
Graduate Certificate in French Translation (Gibraltar)

* French Language and Style for Translation

Lexical choice is the process by which a translator selects the most appropriate word or phrase from the target language to convey the meaning of the source term. The decision is influenced by factors such as register, connotation, and collocational patterns. For example, the English verb “to purchase” can be rendered as *acheter* in a neutral context, but in a formal business report the translator might prefer *acquérir* to signal a higher level of sophistication. The challenge lies in maintaining semantic fidelity while respecting the stylistic expectations of the target audience.

Register refers to the level of formality or informality that characterises a piece of language. French registers range from highly formal (e.g., Legal or academic prose) to colloquial and slang. A translator must identify the register of the source text and replicate it in the target language. When translating a courtroom transcript, the use of *vous* rather than *tu*, and the inclusion of terms such as *délibération* and *jurisprudence*, are essential to preserve the formal register. Mis-matching registers can produce a tone that feels either too stiff or too casual, undermining the credibility of the translation.

Register shift occurs when a text moves from one register to another, often for rhetorical effect. Recognising these shifts is crucial because they dictate how a translator should handle subsequent language choices. In a political speech that begins with a solemn declaration and later adopts a more approachable style, the translator must mirror that shift by moving from formal constructions like *nous déclarons* to more conversational phrasing such as *on veut dire*. Failure to reflect the shift can obscure the speaker’s intended persuasive strategy.

Idiom is a fixed expression whose meaning cannot be deduced from the literal meanings of its components. French idioms often involve metaphorical imagery that does not translate directly. The English phrase “to kick the bucket” translates to *casser sa pipe* in French, a completely different metaphor. The translator must therefore have a repertoire of equivalent idioms and be aware of cultural resonance. The difficulty is heightened when an idiom has no direct counterpart; in such cases, a paraphrase that captures the intended meaning while preserving the idiomatic flavour may be required.

Collocation describes the habitual co-occurrence of words in a language. Certain adjectives, verbs, or nouns tend to pair with specific partners. For instance, the French adjective *fort* collocates with *probabilité* (high probability) but not with *chance*, where the preferred collocation is *grande chance*. Translators need to be sensitive to these patterns because literal translations that respect only lexical meaning can sound unnatural. A common pitfall is to translate “strong chance” as *forte chance*, which would be rejected by native speakers.

False friend (or *faux-ami*) is a word that looks similar in two languages but differs in meaning. The English “actual” and French “actuel” illustrate this: “Actual” means “real” whereas “actuel” means “current”. When a translator mistakenly transfers the false friend, the resulting text may convey an unintended concept, leading to confusion. Identifying false friends requires a thorough lexical awareness and often consultation

of specialized dictionaries.

Cognate denotes a word that shares a common etymological origin and often a similar form across languages. While cognates can facilitate translation, they are not always perfect equivalents. The English “information” and French “information” are cognates that align well semantically, but the English “event” and French “événement” differ slightly in nuance; “événement” carries a more formal tone. Translators must evaluate whether a cognate preserves the appropriate register and connotation.

Neologism is a newly coined word or expression. The rapid evolution of technology produces neologisms such as “cloud computing”. French equivalents may be borrowed directly (cloud computing) or adapted (informatique en nuage). Translators must decide whether to retain the English term, adopt the French neologism, or create a hybrid. The decision hinges on the target audience’s familiarity with the term and the stylistic conventions of the publication.

Archaic language refers to words or forms that have fallen out of regular use. When translating historical documents, an archaic register may be required to evoke the period. For instance, the 18th-century French verb *se mouvoir* (to move) appears in older texts, whereas contemporary French would use *se déplacer*. The translator must balance authenticity with readability, possibly providing footnotes to explain obsolete forms.

Regionalism denotes a lexical item that is specific to a particular geographic area. French regionalisms include *cagoule* (a type of hood) in the South of France and *poutine* (a dish) in Quebec. Translators working on texts that reference regional culture should retain the regionalism and, when necessary, add a brief explanatory note. Over-generalising by substituting a standard term may erase the local colour that the author intended.

Dialect is a broader linguistic variety that encompasses phonology, grammar, and vocabulary distinct from the standard language. In translation, the decision to render a dialectal source text into a standard target language or to preserve the dialectal flavour is pivotal. Translating a novel written in Provençal-influenced French into standard French may involve retaining certain lexical items (e.g., *cagou*) while adjusting syntax to remain comprehensible. The challenge is to convey the social identity embedded in the dialect without alienating the target readership.

Tone captures the author’s attitude toward the subject and audience. It can be serious, ironic, sarcastic, or affectionate. French tonal markers often involve subtle shifts in word choice and syntax. For example, an ironic tone might be expressed through the use of *certainement* or *bien sûr* in a context that suggests the opposite. Translators must detect these cues and reproduce them, lest the translation lose its intended emotional impact.

Voice distinguishes between active and passive constructions. French tends to use the passive voice less frequently than English, especially in journalistic writing. Translating an English passive sentence such as “The decision was made by the committee” into French may result in the active form *Le comité a pris la décision*, which aligns with typical French style. However, in legal or scientific texts, the passive voice may be required to maintain an impersonal tone. The translator must assess the genre’s conventions before

deciding.

Syntax governs the arrangement of words into sentences. French syntax differs from English in several respects, including the placement of adjectives, the order of clitic pronouns, and the use of prepositions. For instance, adjectives that express beauty, age, or size often follow the noun in French (*une maison ancienne*), whereas English places them before. Translators must reorganise sentence structure to satisfy French syntactic norms while preserving the source meaning.

Word order is a component of syntax that dictates the sequence of subject, verb, and object. French typically follows a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) order, but certain constructions, such as negative interrogatives, invert the order (*Ne venez-vous pas?*). When translating English questions that employ auxiliary inversion (“Did you see?”), The French equivalent often uses the particle *est-ce que* (*Est-ce que vous avez vu ?*). Mis-ordering can result in grammatically incorrect or ambiguous translations.

Agreement in French requires that adjectives, past participles, and pronouns match the gender and number of the nouns they modify. For example, the adjective *grand* becomes *grande* when describing a feminine noun. Translators must be vigilant about agreement, especially when the source language does not mark gender (as English does not). Errors in agreement can signal a lack of linguistic competence and diminish the translation’s credibility.

Gender agreement is a subset of agreement that focuses specifically on masculine versus feminine forms. Certain nouns have ambiguous gender, such as *le personnel* (masculine) referring to a mixed-gender workforce. Translators must decide whether to use masculine plural forms or to employ inclusive strategies (e.g., *les membres du personnel*) when the source context emphasizes gender neutrality.

Number agreement deals with singular versus plural forms. French pluralisation often involves adding *s* to nouns and adjectives, but many irregular plurals exist (e.g., *œil* → *yeux*). When translating English sentences with collective nouns (“The team is winning”), the French translator must determine whether to treat the collective as singular (*L’équipe gagne*) or plural (*Les membres de l’équipe gagnent*) based on the nuance the source conveys.

Tense indicates the time frame of an action. French tenses include the *présent*, *imparfait*, *passé composé*, *plus-que-parfait*, *futur simple*, and *futur antérieur*. Choosing the correct French tense often requires understanding the aspectual nuances of the English source. The English present perfect (“has completed”) may map to the *passé composé* (*a terminé*) or the *imparfait* (*avait terminé*) depending on whether the action is viewed as completed or ongoing.

Aspect relates to the internal temporal structure of an event, such as whether it is bounded or continuous. French does not have a dedicated progressive aspect, so continuous actions are expressed with the verb *être en train de plus infinitive* (*il était en train de manger*). Translators need to decide whether the source’s progressive nuance warrants this construction or whether a simple tense suffices.

Mood conveys the speaker’s attitude toward the reality of an action. French moods include indicative, subjunctive, conditional, and imperative. The subjunctive is triggered by clauses expressing doubt, desire, or necessity (*Il faut que vous veniez*). Translators must recognise English cues for subjunctive usage (“It is

essential that...”) and render them appropriately, as mistranslating mood can alter the modality of the statement.

Subjunctive is a mood used for hypothetical, desired, or uncertain actions. Its forms are often unfamiliar to English-speaking translators, leading to avoidance or substitution with indicative forms. For instance, “I want you to be ready” should become *Je veux que vous soyez prêt*, not ... *que vous êtes prêt*. Mastery of the subjunctive is essential for accurate translation of formal and literary texts.

Imperative expresses commands or requests. French imperatives differ from English in that they lack a subject pronoun and often employ a distinct verb form (*Parle !, Parlons !, Parlez !*). When translating polite commands, the French may prefer a conditional construction (*Pourriez-vous parler*) rather than a direct imperative, reflecting cultural norms of politeness.

Conditional conveys hypothetical situations or polite requests. The French conditional is formed with the infinitive plus the imperfect endings (*je parlerais*). Translators must differentiate between the present conditional (used for future-in-the-past or polite requests) and the past conditional (*j’aurais parlé*) for counterfactual statements. Misusing these forms can distort the temporal logic of the narrative.

Modal verb in English expresses ability, permission, obligation, or probability. French often uses periphrastic constructions to render modal meanings, such as *devoir* for obligation (must → *doit*) or *pouvoir* for ability (can → *peut*). Translators must select the appropriate modal expression that aligns with the source’s nuance and the target’s stylistic expectations.

Pronominal forms include reflexive, reciprocal, and idiomatic pronouns. French reflexive verbs (e.g., *se laver*) require the reflexive pronoun to agree with the subject. Translators must recognise when an English verb is reflexive (“He washed himself”) and render it with the appropriate French reflexive structure. Errors in pronominalisation can lead to semantic inaccuracies.

Reflexive pronoun is the pronoun that indicates the subject performs the action on itself. In French, reflexive pronouns precede the verb (*je me lave*). English often omits the reflexive pronoun, especially in idiomatic expressions (“He shaved”). Translators must decide whether a literal reflexive rendering is required or whether a French idiomatic equivalent is preferable (*Il se rase*).

Object pronoun placement follows specific rules in French. In simple tenses, object pronouns precede the verb (*Je le vois*); in affirmative imperatives, they follow and are hyphenated (*Regarde-le*). English object pronouns always follow the verb, so translators must rearrange them to conform to French norms. Misplacement can produce ungrammatical sentences.

Clitic pronouns are unstressed pronouns that attach to verbs. Their ordering is rigid: *Me, te, se, nous, vous* before *le, la, les*; followed by *lui, leur*; then *y*; and finally *en*. For example, “I give it to her” becomes *Je le lui donne*. Translators must master clitic sequencing to avoid syntactic errors, particularly in complex sentences with multiple pronouns.

Preposition indicates relationships of space, time, or abstract connection. French prepositions often differ from English equivalents; “in” can be *dans, en, or au* depending on context. Translators must consider

collocational patterns: “Interested in” translates to *intéressé par*, not *intéressé dans*. Incorrect preposition choice can alter meaning subtly.

Prepositional phrase functions as a modifier or complement. French prepositional phrases may require article adjustments and gender agreement, such as *à la maison* versus *au travail*. Translators should verify that the noun’s gender aligns with the article and that the preposition matches the governing verb’s requirements.

Conjunction links clauses or phrases. French conjunctions include *mais*, *et*, *or*, *donc*, and *car*. The subtle difference between *car* (because, causal) and *parce que* (because, explanatory) can affect the logical flow of a text. Translators must select the conjunction that best reflects the source’s discourse relation.

Cohesion refers to the linguistic devices that bind a text together, such as pronouns, lexical repetition, and conjunctions. French cohesion often relies on pronoun referents that agree in gender and number. Maintaining cohesive ties ensures that the translated text reads as a unified whole rather than a series of disconnected sentences.

Coherence is the overall sense-making quality of a discourse. It depends on logical progression, thematic consistency, and appropriate discourse markers. Translators must preserve coherence by ensuring that the target text follows the same argumentative structure and that any implied connections are explicit in French.

Discourse marker is a word or phrase that signals a shift, contrast, or continuation in discourse (e.g., *however* → *toutefois*, *therefore* → *donc*). These markers guide readers through the text’s logical steps. Translators need to choose discourse markers that match the source’s rhetorical intent and the target language’s stylistic conventions.

Parataxis involves placing clauses side by side without explicit subordination. English often uses commas or conjunctions; French may employ simple sentences linked by commas or the coordinating conjunction *et*. Translators should retain the paratactic style when the source aims for a rapid, breathless rhythm, as in journalistic reporting.

Hypotaxis creates hierarchical clause relationships through subordination. French uses subordinating conjunctions such as *lorsque*, *puisque*, and *bien que*. Translators must preserve the hierarchical structure to reflect the source’s logical dependencies, especially in academic writing where complex arguments are built upon subordinate clauses.

Ellipsis is the omission of elements that are understood from context. In French, ellipsis often appears in dialogues (— *Tu viens ?* — *Oui.*) where the verb “*venir*” is omitted in the response. Translators must decide whether to replicate the ellipsis for stylistic fidelity or to supply the missing element for clarity, depending on the target audience’s expectations.

Nominalisation converts verbs or adjectives into nouns (e.g., “The development of...” → *le développement de...*). French academic style frequently employs nominalisation, which can increase formality. Translators should be aware of the tendency toward nominalisation in French and adjust the level of abstraction

accordingly to avoid overly dense prose.

Paraphrase is the act of restating a source segment using different wording. In translation, paraphrase may be necessary when a literal rendering would be awkward or when the source contains culture-specific references lacking equivalents. However, excessive paraphrasing can drift from the original meaning; the translator must balance fidelity with readability.

Translation equivalence is the degree to which a target-language segment matches the source in meaning, style, and function. Different models of equivalence exist, such as formal equivalence (literal correspondence) and dynamic equivalence (functional similarity). Translators must decide which model best serves the text's purpose, often blending the two to achieve a natural yet accurate rendering.

Dynamic equivalence prioritises the effect on the target audience, aiming for a translation that elicits the same response as the original. This approach often requires restructuring sentences, adapting idioms, and localising cultural references. For a marketing brochure, dynamic equivalence ensures that persuasive techniques resonate with French consumers as they would with English speakers.

Formal equivalence stresses a close adherence to the source text's form, preserving lexical items, sentence structure, and stylistic features. Legal documents frequently demand formal equivalence to avoid unintended alterations of obligations or rights. Translators must meticulously track each term and its legal connotation, as even minor deviations can have significant ramifications.

Cultural adaptation involves modifying content to suit the target culture's norms, values, and expectations. This may include changing references to holidays, units of measurement, or social customs. For example, a reference to "Thanksgiving" in an English text may be replaced with "le jour de l'Action de grâce" in French, or, depending on context, with a more familiar French holiday such as "le 14 juillet". The translator must evaluate whether a direct translation or a cultural substitution better serves the target readership.

Localisation extends cultural adaptation to include technical and design considerations, such as adjusting layout for French typographic conventions (e.g., Non-breaking spaces before punctuation). In software translation, localisation ensures that date formats (DD/MM/YYYY) and decimal separators (, versus .) conform to French standards. Translators working on multimedia must also synchronise subtitles with speech timing, respecting French line-length norms.

Register matching is the practice of aligning the source text's register with an appropriate target register. This is particularly important when the source employs a mixed register, such as a scientific article that includes occasional colloquial anecdotes. Translators must decide whether to preserve the informal interludes (rendered with *ça*, *on*) or to smooth them into a uniformly formal style, based on the expectations of the target readership.

Style guide provides normative rules for spelling, punctuation, terminology, and formatting. French translation programmes often reference the "Lexique des règles typographiques en usage à l'Imprimerie nationale" or the "Guide du rédacteur". Consistency with the style guide ensures that the translation meets professional standards and facilitates peer review.

Terminology management involves the systematic handling of domain-specific terms. Translators create glossaries to maintain consistency across a project, especially in technical fields like medicine or engineering. For instance, the term “blood pressure” should be consistently rendered as *pression artérielle* throughout a medical dossier. Failure to manage terminology can result in contradictory translations that confuse the reader.

Glossary is a list of approved translations for key terms. In collaborative projects, a shared glossary prevents divergent renderings of the same concept. Translators should regularly update the glossary to incorporate new neologisms or to reflect consensus decisions reached during peer review.

Concordance is a tool that allows translators to search for how a particular word or phrase has been rendered in previous translations. By consulting a concordance, a translator can maintain stylistic continuity, especially for recurring expressions. This practice is essential in large corpora where uniformity enhances the perceived quality of the final product.

Source language interference occurs when the translator’s native language influences the target language output, leading to calques or unnatural phrasing. For example, an English-speaking translator might produce a French sentence such as *je suis en accord avec la décision*, directly mirroring the English “I am in agreement with the decision,” while a native French expression would simply be *je suis d’accord avec la décision*. Awareness of interference helps translators produce more idiomatic French.

Target language interference is the reverse phenomenon, where the target language’s structures affect the translation of the source. When translating from French to English, a translator might retain French sentence-final adverbs (“*Il a rapidement fini*”) as “He quickly finished,” which is acceptable, but may also produce awkward constructions like “He did finish quickly” if the translator over-applies French emphasis patterns. Recognising this interference prevents clumsy renderings.

Semantic field groups words that share a common conceptual domain, such as the field of “transport” (*voiture, train, avion*). Translators should keep terms within the same semantic field to preserve conceptual coherence. Shifting a term to a different field can distort the intended nuance; for instance, translating “road” as *sentier* (path) instead of *route* would change the perceived level of infrastructure.

Polysemy refers to a single word having multiple related meanings. The French word *livre* can mean “book” or “pound” (currency). Context determines the correct translation. Translators must analyse surrounding cues to disambiguate polysemous terms, especially in technical documents where precision is paramount.

Homonymy involves words that share spelling or pronunciation but have unrelated meanings. French “*avocat*” can denote a “lawyer” or an “avocado.” When translating a culinary text, the correct sense must be selected to avoid a legal misinterpretation. Disambiguation strategies include consulting the broader discourse and, when necessary, adding clarifying modifiers.

Ambiguity arises when a sentence admits multiple plausible interpretations. Translators must decide which reading aligns with the author’s intent. In cases where the source is deliberately ambiguous, the translator may preserve the ambiguity through careful wording, or may opt for a clarifying footnote if the target audience would otherwise be confused.

Pragmatics studies how context influences meaning. French pragmatics includes conventions of politeness, such as the use of the conditional for polite requests (Pourriez-vous...). Translators must be attuned to these pragmatic cues to render speech acts appropriately. Ignoring pragmatic subtleties can lead to translations that sound rude or overly formal.

Speech act categorises utterances as requests, assertions, promises, etc. The French language has distinct formulas for each act. For example, a promise is often expressed with *Je vous promets que...*, while an assertion may simply use the indicative. Translators should identify the speech act in the source and apply the corresponding French formula to maintain functional equivalence.

Illocutionary force denotes the intended effect of an utterance (e.g., Commanding, questioning). French often marks this force through verb mood and lexical choices. Translators need to preserve illocutionary force to ensure that a directive retains its authority in the target language. Mis-rendering a command as a suggestion can diminish the original's impact.

Deixis points to elements whose interpretation depends on the context of utterance (e.g., "This", "that", "here", "now"). French deictic expressions must align with the temporal and spatial references of the source. Translators must adjust deictic terms when the point of reference shifts, such as changing "here" (*ici*) to "there" (*là*) if the narrative perspective changes.

Metaphor conveys meaning through figurative comparison. French metaphors often differ from English ones, requiring creative equivalents. The English metaphor "time is money" becomes *le temps, c'est de l'argent* in French, a literal translation that works because the metaphor is shared across cultures. However, idioms like "to bite the bullet" require a French counterpart such as *prendre son courage à deux mains*. Translators must locate culturally resonant metaphors to preserve the figurative impact.

Metonymy substitutes a term with another that is closely associated (e.g., "The White House" for "the U.S. Administration"). French equivalents often mirror the same metonymic relationship (*la Maison-Blanche*). Translators should verify that the metonymic link holds in French culture; otherwise, a more explicit phrase may be needed.

Synecdoche uses a part to represent the whole or vice versa. For example, "hands" to mean "workers." In French, "les mains" can serve the same function, but the translator must ensure that the cultural connotation aligns. If the source employs "heads" for "leaders," French may prefer *les chefs* rather than a literal "les têtes".

Euphemism softens harsh or taboo concepts. French euphemisms often involve different lexical choices than English. "To die" becomes *trouver la mort* or *passer l'étape finale*. Translators must select a euphemism that matches the register and emotional tone of the source. Over-euphemising can obscure the seriousness of the situation, while under-euphemising may appear insensitive.

Dysphemism deliberately harshens language. French dysphemistic expressions such as *enfoiré* (*bastard*) require careful handling, especially in texts where tone modulation is critical. Translators need to decide whether to retain the dysphemism for impact or to temper it if the target context demands moderation.

Connotation is the set of secondary meanings attached to a word. French words often carry different connotations than their English counterparts. The English “cheap” can be neutral or negative; its French equivalent *bon marché* is generally neutral, whereas *pas cher* may suggest lower quality. Translators must assess connotative differences to avoid unintended value judgments.

Denotation denotes the literal, dictionary definition of a term. While denotation is stable across languages, the surrounding lexical environment influences perception. Translators must ensure that the denotative core remains intact while adapting surrounding elements for stylistic harmony.

Semantic nuance captures subtle shades of meaning. For example, the French verbs *voir* and *regarder* both translate to “to see,” but *voir* indicates passive perception, whereas *regarder* implies intentional observation. Choosing the correct verb preserves the subtle intent of the source.

Lexical field groups words related by theme, similar to semantic field. In French, a lexical field for “emotion” includes *joie*, *tristesse*, *colère*, *peur*. Maintaining consistent lexical fields prevents jarring shifts in tone.

Collocational restriction describes constraints on which words may co-occur. French “avoir besoin de” requires the preposition *de*, whereas English “need” does not need a preposition. Translators must internalise these restrictions to avoid ungrammatical constructions.

Register awareness is the translator’s sensitivity to the appropriate level of formality. It guides decisions on pronoun usage (*vous* vs. *tu*), verb forms, and lexical selections. A failure to maintain register awareness can result in a text that feels out of place for its intended audience.

Politeness strategy involves linguistic choices that convey respect or solidarity. French employs forms such as *vous*, conditional mood, and formulaic openings (*Je vous prie de bien vouloir...*). Translators must adapt these strategies to the target context, especially when translating business correspondence.

Lexical density measures the proportion of content words to function words. French academic texts often exhibit high lexical density, favouring nouns and adjectives over pronouns and conjunctions. Translators may need to increase lexical density when moving from a concise English source to a French academic style.

Functional shift occurs when a word changes its grammatical function, such as a noun becoming a verb. French permits certain functional shifts (e.g., *un email* → *emailer*), but they must be validated against usage norms. Translators should verify that the shifted form is accepted in contemporary French.

Loanword is a term borrowed from another language without translation. French incorporates many English loanwords, especially in technology (*le software* vs. *le logiciel*). Translators must decide whether to retain the loanword for recognisability or replace it with a native equivalent, considering the target audience’s familiarity.

Calque is a literal translation of a phrase. For example, the English “to keep an eye on” becomes the French *garder un œil sur*, a direct calque that is acceptable because the expression exists in French. However, calques that produce unnatural phrasing must be avoided.

Parallelism is the repetition of a grammatical structure for rhetorical effect. French often employs parallelism

in literary and persuasive texts. Translators should replicate parallel structures to preserve rhythm and emphasis, as in the English “to think, to act, to succeed” rendered as *penser, agir, réussir*.

Alliteration is the repetition of initial sounds. While preserving alliteration is not always mandatory, it can be a stylistic goal in poetry or advertising. Translators may craft an equivalent French phrase that maintains the sonic pattern, such as turning “bright blue” into *bleu brillant*.

Assonance repeats vowel sounds within a phrase. In French translation of poetry, preserving assonance contributes to the musicality of the verse. Translators must balance semantic accuracy with phonetic similarity, often opting for creative re-phrasing.

Meter refers to the rhythmic pattern of poetry. French verse traditionally follows alexandrine or octosyllabic meters. Translators of English poetry must decide whether to preserve the original meter or adapt to a French metric tradition, acknowledging that strict metrical fidelity may compromise meaning.

Rhetorical question is a question posed for effect rather than answer. In French, rhetorical questions often retain the same form as genuine inquiries but are signalled by context. Translators should preserve the interrogative punctuation and tone to maintain the rhetorical force.

Imperative politeness in French frequently uses the conditional or the infinitive to soften commands. For example, “Please send the report” becomes *Veuillez envoyer le rapport* or *Merci d’envoyer le rapport*. Translators need to choose the appropriate formula based on the formality of the source.

Indirect speech reports statements without quotation marks. French requires backshifting of tenses and may shift pronouns. The English “She said that she is tired” becomes *Elle a déclaré qu’elle était fatiguée*. Translators must apply the correct sequence of tenses to reflect temporal relationships accurately.

Direct speech reproduces the exact words spoken. French quotation marks («...») and punctuation differ from English. Translators must adapt spacing and punctuation conventions, such as placing a space before ? or !.

Quotation conventions vary between languages. French uses guillemets, while English uses double quotes. Translators should follow the target language’s typographic standards, ensuring that punctuation placement (e.g., Periods inside or outside quotation marks) aligns with French norms.

Sentence fragmentation occurs when a sentence is broken into shorter, sometimes incomplete clauses for emphasis. French literary style may employ fragments for dramatic effect. Translators must decide whether to preserve fragmentation to echo the source’s stylistic rhythm or to integrate fragments into complete sentences for readability.

Verb aspectual nuance distinguishes completed versus ongoing actions. French often uses the *passé composé* for completed actions and the *imparfait* for ongoing or habitual past actions. Translators must discern the source’s aspectual intent to select the appropriate French tense.

Aspectual markers such as “still” or “already” influence verb choice.