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BOOK REVIEWS

Korinek László: **Bűnözési elméletek** [Theories of Crime]. BM Kiadó, Budapest, 2006. 430 pp.

This book–a much awaited addition to the Hungarian criminology literature–was written by László Korinek, Chair of the Criminology Department at the University of Pécs, editor-in-chief of the Law Enforcement Review (the Law Review of the Hungarian Ministry of Justice and Law Enforcement), and former Under-Secretary for Law Enforcement in the Ministry of Internal Affairs is. Since 1971, there has not been any comprehensive criminology books published in Hungarian, thus for decades, scholars have had to do without a systematic examination, comprehensive historical overview and critical analysis of criminology models–theories about the causes underlying crime. The present volume fills this void, providing within its five chapters a classification of the spectrum of theories, also portraying the history and development of the field.

In the preface to the comprehensive review of Hungarian as well as international theories of criminology, Professor Korinek makes no secret of the fact that–despite significant advances and valuable insights gleaned over the decades–this area of inquiry is yet to elaborate a theoretic framework that would be suited for a prime practical application: effectively curbing crime. Still, the author's hope is that the theories and considerations he describes would stimulate contemporary and future research on the theory of criminology as well as associated practical applications.

From the ancient beginnings until today, the book surveys the spectrum of theoretical explanations for understanding criminal behavior, along with the relevant Hungarian as well as international literature. In the second half of the book, the author provides a critical analysis of issues having to do with victimology, penology, the criminal justice system, police models, organized crime, terrorism and risk society.

Chapter 1 distinguishes two approaches to examining the causes of crime: one seeks to uncover various causes (physical and mental alike) within the individual; the other is based on social determination. Three major contemporary paradigms are subsequently discussed: the etiological, cause-oriented paradigm, which focuses on examining the causes and circumstances of crime; the

emergence of a system of norms for criminal law; the interactionist model, which studies the authorities, their stigmatization; the radical or critical paradigm (which includes feminist, Marxist, postmodern, left-wing radical as well as peace-making criminology). Having introduced the spectrum of theories, the author goes on to outline how criminology qua field of inquiry emerged.

Chapter 2 begins with the classical school associated first and foremost with Cesare Beccaria, centering on the actions of agents with free will. Subsequent discussion covers the Italian and French positivist tradition, both of which emphasize the biological and social determination of agents. The chapter closes with the mediating school made famous by Franz Liszt, which aims at reconciling the classical and positivist schools.

Professor Korinek remarks that whether we look at phrenology involving the study of skulls and brains, whether we examine physiognomy, which emphasizes aspects of physical appearance indicative of character traits and personality, or whether we instead turn to theories that explain criminal behavior in terms of the operational malfunctions of society, there is one thing of which we can be certain: criminology has evolved into a genuine scientific field based mostly on empirical research.

Chapter 3 is the most extensive chapter of the book, divided into ten sections to cover the theories of criminology emerging through the 20th century. The author begins with the anthropological school (which modernizes theories of phrenology, focusing on biological, physical-mental attributes), the rediscovery of physiognomy (which emphasizes character traits that can be identified based on physical appearance), eugenetics (research about the possibility of societal interference into human hereditary traits), endocrinological and biochemical anomalies as causes of criminal behavior, childhood brain damage, chromosomal abnormalities, and other theories that suggest neuro-physiological and neuropsychological connections. Here, the reader is also provided with an overview of the methodology behind twin studies and adoption studies, as well as interconnections among intelligence, psychopathic behavior and crime. Section 2 delineates theories about antisocial, asocial and psychopathic personality, with special attention to the basic tenets of the psychoanalytic tradition, Containment Theory, Attachment Theory, Social Control Theory, Learning Theory, pointing out their major limitations, along with their implementation in cognitive behavior therapy. Section 3 moves on to Cultural Conflict Theory and Subcultural Theory (particularly the subculture of violence), which thrive to explain criminal behavior based on the incomplete or deviant socialization of the individual. Section 4 outlines neoclassical theories. In this section, the reader also finds descriptions of the theories known as Rational Choice Theory (according to which crime is based on a cost-benefit

analysis), Routine Activities Theory, Low Self-Control Theory, and General Criminal Theory.

Personality-based theories examine crime based on mental factors; others, like the theories about social structure introduced in Section 5, regard individuals as embedded in society. Sociological theories attempt to make sense of the emergence of crime based on societal-environmental factors. Closely related to these theories are the structural approaches–Anomie and Social Disorganization Theory–examining crime from the perspective of structural functionalism. Section 6 covers institution theories, with special emphasis on Labeling Theory and Moral Panic Theory (both of which thrive to explain deviance based on the definitional practice of social control institutions), phenomenological and ethno-methodological approaches, as well as Interactionist Theory, which interprets crime as a malfunction within the web of interconnections between society and the criminal.

The next pair of sections describe the Multi-Factor Approach and Social Protection Theory, both of which attempt to harmonize diverging viewpoints, trying also to explore new resocialization possibilities. The final pair of sections discuss radical (critical) and cultural theories of criminology (including left-wing realism, anarchist, feminist, neo-Marxist, postmodern, constitutive, peace-making and green criminology), which raise questions about the basic tenets of traditional criminology.

Chapter 4 provides an introduction to six major issues and research topics that have been commanding criminologists' attention. The first section discusses victimology, hidden crime, and fear of crime (including subjective sense of safety, aggressive behavior, and vigilantism). Section 2 addresses fundamental issues of penology, penal science, with subsections devoted to capital punishment, life imprisonment without parole, mediation and shaming. Section 3 approaches the justice system as a system that possibly plays a role in the causal processes underlying criminal activity. Besides issues related to courts, the prosecutor's office, criminal policy, and criminal legislation are considered, along with various police models (based on criteria that are professional, society-oriented, or related to data processing), and the principle of zero tolerance. Although the book is explicit about not attempting to provide a detailed overview of criminology research related to specific criminal offenses, or even various types of criminal offenses, in the next pair of sections, it does cover the major issues and legal material pertaining to white-collar economic, organizational and organized crime, the criminal responsibility of the legal individual, as well as terrorism, and violence by the state. The final section is devoted to theories of security, risk society, the criminology of complex security, and new trends in crime prevention.

What is the future of criminology? *Chapter five* concludes by raising this very question, paying special attention to the current renaissance of criminal biology and euphenics.

The author concludes that in the future, beyond scientific and academic influences on the field, criminology will continue to adjust its themes and choice of topics to the prevalent patterns of crime, with special attention to accounting for global as well as local problems, the preparation, follow-up and assessment of local and regional projects.

Professor Korinek describes this in the final chapter of his book: „Theories of criminology cannot be compared to a building erected by generations of researchers substantively and proportionately building upon the scientific achievements of their forebears. Criminology is more like a rather eclectic piece of art. The eclecticism is due in part to the large array of contributing hands, but its primary source is the varied nature of the contributors' ways of thinking. In a rapidly changing world, with each era, scientific researchers tend to have a different view of what values are considered important: the aspect of criminal human behavior, perceived connections considered relevant keep changing… The practical significance of the sciences hardly needs stressing in the present era of the knowledge-based society. Applied research–in the strictest sense of the term become an obvious, inevitable necessity. And applied research is possible only if there is a theoretical basis to underpin it. Due to the very nature of the topic at hand, the delicate social issues it raises, and the dangers associated with crime as well as certain mistaken conceptions and applications of law enforcement, criminology will continue to be an indispensable subject of inquiry in the foreseeable future. The present work is aimed to make a contribution towards this goal."

With its in-depth and all-encompassing coverage, Professor Korinek's book is sure to become an indispensable item in the libraries of scholars and students interested in criminology.

András L. Pap

Boóc Á.–Dömötör L.–Sándor I.–Szappanos G.: **A hiteles fordítás és a hites tolmácsolás alapvető kérdései** [Fundamental questions of authentic translation and authentic interpretation]**.** HVG–ORAC, Budapest, 2006. 357 p.

In December 2006 *Fundamental questions of authentic translation and authentic interpretation* was published by HVG–ORAC. The authors Ádám Boóc, László Dömötör, István Sándor and Géza Szappanos aspired to summarize the most important legal problems concerning the questions of authentic translation and interpretation and to provide a draft of the national regulations in the context of an international overview. Composed of several chapters, the book, which can be considered the first Hungarian manual on this subject, reveals the regulation in this field of law in its complexity with accuracy, precision but still in a readable and easy-to-understand format.

Authentic translation and authentic interpretation can be considered as autonomous professions. The legal terms make the translators' work hard, so besides the language one has to be thoroughly familiar with public administration and the culture of the given country in order to provide an appropriate translation.

"Translation is distortion"–the authors remind us of the Italian saying in the introduction of the book, referring to the tremendous role and responsibility of the authentic and correct translation of our thoughts and business intentions to a foreign language has become. Hungary is not an exception as more and more Hungarian business associations build business relations with partners from a member state of the European Union. Several foreign investors established businesses in Hungary; the foundation of foreign firms has increased.

The purpose of the work is to show the different regulation systems in foreign countries to the Hungarian readers and to make the Hungarian regulations available to non-Hungarian speakers. The preparation and the utilization of an authentic translation and interpretation is a complex field raising linguistic questions, therefore the second chapter contains a theoretical essence and an analysis of some of the main points of special legal translation.

Legal translation has undergone a change over the past decades and can be divided into categories in several ways. Peter Sandrini divides the translation of legal texts into four parts: 1) translation of a legal text between two legal systems; 2) translation of a legal text from different legal areas; 3) translation of a legal text within one legal area; and 4) translation of a legal text within one legal system. Consideration of the theory of translation of legal texts is relatively new in linguistics.

The difficulties of the translation of legal texts are very well demonstrated by the legislation of multi-lingual countries. An especially good example is a

country where besides the dominating common law the influence of the continental law can be seen as well. The structure of laws in Canada and Switzerland are very different from that of the classical Roman law, which further complicates the job of the legal translator.

When translating a legal text, besides the structural items, it is also very important how each sentence of the law is translated. The tradition that a charter shall be one sentence long goes back to ancient times. Eugen Huber, the originator of the Swiss Civil Code thinks that any clause of the law may consist of a maximum of three paragraphs with one sentence in each paragraph, and one sentence shall express only one regulatory idea.

The translator of legal texts has to face further difficulties. A critical point is the complexity of the legal language. For example the English legal language originates from the vocabulary of the French and Latin languages, while at the same time the Scandinavian impact from the mid-10th century is also relevant. The work also points out that the English word *law* has a Scandinavian origin.

There is a significant discrepancy among verdicts in different languages. French verdicts are characterized with a strict force of form thus translating them to a language with a different culture is a difficult task. Besides the structural discrepancies the translator of legal texts also has to pay attention to style. In the Canadian Penal Code the provisions are written in the imperative mode in English and in the declarative mode and passive voice in French. Lots of problem arise because the German legal systems do not show a consistency either. *Besitz*, or possession, does not mean the same in the Swiss, German and Austrian law, as in the first two it only means the possession while in the Austrian law it means the possession with the aim to appropriate.

The ituation of the translator is even more complicated in cases where the legal language are used within a state differs from the official language of that state. The most typical example is The Netherlands, where the legal language of the European areas, the Dutch Antilles and Aruba very much differ.

In the field of international legal translation difficulties of interpretation frequently arise. This is also related to the transition of international concepts to national law. It is worth noting here that there is a difference caused by the discrepancies of the legal systems whether the translator translates the laws themselves or the legal text. The legal translator shall not only translate the text from the source language to the target language but also to the special legal terms of the target language. It is less of a problem when the two legal systems are similar as knowledge of the special legal language makes it easier to match the special terms. The translator's work is harder when a legal term means different things in different languages. For example in Spain the word

judge has two meanings: one is *jueces,* they are the judges proceeding alone, and *magistrados* who work in council.

What is the solution if a given term cannot be translated to a foreign language? According to the Dutch Gerrard-René De Root, the translator has three options: 1) the term is not translated, just left in the text and explained later; 2) a paraphrase is used in the source language; 3) a new term is introduced in the source language with neologism. According to Susan Sarcevic the appropriate method is "making it natural", meaning the term of the source language is adapted according to the rules of the target language.

It is important to mention that while translating legal texts it is possible and practical to rely on the foundations of Roman law this is not an exclusive solution. Today the terminology of Roman Law means a kind of international lawyers' "legalese".

With regard to special legal translation one may think that the creation of a special legal dictionary would be an appropriate answer to the problems illustrated above. Of course there are lots of special dictionaries and Gerard-René De Root set up certain requirements to such works. In De Root's opinion, it is worthwhile to call the reader's attention to the problems translators usually face when translating legal texts. In cases where the translation of a given term is impossible it has to be highlighted and specially marked.

Besides the translation of special legal texts, authentic, or official, interpreters (generally involved in court procedures) also play an important role. In the procedure the interpreter immediately translates not only what was heard but does a sight translation of the documents introduced as well. Court interpreters and official interpreters in general have to comply with numerous rules of conduct and ethics. It is worth mentioning that the Australian Institute of Translators and Interpreters prepared a code of conduct for its members. When defining the role of the interpreter the code states that the interpreter shall never proceed as a representative or a client.

While selecting the interpreter taking part in a court procedure not only the legal provisions have to be taken into account but also a list of other factors. Kurt Jessnitzer reminds us that in penal procedures when the victim of a sexual crime has to be heard the sex of the interpreter might be important.

In the next chapter the authors discuss the legal provisions of foreign legal systems concerning authentic translation and authentic interpretation, and explore the role of authentic translation and foreign deeds in civil law.

In German legal systems authentic translation and authentic interpretation have a high importance in civil, penal and administrative procedures. They play a significant role not only in procedures concerning foreigners but also in the translation of Community law. The discrepancy between the national and

Community law makes the life of the legal translator even harder. The 1961 The Hague Convention on Abolishing the Requirement of Legalisation for Foreign Public Documents established a unity in a certain way concerning the authentication of foreign documents.

The *Zivilprozessordnung* regulating the Austrian litigation procedure states that a public document issued in a foreign country has a full conclusive force in Austria only in the form of authentic translation. The German *Zivilprozessordung* provides that a translation to be used in a civil suit can only be translated by a translator specialized in legal translation who is duly registered by the court system of the given federal state.

The German law contains special rules to notaries concerning the use of foreign languages. The deeds are made in German language. In cases where the client so requires and the notary is familiar with the given language, it is possible to prepare the deed in both languages. The same applies to authentication.

It is also an important question which client can be seen as familiar with the given language. An important aspect is the client's ability to express his or her thoughts clearly and definitely thus being able to proceed. It is not seen as lack of knowledge of language when the client speaks with an accent or makes grammar mistakes when making a procedural statement. It has to be emphasized that while in several legal systems the rules pertaining to experts are also applied to interpreters, the German practice points out that the interpreter and the expert cannot be equated. The role of the interpreter is basically to establish a linguistic connection between the persons taking part in the procedure.

The authors analyze the solutions of the Anglo-Saxon countries as another large group of foreign legal systems. Having numerous foreign connections and integrating persons of different national origin, in Canada authentic translations are undertaken by the *Translation Bureau* as state service provided to public administration agencies. In case a verdict is written in a language other than English or French its authentic translation has to be prepared in Québec. Bilingualism is also the case in Ireland, where a number of interpreters have to work in the court from time to time. In the area of Gaeltacht writs and notices have to be supplied with an authentic translation.

Authentic translation is also used in the legal practice of England. A good example is the Act on Business Association of 1985, which provides for registered foreign associations to prepare authentic translation in certain cases in order to participate in the English legal practice, and the translator has to make a declaration regarding the true and faithful nature of the translation. In England the decision whether an interpreter is needed or not is the

discretionary right of the judge. The English interpreter has to be sworn in prior to commencing interpretation. Moreover, English law makes a distinction between translator, interpreter, linguistic expert or other expert.

The United States of America followed the so-called specialist way regarding special translation or interpretation, meaning that interpreters in special areas are trained in the particular professions. Because of the composition of the American society the need for Spanish official interpreters is the highest.

In court procedures the president of the committee of proceeding judges makes the decision as to the assignment of an interpreter. In penal cases the cost of interpretation is covered by the State, in other cases the judge will rule on which party shall bear the costs.

The importance of the task of authentic interpreters in the United States is also shown by the fact that the administrative office of courts has prepared a model clause of the text of the verbal and written oath. This oath places court interpreters under a strict obligation. It demands them to uphold the dignity of the court and to interpreting impartially and without private communication. The *American Translators Association* with more than 6000 members represents the rights of translators and interpreters.

Minorities made the role of linguistic transfer important in Australia as well. In Australian public administration there are bodies of the authentic translation at a state and at the commonwealth level as well. At the commonwealth level, the *Translation and Interpreting Service* was established in 1973, and at state level, mention should be made of the *Legal Interpreting Service* in Victoria state, which provides translation services to government agencies and to the police. This organization has its own code of conduct as well as regulations pertaining to aspects such as impartiality, accuracy and competency.

As opposed to the United States, in Australia the general principle dominates, thus anybody wanting to be an interpreter has to take the accreditation examination organised by the *National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters*, or has to participate in training organised by this body. In New Zealand the use of official translations of deeds in court procedures should be highlighted. As is known, the official language of New Zealand is Maori. However, when submitting a document an official English translation is also necessary.

Similarly to New Zealand foreign deeds and their utilization in court procedures play an important role in Hong Kong. As of the 1st of July 1997 Hong Kong has been returned to China. From the legislative point of view this brought the need to translate the law into Chinese and for laws to be bilingual. However, Hong Kong enacted a law in 1986 permitting to create laws in either English or Chinese.

As an exotic example, Malaysia is worth mentioning, where the Malaysian National Institute of Translation was established in 1993. The institute provides services in the following languages: Malaysian, English, Mandarin Chinese, Tamil, French, Arabic, Japanese, Korean and Latin.

In the closing part of the chapter the authors analyse relevant questions of international civil law and the European Community law. In these fields of law the use of foreign deeds and their translations is especially frequent. Numerous examples are provided of international cooperation in the field of foreign certification, delivery of documents and acceptance of foreign deeds. It is worth highlighting the 1965 The Hague Convention on the Service Abroad of Judicial and Extrajudicial Documents in Civil or Commercial Matters, which provided the possibility of direct service of documents between the judicial bodies of the member states.

Directive 1348/2000 of the European Council expedited and upgraded the system of forwarding court and other documents. Its most important provision relevant to the subject matter of the book is that for reasons of security the document to be forwarded has to be accompanied by a predefined form that must be filled out in the language of the place of service or in any other language accepted by the member state concerned.

The 1970 Convention on Taking of Evidence Abroad in Civil or Commercial Matters states as the main rule that the letter requiring the evidence must be translated into the language of the country to which where the letter is sent.

Concerning the world outside Europe, Inter-American Convention on legal assistance among the Central and South American countries, amended in 1979 provides for the letter rogatory to be translated into the official language of the country where it is sent, but it is not compulsory to translate the annexes to the letter.

Regarding Community law, difference in the languages of the parties rises as a fundamental problem in the practice of the principle of equal treatment. This is because there is a ground rule in all member states that the official language of the given member state shall be used in the national courts.

The importance of the European Convention on Mutual Legal Assistance lies in the fact that it aims to set forth unified principles in the field of translation and authentication. However, beyond legal aid the role of translations can be important in admission and enforcement. Known by its French acronym SCIC, the Joint Service Translation and Conferences employs 500 interpreters and 155 administrative staff. With its 1.2 million entries the multilingual terminology database called Eurodicautom is a major help for translators.

At the end of the chapter the authors describe the regulations on documentary evidence in each European country. Council Directive 1206/2001 aiming at

expediting and simplifying the cooperation among courts regarding evidence in order to promote the functioning of the internal market. Under the Directive the request has to be sent in a unified form written in the official language of the addressee country. The language of requests and reference is the official language of the country addressed. Wherever other documents are attached to the request, they also have to be translated to the same language.

The title of the first chapter of the book is The question of authentic translation in the Hungarian legal system and practice. It is to be noted that while Western European languages belong to the Indo-European language group, Hungarian is a Finno-Ugric language, therefore it is highly important that an authentic translation of the Hungarian official and other documents be provided. EU accession underscored the importance of foreigners participation. The role of authentic translation is increasingly recognized.

As a starting point the Hungarian Constitution should be examined, which prohibits discrimination on the grounds of language. In a significant part of court procedures the statements and attitudes of the parties are very important. It is to be ensured that neither party has to face a disadvantage because the lack of knowledge of a language.

The authors of the book give a detailed description of the rules regarding the use of language in the following procedures: 1) public administration procedure; 2) civil action; 3) penal procedure; 4) arbitration procedure; 5) procedure concerning business associations.

As regards public administration procedure Act CXL of 2004 provides that a client has the right to use their native language in their procedures with the authorities, and it sets forth detailed regulations on the use of language. The official language of procedure is Hungarian, however, it is possible to use other languages as well. Act LXXVII of 1993 on the rights of minorities declares that the use of the mother tongue has to be ensured to persons belonging to national or ethnic minorities in penal, civil and public administration procedures. The Act contains rules regarding the involvement of interpreters stating that an interpreter shall assist if the official does not speak the language spoken by the client or any other person taking part in the procedure. Translation of different documents are equally important in public administration procedure as it may have an essential influence on the whole course of the procedure.

In Hungary civil procedure is regulated by Act III of 1952 on Civil Procedure. Among the fundamental rules the Act provides for Hungarian to be the language but also says that no one shall suffer a disadvantage on account of unfamiliarity with this language. The act provides that anybody may use their native, regional or minority language. The Act differs from penal procedure in the sense that the fee of the interpreter is included in the costs, so the party that

is obliged to cover the costs has to pay for the interpreting. It is possible to dispense with the services of an interpreter if the client does not speak Hungarian but the court is sufficiently familiar with the language the client speaks. In this respect the Act on Civil Procedure differs from the Act on Public Administration Procedure because according to the latter an interpreter is needed even if the proceeding official speaks the given language but other participants of the procedure do not. In civil procedure documents are important, in numerous cases decisive. The Act on Civil Procedure contains comprehensive and detailed provisions regarding deeds.

Unlike civil procedure, penal procedure aims to enforce the punitive authority of the State and to apply the penal sanction. Act XIX of 1998 on Penal Procedure also ensures the use of native, minority and regional languages. A different provision compared to the Act on Civil Procedure is that the translation of a decision or official document ordered by law is the task of the issuing or executing court, prosecutor or investigating authorities. The party concerned may forego the right to have the document to be delivered translated. The costs of translation are included in the cost of procedure. In case the person obliged to pay is not able to do so a personal exemption can be provided.

In penal procedure the use of an interpreter who has not taken the relevant professional examination is an offence and may result the annulment of the verdict of the court of first instance if the restriction of the lawful rights of the persons taking part in the procedure had a serious impact on the outcome of the procedure.

Arbitration procedure is provided for by Act LXXI of 1994. As it is commonly known, arbitration may be an alternative to civil procedure. Arbitration procedure may be used in economic or commercial cases, where the presence and actions of foreign participants is of decisive importance. Consequently documents in foreign languages are used very often.

It is important to note that in international arbitration documentary evidence plays a major role. In addition the parties can agree freely on the language to be used in the arbitration process. If more than one language is stipulated, interpretation and translation need to be ensured.

In the international arbitration procedure two kinds of interpretation are recognized. One type is when the interpreter assists with the hearing of a witness and is not required to render a word-by-word interpretation. The other one is a word perfect, consecutive interpretation. Experience in international commercial arbitration does not support the use of simultaneous interpretation.

In Hungary Act IV of 2006 on Business Associations and Act V of 2006 on the Registration of Business Association, Registration Procedure by the Court

of Registration and on Final Settlement entered into force on 1st of July 2006. The language of these non-action procedures is Hungarian. Meanwhile foreign documents are often used in this procedure. The registration of business associations is in the public domain, it is therefore in the legal interest of businesses that the authentic Hungarian translation of foreign documents shall be available. In its annex the Business Associations Act provides for a number of cases where the authentic translation of foreign documents must be attached.

The next chapter offers a detailed description of the legal status and activity of the Hungarian Office for Translation and Attestation Ltd. (OFFI by its Hungarian acronym). OFFI is a company in long-term state ownership. Its legal ancestor, the Central Translation Department was established by the government lead by Mr. Gyula Andrássy in 1886 and belonged to the Prime Minister's Office. Its head was the linguist József Ferencz.

The year 1948 brought a significant change in the life of the Department. The Council of Ministers assigned the Minister of Justice to organize the Hungarian Office for Translation and Attestation. Its scope of activities was defined as follows: "1. Authentic translation of foreign language documents into Hungarian or other languages; either the full document or an important part thereof; 2. Attestation of a translation done by someone else; 3. Making a true copy of a foreign document; 4. Authentic interpretation".

OFFI became a business entity in 1950 and in 1968 it was reorganised as a company. The scope of services was further enlarged in 1982: an expedited service was introduced, which meant that the letters of invitation and donation needed for travel purposes were translated on the day of the order if so required.

After the change of the regime the role of the OFFI has become more and more important. OFFI assumed its current form on 25th April 1994 with a registered capital of 49.6 million forints and its seat in Budapest. Its scope of activities include four areas: 1) preparation of authentic translations; 2) language editing; 3) attestation of translations; 4) interpreting, whose main forms are as follows: liaison interpreting, consecutive interpreting (including court interpreting), technical interpreting (also known as interpreting for special purposes), and simultaneous interpreting.

Advocacy of interpreters and translators is undertaken by the Hungarian Association of Translators and Interpreters. Its members work as professionals and receive financial consideration.

Act XLI of 1991 on Notaries empowers the notary to issue a document in a foreign language if in possession of a relevant license issued by the Minister of Justice. However, the notary cannot attest a translation. Notaries' foreign language services cannot be equated with OFFI's authentic translation services.

The monopoly of OFFI regarding the preparation of authentic translation and attestation was challenged in the Constitutional Court, however, the Court refused the petition reasoning that neither the preparation of authentic translations nor attestation or the issue of a true copy is an economic activity but is rather a state function, which can be provided for a fee. Thus OFFI, a business association established by the State, is providing a public function.

The position of the Constitutional Court corresponds with the view whereby professional authentic translation and attestation are connected to a fundamental legal political and state interest and are performed on the basis of relevant statutory provisions. This unique state function is likely to be continued in its current system.

The well-structured book is easy to understand by the non-legal reader. The authors supply ample bibliography. This is a work that duly deserves the interest of theoreticians as well as practitioners.

Gábor Török