, etc. En medio de una charla incierta sobre “interseccionalidad” que nunca se tradujo a un análisis exhaustivo de la raza y el racismo. Había poco margen para ocuparse de las diferencias de clase o, en efecto, a la edad, origen étnico, sexualidad o cualquier otro indicador de diferencia. Sin embargo, lo que ofrecía el género era la perspectiva de ir más allá de una inquietud liberal por integrar a las mujeres en la política y práctica del desarrollo androcéntrico. Devolvió a la vista las implicaciones relacionales de la diferencia de género: el hecho de que las mujeres no existían en un vacío, sino en conflictos de afinidad y conexión.

Vale la pena rastrear algunas de las ideas radicales que enmarcaron el surgimiento del GAD. En su artículo emblemático, Ann Whitehead argumentó que “cualquier estudio sobre las

mujeres y el desarrollo no puede partir desde el punto de vista de que el problema son las *mujeres*, sino los *hombres y las mujeres* y, en particular, las relaciones socialmente construidas entre ellos. El enfoque analítico de Whitehead sobre la *constitución* social de las relaciones de género es significativa: con ecos de la evocación de Rubin de la “infinita variedad y monótona similitud” de la opresión de las mujeres, Whitehead dirige nuestra atención a las prácticas sociales que constituyen y mantienen relaciones de desigualdad e injusticia. Ella insiste que para dar sentido a estas prácticas, debemos buscar comprender mejor la experiencia vivida en toda su relevancia. Pero Whitehead también destaca el núcleo del problema que acorralaba el compromiso feminista durante las próximas dos décadas y más allá: que aunque “mujeres” se plantea como una categoría analítica inadecuada, aún así se ha mantenido en uso y, he hecho, notablemente resiliente. Quizás sea especialmente irónico que el término “género” haya proporcionado el camuflaje para su supervivencia y las condiciones previas para su resurgimiento en el discurso actual sobre “empoderamiento de la mujer”.

Las narrativas de desarrollo de la igualdad de género, presuponen un conjunto relaciones jerárquicas y de oposición entre mujeres y hombres en las que las mujeres son estructuralmente inferiores. Oculta aquí está la configuración contingente de género y poder en la vida de mujeres y hombres y, por lo tanto, las relaciones de poder y las diferencias que importan. Por ejemplo, Molar Ogundipe-Leslie y Niara Sudarkasa, destacan la importancia de *otras* relaciones de género en la vida y los medios de subsistencia de las mujeres en Nigeria: relaciones de antigüedad, estatus y consanguinidad. Ogundipe-Leslie reprende a las “feministas occidentales” por su preocupación con una parte de la vida de las mujeres que en realidad podría ser relativamente marginal para su bienestar o felicidad: “todas las mujeres africanas tienen varias identidades, que evolucionan y se acumulan con el tiempo, enmarañadas en un solo individuo.

Sin embargo, las mujeres africanas siguen siendo miradas y buscadas en sus sitios coitales y conyugales”. El discurso de Género y Desarrollo tiende a elidir estos “lugares coitales y conyugales” con la totalidad de “las relaciones de género”. Por lo tanto, estamos dirigidos a un conjunto de relaciones particulares y sexualizadas, como tan emblemáticas de la subordinación de las mujeres que otras relaciones de género masculino-femenino y, de hecho, femenino-femenino, se hacen apenas visibles. Como señala Jackson, otras dimensiones de relaciones heterosexuales – la intimidad, cooperación y reciprocidad – llegan a quedar envueltas en imágenes del hombre irresponsable, sexualmente voraz y, la mujer, víctima y sufrida.

Aquí hay dos problemas. El primero es, que el término “género” pasa a ser equivalente a una configuración particular de las relaciones hombre-mujer con solo aspectos negativos. Faltan otras jerarquías, relaciones de poder o diferencias. El segundo es, que el “género” se convierte en una confusión que impide un enfoque más preciso en las desigualdades y la discriminación, precisamente porque es una herramienta demasiado contundente y generalizadora para llegar a algunos de los problemas reales que están en juego. Para explicar esto, debemos observar más de cerca los efectos del binarismo de sexo/género para identificar los callejones sin salida en el discurso político actual. En lugar de expresar la fluidez y contingencia de la relación entre masculinidades y feminidades con cuerpos masculinos y femeninos, el uso de la palabra “género” enmarca dos categorías opuestas. Como todas las dicotomías, estas son mutuamente excluyentes. Cualquier cosa que no encaje en el marco, se desvía fuera de él. Los “hombres” son equivalentes a “poder”; las “mujeres” con impotencia. Los “hombres” son los victimarios; las “mujeres” son sus víctimas. Entonces, se realizan esfuerzos para recalibrar estos dualismos hablando de “responsabilidad masculina”, haciendo eco del dualismo en el que las mujeres son

responsables y los hombres no, o del “empoderamiento de las mujeres” en el que los “hombres” son quienes tienen el poder y las “mujeres” no.

Estos discursos se basan en gran medida en hacer bueno lo que no es. No nos ofrecen la reconfiguración radical del marco a través del cual se experimentan las relaciones sociales y de género. Hay poco aquí que podría socorrer a quienes buscan la transformación social: la “transversalización de género” solo puede hacer tanto como aquellas instituciones en las que el “género” esté “transversalizado”. Y si la agenda de desarrollo internacional transversalizada consiste en que más mujeres ingresen a instituciones políticas formales corruptas e ineficaces, o en trabajos mal pagados con malas condiciones laborales, esto podría traer beneficios para las personas, pero en última instancia ofrece pocas posibilidades de transformar las estructuras profundas de la desigualdad o corregir la discriminación generalizada. Es bastante sencillo seguir esta lógica. Al suprimir las “relaciones de género” junto con las “relaciones heterosexuales”, al suponer un desequilibrio de poder dentro de estas relaciones a favor de los hombres, al transmutar ese desequilibrio de poder para infundir la sociedad como un conjunto, y al simplificar las relaciones de poder social en la forma de un juego de suma cero, las “mujeres” terminan siendo “las pobres y marginadas” y los “hombres” siguen siendo el problema. Las inversiones de los hombres por reforzar un statu quo desigual se dan por hecho. Las inversiones de las mujeres en posiciones de otros ámbitos son distorsionadas por mitos de género convincentes que colocan la bondad y la rectitud de las mujeres como *mujeres* en su núcleo. Los hombres solamente juegan un papel de perpetradores, nunca con ellos mismos en el extremo receptor de la violencia de otros hombres, la violencia estructural de la pobreza o, de hecho, la violencia institucionalizada del conflicto.

La ambigüedad de “género” a veces ha servido a los activistas como un caballo de Troya con el que impregnar intervenciones aparentemente inocuas con potencial de radicalización. Sin embargo, cuando estos esfuerzos retumban, como cuando a Celia Sardenberg y sus colegas se les dijo enfáticamente “queríamos género, no feminismo”, el alcance de la despolitización del “género” se vuelve ampliamente evidente. Una inquietud relacionada entre profesionales y activistas ha sido hasta qué punto la “igualdad de género” proporciona un silo conveniente dentro del cual albergar cualquier cosa que tenga que ver con “mujeres”, aislando efectivamente el “trabajo de género” del compromiso con asuntos más amplios de derechos y justicia. Finalmente, los análisis de la promesa fallida de la transversalización de género apuntan a un dilema: el marco de la igualdad de género y el enfoque en instituciones y políticas formales ha circunscrito efectivamente el activismo en temas centrales de ciudadanía, justicia económica y derechos políticos. El empoderamiento de las mujeres prometió traer todo esto de nuevo a la vista, ¿ha cumplido esa promesa?.

“El empoderamiento de las mujeres” en el desarrollo

A diferencia del concepto de género, el concepto de empoderamiento tiene una larga historia en el trabajo de cambio social. Un abundante flujo de trabajo atraviesa los campos como la educación popular, la psicología comunitaria y la organización comunitaria, con caminos que se remontan a la década de 1970 y una presencia en muchos países desde Brasil, hasta India, Kenia, Zimbabue, EE.UU y el Reino Unido. La concientización feminista en aumento y la acción colectiva, informaron sobre las primeras aplicaciones del concepto al desarrollo internacional en la década de 1970. El empoderamiento femenino pasó a articularse en las décadas de 1980 y 1990 como un enfoque radical que se preocupaba por transformar las relaciones de poder a favor

de los derechos de las mujeres, la justicia social y la transformación de las estructuras económicas, sociales y políticas.

En los textos de la década de 1980 e inicios de 1990, se insistía en que el empoderamiento no era algo que otros pudieran otorgar, sino que se trataba de reconocer las desigualdades en el poder, reivindicar el derecho a tener derechos y actuar de manera individual y concertada para generar un cambio estructural a favor de una mayor igualdad. Surgió una narrativa de empoderamiento que estaba ligada tanto a la acción colectiva (“poder con”) como al desarrollo del “poder interior” y el “poder para nivel de conciencia”. El trabajo feminista de este período enfatiza la relación recíproca y compleja entre la “autocomprensión” y “la capacidad de expresión personal” de las mujeres y su acceso al control sobre los recursos materiales. Lo que este trabajo resalta, son los límites de las intervenciones contemporáneas de empoderamiento de las mujeres que buscan simplemente brindarle a las mujeres un mejor acceso a recursos a través de microempresas. Como dice Hania Sholkamy: “el entorno propicio que confirma el derecho al trabajo, a la propiedad, a la seguridad, a la voz, a la sexualidad y a la libertad no se crea solo con máquinas de coser o microcréditos”.

Como se evoca tan elocuentemente en los relatos de Batliwala y Kabeer sobre la base de la concientización y la movilización de la India y Bangladesh, el tipo de empoderamiento concebido en los escritos feministas de esta era implicaba volver extrañas esas normas sociales familiares que son una fuente tan potente de desigualdad y desempoderamiento. Kabeer describe cómo:

Las estrategias de “empoderamiento desde el interior”... implican reflexión, análisis y evaluación de lo que hasta ahora se ha dado por sentado para descubrir la base socialmente construida y socialmente compartida de problemas aparentemente

individuales. Nuevas formas de conciencia surgen del acceso recién adquirido por las mujeres a los recursos intangibles de habilidades analíticas, redes sociales, fuerza organizativa, solidaridad y sentido de no estar solas.

Surgen tres percepciones importantes. La primera es que el empoderamiento consiste fundamentalmente en cambiar las relaciones de poder. No se trata solamente de mejorar las capacidades de las mujeres para lidiar con situaciones en las que ellas experimenten opresión o injusticia. Se trata de permitir que las mujeres cuestionen lo que antes consideraban “normal”, y que comiencen a actuar para cambiar esa realidad a través de la adquisición de una autoconfianza colectiva que se traduzca en un sentimiento de “podemos”. La segunda idea es que el empoderamiento es relacional en dos sentidos: se refiere a las relaciones de poder en las que se ubican las personas, dentro de las cuales pueden experimentar desempoderamiento o llegar a adquirir la “capacidad de tomar decisiones estratégicas en la vida”, y depende de un estado previo o futuro. En tercer lugar, aprendemos que el empoderamiento es un proceso, no un punto final, y mucho menos un resultado medible al que se le puedan vincular objetivos. A pesar de que se puedan medir intervenciones como cambios legales, políticas educativas o iniciativas de microfinanzas que favorezcan a las mujeres, como sostienen Malhotra y et al, estas deben verse como “factores habilitadores” o “resultados”, pero no se pueden interpretar como representantes del empoderamiento. El trabajo de agentes externos e intervenciones, entonces, pueden concebirse no como empoderamiento de las mujeres, sino como una manera de despejar algunos de los obstáculos del camino y brindarles sustento a medida que se empoderan a sí mismas.

Autopistas y caminos

Las versiones de empoderamiento que aparecen en la política de desarrollo internacional contemporánea, se refieren principalmente a la adquisición de medios materiales a través de los

cuales las mujeres se empoderan como individuos y de los beneficios que se obtienen cuando ponen su poder adquisitivo al servicio de sus familias, comunidades y economías nacionales. Durante la última década, hemos visto un retorno a las “mujeres” en el desarrollo que a veces parece representar un hilo ininterrumpido de vuelta al enfoque de las Mujeres en Desarrollo (WID, por sus siglas en inglés). El WID estaba tan preocupado por el desarrollo económico de las mujeres como lo está la “economía inteligente” actual, aunque la lógica era diferente. El WID estaba preocupado por la exclusión de las mujeres en el trabajo remunerado, la oclusión de las contribuciones económicas de las mujeres, y el fracaso de las intervenciones de desarrollo para considerar a las mujeres como agentes económicos.

Ahora existe una intercambiabilidad en las representaciones de mujeres producidas por diferentes actores que hacen eco de las preocupaciones de WID. Lo que alguna vez pudo haber parecido un conjunto desigual de actores corporativos y de desarrollo con posiciones bastante distintivas (como por ejemplo, Walmart, Oxfam, DFID, la Fundación Nike, Plan Internacional y el FMI) aparentemente están proporcionando el mismo mensaje, a veces incluso con las mismas palabras. Vemos una serie conocida de tropos, más comúnmente el pronunciamiento del valor intrínseco del empoderamiento de las mujeres, antes de proceder al negocio real en cuestión: “desatar potencial” y aprovechar el potencial de miles de millones de mujeres trabajadoras y sus efectos económicos transformadores como productores y consumidores que impulsarán el crecimiento.

En el corazón de este discurso, se encuentra la creencia de que el éxito empresarial de las mujeres es suficiente para superar todas las demás barreras a la igualdad. Esta versión del “empoderamiento de las mujeres” es más atractiva para los donantes y bancos internacionales que las inquietudes feministas tradicionales con la desigualdad y opresión más confusas. De aquí

surge el “caso de negocios” para el empoderamiento de las mujeres, que habla de golpe acerca de que las mujeres son importantes en sí mismas y también un medio para mejorar la eficiencia económica. La “cadena de equivalencia” que una vez unió el “empoderamiento de la mujer” con “derechos”, “igualdad”, “justicia” y “acción colectiva” ha venido a ser reemplazada por nuevos vínculos con “eficiencia”, “inversión” y “ganancias”. El empoderamiento se convierte en un recurso individual que debe maximizarse para lograr la eficiencia.

Lo que queda fuera del marco, son las dimensiones relacionales que formaban parte de las conceptualizaciones feministas de género y que eran fundamentales para el enfoque central del feminismo en la transformación de las relaciones de poder. Este no es un simple acto de omisión. Mirando más de cerca las formas en que el trabajo feminista sobre el empoderamiento, ha sido asumido por las instituciones de desarrollo, se puede ver cómo se despojan algunas de sus dimensiones fundamentales a través de una serie de maniobras discursivas. Vemos por ejemplo, la influyente definición de empoderamiento desarrollada por Naila Kabeer, con su énfasis en la *capacidad* de tomar decisiones de vida *estratégicas* por parte de aquellos a quienes *previamente se les negó* tal capacidad, transmuta en la adopción selectiva de su trabajo por parte del Banco Mundial en:

El empoderamiento es el proceso de mejorar la capacidad de individuos o grupos para tomar decisiones y transformar esas decisiones en acciones y resultados deseados. En el centro de este proceso están las acciones que construyen a activos individuales y colectivos y mejoran la eficiencia y la equidad del contexto organizacional e institucional que rige el uso de estos activos.

El marco de empoderamiento producido para el Banco Mundial por Alsop y Heinsohn y adoptado por una serie de otros agentes del desarrollo, ofrece una guía para identificar, detallar y

medir “activos” y “estructuras de oportunidad”. El proceso de reducir el empoderamiento a resultados cuantificables, desaparecen las dimensiones relacionales del empoderamiento, alterando el significado del concepto en el proceso. Los individuos y grupos pueden adquirir activos y las instituciones pueden mejorar su gobernabilidad, pero estos elementos en sí mismos no necesariamente producen empoderamiento. Como señala Cecilia Sardenberg, el empoderamiento “liberal” está orientado a beneficiar a mujeres individuales en lugar de transformar la situación que comparten las mujeres; el empoderamiento “liberador” exige formas de análisis y acción colectivos que hacen falta en el enfoque de “invertir en las niñas y mujeres”. En resumen, el empoderamiento no es algo que se pueda extender como una autopista sobre cualquier terreno con resultados predecibles. Su propia naturaleza es algo más contingente y conceptual y, en última instancia, mucho menos predecible que lo que permiten las soluciones rápidas de las agencias de desarrollo.

4.2 Translation from Spanish into English

Bioethics and Technoscience

Víctor B. Penchaszadeh *

Introduction

The development of technoscience in the last decades has been vertiginous, and the bioethical problems and dilemmas it poses to humanity are countless. However, the bioethical thought is just starting to analyze the significance of scientific and technical advances; particularly in relation to international problems such as: assisted fertilization technologies, stem cell research, life maintenance with artificial techniques, among others. Cardinal topics such as the humanization of medicine, the right to health, the harmful influence of marketing and excessive medicalization are not a hegemonic part of the bioethical discourse. It is worrisome

that the health professionals' training mostly ignores the importance of secular bioethics based on human rights, which should be the axis of training to provide health care. This article will focus on genomics, a branch of technoscience that currently has great prestige.

Bioethics and genomics

Genomics is one of the most recently developed technosciences that is generating the greatest bioethical dilemmas. According to the World Health Organization, genetics' goal in the health field is: "to help people with a genetic disadvantage to live and reproduce as normally as possible" (WHO, 2002), which obviously includes: disease prevention, health promotion and restoration, and respect for human rights and people's dignity. From a bioethics standpoint, this formulation entails leaving aside authoritarian and suppressing objectives that were previously used. In fact, in the past genetics, although still poorly understood, was used to interfere with the right to reproduce and determine who could reproduce and who could not, for the sake of poorly conceived eugenic conceptions. Thus, classist and racist objectives were privileged over the rights, health and well being of people. Genetics was also used to justify slavery, racism, and to

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discriminate and stigmatize people with genetic diseases (Duster 1050-1051). That is why genomics' strategies in compliance with the objective stated by the WHO include: neonatal screening for congenital diseases, diagnostic genetic testing, predictive genetic testing, predicting responses to determined drugs -pharmacogenetics-, prenatal screening for chromosomal

abnormalities during pregnancy, prenatal genetic diagnosis, genetic counseling and treatment for genetic diseases.

These applications, and those that will be developed in the future, have required and will continue to require research in humans to ensure their legitimacy and safety. The bioethical dilemmas that genomics currently faces are better understood when the main objectives and methods used by this technoscience in its health applications are analyzed.

Genomics' objectives and methods in Health

1. Knowledge of the structure and function of the human genome.
2. Identification of gene mutations that determine monogenic diseases.
3. Identification of genes that predispose the contraction of multifactorial diseases with environmental-genetic interaction.
4. Establishment of the validity and clinical use of diagnostic and predictive genetic testing in monogenic and multifactorial diseases.
5. Establishment of the predictive value of certain "normal" genetic variations (polymorphism) in diseases and drug response.
6. Development of new therapeutics:
 - Genetic therapy
 - Genetic editing
 - Stem cell research for therapeutic cloning
7. Development of prevention methods for common complex diseases based on genomics.
8. Result evaluation in preventive or therapeutic interventions.

9. Genetic diversity of the human species and biological significance of the concept of “race”.
10. Human identification. Forensic genetics. Use of human genetic identification for the defense of human rights.

Genetic research methods and their biases

Much of the discoveries in human genetics have been made by analyzing the genetic material in patients with genetic diseases. In the last 50 years, technological advances have made it possible to move from the analysis of chromosomes to the molecular analysis of one gene and then several genes, subsequently hundreds or thousands of genes at a time, and finally to the analysis of a person’s complete genome. In the search for genes responsible for diseases, these investigations compare the genome in groups of patients who have a disease, with the genome of healthy people, inferring that the differences found in the genetic material between both groups are the basis of the disease. From the methodological point of view, these investigations are extremely complex and numerous factors intervene. These include: the definition of the investigated disease, the selection of populations to be studied, the selection of variables to be analyzed, the consideration of environmental factors in context, and how they interact with the genome to influence the phenotype – meaning, and the clinical manifestations of the disease, among others. It is easy to recognize that, faced with each of the factors mentioned, the investigator has to make methodological and conceptual decisions that entail subjective assessments and are subjected to numerous biases. This implies that many times the results must be subjected to epistemological filters to determine their validity.

One of the most used methods to estimate the participation of genetic factors in normal and pathological human characteristics is the study of twins. They have methodological

variations. The most common compare the presence or absence of the characteristic that is being studied -either obesity, depression, diabetes, etc.- in twin populations, comparing the results according to whether they are monozygotic or dizygotic. The comparison of concordance (proportion in which the disease is present in both members of the pair of twins) and discordance (proportion in which the disease is present only in one member of the pair) between monozygotic twins (who have an identical genome) and dizygotic twins (whose genome is only 50% identical) is the basis for estimating the genetic and environmental components of the characteristic under study. The problem with many of these studies is that the assumptions on which they are based suffer of serious biases, given that concordance between twins for a given trait, may be due not only to genetic similarity but to the influence of environmental factors to which they are both exposed. Methodological variations designed to mitigate these biases, such as the study of twins raised apart, have not been able to capture the complexity of the contexts in which human life takes place.

Another current method used to investigate the role of genetic factors in the development of common diseases is the so-called next generation sequencing, which can be applied to the entire exome (set of coding DNA in the genome) or to the complete genome (total of the genome's coding and non-coding DNA). The comparison of complete exomes or genomes of symptomatic people with any of these diseases, with those of affected people, can detect the genetic cause of the disease in those affected by it. Genetic variations present in the ill, not the healthy, are supposed to be the genetic factors responsible for the disease. This method, however, is riddled with arbitrary statistical assumptions and inferences that make accurate conclusions difficult. Nevertheless, most of the genetic variations discovered so far for different types of cancer, Alzheimer's disease, coronary heart disease, among others; do not seem to significantly

increase the risk of the disease at hand. More importantly, the presence of these supposedly predisposing genetic variations does not necessarily imply the existence of preventive or therapeutic interventions in people at risk.

The relative role of genetic and environmental components in determining many human characteristics is still very debated. This is particularly true in common diseases (such as cancer, coronary disease, diabetes and many others) and in behavioral traits, either normal or pathological (intelligence, personality, sexual orientation, psychosis). This impasse is based on a reductionist conception on health-disease phenomena, with an excessively biological view of the human being, which rejects the fundamental role of the environment in which the person develops, especially the social conditions of life and work, and access to health services (Lewotin). Later, we will observe that this conception called *genetic reductionism* is responsible for many bioethical fallacies.

Aside from the generalities of the law on the ethical aspects of all biomedical research, genetic research confronts special ethical dilemmas, largely due to the particular meaning of genetic material. Indeed, DNA has been invested by society with a special aura, due to its permanent nature in people, for being part of their identity, for being an identifier of ethnic origin, for being hereditarily transmitted, for informing about people's ancestry and for indicating possible genetic predispositions to certain diseases. All of these characteristics, make that research in which DNA samples are obtained from people, require particularly rigorous ethical scrutiny. In the following sections we will analyze the relationship between bioethics and genomic technoscience (Penchaszadeh "Ethics of Research in Biomedicine").

Excessive emphasis on disease genetic determinants has no scientific or bioethical justification

In recent times, and largely due to the development of technoscience and the influence of economic interests, health professionals, researchers and society as a whole, are subject to the notion that the main causes of health deviations are found in the biology of individuals. An increasingly evident phenomenon is that in the biological spectrum, genes have acquired undeserved fame as life “makers”, over many other fundamental postgenomic vital processes, as those that determine spatial structures and protein functions, or those that regulate our metabolism and interaction with the environment. In fact, some researchers are turning their attention in a biased way to genes, as a first step to explain any human phenomenon, from variations in behavior (such as solidarity, aggressiveness or inventiveness), to possible causes of diseases, rather than their social determinants. With the same paradigm, there is a tendency to resort to genes first rather than to the environment, whenever it is a matter of designing strategies for disease prevention and treatment (Evans, et al. 861-862).

Few conceptions have done more damage to science and society than *genetic reductionism*. It is a reactionary and pseudo-scientific ideology that supports that the explanation of human phenomena can be reduced to the effects of genes, both at an evolutionary level and current life, relegating the effect of the environmental and social context to a secondary role. By placing genes in an undeserved pedestal, reductionism forgets that the only thing genes do is to transmit information to the cell for it to produce proteins that in turn will be the basis of vital processes. By reducing the human being to the effects of the 25 thousand genes that make up our genome, reductionism ignores the notion, sustaining that the dialectically invisible essence of a man is that of being a bio-psycho-social entity and that the main determinants of behavior and diseases are found in variations in the social, economic, political, psychological, and biological environment, rather than in genetic variations. (Penchaszadeh, “Genetics and Human Rights”.)

Indeed, if we ask ourselves what makes people to get sick and die, we could see that health maintenance depends fundamentally on environmental, social and economic factors, rather than people's genetic constitution. According to the World Health Organization, the 10 main causes of death in the world at all ages are: myocardial infarction (12.2%), cerebral vascular accidents (9.7%), pneumonia (7.1%), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (5.1%), HIV/AIDS (3.5%), tuberculosis (2.5%), lung cancer (2.3%), traffic accidents (2.2%), and prematurity and low birth weight (2.0%). If we analyze deaths only in the first 5 years of life, where congenital defects and genetic diseases have greater influence, we see that the 6 leading causes of death (among the 10 million children in that age group who die yearly) represent 75% of deaths. These are, in descending order: respiratory infections (17%), diarrhea (17%), low birth weight (11%), newborn infections (9%), newborn asphyxia (8%), and malaria (7%). (Penchaszadeh, "Genetics and Health").

How do genetic diseases appear in this chart? If we stick to the most restrictive definition of "genetic" disease, we could say that at least 5% of mortality in children under 5 years of age is due to genetic disorders and congenital defects of unknown cause. This is neither too much nor too little. The importance of health problems is not measured only by their frequency or their impact on mortality. Other important factors are related to: the severity of clinical manifestations, the invalidity or disability that they cause during life, the difficulty of their prevention, and the complexity and cost of their treatment. Hereditary diseases negatively affect the self-esteem of those affected and their relatives, generating feelings of guilt and anxiety, to which are added the stress of stigmatization and discrimination to which they are usually subjected by society. It is obviously non-ethical or in accordance with the human right to health to argue that since genetic diseases are rare, they do not deserve the attention of health

professionals and organizations. (Penchaszadeh, “Genetics and Health”; “Genetics and Human Rights” 177-204.)

The numerical importance of genetic disorders would increase if we included the common diseases to which genetic factors contribute, since in this case cancer, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, and many others, would also count. However their main determinants are social and environmental: exposure to toxins and mutagens (mutation causing agents), living and working conditions, education, housing, food, exercise, etc.

One of reductionism’s several problems is that by reducing the human being to their genes, it distorts research priorities by preferring genetics, it disconnects the person and diseases from the social context, and it is uninterested in the study of the environmental determinants of disease and genetic-environmental interaction.

Genetic discrimination and stigmatization are profoundly unethical

One of the ethical risks of genetic research is that the information obtained can be used to the detriment of the participants; for example, private health insurance companies that deny service coverage or charge astronomical amounts for policies to people with “inconvenient” genetic characteristics. Unfortunately, the fact that health is ceasing to be a right, and it is becoming a market object, creates conditions for profit-seeking private insurance to have the economic incentive to discriminate people at a higher risk of getting sick, including those with genetic susceptibilities to develop diseases (Geller cited in Alper 267-282). Genetic discrimination in the labor market is another possible consequence of genetic research, in conflict with ethics. Although technology does not allow valid predictions yet, several North American industries have resorted to genetic testing to get rid of workers they considered “risky” for their profits (Holtzman). Genetic research must ensure genetic data privacy protection to

minimize its use for discriminating people (UNESCO, “International Declaration on Human Genetic Data”).

Behind each genetic discrimination occurrence lies a reductionist and deterministic conception of the role of genetic constitution in the health-disease process. It is not only a bioethical abomination that conspires against the principles of justice, equity and solidarity, but it is also based on the pseudoscientific fallacy that genes are the main determinants of individuals’ and populations’ health.

Bioethics and genetic databases

The volume and complexity of the information that is currently obtained in genetic research is immense and proportional to the difficulty of the structure and function of the genome and the interaction between the genome and the environment. The identification of millions of “markers” throughout the genome has led to creating computerized genetic databases, where information on hundreds of thousands of individuals is stored for various purposes. The main objectives of these databases are: (a) people identification (forensic use) ; (b) genes research associated with common diseases; and (c) the identification of drug and toxic response genes. The databases can only contain information about people, or they can also contain their DNA samples. Due to various characteristics of genetic information, it must be treated with great care, as not to infringe bioethical principles and fundamental human rights. These characteristics are:

- Its permanent nature
- Its relationship with the person’s identity
- Its possible predictive capacity of phenotypes that are not apparent yet: Diseases, cognitive capacity, etc.

- Its information goes beyond the individual and may affect the family, community and ethnic group, among others.

The relationship between bioethics and technoscience of genetic databases is related to: (a) their objectives; and (b) the procedures for their use and development. Regarding the objectives for a genetic database to be ethical, it must tend to good; in other words, it must contribute to the validity of human rights, health and well-being. For example, a database was created in Argentina in 1987 with the ethical objective of defending human rights and thus, to help with the identification and recovery of children who were appropriated by people close to the forces of repression during the last military dictatorship. The National Genetic Data Bank stores information and DNA samples from family members (mostly grandparents) who are looking for their missing children or grandchildren. The database is public and State-financed with the participation of Abuelas de Plaza de Mayo. This database has made possible to identify and restitute at least 119 people who were kidnapped and appropriated by the past dictatorship when they were kids. (Abuelas 1-205; Penchaszadeh “Genetics and Human Rights” 87-112).

On the other hand, genetic databases are being created in several countries for genomic research purposes. These projects’ ethical problems are fundamentally related to obtaining, content, ownership and use of the genetic information of individuals and populations included in the database. There is questioning about how and who consents to be included in a database and the type of consent given. In Iceland, for example, after a highly complex political and economic process, and with the opposition of important medical sectors, a private company with North American capital, DeCode, obtained an exclusive license for developing the database and for its commercial exploitation. The database section that contains people’s personal health data did not require an informed consent, although it was possible to refuse to participate (Annas). In 2007,

Iceland's Supreme Court ruled that the law was unconstitutional; as a result, DeCode's stock market has decreased substantially. A second ethical aspect to consider in genetic databases, is the risk of discrimination and stigmatization of individuals and communities due to their genetic characteristics. To prevent and avoid discrimination, it is necessary to respect genetic information's privacy and enact appropriate legislative measures (UNESCO, "International Declaration on Human Genetic Data"). However, although these declarations proclaim that genetic databases should be considered public property, they do not explicitly address the problem of private appropriation and information commercialization with its uses.

With the rise of technoscience, several governments have implemented, or are considering to develop, databases that contain lawbreakers' DNA. It is thought that in this way, when a criminal reoffends, he will be easier to identify by tissue samples that might have been left at the crime scene and bring him to justice. In England, several dozens of previous unsolved crimes have thus been clarified. However, there is no evidence that the mere existence of databases with delinquents' DNA will act as a deterrent to criminal activity. This means that the "preventive" power of databases is an item of faith at the moment rather than a fact.

Conservative governments around the world find repressive methods (databases are one of those instruments) to be more efficient when combating crime, instead of implementing measures that address the root of the crime, that is, to attack poverty, social injustice, wealth concentration in fewer hands each time, and the lack of education and job opportunities for young people. This approach is not only ineffective, but it also runs the bioethical risk of databases steamrolling fundamental rights (privacy, the right to not be stigmatized unjustifiably) and replacing social and economic programs for crime prevention (OECD).

It is possible that genetic databases applied to biomedical research can result in knowledge applicable to health. In the occurrences where this is the case, it is imperative to take the precautions to share possible benefits of these investigation's results with the subjects and communities that contribute with their samples for them. Given that researchers in some Latin American countries are considering genetic database projects, it is important for regional instruments to be developed to assess their objectives, structure and functioning, as well as their ethical, legal and social implications. Finally, it is worth wondering if the creation of genetic databases follows a rational and ethical use of scarce economic resources, and whether their mere existence reinforces reductionist conceptions of the importance of genetic variations in human characteristics.

Bioethics and management of genetic samples

Virtually, all human genetic research appeals to analysis of biological samples from participants. Research carried out with human biological samples, is subject to a series of ethical precautions whose main objective is to ensure the privacy of the sample donor, avoiding identification by individuals or institutions without the donor's permission. This authorization may happen in a context of informed consent given by the participant. The prior key point is to determine if the source of the sample will be identifiable, and if the sample supplier is identified to determine the damages that it might have. When determining the risks of harm to the sample provider, it is important to know how easily identifiable the source is and the possibility for the source to be found. If the source is located, one should inquire about the probability that people other than the researcher can obtain information about the source. How likely is it that if the source is located, harm could occur to it, including adverse consequences from communicating

uncertain or ambiguous results?. These considerations will guide the researcher and the research ethics review committee in the decision of requiring informed consent and its contents.

On the other hand, it is frequent that the use of samples in future studies will eventually be considered. In these cases, it is unethical to use samples obtained for a specific investigation, for other future investigations on topics other than the one stated in the original informed consent. In these cases, the new investigation will require another informed consent, which must be obtained by the researcher again for this investigation.

Bioethics and information on genetic tests results in research

Genetic research results are still of little practical use in prevention and treatment. Not only the results can be ambiguous, uncertain, or difficult to interpret, but also the initial findings may have no significance for health until they are confirmed and many genetic variants under study have low penetrance. Therefore, their incidence in the phenotype under study is low. If we add that research laboratories are not subject to the strict quality controls to which clinical laboratories are subject and that the communication of inconclusive or non-interpretable results can be harmful, it is understood why research results in general are not disclosed to study subjects. Exceptions to this policy:

- The findings are scientifically valid and have been independently confirmed by other researchers.
- The findings have a great significance for the subject's health.
- Knowing the result allows to improve or treat the health problem through a proven effective intervention.

In any case, disclosing genetic research results must be accompanied by medical advice or reference, including genetic counseling. An intermediate option favored by some authors is to

communicate results to each participant only in aggregate, including the recommendation of getting analysis done at a clinical laboratory if the individual results justify it.

Gene patenting is contrary to the principles of bioethics

In the 1980s, it became apparent the commercial possibilities of genetic manipulation and the advantages that the application of the patent system would grant to the genomic discoveries industry. In the last 20 years, this was followed by the patenting of thousands of genes, gene segments, and proteins produced by genes. This has occurred in a global context governed by the pursuit of profit, the market's predominance over any human value, and the action of the patent offices in the United States and Europe to favor the industry over public welfare. The consequences of these monopolistic actions have been the rise in prices of products (drugs and diagnostic tests), inequity in the access to products by big sectors of the world's population and the obstacles to scientific research. These developments, which are clearly contrary to the public good, have occurred thanks to the shameless violation of the basic principles of intellectual property and patenting rules.

Let us analyze the principles and facts. According to the principles of intellectual property, a patent is like a "prize" for human inventiveness, thanks to which the inventor of a product can use his invention with no competition for a certain period of time, usually 20 years.

To be eligible for patenting, the invention must:

- Be innovative.
- Be inventive, clever, not obvious.
- Have a known function, be useful or have an industrial implementation.
- Be disclosed in all its details in the patent application.

However, has DNA been invented by someone, who can then claim a patent? Due to the inalienable nature of DNA, declared a common heritage of humanity by UNESCO, it is doubtful whether it has the attributes required to be patented. Indeed, genes are entities that occur in nature and are *discovered*, not *invented*. Nevertheless, the patent offices' standpoint has been that genes are not patented as they occur naturally, but the molecules created artificially by cloning and isolated from the human body, can be patented. This statement clearly exaggerates the role of the scientist who isolates a segment of DNA and *purifies* it. Strictly speaking, the so-called *purification* is nothing more than *cleaning* the natural DNA of sequences that are not related to the information itself. That is to say, the result of *natural* DNA and *purified* DNA is exactly the same. Unfortunately, what has happened so far with DNA patents proves that when interests are strong, the arguments are distorted as necessary to make those interests prevail. For more than 20 years, patent offices have done everything possible to favor the industry's interests, shockingly lowering the requirements for granting DNA patents. The patents granted are too broad in coverage, and the inventiveness and utility criteria have had very low thresholds. The *inventor* acquires rights for *all* DNA uses and the proteins it encodes, an unusual circumstance due to the power that he acquires. In fact: the development of new drugs and treatments is prevented or hindered; access to health services is limited by increasing the cost of diagnostic tests and treatments; knowledge is exploited, contradicting the traditional motto that knowledge is not patentable; and free exchange between researchers is inhibited. On the other hand, an atmosphere of extensive and costly legal battles has been created, with competing industries fighting for patents on the same gene or part of a gene, to the point that there are genes that have more than a dozen patents on different segments thereof.

Research in behavioral genetics presents serious bioethical problems

Reductionism has penetrated deeply as an explanation of the causes of human diversity in tastes, personality, sexual orientation, criminality, addictions and many other characteristics. For reductionism, the variation in all of these is undoubtedly in the genes. The influence of the environment, expressed in variations in living and working conditions, social and economic levels, culture, education, nutrition, upbringing, illnesses, oppression, among others; do not reach the importance of determinism in genes. These reductionist and deterministic trends have been trying to *test* their theories by randomly classifying people and defining variables. Thereby, attempts have been made to demonstrate that genes influence behavior in such a way that the main causes of criminality are genetic. (Alper 1-17).

The methodology that was followed to prove the unprovable has been to arbitrarily classify study subjects, rule out environmental influences, and let class and racist prejudice dictate study techniques and conclusions. Thus, the ‘intelligence tests’ designed for the affluent wealthy middle class of European origin have been used to *prove* that people of African and Indo-American descent are less intelligent than Europeans. Currently, under the seemingly neutral title of “Research in Behavioral Genetics”, there are hidden studies dedicated to convince the public opinion that genetic variations are behind fluctuations in human behavior, both normal and pathological. Numerous studies are particularly compelled to find the genetic bases of crime and violence, to absolve unjust social and economic orders of responsibility for these deviations. It is obvious that there are powerful interests behind these investigations, which could support approaches that confront crime based on the repression of individual characteristics instead of correcting the serious social injustices that fuel crime. Among researchers aware of these biases and prejudices, there is a widespread feeling: It is unethical to investigate in the behavioral genetics field. Precisely because these studies are monopolized by reactionary tendencies and

because the correlation of social forces is such that reductionist interpretations will tend to prevail. (Alper 1-17)

Alteration of genetic characteristics in germinal cells is contrary to the principles of bioethics

Recently, an important techno-scientific achievement has been the use of enzyme systems that allow specific DNA segments to be cut from genes and extracted from the genome, as well as inserting new DNA segments into genes *in vivo*. These systems, known as CRISPR (Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats) attached to certain enzymes, such as Cas-9, can be manipulated to literally edit segments of the genome: changing the base sequence in genes, deleting genes, adding genes, etc. This techno-scientific development is revolutionizing genomics, as it seems that it will become a highly precise gene therapy instrument, in order to make gene therapy possible in a large number of hereditary diseases. In addition, as this technology could also be used to modify the genome of germinal cells and embryos, a strong bioethical controversy has developed over its use. The length of this article does not allow further elaboration, and it is only mentioned to warn the reader that they must be aware of the great bioethical discussions that are already being generated (Baltimore, et al. 36-38; Hsu, et al. 1262-1278; Lander, "Brave new genome").

Conclusions

The main ethical objection to the use of genomics in predicting diseases and behavioral deviations is that these are often too simplistic and based on reductionist concepts that do not consider the interaction of genes with the environment. Not only the limits of *normality* are arbitrary, but we are assisting a medicalization and geneticization of life and health, which are very pernicious for science itself and humanity. A more balanced bio-psycho-social conception

of human nature is necessary, recognizing the importance of the environmental and social aspects to ethically take advantage of the development of genomic science for human health and well-being. On the other hand, today more than ever, a commitment from scientists and political decision makers to prohibit genetic alteration in germinal cells is essential.

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CHAPTER V

DATA ANALYSIS

In this chapter, the researcher will present the results acquired during the data analysis that was performed on the documents *Bioética y Tecnociencia* from Spanish into English and *From 'gender equality and 'women's empowerment' to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development* from English into Spanish. The purpose of this process was to simplify the interpretation of the available data in order to provide accurate conclusions. Furthermore, this information was crucial to answer the research question that was posed at the beginning of the research.

The data collection instruments were helpful for the researcher before, during, and after the translation process by efficiently organizing the information gathered. Moreover, the charts and different colors that were used, allow a proper visualization of the analysis that was performed. Finally, the results will be available to anyone interested in similar investigations within the translation guild.

5.1 Text Analysis

The first step on a translation process is to read and analyze the source text. By carefully examining the text, the translator can identify several aspects that are present including the text function, scale of formality, scale of generality or difficulty, scale of emotional tone and the translation method to be applied. Consequently, these characteristics will allow an accurate translation to be rendered.

Table 5

Text Analysis	From ‘gender equality and ‘women’s empowerment’ to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development	Bioética y Tecnociencia
Text Style	Narrative	Narrative
Text Function	Vocative	Informative
Scale of Formality	Official formality	Formal text
Scale of Generality or Difficulty	Educated	Technical
Scale of Emotional Tone	Intense	Factual
Translation Method	Semantic	Semantic

Table 5 shows text analysis carried out on the translated texts.

Source: Researcher’s own creation.

The first aspect analyzed in the chart is the text style. Both texts are considered to be mainly narrative, since they describe events or circumstances in detail. Nevertheless, the English text is somewhat descriptive because it talks about real situations in depth for the audience to create their own idea of what is being narrated. At some point, the English text also involves some discussion by asking questions to the readership. However, these are rhetorical questions, since the writer is not expecting an answer, but they are used to start a discourse and emphasize the author’s opinion.

The second aspect present is the text function. The English text has a vocative function, since it aims for the readership to react in the way intended by the author. This is done by providing information about how gender equality has not been achieved yet in many areas, and presenting relationships of power between different organizations that are not always handling these situations appropriately. Therefore, the readership is called to think, feel, and act according to the facts described. On the other hand, the Spanish text is considered informative. Even though the author demonstrates a subtle discordance with certain topics, the text focuses on facts and on keeping the audience informed by conveying scientific knowledge instead of emphasizing people's point of view.

The third aspect is the scale of formality. Even though the English text is written in a formal way, it is considered to be an official formality. This text is a little bit easier to understand than official texts, but it does not leave the cultured language aside. On the contrary, the Spanish text is categorized only as formal due to the fact that it requires a more complex vocabulary use, since it is an academic text. Moreover, the scale of generality or difficulty is the fourth aspect that was analyzed. The Spanish text is based on scientific facts, hence its use of specific terminology related to a specific range of expertise. Therefore, it contains information that is no longer comprehensible by all readers. The English text has an educated level of complexity instead, because its content is more easily understood and can be used for instructional purposes.

The scale of emotional tone that is present in *From 'gender equality and 'women's empowerment' to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development*, is intense. This text uses intensifiers to transfer a message in order to make its meaning stronger. As it was previously mentioned, it aims to cause an impact or reaction on the

reader. On the contrary, *Bioética y Tecnociencia* is a factual text according to the emotional tone. It relates to facts and certainty, and even though the message may be conveyed in a “colder” manner, it still remains as a gentle way of expression.

Finally, the translation method used for both texts was semantic, since it aims to transmit the exact contextual message conveyed on the source texts. As the author in the English text is a little bit more expressive, it is important to create a similar feeling or effect on the translated text than the one intended by the author. Moreover, the Spanish text was translated focusing on the message and key terminology present.

5.2 Color Coding

The following texts will illustrate how the color-coding tool was utilized. The researcher selected 15 paragraphs from each translated text, and they were placed under their corresponding original version in order to visualize the differences. The colors on *table 1* were applied to each translated paragraph to identify the different translation procedures that were found. Finally, the source texts were also useful to identify the omissions and some punctuation changes that were present.

5.2.1 Color Coding From ‘gender equality and ‘women’s empowerment’ to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development.

Paragraph 1:

The language of ‘gender equality’ and ‘women’s empowerment’ was mobilised by feminists in the 1980s and 1990s as a way of getting women’s rights onto the international development agenda. Their efforts can be declared a resounding success. The international

development industry has fully embraced these terms. From international NGOs to donor governments to multilateral agencies the language of gender equality and women's empowerment is a pervasive presence and takes pride of place among their major development priorities. And yet, this article argues, the fact that these terms have been eviscerated of conceptual and political bite compromises their use as the primary frame through which to demand rights and justice. Critically examining the trajectories of these terms in development, the article suggests that if the promise of the post-2015 agenda is to deliver on gender justice, new frames are needed, which can connect with and contribute to a broader movement for global justice.

Translated version:

El idioma de la “Igualdad de Género” y “Empoderamiento de las Mujeres” fue movilizado por feministas en las décadas de 1980 y 1990 como una forma de introducir los derechos de la mujer en la agenda de desarrollo internacional. Sus esfuerzos pueden declararse un éxito resonante. La industria de desarrollo internacional ha adoptado estos términos plenamente. Desde las ONG internacionales hasta los gobiernos donantes y agencias multilaterales, el idioma de igualdad de género y empoderamiento de las mujeres es una presencia omnipresente y ocupa un lugar de honor entre sus principales prioridades de desarrollo. Sin embargo, este artículo argumenta que el hecho de que estos términos han sido privados de fragmentos conceptuales y políticos compromete su uso como el marco primario a través del cual reclamar derechos y justicia. Examinando críticamente las trayectorias de estos términos en desarrollo, el artículo sugiere que si la promesa de la agenda post-2015 es cumplir con la justicia

de género, se necesitan nuevos marcos que puedan conectarse y contribuir a un movimiento más amplio de justicia global.

Paragraph 2:

It is with where these insights might take the ‘gender agenda’ that this article is concerned. We begin with a critical overview of the main debates about gender and the MDGs. From this we seek to trace a history of the present moment, following the trajectories of ‘gender equality’ and ‘women’s empowerment’. We then examine the potential that other frames offer for resolving the contradictions characterising the current focus on ‘girls and women’ and ‘men and boys’. We explore how the concepts of accountability, inclusion and non-discrimination may offer potential for recuperating a transformative approach to alliance building that can deliver the kinds of deep-rooted structural changes needed to achieve a more just and equal world.

Translated version:

Este artículo se ocupa de hacia donde podrían llevar estas percepciones la “agenda de género”. Iniciamos con una visión crítica de los debates principales sobre género y las ODM. A partir de esto, buscamos trazar una historia del momento presente, siguiendo las trayectorias de la “igualdad de género” y el “empoderamiento de las mujeres”. Luego examinamos el potencial que ofrecen otros marcos para resolver las contradicciones que caracterizan el enfoque actual en “mujeres y niñas” y en “hombres y niños”. Exploramos cómo los conceptos de rendición de cuentas, inclusión y no discriminación podrían ofrecer potencial para recuperar un enfoque transformador en la construcción de alianzas que puedan generar los tipos de cambios estructurales profundamente arraigados necesarios para lograr un mundo más igualitario y más justo.

Paragraph 3:

Critics have also focused on the spirit in which the goals were developed. Emphasis is placed on the need to return to the human rights and social justice lens, which underpinned the Millennium Declaration but was lost in its translation into ‘actionable’ goals, targets and indicators. After all, the MDGs and the preceding International Development Targets (IDTs) (1996) have been an organising platform for development priorities in the 2000s, but were also meant to reinforce the trajectory of earlier international commitments made in the 1980s and 1990s. These include the UN Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing (1995), the Rio Conference on Environment and Development (1992), the Vienna Conference on Human Rights (1993), the Cairo Conference on Population and Development (1994), the Copenhagen World Summit for Social Development (1995) and the Istanbul Conference on Human Settlements (1996).

Translated version:

Los críticos también se han enfocado en el espíritu con el que se desarrollaron los objetivos. El enfoque se basa en la necesidad de regresar a la perspectiva de los derechos humanos y justicia social, que respaldó la Declaración del Milenio, pero se perdió en su traducción a objetivos, metas e indicadores “viables”. Después de todo, los ODM y las Metas de Desarrollo Internacional precedentes (IDT, por sus siglas en inglés) (1996) han sido una plataforma de organización para las prioridades de desarrollo en la década del 2000, pero también estaban destinados a reforzar la trayectoria de compromisos internacionales anteriores realizados en las décadas de 1980 y 1990. Estos incluyen la Cuarta Conferencia Mundial sobre la Mujer de las Naciones Unidas en Beijing (1995), la Conferencia de Río sobre Medio Ambiente y

Desarrollo (1992), la Conferencia de Viena sobre Derechos Humanos (1993), la Conferencia de El Cairo sobre Población y Desarrollo (1994), la Cumbre Mundial de Copenhague sobre Desarrollo Social (1995), y la Conferencia de Estambul sobre Asentamientos Humanos (1996).

Paragraph 4:

The rhetoric of inclusion has served to reframe, rather than challenge, problematic dominant discourses and policy prescriptions. For example, in the post-2015 agenda discourse, commitments have been made to ‘ensure that the fight for the empowerment of women is at the heart of the international process’, while maintaining that the cornerstone to poverty alleviation is encouraging open markets to produce open societies. Indeed, this equation is a central theme in both the 2012 World Development Report (WDR) on Gender Equality and Development and the 2013 WDR on Jobs. While improving women’s opportunities for formal employment and access to increased wages is certainly important, and gender equality can positively stimulate economic growth, recent work has highlighted that the causal link is inconsistent and complex. This untidiness is neatly forgotten in this formulation.

Translated version:

La retórica de la inclusión en lugar de desafiar, ha servido para reformular los discursos dominantes problemáticos y las disposiciones políticas. Por ejemplo, en el discurso de la agenda post-2015, se han hecho compromisos para “garantizar que la lucha por el empoderamiento de las mujeres esté en el centro del proceso internacional”, manteniendo, como piedra angular, para el alivio de la pobreza, el fomento de mercados abiertos así como producir sociedades abiertas. De hecho, esta ecuación es un tema central tanto en el Informe sobre el Desarrollo Mundial (WDR, por sus siglas en inglés) de 2012 sobre Igualdad de Género y Desarrollo como en el

WDR sobre empleos de 2013. Si bien mejorar las oportunidades de las mujeres para el empleo formal y el acceso a salarios más altos es indudablemente importante, la igualdad de género puede estimular positivamente el crecimiento económico. Labores recientes han destacado que el vínculo causal es inconsistente y complejo. Tal desorden se olvida claramente en este enunciado.

Paragraph 5:

We hear talk about women's economic empowerment and about 'lifting' communities by investing in women, with scant consideration of the structural barriers to women's individual self-actualisation, let alone their collective mobilisation. In effect, the 'empowered' women we are shown in these narratives are unencumbered by gender relations; they are themselves 'lifted' out of the very webs of social, cultural and economic relations that produce and sustain those inequalities and discriminations. Yet these representations are accompanied by others in which the social and cultural looms so large that it becomes the principal focus of attention: consider, for example, the dominant focus in popular development discourses in the global North on victims of trafficking, early marriage and female circumcision.

Translated version:

Oímos hablar sobre el empoderamiento económico de las mujeres y sobre el "levantamiento" de las comunidades invirtiendo en las mujeres, con escasa consideración de las barreras estructurales para la autorrealización individual de las mujeres, por no hablar de su movilización colectiva. En efecto, las mujeres "empoderadas" que se nos muestran en estas narrativas no están sujetas a las relaciones de género; ellas son "sacadas" de las mismas redes de relaciones sociales, culturales y económicas que producen y mantienen esas desigualdades y

discriminaciones. Sin embargo, estas representaciones van acompañadas de otras en las que lo social y cultural cobra tanta importancia que se convierte en el foco de atención principal: considere por ejemplo, el enfoque dominante en los discursos de desarrollo popular en el Norte global de las víctimas de la trata, el matrimonio temprano y la circuncisión femenina.

Paragraph 6:

Women thus become heroines or victims. Where ‘gender equality’ features in all this remains a moot point. The fog of consensus that makes it possible for ‘gender equality and women’s empowerment’ to be mumbled in one breath contributes to the dulling of our understanding of what a truly transformative agenda might look like. Ultimately a paradigm transformation is needed to reclaim the gender agenda, and address ‘the underlying structures of constraint that give these inequalities the systemic character and the persistence over time’. To get there, we need an analytical and political interrogation of the varied meanings that these terms have acquired over time.

Translated version:

Por tanto, las mujeres se convierten en heroínas o víctimas. Donde la “igualdad de género” destaca en todo, esto sigue siendo un punto cuestionable. La niebla del consenso que hace posible que se murmure en un suspiro “igualdad de género y empoderamiento de las mujeres”, contribuye a debilitar nuestro entendimiento sobre cómo podría ser una agenda verdaderamente transformadora. En última instancia, se necesita una transformación de paradigma para recuperar la agenda de género y abordar “las estructuras subyacentes de restricción que dan a estas desigualdades el carácter sistémico y la persistencia en el tiempo”.

Para llegar ahí, necesitamos un interrogatorio analítico y político de los variados significados que estos términos han adquirido a lo largo del tiempo.

Paragraph 7:

The second point of origin, one that found influence among social scientists involved in international development through the foundational work of feminist theorists of the 1970s, posited the converse relationship between ‘sex’ and ‘gender’. In this discourse ‘sex’ was the basis onto which ‘gender’ was mapped: ‘gender’ was malleable and ‘sex’ was dubbed ‘biological’ and treated as fixed. Out of this emerged the mantra intoned in many a gender training: ‘gender is the socially constructed relationship between women and men’. For second wave feminists it was the possibility of modifying gender – the beliefs, behaviours and practices associated with gender difference, and the power relations associated with the playing out of those differences in society – that was an impetus to action. It provided a basis for collective critical analysis of the effects of the naturalisation of male privilege, as well as for activism aimed at overturning male supremacy and the sexism, discrimination and injustice associated with it.

Translated version:

El segundo punto de origen, el que se vio influenciado entre los científicos sociales involucrados en el desarrollo internacional a través del trabajo fundamental de las teóricas feministas de la década de 1970, planteó la relación inversa entre “sexo” y “género”. En este discurso, el “sexo” era la base sobre la cual se trazaba el “género”: el “género” era maleable y el “sexo” se denominaba “biológico” y se trataba como algo fijo. De ahí surgió el lema entonado en muchas capacitaciones sobre género: “el género es la relación construida socialmente entre

mujeres y hombres”. Para las feministas de la segunda ola, fue la posibilidad de modificar el género (las creencias, comportamientos y prácticas asociadas con la diferencia de género y las relaciones de poder asociadas con el desarrollo de esas diferencias en la sociedad) lo que impulsó la acción. Proporcionó una base para el análisis crítico colectivo de los efectos de la naturalización del privilegio masculino, así como para el activismo destinado a derrocar la supremacía masculina y el sexismo, discriminación e injusticia asociados con ella.

Paragraph 8:

What the sex/gender binary offered was a set of politicised assertions with which to advance arguments for greater equality between men and women. There was nothing ‘natural’, feminists argued, about the persistent disadvantage of women the world over. Nor was there anything necessarily ‘natural’ about the association of women with the work of bringing up children and sustaining their families, as Edholm et al’s foundational work showed: of three dimensions of reproduction (biological, social and reproduction of the labour force), only one had necessary rather than contingent connections with women. ‘Gender roles’, it was argued, were social constructs and anthropological evidence provided grist for advancing the powerful political argument that, as ‘gender’ was constructed socially, culturally and historically, it could be actively reconstructed and refashioned in alternative, more liberating and egalitarian forms.

Translated version:

Lo que ofrecía el sexo/género binario era un conjunto de afirmaciones politizadas con las que presentar argumentos a favor de una mayor igualdad entre hombres y mujeres. No había nada “natural”, argumentaban las feministas, en la persistente desventaja de las mujeres en todo el mundo. Tampoco había nada necesariamente “natural” en la asociación de las mujeres con el

trabajo de criar a los hijos y mantener a sus familias. Como mostró el trabajo fundacional de Edholm et al: de las tres dimensiones de la reproducción (biológica, social y la reproducción de la fuerza de trabajo), solo una tenía conexiones necesarias en lugar de contingentes con las mujeres. Se argumentó que los “roles de género” eran construcciones sociales y la evidencia antropológica proporcionaba material para promover el poderoso argumento político de que, como el “género” estaba construido social, cultural e históricamente, se podía reconstruir activamente y remodelarse en formas alternativas, más liberadoras e igualitarias.

Paragraph 9:

The sex/gender distinction provided British and American feminists with a metaphorical magnet that held together disparate fragments into two distinct categories, ‘women’ and ‘men’. This permitted them to retain the category ‘woman’ as a foundational organising principle for advocacy and activism. Yet, like a magnet, the concept of ‘sex’ polarised ‘gender’, creating oppositional categories that appeared to repel each other as they pushed away that which was similar and accentuated that which was different. ‘Gender identities’ were cast as in themselves oppositional, framed in terms of what the other was not; commonalities between women and men as human beings were brushed out of the conceptual frame. ‘Gender relations’ came to be framed in terms of an oppositional power relationship between men-in-general and women-in-general, limiting the analytical power of the concept of patriarchy to make sense of the oppression of men as well as women.

Translated version:

La distinción de sexo/género, le brindó a las feministas británicas y estadounidenses un imán metafórico que unía fragmentos dispares en dos categorías distintas: “mujeres”, y

“hombres”. Esto les permitió conservar la categoría de “mujer” como principio organizativo fundamental para la promoción y el activismo. Sin embargo, como un imán, el concepto de “sexo” polarizó el “género”, creando categorías opuestas que parecían repelerse mientras alejaban lo que era similar y acentuaban lo que era diferente. Las “identidades de género” se presentaban como opuestas, enmarcadas en términos de lo que el otro no era; los puntos en común entre mujeres y hombres como seres humanos fueron eliminados del marco conceptual. Las “relaciones de género” llegaron a enmarcarse en términos de una relación de poder opuesta entre los hombres y las mujeres en general, limitando el poder analítico del concepto de patriarcado para dar sentido tanto a la opresión de los hombres como a la de las mujeres.

Paragraph 10:

Going beyond the sex/gender distinction calls for a view of ‘gender’ as literally inscribed in bodies shaped and transformed by its daily performance. This calls for recognition that gender, as power, is embodied. It urges closer attention to the political implications of the unreflective transposition of notions of male dominance or female vulnerability onto far more complex and diverse social relations. It is precisely these entailments that come to the fore in development narratives on women’s bodies. These frames preclude consideration of the complexity of gender identifications, and of the powerful forms of discrimination and exclusion associated with non-normative bodies and sexual and gendered expressions. This limits the conceptual and political scope for an analysis of power that can shift pervasive narratives of gender beyond simplistic assertions based on generalities to more effective strategies for transforming the relations of power that sustain social injustice.

Translated version:

Ir más allá de la distinción sexo/género, requiere una visión del “género” como literalmente inscrita en cuerpos moldeados y transformados por su desempeño diario. Esto exige el reconocimiento de que el género, como poder, está personificado. Lo cual insta a prestar más atención a las implicaciones políticas de la transposición irreflexiva de las nociones de dominación masculina o la vulnerabilidad femenina a relaciones sociales mucho más complejas y diversas. Precisamente estas implicaciones son las que salen a la luz en las narrativas de desarrollo sobre los cuerpos de las mujeres. Estos marcos impiden la consideración de la complejidad de las identificaciones de género y de las poderosas formas de discriminación y exclusión asociadas con cuerpos no normativos y expresiones sexuales y de género. Esto limita el alcance conceptual y político de un análisis del poder que puede cambiar las narrativas dominantes de género más allá de afirmaciones simplistas basadas en generalidades a estrategias más efectivas para transformar las relaciones de poder que sostienen la injusticia social.

Paragraph 11:

The ambiguity of ‘gender’ has sometimes served activists well as a Trojan Horse with which to imbue apparently innocuous interventions with radicalising potential. Yet when these efforts are rumbled, as when Cecilia Sardenberg and colleagues were told emphatically ‘we wanted gender, not feminism’, the extent of the depoliticisation of ‘gender’ becomes amply evident. A related concern among practitioners and activists has been the extent to which ‘gender equality’ provides a convenient silo within which to house anything to do with ‘women’ – effectively insulating ‘gender work’ from engagement with broader issues of rights and justice. Ultimately analyses of the failed promise of gender mainstreaming point to a dilemma: the framing of gender equality and the focus on formal institutions and policies has effectively

circumscribed activism on core issues of citizenship, economic justice and political rights. Women's empowerment promised to bring all this back into view. But has it delivered that promise?

Translated version:

La ambigüedad de “género” a veces ha servido a los activistas como un caballo de Troya con el que impregnar intervenciones aparentemente inocuas con potencial de radicalización. Sin embargo, cuando estos esfuerzos retumban, como cuando a Celia Sardenberg y sus colegas se les dijo enfáticamente “queríamos género, no feminismo”, el alcance de la despolitización del “género” se vuelve ampliamente evidente. Una inquietud relacionada entre profesionales y activistas ha sido hasta qué punto la “igualdad de género” proporciona un silo conveniente dentro del cual albergar cualquier cosa que tenga que ver con “mujeres”, aislando efectivamente el “trabajo de género” del compromiso con asuntos más amplios de derechos y justicia. Finalmente, los análisis de la promesa fallida de la transversalización de género apuntan a un dilema: el marco de la igualdad de género y el enfoque en instituciones y políticas formales ha circunscrito efectivamente el activismo en temas centrales de ciudadanía, justicia económica y derechos políticos. El empoderamiento de las mujeres prometió traer todo esto de nuevo a la vista, ¿ha cumplido esa promesa?.

Paragraph 12:

In contrast to the concept of gender, the concept of empowerment has a long history in social change work. A rich stream of work runs through fields such as popular education, community psychology and community organising, with pathways back to the 1970s and a presence in many countries from Brazil, to India, Kenya, Zimbabwe, the USA and the UK.

Feminist consciousness-raising and collective action informed early applications of the concept to international development in the 1970s. Women's empowerment came to be articulated in the 1980s and 1990s as a radical approach that was concerned with transforming power relations in favour of women's rights, social justice and the transformation of economic, social and political structures.

Translated version:

A diferencia del concepto de género, el concepto de empoderamiento tiene una larga historia en el trabajo de cambio social. Un abundante flujo de trabajo atraviesa los campos como la educación popular, la psicología comunitaria y la organización comunitaria, con caminos que se remontan a la década de 1970 y una presencia en muchos países desde Brasil, hasta India, Kenia, Zimbabue, EE.UU y el Reino Unido. La concientización feminista en aumento y la acción colectiva, informaron sobre las primeras aplicaciones del concepto al desarrollo internacional en la década de 1970. El empoderamiento femenino pasó a articularse en las décadas de 1980 y 1990 como un enfoque radical que se preocupaba por transformar las relaciones de poder a favor de los derechos de las mujeres, la justicia social y la transformación de las estructuras económicas, sociales y políticas.

Paragraph 13:

The versions of empowerment that appear in contemporary international development policy primarily concern the acquisition of material means through which women empower themselves as individuals and of the benefits that come when they put their spending power to the service of their families, communities and national economies. Over the past decade we have seen a return to 'women' in development that sometimes appears to represent an unbroken thread

back to Women in Development (WID). WID was as much concerned with women's economic development as is today's 'smart economics', although the rationale was different. WID was preoccupied by women's exclusion from remunerative labour; the occlusion of women's economic contributions; the failure of development interventions to consider women as economic actors.

Translated version:

Las versiones de empoderamiento que aparecen en la política de desarrollo internacional contemporánea, se refieren principalmente a la adquisición de medios materiales a través de los cuales las mujeres se empoderan como individuos y de los beneficios que se obtienen cuando ponen su poder adquisitivo al servicio de sus familias, comunidades y economías nacionales. Durante la última década, hemos visto un retorno a las “mujeres” en el desarrollo que a veces parece representar un hilo ininterrumpido de vuelta al enfoque de las Mujeres en Desarrollo (WID, por sus siglas en inglés). El WID estaba tan preocupado por el desarrollo económico de las mujeres como lo está la “economía inteligente” actual, aunque la lógica era diferente. El WID estaba preocupado por la exclusión de las mujeres en el trabajo remunerado, la ocusión de las contribuciones económicas de las mujeres, y el fracaso de las intervenciones de desarrollo para considerar a las mujeres como agentes económicos.

Paragraph 14:

There is now an interchangeability in the representations of women produced by different actors which echoes WID concerns. What might once have seemed like a disparate array of corporate and development actors with quite distinctive positions – the likes, for example, of Walmart, Oxfam, DFID, the Nike Foundation, Plan International and the IMF – are all

apparently purveying the same message, sometimes even in the same words. We see a familiar series of tropes, most commonly the pronouncement of the intrinsic value of women's empowerment, before proceeding to the real business at hand: 'unleashing potential' and harnessing the power of billions of women workers and their transformative economic effects as **the** producers and consumers who will drive growth.

Translated version:

Ahora existe una intercambiabilidad en las representaciones de mujeres producidas por diferentes actores que hacen eco de las preocupaciones de WID. Lo que alguna vez pudo haber parecido un conjunto desigual de actores corporativos y de desarrollo con posiciones bastante distintivas (como por ejemplo, Walmart, Oxfam, DFID, la Fundación Nike, Plan Internacional y el FMI) aparentemente están proporcionando el mismo mensaje, a veces incluso con las mismas palabras. Vemos una serie conocida de tropos, más comúnmente el pronunciamiento del valor intrínseco del empoderamiento de las mujeres, antes de proceder al negocio real en cuestión: "desatar potencial" y aprovechar el potencial de miles de millones de mujeres trabajadoras y sus efectos económicos transformadores como productores y consumidores que impulsarán el crecimiento.

Paragraph 15:

At the heart of this discourse is a belief that women's business success is enough to overcome all other barriers to equality. This version of 'women's empowerment' is more appealing to international donors and banks than traditional feminist concerns with the more nebulous inequality and oppression. The 'business case' for women's empowerment emerges from this, which speaks in one breath about women being important in and of themselves and

also a means to enhance economic efficiency. The ‘chain of equivalence’ that once held ‘women’s empowerment’ together with ‘rights’, ‘equality’, ‘justice’ and ‘collective action’ has come to be replaced by new attachments to ‘efficiency’, ‘investment’, ‘returns’. Empowerment becomes an individual resource to be maximised for efficiency.

Translated version:

En el corazón de este discurso, se encuentra la creencia de que el éxito empresarial de las mujeres es suficiente para superar todas las demás barreras a la igualdad. Esta versión del “empoderamiento de las mujeres” es más atractiva para los donantes y bancos internacionales que las inquietudes feministas tradicionales con la desigualdad y opresión más confusas. De aquí surge el “caso de negocios” para el empoderamiento de las mujeres, que habla de golpe acerca de que las mujeres son importantes en sí mismas y también un medio para mejorar la eficiencia económica. La “cadena de equivalencia” que una vez unió el “empoderamiento de la mujer” con “derechos”, “igualdad”, “justicia” y “acción colectiva” ha venido a ser reemplazada por nuevos vínculos con “eficiencia”, “inversión” y “ganancias”. El empoderamiento se convierte en un recurso individual que debe maximizarse para lograr la eficiencia.

5.2.2. Color Coding Bioética y Tecnociencia

Paragraph 1

El desarrollo de la tecnociencia en los últimos decenios ha sido vertiginoso y los problemas y dilemas bioéticos que plantea a la humanidad son incontables. Sin embargo, el pensamiento bioético está recién comenzando a analizar la trascendencia de los adelantos científico-técnicos; particularmente en relación a problemáticas de frontera, tales como: las tecnologías de fertilización asistida, las investigaciones con células madre, el mantenimiento de

la vida con técnicas artificiales, entre otras. Temas cardinales como la humanización de la medicina, el derecho a la salud, la influencia nociva de la comercialización y la medicalización excesiva no forman parte hegemónica del discurso bioético. Es preocupante que la formación de los profesionales de salud mayoritariamente ignora la importancia de la bioética secular fundamentada en los derechos humanos, que debiera ser el eje de la capacitación para prestar atención de salud. Éste artículo se focalizará en la genómica, una rama de la tecnociencia de gran predicamento actual.

Translated version:

The development of technoscience in the last decades has been vertiginous, and the bioethical problems and dilemmas it poses to humanity are countless. However, the bioethical thought is just starting to analyze the significance of scientific and technical advances; particularly in relation to international problems such as: assisted fertilization technologies, stem cell research, life maintenance with artificial techniques, among others. Cardinal topics such as the humanization of medicine, the right to health, the harmful influence of marketing and excessive medicalization, are not a hegemonic part of the bioethical discourse. It is worrisome that the health professionals' training mostly ignores the importance of secular bioethics based on human rights, which should be the axis of training to provide health care. This article will focus on genomics, a branch of technoscience that currently has great prestige.

Paragraph 2

Otro método actual para investigar el papel de factores genéticos en el desarrollo de enfermedades comunes es la llamada secuenciación de nueva generación, que puede aplicarse al exoma completo -conjunto del ADN codificante en el genoma- o al genoma completo -total del ADN codificante y no codificante del genoma-. La comparación de exomas o genomas

completos de personas sintomáticas con alguna de esas enfermedades, con los de personas afectadas, puede detectar la causa genética de la enfermedad en los afectados. Se supone que las variaciones genéticas presentes en los enfermos, y no en los sanos, serían los factores genéticos responsables de la enfermedad. Este método, sin embargo, está plagado de presupuestos e inferencias estadísticas arbitrarias que dificultan conclusiones certeras. En todo caso, la mayoría de las variaciones genéticas descubiertas hasta ahora para distintos tipos de cáncer, enfermedad de Alzheimer, enfermedad coronaria, entre otras; no parecen aumentar significativamente el riesgo de la enfermedad en cuestión. Más importante aún, la presencia de esas variaciones genéticas, supuestamente predisponentes, no implica necesariamente la existencia de intervenciones preventivas o terapéuticas en las personas en riesgo.

Translated version

Another current method used to investigate the role of genetic factors in the development of common diseases is the so-called next generation sequencing, which can be applied to the entire exome (set of coding DNA in the genome) or to the complete genome (total of the genome's coding and non-coding DNA). The comparison of complete exomes or genomes of symptomatic people with any of these diseases, with those of affected people, can detect the genetic cause of the disease in those affected by it. Genetic variations present in the ill, not the healthy, are supposed to be the genetic factors responsible for the disease. This method, however, is riddled with arbitrary statistical assumptions and inferences that make accurate conclusions difficult. Nevertheless, most of the genetic variations discovered so far for different types of cancer, Alzheimer's disease, coronary heart disease, among others; do not seem to significantly increase the risk of the disease at hand. More importantly, the presence of these supposedly

predisposing genetic variations does not necessarily imply the existence of preventive or therapeutic interventions in people at risk.

Paragraph 3

El papel relativo de los componentes genéticos y ambientales en la determinación de muchas características humanas todavía es muy discutido. Esto es particularmente cierto en enfermedades comunes -como el cáncer, la enfermedad coronaria, la diabetes y muchas otras- y en rasgos de la conducta, normal o patológica -inteligencia, personalidad, orientación sexual, psicosis-. Este atolladero tiene su fundamento en una concepción reduccionista de los fenómenos de salud-enfermedad, con una visión excesivamente biologicista del ser humano, que desdeña el papel fundamental del medio ambiente en el que se desarrolla la persona, especialmente las condiciones sociales de vida y trabajo y el acceso a los servicios de salud (Lewontin). Observaremos más adelante que esta concepción denominada reduccionismo genético es responsable de muchas falacias bioéticas.

Translated version

The relative role of genetic and environmental components in determining many human characteristics is still very debated. This is particularly true in common diseases (such as cancer, coronary heart disease, diabetes, and many others) and in behavioral traits, either normal or pathological (intelligence, personality, sexual orientation, psychosis). This impasse is based on a reductionist conception on health-disease phenomena, with an excessively biological view of the human being, which rejects the fundamental role of the environment in which the person develops, especially the social conditions of life and work, and access to health services (Lewontin). Later, we will observe that this conception called *genetic reductionism* is responsible for many bioethical fallacies.

Paragraph 4

Aparte de las generalidades de la ley sobre los aspectos éticos de toda investigación biomédica, las investigaciones genéticas confrontan dilemas éticos especiales, en gran medida por el significado particular del material genético. En efecto, el ADN ha sido investido por la sociedad con un aura especial, por su carácter permanente en las personas, por ser parte de su identidad, por ser identificador de origen étnico, por ser transmitido hereditariamente, por informar sobre la filiación de las personas y por indicar posibles predisposiciones genéticas a ciertas enfermedades. Todas estas características hacen que las investigaciones en que se obtienen muestras de ADN de las personas requieran escrutinio ético especialmente riguroso. En las siguientes secciones analizaremos la relación entre la bioética y la tecnociencia genómica (Penchaszadeh, “Ética de la Investigación en Biomedicina”).

Translated version

Aside from the generalities of the law on the ethical aspects of all biomedical research, genetic research confronts special ethical dilemmas, largely due to the particular meaning of genetic material. Indeed, DNA has been invested by society with a special aura, due to its permanent nature in people, for being part of their identity, for being an identifier of ethnic origin, for being hereditarily transmitted, for informing about people’s ancestry and for indicating possible genetic predispositions to certain diseases. All of these characteristics, make that research in which DNA samples are obtained from people, require particularly rigorous ethical scrutiny. In the following sections we will analyze the relationship between bioethics and genomic technoscience (Penchaszadeh, “Ethics of Research in Biomedicine”).

Paragraph 5

En los últimos tiempos, y en gran medida por el desarrollo de la tecnociencia y la influencia de intereses económicos, los profesionales de la salud, los investigadores y la sociedad entera, estamos sujetos a la noción de que las principales causas de las desviaciones de la salud se encuentran en la biología de los individuos. Un fenómeno cada vez más evidente es que en el espectro de lo biológico los genes han adquirido fama inmerecida de «hacedores» de vida, por sobre muchos otros procesos vitales postgenómicos fundamentales, como aquéllos que determinan las estructuras espaciales y las funciones de las proteínas, o que regulan nuestro metabolismo y la interacción con el medio ambiente. En efecto, algunos investigadores dirigen su atención en forma sesgada a los genes, como primer paso para explicar cualquier fenómeno humano, desde variaciones en las conductas -como la solidaridad, la agresividad o la inventiva-, hasta posibles causas de enfermedades, en lugar de los determinantes sociales de las mismas. Con el mismo paradigma, se tiende a recurrir primero a los genes y no al medio ambiente, toda vez que se trata de diseñar estrategias de prevención y tratamiento de enfermedades (Evans, et al. 861-862.).

Translated version

In recent times, and largely due to the development of technoscience and the influence of economic interests, health professionals, researchers, and society as a whole, are subject to the notion that the main causes of health deviations are found in the biology of individuals. An increasingly evident phenomenon is that in the biological spectrum, genes have acquired undeserved fame as life “makers”, over many other fundamental postgenomic vital processes, as those that determine spatial structures and protein functions, or those that regulate our metabolism and interaction with the environment. In fact, some researchers are turning their

attention in a biased way to genes, as a first step to explain any human phenomenon, from variations in behavior (such as solidarity, aggressiveness or inventiveness), to possible causes of diseases, rather than their social determinants. With the same paradigm, there is a tendency to resort to genes first rather than to the environment, whenever it is a matter of designing strategies for disease prevention and treatment (Evans, et al. 861-862).

Paragraph 6

Pocas concepciones han hecho más daño a la ciencia y a la sociedad que el reduccionismo genético. Se trata de una ideología reaccionaria y pseudo-científica que sostiene que la explicación de los fenómenos humanos puede reducirse a los efectos de los genes, tanto a nivel evolutivo como en la vida actual, relegando el efecto del contexto ambiental y social a un papel secundario. Al poner a los genes en un pedestal inmerecido el reduccionismo olvida que lo único que hacen los genes es transmitir una información a la célula para que esta fabrique proteínas que a su vez serán la base de los procesos vitales. Al reducir el ser humano a los efectos de los 25 mil genes que componen nuestro genoma, el reduccionismo se desentiende de la noción sostiene que la esencia dialécticamente indivisible del hombre es la de ser un ente bio-psico-social y que los principales determinantes de la conducta y las enfermedades se encuentran en las variaciones del medio ambiente social, económico, político, psicológico y biológico, más que en las variaciones genéticas. (Penchaszadeh, “Genética y Derechos Humanos”).

Translated version

Few conceptions have done more damage to science and society than *genetic reductionism*. It is a reactionary and pseudo-scientific ideology that supports that the explanation of human phenomena can be reduced to the effects of genes, both at an evolutionary level and current life, relegating the effect of the environmental and social context to a secondary role. By

placing genes in an undeserved pedestal, reductionism forgets that the only thing genes do is to transmit information to the cell for it to produce proteins that in turn will be the basis of vital processes. By reducing the human being to the effects of the 25 thousand genes that make up our genome, reductionism ignores the notion, sustaining that the dialectically invisible essence of a man is that of being a bio-psycho-social entity and that the main determinants of behavior and diseases are found in variations in the social, economic, political, psychological, and biological environment, rather than in genetic variations. (Penchaszadeh, “Genetics and Human Rights”.)

Paragraph 7

Efectivamente, si nos preguntamos de qué se enferman y se mueren las personas, veríamos que el mantenimiento de la salud depende fundamentalmente de factores medioambientales, sociales y económicos, más que de la constitución genética de las personas. De acuerdo a la Organización Mundial de la Salud las 10 principales causas de muerte en el mundo en todas las edades son: infarto de miocardio (12.2%), accidentes vasculares cerebrales (9.7%), neumonía (7.1%), enfermedad pulmonar obstructiva crónica (5.1%), VIH/SIDA (3.5%), tuberculosis (2.5%), cáncer de pulmón (2.3%), accidentes de tránsito (2.2%), y prematuridad y bajo peso al nacer (2.0%). Si analizamos solo las muertes en los primeros 5 años de vida, donde los defectos congénitos y las enfermedades genéticas tienen mayor peso, vemos que las 6 primeras causas de muerte -entre los 10 millones de niños en ese grupo de edad que fallecen por año- constituyen el 75% de las muertes y son, en orden decreciente: infecciones respiratorias (17%), diarreas (17%), bajo peso al nacer (11%), infecciones del recién nacido (9%), asfixia del recién nacido (8%) y malaria o paludismo (7%). (Penchaszadeh, “Genética y Salud”)

Translated version

Indeed, if we ask ourselves what makes people to get sick and die, we could see that health maintenance depends fundamentally on environmental, social, and economic factors, rather than people's genetic constitution. According to the World Health Organization, the 10 main causes of death in the world at all ages are: myocardial infarction (12.2%), cerebral vascular accidents (9.7%), pneumonia (7.1%), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (5.1%), HIV/AIDS (3.5%), tuberculosis (2.5%), lung cancer (2.3%), traffic accidents (2.2%), and prematurity and low birth weight (2.0%). If we analyze deaths only in the first 5 years of life, where congenital defects and genetic diseases have greater influence, we see that the 6 leading causes of death (among the 10 million children in that age group who die yearly) represent 75% of deaths. These are, in descending order: respiratory infections (17%), diarrhea (17%), low birth weight (11%), newborn infections (9%), newborn asphyxia (8%), and malaria (7%). (Penchaszadeh, "Genetics and Health").

Paragraph 8

¿Cómo figuran las enfermedades genéticas en este cuadro? Si nos atenemos a la definición más restrictiva de enfermedad «genética» podríamos decir que por lo menos un 5% de la mortalidad en menores de 5 años es debido a trastornos genéticos y defectos congénitos de causa desconocida. Esto no es mucho ni poco. La importancia de los problemas de salud no se mide solamente por su frecuencia ni por su impacto en la mortalidad. Otros factores importantes están relacionados con: la gravedad de las manifestaciones clínicas, la invalidez o discapacidad que ocasionan durante la vida, la dificultad de su prevención, y la complejidad y costo de su tratamiento. Las enfermedades hereditarias afectan negativamente la autoestima de los afectados y sus familiares, generando sentimientos de culpa y ansiedad, a los que se agregan el estrés de la

estigmatización y discriminación de que suelen ser objeto por la sociedad. Obviamente, no es ético ni acorde al derecho humano a la salud, argumentar que como las enfermedades genéticas son poco frecuentes, no merecen la atención de los profesionales y los organismos de salud. (Penchaszadeh, “Genética y Salud”; “Genética y Derechos Humanos” 177-204).

Translated version

How do genetic diseases appear in this chart? If we stick to the most restrictive definition of “genetic” disease, we could say that at least 5% of mortality in children under 5 years of age is due to genetic disorders and congenital defects of unknown cause. This is neither too much nor too little. The importance of health problems is not measured only by their frequency or their impact on mortality. Other important factors are related to the severity of clinical manifestations, the invalidity or disability that they cause during life, the difficulty of their prevention, and the complexity and cost of their treatment. Hereditary diseases negatively affect the self-esteem of those affected and their relatives, generating feelings of guilt and anxiety, to which are added the stress of stigmatization and discrimination to which they are usually subjected by society. It is obviously non-ethical or in accordance with the human right to health to argue that since genetic diseases are rare, they do not deserve the attention of health professionals and organizations. (Penchaszadeh, “Genetics and Health”; “Genetics and Human Rights” 177-204).

Paragraph 9

Uno de los riesgos éticos de las investigaciones genéticas es que la información obtenida se utilice en perjuicio de los participantes, por ejemplo por parte de seguros privados de salud para negar la cobertura de servicios o cobrar cifras astronómicas por las pólizas a personas con características genéticas «inconvenientes». Lamentablemente, el hecho que la salud está dejando de ser un derecho, para convertirse en un objeto de mercado, genera las condiciones para que los

seguros privados con fines de lucro tengan el incentivo económico para discriminar a las personas con mayor riesgo de enfermar, incluyendo a aquellos con susceptibilidades genéticas para desarrollar enfermedades (Geller ctd en Alper 267-282). La discriminación genética en el mercado laboral es otra posible consecuencia de las investigaciones genéticas, reñida con la ética. Aunque la tecnología todavía no permite predicciones válidas, son varias las industrias norteamericanas que han recurrido a pruebas genéticas para deshacerse de trabajadores que consideraban «riesgosos» para sus ganancias (Holtzman). Las investigaciones genéticas deben asegurar la protección de la privacidad de los datos genéticos para así minimizar su utilización en la discriminación de las personas (UNESCO, “Declaración internacional sobre datos genéticos humanos”).

Translated version

One of the ethical risks of genetic research is that the information obtained can be used to the detriment of the participants; for example, private health insurance companies that deny service coverage or charge astronomical amounts for policies to people with “inconvenient” genetic characteristics. Unfortunately, the fact that health is ceasing to be a right, and it is becoming a market object, creates conditions for profit-seeking private insurance to have the economic incentive to discriminate people at a higher risk of getting sick, including those with genetic susceptibilities to develop diseases (Geller cited in Alper 267-282). Genetic discrimination in the labor market is another possible consequence of genetic research, in conflict with ethics. Although technology does not allow valid predictions yet, several North American industries have resorted to genetic testing to get rid of workers they considered “risky” for their profits (Holtzman). Genetic research must ensure genetic data privacy protection to

minimize its use for discriminating people (UNESCO, “International Declaration on Human Genetic Data”).

Paragraph 10

El volumen y la complejidad de la información que se obtiene actualmente en las investigaciones genéticas son inmensos y proporcionales a la dificultad de la estructura y función del genoma y de las interacciones entre el genoma y el medio ambiente. La identificación de millones de «marcadores» a lo largo del genoma ha llevado a la creación de bases computarizadas de datos genéticos, donde se almacena información de centenares de miles de individuos con diversos fines. Los principales objetivos de estas bases de datos son: (a) la identificación de personas -uso forense-; (b) la investigación de genes asociados a enfermedades comunes; y (c) la identificación de genes de respuesta a fármacos y tóxicos. Las bases de datos pueden contener sólo información sobre personas, o contener además las muestras de ADN de las mismas. Diversas características de la información genética hacen que se deba tratar con sumo cuidado para no infringir principios bioéticos y derechos humanos fundamentales.

Translated version

The volume and complexity of the information that is currently obtained in genetic research is immense and proportional to the difficulty of the structure and function of the genome and the interaction between the genome and the environment. The identification of millions of “markers” throughout the genome has led to creating computerized genetic databases, where information on hundreds of thousands of individuals is stored for various purposes. The main objectives of these databases are: (a) people identification (forensic use); (b) genes research associated with common diseases; and (c) the identification of drug and toxic response genes. The databases can only contain information about people, or they can also contain their

DNA samples. Due to various characteristics of genetic information, it must be treated with great care, as not to infringe bioethical principles and fundamental human rights.

Paragraph 11

Es posible que las bases de datos genéticos aplicadas a la investigación biomédica redunden en conocimientos aplicables a la salud. En los casos que ello sea efectivamente así, es imprescindible que existan previsiones para compartir eventuales beneficios de los resultados de estas investigaciones con los sujetos y las comunidades que contribuyen sus muestras para las mismas. Dado que los investigadores en algunos países de América Latina están considerando proyectos de bases de datos genéticos es importante que se desarrollen instrumentos regionales que evalúen los objetivos, estructura y funcionamiento de las mismas y sus implicaciones éticas, legales y sociales. Finalmente, cabe preguntarse si la creación de bases de datos genéticos obedece a un uso racional y ético de recursos económicos escasos, y si su mera existencia no refuerza concepciones reduccionistas de la importancia de las variaciones genéticas en las características humanas.

Translated version

It is possible that genetic databases applied to biomedical research can result in knowledge applicable to health. In the occurrences where this is the case, it is imperative to take the precautions to share possible benefits of these investigation's results with the subjects and communities that contribute with their samples for them. Given that researchers in some Latin American countries are considering genetic database projects, it is important for regional instruments to be developed to assess their objectives, structure and functioning, as well as their ethical, legal and social implications. Finally, it is worth wondering if the creation of genetic databases follows a rational and ethical use of scarce economic resources, and whether their

mere existence reinforces reductionist conceptions of the importance of genetic variations in human characteristics.

Paragraph 12

En los años 80's se hicieron aparentes las posibilidades comerciales de la manipulación genética y las ventajas que otorgaría a la industria la aplicación del sistema de patentes a los descubrimientos genómicos. Esto fue seguido en los últimos 20 años del patentamiento de miles de genes, segmentos de genes y proteínas producidas por genes. Esto ha ocurrido en un contexto global regido por el afán de lucro, la primacía del mercado por encima de cualquier valor humano y la acción de las oficinas de patentes de Estados Unidos y Europa de favorecer a la industria por encima del bien público. Las consecuencias de estas acciones monopólicas han sido el encarecimiento de los productos -fármacos y pruebas diagnósticas-, la inequidad en el acceso a los productos por parte de grandes sectores de la población mundial y las trabas a la investigación científica. Estos desarrollos claramente contrarios al bien público han podido ocurrir gracias a la violación sin desparpajos de los principios básicos de la propiedad intelectual y de las reglas de patentamiento.

Translated version

In the 1980s, it became apparent the commercial possibilities of genetic manipulation and the advantages that the application of the patent system would grant to the genomic discoveries industry. In the last 20 years, this was followed by the patenting of thousands of genes, gene segments, and proteins produced by genes. This has occurred in a global context governed by the pursuit of profit, the market's predominance over any human value, and the action of the patent offices in the United States and Europe to favor the industry over public welfare. The consequences of these monopolistic actions have been the rise in prices of products (drugs and

diagnostic tests), inequity in the access to products by big sectors of the world's population and the obstacles to scientific research. These developments, which are clearly contrary to the public good, have occurred thanks to the shameless violation of the basic principles of intellectual property and patenting rules.

Paragraph 13

El reduccionismo ha calado muy hondo como explicación de las causas de la diversidad humana en gustos, personalidad, orientación sexual, criminalidad, adicciones, y muchas otras características. Para el reduccionismo, la variación en todas esas está indudablemente en los genes. Las influencias del medio ambiente, expresado en variaciones en las condiciones de vida y trabajo, el nivel social y económico, cultura, educación, nutrición, crianza, enfermedades, opresión, entre otras; no alcanzan a llegar a la importancia del determinismo de los genes. Estas corrientes reduccionistas y deterministas han estado tratando de probar sus teorías clasificando aleatoriamente a las personas y definiendo variables también en forma azarosa. Así, se ha tratado de demostrar que los genes influyen de tal manera la conducta, que las principales causas de criminalidad son genéticas. (Alper 1-17).

Translated version

Reductionism has penetrated deeply as an explanation of the causes of human diversity in tastes, personality, sexual orientation, criminality, addictions, and many other characteristics. For reductionism, the variation in all of these is undoubtedly in the genes. The influence of the environment, expressed in variations in living and working conditions, social and economic levels, culture, education, nutrition, upbringing, illnesses, oppression, among others; do not reach the importance of determinism in genes. These reductionist and deterministic trends have been trying to test their theories by randomly classifying people and defining variables. Thereby,

attempts have been made to demonstrate that genes influence behavior in such a way that the main causes of criminality are genetic (Alper 1-17).

Paragraph 14

Recientemente un importante logro tecnocientífico ha sido el uso de sistemas enzimáticos que permiten cortar segmentos específicos de ADN de los genes y extraerlos del genoma, así como insertar segmentos nuevos de ADN en genes *in vivo*. Estos sistemas, conocidos como CRISPR por sus siglas en inglés (Clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats) unidos a ciertas enzimas, como la Cas-9, pueden manipularse para literalmente editar segmentos del genoma: cambiar la secuencia de bases en los genes, borrar genes, agregar genes, etc. Este desarrollo tecnocientífico está revolucionando la genómica pues pareciera que va a transformarse en un instrumento de terapia génica de gran precisión, para lograr hacer realidad la terapia génica en gran número de enfermedades hereditarias. Además, como la tecnología podría utilizarse también para editar el genoma de células germinales y embriones, se ha desarrollado una fuerte controversia bioética sobre su utilización. La extensión de éste artículo no permite una mayor elaboración, y solamente es mencionada para alertar al lector que debe estar pendiente de las grandes discusiones bioéticas que ya se están generando (Baltimore, et al. 36-38; Hsu, et al. 1262-1278; Lander, “Brave new genome”).

Translated version

Recently, an important techno-scientific achievement has been the use of enzyme systems that allow specific DNA segments to be cut from genes and extracted from the genome, as well as inserting new DNA segments into genes *in vivo*. These systems, known as CRISPR (Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats) attached to certain enzymes, such as Cas-9, can be manipulated to literally edit segments of the genome: changing the base sequence in

genes, deleting genes, adding genes, etc. This techno-scientific development is revolutionizing genomics, as it seems that it will become a highly precise gene therapy instrument, in order to make gene therapy possible in a large number of hereditary diseases. In addition, as this technology could also be used to modify the genome of germinal cells and embryos, a strong bioethical controversy has developed over its use. The length of this article does not allow further elaboration, and it is only mentioned to warn the reader that they must be aware of the great bioethical discussions that are already being generated (Baltimore, et al. 36-38; Hsu, et al. 1262-1278; Lander, "Brave new genome").

Paragraph 15

La principal objeción ética al uso de la genómica en la predicción de enfermedades y desviaciones de la conducta es que éstas suelen ser demasiado simplistas y basadas en conceptos reduccionistas que no tienen en cuenta la interacción de los genes con el medio ambiente. No sólo que los límites de la normalidad son arbitrarios, sino que estamos asistiendo a una medicalización y genetización de la vida y la salud, que son muy perniciosas para la ciencia misma y la humanidad. Es necesaria una concepción bio-psico-social más equilibrada de la naturaleza humana con reconocimiento de la importancia de lo ambiental y social para aprovechar en forma ética el desarrollo de la ciencia genómica para el bienestar y la salud humanas. Por otra parte, hoy más que nunca, es imprescindible un compromiso de los científicos y los tomadores de decisiones políticas de prohibir la alteración genética en células germinales.

Translated version

The main ethical objection to the use of genomics in predicting diseases and behavioral deviations is that these are often too simplistic and based on reductionist concepts that do not consider the interaction of genes with the environment. Not only the limits of *normality* are

arbitrary, but we are assisting a medicalization and geneticization of life and health, which are very pernicious for science itself and humanity. A more balanced bio-psycho-social conception of human nature is necessary, recognizing the importance of the environmental and social aspects to ethically take advantage of the development of genomic science for human health and well-being. On the other hand, today more than ever, a commitment from scientists and political decision makers to prohibit genetic alteration in germinal cells is essential.

5.3 Glossaries

For this research, a glossary from English to Spanish and another one from Spanish to English were created. They include the most relevant, challenging, or frequently used terms that were found in the texts analyzed. Each glossary contains the term in the source language, its equivalent in the target language, the term's definition, and its corresponding grammatical category. During this process, several online dictionaries were consulted to provide accurate information that would facilitate the researcher's understanding of the texts.

5.3.1 Glossary from English to Spanish

Table 6

From 'gender equality and 'women's empowerment' to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development			
Term in English	Spanish Equivalent	Definition	Grammatical Category
1. Abject	Lamentable	Used to emphasize that a situation or quality is extremely bad	Adjective

2. Buzzword	Palabra de moda	Word or expression that has become fashionable in a particular field and is being used a lot by the media	Noun
3. Concomitant	Concurrente	Accompanying especially in a subordinate or incidental way	Adjective
4. Cornerstone	Piedra angular	The cornerstone of something is the basic part of it on which its existence, success, or truth depends.	Noun
4. Cul-de-sac	Calle sin salida	A street or passage closed at one end	Noun
6. Deep-rooted	Profundamente arraigado	Deeply implanted or established	Adjective
7. Disaggregate	Dividir	To separate into component parts	Verb
8. Disjunction	Disyunción	Act of separating	Noun
9. Enshrine	Encerrar	To enclose in or as if in a shrine	Verb
10. Entail	Implicar	To impose, involve, or imply as a necessary accompaniment or result	Verb
11. Eviscerated	Destripar	Disembowel	Verb

12. Gender agenda	Agenda de género	A set of actions for social change and programmatic and policy change in support of gender equality	Noun
13. Gender dysphoria	Disforia de género	A distress state arising from conflict between a person's gender identity and the sex the person has or was identified as having at birth	Noun
14. Grassroots	De las bases	Basic, fundamental	Adjective
15. Impasse	Punto muerto	A predicament affording no obvious escape	Noun
16. Livelihoods	Sustento	Means of support or subsistence	Noun
17. Mainstream	Integrar	To incorporate in the mainstream	Verb
18. Mapped/ to map	Planeado/ planear	To plan in detail	Verb
19. Moot	Discutible	Open to question	Adjective
20. Pervasive	Dominante	Existing in or spreading through every part of something	Adjective
21. Political bite	Mordacidad política	A keen, incisive quality (bite)	Noun
22. Preclude	Impedir	To make impossible by necessary consequence	Verb
23. Staccato	Staccato	Abrupt, disjointed	Adjective

24. Underpin	Respaldar	To support	Verb
25. Unencumbered	Libre de responsabilidades	Carrying no burdens, responsibilities	Adjective

Table 6 illustrates the glossary from English into Spanish.

Source: Researcher's own creation

5.3.2 Glossary from Spanish to English

Table 7

Bioética y Tecnociencia			
Term in Spanish	English Equivalent	Definition	Grammatical Category
1. ADN codificante	Coding DNA	A sequence of DNA that codes for protein	Noun
2. Bioética	Bioethics	A discipline dealing with the ethical implications of biological research and applications especially in medicine	Noun
3. Células germinales	Germ cells	A reproductive cell of the body. Germ cells are egg cells in females and sperm cells in males	Noun

4. Codificación de proteínas	Protein coding	Proteins substituting missing or mutated cellular proteins	Noun
5. Consentimiento informado	Informed consent	When communication between a patient and physician results in the patient's authorization or agreement to undergo a specific medical intervention	Noun
6. Defectos congénitos	Birth defects	Structural changes present at birth that can affect almost any part or parts of the body. They may affect how the body looks, works, or both	Noun
7. Determinismo genético	Genetic determinism	The doctrine that human and nonhuman animal behavior and mental activity are largely (or completely) controlled by the genetic constitution of the individual and that responses to environmental influences that are for the most part innately determined	Noun
8. Diagnóstico prenatal	Prenatal diagnosis	All diagnostic modalities aimed at gaining information about the embryo or fetus	Noun
9. Edición genética	Gene editing	The ability to make highly specific changes in the DNA sequence of a living	Noun

		organism, essentially customizing its genetic makeup	
10. Eugenesia	Eugenics	The practice or advocacy of controlled selective breeding of human population (as by sterilization) to improve the population's genetic composition	Adjective
11. Exoma	Exome	The exome is defined as the proportion of the genome that encodes for functional proteins	Noun
12. Farmacogenética	Pharmacogenetics	The study of how people respond differently to drug therapy	Noun
13. Fenotipo	Phenotype	The physical expression of one or more genes	Noun
14. Genoma	Genome	The genetic material of an organism	Noun
15. Genómica	Genomics	A branch of biotechnology concerned with applying the techniques of genetics and molecular biology to the genetic mapping and DNA sequencing of sets of genes or the complete genomes of selected organisms	Noun
16. Marcador genético	Marcador genético	A readily recognizable genetic trait	Noun

17. Monogénico	Monogenic	Of, relating to, or controlled by a single gene	Adjective
18. Mutación	Mutation	A relatively permanent change in hereditary material that involves either a change in chromosome structure or number	Noun
19. Patológico	Pathological	Altered or caused by disease	Adjective
20. Pernicioso	Pernicious, harmful	Highly injurious or destructive, deadly	Adjective
21. Predisposición genética	Genetic predisposition	An increased likelihood of developing a particular disease based on the person's genetic makeup	Noun
22. Reduccionismo genético	Genetic reductionism	The idea that genes explain everything	Noun
23. Tecnociencia	Technoscience	The strong interactions in contemporary scientific research and development between that which traditionally was separated into science (theoretical) and technology (practical), especially by philosophers	Noun
24. Terapia génica	Gene therapy	Experimental technique that uses genes to treat or prevent a disease. The most common form of gene therapy involves	Noun

		inserting a normal gene to replace an abnormal gene	
25. Variantes genéticas	Gene variant	A permanent change in the DNA sequence that makes up a gene	Noun

Table 7 illustrates the glossary from Spanish into English.

Source: Researcher's own creation

CHAPTER VI

Conclusions and Recommendations

This final chapter is based on the results accomplished during the analysis and procedures used to translate the texts *Bioética y Tecnociencia*, and *From 'gender equality and 'women's empowerment' to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development*. The researcher will develop a review of the conclusions obtained and their compliance with the objectives presented in Chapter I. Next, the effects of the translation techniques used will be identified, as well as the process of data analysis and interpretation. Lastly, some recommendations will be provided for students, professors and researchers interested on evaluating similar topics in the future.

6.1 Purpose of the Conclusion

The conclusion will summarize the important aspects of the investigation and it will prove if the objectives posed initially were successfully achieved. The procedures and methods applied to obtain an accurate and faithful translation will be described. Moreover, the different data collection instruments will show the audience several tools that can be utilized to optimize forthcoming translation processes.

6.2 Conclusions

The conclusions portion is an opportunity for the researcher to describe the impact and significance of the findings in detail. Moreover, they introduce new strategies that can be helpful to provide an answer to the research question. Conclusions emphasize the development of results achieved through the instruments that were utilized. Finally, they comprise an explanation on

how the combination of different tools was useful when transferring the content from the source text into the target text in a natural way.

6.2.1 To translate the documents Bioética y Tecnociencia, from Spanish into English, and From ‘gender equality and ‘women’s empowerment’ to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development from English into Spanish for a public university’s library

The idea of providing a digital translation arose due to the increase in the use of electronic tools during the global pandemic. Both texts translated were selected from the Mariana Campos library from the Universidad Nacional. Thanks to the wide virtual platform that this public university has, the texts will be available in a practical way to students, professors and investigators interested in the topic while facilitating their access to online documents for their own research projects.

The first step carried out in the translation process was to apply a general and close reading to the texts. General reading allows the translator to have a better idea of what the document is about and familiarize with the terminology and jargon present in case further research about the main topic is necessary. Both texts selected had challenging vocabulary that was analyzed and defined before engaging in the translation process. The general reading was helpful to identify several factors present on the text analysis such as text style, text function, scale of formality, scale of generality or difficulty, and the translation method that was more appropriate for each text.

The second step was to identify the text analysis characteristics that were present on the texts. A narrative text style was recognized in both documents, but the English text had a

prevailing vocative function since it appealed to the reader's senses. Next, both texts are considered to have formal aspects, however, the English text has an official formality while the Spanish text is formal since it contains academic vocabulary that requires some research. In terms of scale of generality or difficulty, both texts have a level of complexity that would not be comprehensible by all readers. In addition, the English text can be used for instructional purposes and, therefore, it was classified as educated, whereas the Spanish text was classified as technical due to the use of scientific terminology that belongs to a specific area of expertise.

The scale of emotional tone conveys the author's attitude towards the topic. The English text was categorized as intense because of the use of intensifiers when transferring the message to the audience. On the other hand, the Spanish text is factual, since it is based in scientific facts and certainty. Furthermore, the translation method that was selected for both texts is semantic. This type of translation attempts to render the message in a way that is as close as possible to the original text, due to the fact that it has a source language bias. Finally, the translation process was simplified by the steps taken beforehand since the challenges were pointed out and the text analysis chart was used as a guide for the researcher.

6.2.2 To apply various translation techniques to the documents to achieve natural, cohesive, and accurate results

Through the use of different translation techniques, it is possible to work with smaller units of language without them being analyzed separately or out of context. However, words put together convey different ideas and feelings and it is important to maintain the text's meaning and essence in mind in order to achieve a more natural and precise outcome in translation. There will always be grammatical, syntactic, and semantic differences between the source language and the target language and this is the moment in which translation techniques become helpful.

The instruments used in the investigation were key to ease the translation process. Those instruments were: the text analysis chart, the color-coding chart, and both glossaries. With the aid of the text analysis chart, the researcher was able to identify some important aspects present on the source texts like the text style, text function, scale of formality, scale of generality or difficulty, scale of emotional tone, and the translation method that would be used. Moreover, identifying these aspects on the source texts allowed the researcher to have a broader comprehension of the content.

On the other hand, the translation procedures that were used include transposition, modulation, omission, amplification, explicitation, literal translation, and punctuation changes. First, transposition is used to display the grammatical differences between the languages in which the source texts are written. It can change the word order or replace the grammatical category in a word without altering the meaning in the source text. Second, modulation works on the content of the texts. It is used to express a different perspective in the target language in order to avoid an awkward-sounding translation, but without omitting the original message. Next, making necessary omissions on the source text contributes to economy and naturalness when translating into the target language. Moreover, amplification is used to add small elements to the translated version that will reinforce the meaning of a word. Then, the function of the explicitation procedure is to add precise details into the target texts to provide clarification. These elements can be differentiated from the ones identified during an amplification procedure since they tend to be more extensive. Literal translation is an exact equivalent between both languages. For this procedure, the context has to be analyzed, because literal translation is not always achieved effectively since the word order in each language may vary. Overall, the

application of these techniques with the aid of the color-coding chart resulted in a more natural, cohesive and accurate translation.

6.2.3 To evaluate the effect of the translation techniques applied on the documents

In order to evaluate the effect of the translation procedures, several aspects such as cultural background, grammatical differences, and jargon have to be considered. Also, categorizing the texts into the different subdivisions mentioned previously, was helpful for the researcher in order to have a better understanding of the author's intention and tone. It is important to analyze the type of audience for whom the text was written for in order to find the most adequate procedures and equivalences for the translated version. The use of the translation procedures exemplified the differences present when translating from one language to another.

The English text that was analyzed in this research, is about the importance of gender equality. It provides some background information but uses intensifiers to express the reader's thoughts and feelings as well. It calls to action by asking questions to the readership, which made it a vocative text. In this case the text was very straightforward, so it was not necessary to apply as many omissions as the ones needed to translate the Spanish text. The word order is usually different in English since words tend to be located in different parts of the sentence if compared with a Spanish text, so transposition was helpful when encountering this difference. However, due to the direct nature of the English text, it was possible to use literal translation frequently.

The Spanish text is an informative article about bioethics and technoscience, therefore, it contains a more specific and technical terminology. In addition, it was an informative text based in facts rather than the writer's opinion. The Spanish language often says little in many words, hence more words were omitted when translating this text because less pronouns and articles are

needed in English to convey the same message. In the same way, more amplifications and explicitations were found when translating into Spanish than into English. Furthermore, transposition was often needed to translate the names of scientific terms that were made up of several words.

Finally, when it comes to punctuation changes, several differences were found in both texts regarding the appropriate use of upper and lower case letters in each language. In addition, when translating from English into Spanish, it was often necessary to change the dashes for a comma or parenthesis when adding information to the statement. Moreover, when asking a question in Spanish there is an opening question mark, unlike the questions in English. Also, the full stop is more commonly used in English, Spanish has more connectors instead so the sentences tend to be longer. Keeping these differences in mind was useful in order to achieve more precise results and solve challenges that were presented by the language differences.

6.2.4 To create a glossary with the most relevant terminology found in both texts

As mentioned previously, glossaries are a tool for the translator to keep unknown, frequent and technical terms in hand during the whole translation process. There are words whose meaning can vary depending on the context, so having the right definition according to each topic will help the translator convey the right message. Establishing the definitions that will be used by the translator, and sharing them with the readership has a great significance in the appropriate understanding and translation of the texts.

The creation of both glossaries started with a thorough reading of the original texts. Then, 25 words from each text that presented a certain level of complexity were selected and listed in a chart in both, the source language and the target language. The translator added a short definition

to each term by consulting online dictionaries, academic texts, and scientific websites. Then, another column was added which contained the grammatical category of each word that will help it fit the target text.

Finally, the translator was able to have a better understanding of the unfamiliar words prior to starting the translation. This tool helped the researcher to optimize the time invested in the translation process and improved its quality. By acquiring proper knowledge of specific terminology, the researcher was able to select a translation procedure according to the message that was conveyed in the source text. The definition will also be helpful for future reference in other translation projects, not only for the investigator but for forthcoming readers as well.

6.3 Restatement of the Research Question

What is the effect of the procedures and methods used to translate the documents *Bioética y tecnociencia*, from Spanish into English and *From 'gender equality and 'women's empowerment' to global justice: reclaiming a transformative agenda for gender and development* from English into Spanish for a public university's library that to be used by students and professors of this institution?. This question was presented in Chapter I, with the intention of guiding the researcher in an accurate, faithful and natural translation process.

Without proper investigation and use of these procedures and methods, poor results would have been obtained, since they are important aspects to be considered during a translation process depending on the type of text and audience. As stated previously, semantic translation was the method selected for both texts, since this type of translation aims to render the exact contextual meaning of the original text. Moreover, semantic translation tends to be more detailed and thus tends to over translate. Therefore, the color-coding was also a key point during the

investigation, as it allowed the translator to optimize the final version while serving as a guide to implement the use of the different translation procedures.

6.4 Recommendations

Every translation project has different requirements and needs, therefore, the recommendations provided in this paper will be based on the researcher's own experience. These recommendations are aimed at future students and outsiders who wish to carry out similar investigations. One of the most important aspects is to select a text that is of interest to the translator, because it will be frequently used during the analysis. In addition, before even starting with the translation process, it is essential to review the theory about translation methods and procedures, since this will help the researcher identify them more easily during the general reading process. The lack of knowledge on these procedures can lead to an unsuitable translation and will delay the investigation.

For this research, two texts were provided by a public university, one in English and the other one in Spanish. Both documents had to be at least 20 pages long and the researcher had to make sure that none of them had a translated version already. When requesting documents from a specific organization, it is important to be patient because sometimes it takes time for them to reply and the process of selecting the documents afterwards can also be lengthy. Some organizations might not even have the type of texts required, so a deep search online is recommended before getting in touch with them. Next, once the texts are selected, they must be reviewed and approved by the tutor and the career director. Therefore, the sooner the documents are selected and reviewed, the sooner the development of the research objectives and research question will start.

Once the texts are selected, the first step is to read them thoroughly several times in order to get familiar with the words and context. It is imperative to fully understand the texts before starting with the investigation. Any unknown or frequently used words can be highlighted and added to the glossary since the first reading, as this will help the translator to have a better understanding of the source text. This will lead to step number 2, which will be to start working on the creation of a glossary for each language to provide cohesion to the texts. As the investigation progresses, it is also recommended to have a sort of timeline or agenda to organize the researcher's time efficiently and comply with the delivery dates. Time management is key to complete a research project of this nature, because even though the amount of information available can be overwhelming, setting realistic goals will help ease the process.

The third step will be engaging with the translation itself. By the time the seminar starts it would be ideal to have the translated texts ready for the tutor to review and correct them, so that the Spanish translation can be sent to be examined by the philologist. This process will expedite the translator's progress during the rest of the seminar, since it will allow them to start working on other aspects of the investigation while this is being revised. The fourth step is starting with the text analysis and color-coding charts. When creating a color-coding chart, it is recommended not to use colors that might be confused with each other, and make sure they stand out. Also, when applying the colors to the text it is suggested to assign the corresponding color to each translation procedure at once instead of looking for them separately. By doing this, the process will be carried out in a smoother way since the translator will get familiar with the differences in each procedure and start identifying the colors almost automatically.

It is important to remember that students are not alone during this process. Moreover, it is always possible to contact the student's tutor, grammar advisor, philologist, professors from the

university's English department, or even the career director for any sort of clarification, further suggestions and additional resources as needed. Finally, patience, good organization skills and discipline are imperative in order to achieve the desired research results.

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