Université de Lille

Faculté des Langues, Littératures et Civilisations Étrangères (LLCE)

Département d'Études anglophones - Angellier

An English-French & French-English Glossary of Driving and Farm Harnesses

Glossaire anglais-français & français-anglais des harnais d'attelage et harnais agricoles

Mémoire en lexicographie bilingue spécialisée

présenté en vue de la validation de la Première Année
de
MASTER de TRADUCTION & INTERPRÉTATION
Parcours :
Métiers du Lexique et de la Traduction (anglais-français) (MéLexTra)

par

Élise SARRAZIN

Juin 2018

sous la direction de
M. le Professeur Fabrice ANTOINE

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Table of contents / Table des matières :

Acknowledgments

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Introduction

1. Definition

This thesis had to start with a definition for the reader to grasp the scope of my subject. However, it is no easy thing to find a dictionary which gives a satisfactory definition of the harness. The *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*, for example, defines the harness as:

> "the equipment other than a yoke of a draft animal."[1]

A definition that, and I am sure the reader will agree, does not give much information about what it looks like, how it is positioned on the animal or how it works.

Many other dictionaries give such evasive definitions and this fact alone already informs us as to the level of complexity and technicality of this subject. The most accurate definition I could find is given by the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*:

> "a set of strips of leather and metal pieces that is put around a horse's head and body so that the horse can be controlled and fastened to a carriage, etc.".[2]

One can probably wonder how many of these "strips of leather and metal pieces" there can be. Well, a lot actually. Over time, men have designed an infinite number of harnesses and have tried to improve and adapt each of them to their use.

2. Invention and development

2.1. The first horse harness

Before the horse could be harnessed, it had to be domesticated, a process which took place sometime during the fourth millennium BC, in the Eurasian Steppes[3]. At a time when

1 https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/harness
2 *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. 2010.
3 A large period is given because sources disagree on the exact date. One should for example compare https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Domestication_of_the_horse and http://www.equineheritageinstitute.org/horses-in-history/.

horses were no higher than big dogs, they were kept in herds and relied upon as a source of food (the mares were milked), clothing and fuel. It was in Mesopotamia, around 2700 BC, that they were first put into use as a draught animal.

The horse harness was not the first men had designed: harnesses had already been made for dogs (around 6750 BC), reindeers (around 5000 BC) and cattle (around 4000 BC)[4]. When men decided to employ horses as draught animals, they simply transfered the yoke harness, which had proved effective with oxen, onto the horse. Two horses could now be put abreast to a yoke in order to plough fields or pull a war chariot.

This harness was made out of a strap passing around the neck and a long girth* connected on top of the shoulders of each horse where the yoke came to rest. It was poorly suited to horses: the strap around the neck rose up as the horses extended their necks to pull, and pressed hard on their windpipes and jugular veins. The greater the effort the horses made, the greater the pressure was. It would choke them and reduce their efficiency (it took two horses to haul half a ton). But the principles of equine traction were yet to be discovered and this harness would still be in use for millennia.

Two horses in yoke harness put to an Egyptian war chariot.

4 This paragrah and the following one are based on HENDERSON, Carolyn. *The New Book of Saddlery & Tack*. New York: Howell Book House, 1996 ; http://www.equineheritageinstitute.org/horses-in-history/ ; http://www.horseandcarriagefacts.com/the-origins-of-the-harness/.

2.2 Controlling the horse

Modifications were made quite early to better control the horse: whereas oxen were guided by a rope fastened to the horns or a nose rope, the bridle* and the bit* (initially made of horn and bone) were invented as early as 2300 BC[5]. The search for greater control was to be the primary focus during the centuries to come.

By 1400 BC, the metal snaffle bit* was commonly used in the Near East and a great variety of mouthpieces* had already been introduced. But a major breakthrough in this domain was made by the Celts of Gaul who invented the curb bit* in the 4th century BC[6], a bit* which is still in use in carriage driving nowadays. By that time, the two main families of bits* used in modern harnesses existed and, even though materials and shapes would continue to evolve, the actions on the mouth of the horse would remain the same.

An Assyrian snaffle bit with a straight mouthpiece. The animal motif was a common feature of early biting arrangement.*

An iron Celtic curb bit dating from the 1st or 2nd century BC.

Now that we have seen how control was achieved, let us turn to traction, the primary aim of the harness.

5 For further information, one should refer to: HENDERSON, Carolyn. *The New Book of Saddlery & Tack*. New York: Howell Book House, 1996.

6 The reader will find more information on the evolution of bits in: http://ilaria.veltri.tripod.com/tack.html.

2.3 Achieving effective traction

As we have seen before, the neck strap of the yoke harness was not an effective means of traction. Improvements were made by several civilizations over the centuries. For this next part, we should differentiate between the Eastern part of the world and the Western part, the two regions evolving separately.

- In the East:

It would appear that the Chinese were well in advance on the West[7]. In the 4th century BC, they had already developed a breast collar*. It was a considerable improvement on the neck strap of the yoke harness as a means of traction as it did not run over the throat of the horse. The horses now pulled the load thanks to a strap running over their breasts which was maintained by another strap running over the base of their neck. The first traces* were invented at the same time, along with the pad*. The Chinese also invented the shafts to replace the yoke on a vehicle. Therefore, they were able to create a new harness with these elements, which is known as the "trace harness" – it should not to be mistaken with the modern trace harness* used in agriculture.

Only a century later, they were the first to invent the collar*, which allowed the horse to throw its full weight into the pull: a single horse could now haul a ton and a half. Indeed, the Chinese had understood equine traction much sooner than the rest of the world as they now had found where it was most efficient for the horse to put pressure in order to create draught force*.

It has been proven that a pair of horses wearing modern harnesses including a collar* were able to pull a load of four to five times the weight of the one which could be pulled by the same number of horses in ancient yoke harnesses.[8]

- In the West:

The development of the means of traction in the Western part of the world took more time. First, the Romans improved the yoke harness with a piece of equipment which would

7 For further information on Chinese inventions, one should refer to: https://asiasociety.org/education/chinese-inventions.

8 HENDERSON, Carolyn. *The New Book of Saddlery & Tack*. New York: Howell Book House, 1996.

ultimately derive into the breast collar*[9]. To put a war chariot to two horses, they used a pad*, kept in place by a girth*, to which a padded band running over the breast of the horse was attached. In this manner, breathing would not be impaired and traction would be more efficient.

But a few more centuries had yet to pass before the collar* was introduced in Europe. Evidence suggests that the Vikings were the first to invent the collar* and thus, to use the horse as a farm animal. Frames of metal collars* have been unearthed from tombs in Sweden dating from the 9th century. Towards the end of that same century, King Alfred of Wessex wrote of his voyages to the North and described the plough harnesses* that were used there, while the illuminated *Apocalypse of Trèves* (c. 880 AD) contains the first picture ever of a horse collar*[10].

Evolution of the horse harness.

9 For further information, one should refer to: http://www.horseandcarriagefacts.com/the-origins-of-the-harness/.

10 This paragrah is based on the introduction to the chapter on farm harnesses contained in: HENDERSON, Carolyn. *The New Book of Saddlery & Tack*. New York: Howell Book House, 1996.

2.4. Completion of the cart harness set

In England, the earliest instances of the horse being used as a farm animal appeared at the end of that century in the eastern counties, where the Viking influence was the greatest[11]. Shafts were invented and fitted to carts, as well as padded cart saddles* which helped take the weight off the horse's back. A breeching* was also invented at the same period to help in braking the load. Thus, the modern cart harness* was complete (even though the shape of some pieces would change over time) by 1000 AD.

The modern cart harness* is the first to have been completed and the one that has been in use the longest. Horse-drawn carts were crucial to many human activities at the time: farming, war, transportation of goods and persons. For this reason, coupled with the much less numerous historical sources dealing with the invention of the many elements composing the other harnesses and the fact that modern driving harnesses would come much later, the cart harness* has been chosen has an example for this introduction.

3. The impact of the harnessed horse on society

3.1 The farm horse

Even though the cart harness* set was complete by 1000 BC, horses were rarely in use on the farm at that time. Indeed, heavy horses were most appreciated to carry armored men in times of war, and thus were extremely expensive for farmers. It was not until the Tudor dynasty, and the relative peace which ensued, that horses were used more often in England for farming work – the same phenomenon took place in France during the Renaissance[12].

One horse wearing a collar harness and controlled by only one man was able to do the job of fifty men in the fields. This gain in efficiency and productivity made it possible for larger plots of land to be farmed in less time. Therefore, during the Middle-Ages, farmers

11 This paragrah is based on the introduction to the chapter on farm harnesses contained in: HENDERSON, Carolyn. *The New Book of Saddlery & Tack*. New York: Howell Book House, 1996.

12 For further information, one should refer to: WALROND, Sallie. *Encyclopaedia of Carriage Driving*. London: J.A. Allen & Company Limited, 1988, and to LECOINTE, Bernard. *Encyclopédie de l'attelage*. Paris : Belin, 2010.

progressively transitioned from subsistence agriculture to the production of food surpluses which would be bartered or sold[13].

But oxen would not be entirely replaced in the fields until the beginning of the 18th century, when farming methods changed and new agricultural implements, more fitted to the anatomy of the horse, were invented. Productivity once more increased as horses were faster and did not need to ruminate[14].

3.2 The working horse

From our modern point of view, more often than not we do not realize how large a part the harnessed horse has played in the history of mankind. But the invention of the collar* is considered by some historians to be even more revolutionary than the invention of the automobile.[15]

For centuries, the economy of our countries depended upon horsepower. The huge British canal network was serviced by barge horses, known as "boaters", hauling barges which weighed up to 70 tonnes. In the mines – in Britain of course, but also in Northern France –, poneys were used underground to draw carts, horses were needed at the pit heads to turn the windlass of the hoist and to draw coal (or any other mineral) wagons. Also, and this may come as a surprise, the railway companies created great employment for horses in the 19th century. To build their network, horses were needed to move raw materials to and from the railheads. So much so that, for an entire century, these companies were the biggest owners and employers of horses[16].

13 For further information, one should refer to: http://www.horseandcarriagefacts.com/the-origins-of-the-harness/.

14 This paragraph is based on: Edwards, Edwyn Hartley. *The Horse Encyclopaedia*. London: Dorling Kindersley Ltd., 2016.

15 http://www.horseandcarriagefacts.com/the-origins-of-the-harness/

16 This paragraph is based on: Edwards, Edwyn Hartley. *The Horse Encyclopaedia*. London: Dorling Kindersley Ltd., 2016, and Edwards, Elwyn Hartley. *Horses. The visual guide to over 100 horse breeds from around the world*. London: Dorling Kindersley Ltd, 1993.

3.3 The driving horse

In Europe, with the end of the Middle-Ages, horse-driven vehicles made their apparition in cities. Royal families started to be transported in carriages, the construction of which had been greatly improved. They had drivers to lead the horses and grooms to help them. This trend also had an impact on harnesses. A profusion of new elements were added, such as ornaments representing the family that owned the harness, and fine materials were used to show its wealth: it was not rare to find gold fittings, for example.

Some noble families also had private cars but, until the end of the 18th century, the bulk of driven vehicles were large carts used to transport goods and people outside of the city.

By the 19th century, in the English countryside, a large network of roads had been built, enabling people to be transported in horse-driven coaches for up to 70 miles (112 km) a day. In America, long-distance routes were covered in this manner with Concord coaches, often at a speed of 15 mph (23 km/h). In 1853, when these coaches were introduced in Australia, they provided a service covering 6,000 miles (9 655 km) in New South Wales and Queensland[17].

Kalamazoo, Michigan, 1865: four horses put to a Concord coach full of passengers, among which are men in Civil War uniforms (on top of the coach).

17 Edwards, Edwyn Hartley. *The Horse Encyclopaedia*. London: Dorling Kindersley Ltd., 2016.

The first public transport, the omnibus, was invented in France in 1622 by Blaise Pascal: it was an enclosed vehicle drawn by horses. It was short-lived however and it was not until 1828 that a regular passenger service was set up in Paris. This service was copied in London in 1829 and by 1890 there were 2,210 omnibuses running in the city[18]. Later on, they were replaced by horse-trams running on rails.

But this period also was the Golden Age of light coach driving in England. Wealthy men started to drive their horses themselves, using cars of many shapes and sizes. It became a sport and clubs were created: the Bensington Driving Club was the first to be founded in 1807, followed by the Four-Horse Club in 1808 and a multiplicity of others, among which is the Coaching Club (1871) that is still flourishing today[19]. As these men were looking for challenges, more complicated harnesses were introduced, such as the tandem harness* or the unicorn harness*, requiring increasing skills on the part of the Whip.

3.4 The omnipresence of the cart horse: the case of London

It is estimated that 300,000 horses were used in and around London at the end of the 19th century[20]. A reality which led to the creation of the London Cart Horse Parade in 1885 and the London Van Horse Parade in 1904.[21]

Traditionally held on Whit Monday, the Cart Horse Parade would attract hundreds of turnouts[22] which would parade in London and win prizes. The aim of this event was to encourage drivers to take a human interest in the welfare of their animals. By 1914, due to the popularity of the parade, the organizers had to limit the number of entries to 1,000 participants whose horses were stabled within a seven miles radius of Charing Cross.

18 EDWARDS, Edwyn Hartley. *The Horse Encyclopaedia*. London: Dorling Kindersley Ltd., 2016.
19 For further information on driving clubs in the UK, one should refer to: WALROND, Sallie. *Encyclopaedia of Carriage Driving*. London: J.A. Allen & Company Limited, 1988.
20 WALROND, Sallie (traductrice : RIBAUD, Sophie). *L'attelage*.
21 The following paragraphs are based on: http://www.lhhp.co.uk/history/ and on WALROND, Sallie. *Encyclopaedia of Carriage Driving*. London: J.A. Allen & Company Limited, 1988.
22 A turnout is "a general and accepted term to describe almost any horse-drawn equipage" (WALROND, Sallie. *Encyclopaedia of Carriage Driving*. London: J.A. Allen & Company Limited, 1988).

The objectives of the Van Horse Parade were similar. It has been held every Easter Monday since 1904, except during the two World Wars. The 1914 parade was the largest with 1,259 horses exhibited.

By the 1960s, the number of participants to both parades were diminishing due to mechanization. In 1966, they merged to form the London Harness Horse Parade, which has been held on Easter Monday ever since. Although its location has changed to the South of England Showroom, the parade has kept its identity and is still widely popular, attracting enthusiasts, private driving exhibits and professionals (brewers in particular) from all over the British Isles.

4. The 20th century: a definitive end for the harnessed horse?

4.1. A progressive decline

Trains and automobiles progressively replaced the horse during the first half of the 20th century. Even though not everybody could afford to buy cars at first, by the 1960s, every horse-driven car had disappeared from the roads. Only a few communities never stopped using the horse, such as the Amish in the United States.

Mechanization also affected farmers. In America, between the two World Wars, it crushed small farmers who could not afford expensive tractors and therefore suffered from their lack of productivity in a context of depression. But change could not be stopped and by 1940, tractors had completely replaced the horse[23]. They were more adapted to the large plots of lands that had to be farmed there, which cannot be said for every other place on the other side of the Atlantic. In France, for example, farmers were urged in the 60s to take on debts to buy tractors. But they were not adapted to every use, nor to any landscape. It was particularly the case in the UK, where modern machinery was ill fitted to some regions with rugged landscapes or swamps[24]. In these parts, machines never completely replaced the horse.

23 For further information, one should refer to: https://borculo.weebly.com/blog/the-history-of-the-harness-shop-in-borculo-mi-by-robert-essenburg.

24 Henderson, Carolyn. *The New Book of Saddlery & Tack*. New York: Howell Book House, 1996.

4.2. The preservation of carriage driving

Faced with the disappearance of driven horses in society, associations were created in every country to preserve the tradition of carriage driving: the British Driving Society in 1957, the Association Française d'Attelage in 1973 and the American Driving Society in 1974 (which is present in both the USA and Canada), to only name a few[25]. With a few members only at first, these organizations rapidly met with much more success than they had expected. They carry out a large panel of activities today: organization of showing competitions, training of drivers and judges, publication of monthly journals, etc.

Private drivers from every European country can also meet in international sporting events since the 1970s. These events were created by Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, when he was president of the International Federation for Equestrian Sports (1964-1986)[26].

4.3 A resurgence of the working horse

A growing environmental awareness has allowed the working horse to make a progressive comeback in the past few decades. People have realized that using horses presented advantages: no gas emission, no damage to the soil or tree lines, etc. As a result, the French Ministry of Agriculture encourages the use of the horse with money incentives, pointing out the fact that employers of horses have the right to benefit from European programs. Therefore, national and regional nature reserves and local governments increasingly employ horses to work in the forest, in humid regions, to collect garbage, to work in urban parks or to transport people (to pick up children after school, for example)[27]. The same phenomenon has taken place in the UK, which only recently left the EU[28].

In the US, the development of organic farms operated as a CSA model (Community Supported Agriculture) is accompanied with a renewed interest in the horse: apart from the environmental-friendly advantages already mentioned, it produces natural fertilizer and is less expensive to buy and to feed. Obviously, these operations produce less in quantity, but the

25 For further information, one should refer to: http://www.britishdrivingsociety.co.uk/, http://afa-attelage.org/, https://americandrivingsociety.org/.
26 http://www.cheval-partage.net/attelage-discipline-chargee-histoire/
27 http://www.energie-cheval.fr/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/CONFERENCEPARISEIFFELTOURP1.pdf
28 For further information on the present use of the working horse in the UK, one should refer to: http://www.shire-horse.org.uk/about-us/the-shire-horse/uses-of-the-shire-horse-today/

quality of their production allows them to be economically sustainable within a CSA model[29]. To have an idea of their importance, a 2013 census revealed that there were 400,000 farms using at least partially the horse[30] in the US.

5. Harness making

This introduction could not be complete without a part on harness making and it can seem surprising that it is coming so late. But the subject of this thesis encompasses many fields which had to be seen before, so that the reader could understand some aspects which are going to be developed in this part.

5.1. Traditionally

Ever since the Middle-Ages, harness making has been an essential trade in rural areas. So much so that it is considered to be the first official trade ever to exist in France[31]. The trade association of harness makers was controlled by legal dispositions which were first passed in 1403, under the reign of Charles VI. They made it mandatory for every harness maker to train apprentices in addition to having at least one employee, in order to make sure that there would always be enough craftsmen to meet the needs of the country. But with the status of harness maker also came impressive privileges for men who were only commoners, such as the right to hold a blade.

Harness making required skills to work, cut and stitch the leather, to shape the pieces of woods, to do the stuffing and integrate metal fitting. But it also required to know every single element of the harness, their function and how to make them so that that they would perfectly fit each horse[32]. The trade, as every other at the time, was taught orally, a fact which can account for the many regional variations in the shapes of collars* for example, but which also explains the lack of literature dealing with the origin and the development of many parts

29 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Community-supported_agriculture
30 https://www.nytimes.com/2013/05/16/garden/farm-equipment-that-runs-on-oats.html
31 This paragraph is based on: https://www.sellerierahier.com/conseils-infos/histoire-du-m%C3%A9tier/
32 For further information, one should refer to: http://www.history.org/foundation/journal/spring04/saddler.cfm.

of the harness. Indeed, before the apparition of horse-driven cars, wealthy men, the only laypersons who could write, took little interest in the driving horse.

Tools used by the harness maker.

When horses started to be used extensively in every aspect of human life, harness makers progressively specialized. At first, a differentiation occurred between the harness makers remaining in the countryside and making farm harnesses and the ones working in the city to produce driving harnesses. As the demand for harnesses rose, the pieces which were the most time-consuming to produce became specializations as well: there were collar* makers, tree* makers and driving saddle* makers[33].

Today, harness makers creating and repairing traditional harnesses still exist, although their number has plummeted. Leather has the advantage of being very resistant when properly cared for and therefore of making for lasting harnesses. However, it takes time to make such a harness – the collar*, for example, takes twelve to fourteen hours of work[34]. As a consequence, they are also expensive: the best quality pair harness* is often worth 4000€ while a team harness* of the same quality sells nearly double that price[35].

33 For further information, one should refer to: http://heritagecrafts.org.uk/collar-making/.
34 For further information, one should refer to: Leurot, Pierre. *Le livret du bourrelier-sellier harnacheur.* Fontaine : Editions primitives, 2009.
35 http://www.vanderwielharness.be/uk/collection/harness/harness-for-pleasure-and-training/harness-for-pleasure-and-training/

5.2. Industrial manufacturing

Nowadays, industrially made synthetic harnesses represent the bulk of the harnesses sold, whether for beginner drivers, sport championships (such as combined driving for example) or horse races. These harnesses are a lot cheaper (around a tenth of the cost of a traditional harness) and do not have to be cared for. But the principal drawback of synthetic harnesses is that they are produced in bulk, according to standardized measurements: they cannot fit one's horse perfectly, which can cause great discomfort to the animal or hurt it. Besides, the materials used do not last as long as leather, nor are they as elegant.

Though they had to be mentioned in this introduction due to their share of the present market, elements of synthetic harnesses will not be tackled in this thesis. Indeed, this glossary only deals with harnesses that were traditionaly used in farming or that are today present in showing events and synthetic harnesses are not suited for such events as the respect of tradition is a fundamental criterion.

6. Production of the glossary

6.1. Preliminary work

At the beginning of the year, I submitted to Mr ANTOINE the subject of horse harnesses among others, as the probability of a subject being accepted was rather low. Having spent the better part of my life among horses, I was quite excited to work on such a subject, one that I was not entirely familiar with, having never actually driven horses myself, and one that had played such an important role in our western societies.

As soon as I had received the green light, I started reading everything I could find on the Internet and collecting words. Having a tendency to rather rely on paper material for trustworthy information, I also started looking for a book in English devoted to harnesses, which was not an easy task as most books on horse driving concentrate on the vehicles. I finally found *The New Book of Saddlery & Tack*, by Carolyn HENDERSON, and lucky me, this was the perfect book to start from. In addition to having whole chapters devoted to the different harnesses, their composition and illustrations, it also has a general introduction relating the history and develpment of the horse harness, with parts that focus more particularly on important elements.

Faced with the impressive scope of my subject, I decided to leave out the race harnesses and the Antique harnesses in order to focus on the most common farm harnesses and the most frequently used driving harnesses in showing events, in the UK and the US. Having thus limited my subject to five driving harnesses and three farm harnesses, I started to collect all the words used to name the elements composing each one of them.

In the mean time, I had bought a French book on harness making which I thought would help me for translating each word I had found. However, this book was written for young apprentices to pass their harness making exam: it describes each step needed to make every element – which would later be helpful in order to write the definitions - but does not provide a description of their function within the harness, nor does it explain how they connect to other elements.

I then started to look for another book and bought the *Encyclopédie de l'attelage*, by Bernard LECOINTE, a volume which has the advantage of being comprehensive and very well organized with categories and cross-references, in addition to having a lot of illustrations showing where each element goes within the harness. I was therefore able to find most of the equivalents I needed for my English words and more: the problem I was now faced with was that I had more words in French than in English. My next quest was therefore to find a similar book in English. Such a book actually exists and I acquired it: *The Encyclopeadia of Carriage Driving*, by Sallie WALROND (a renowned British driver and international judge who has published a large number of books on horse driving).

The next challenge was to organize all the words I had found logically. I first tried to sort them according to which harness they belonged to but I quickly realized that this would not work as many elements were common to different harnesses. Therefore I looked for another way to organize them and tried with their function within the harness - a division which I had found in websites intended for learners, in both English and French.

The harness can be divided into four systems. The communication system is made up of the pieces through which the driver can control the speed of the horse and its direction. The draught system is made up of all the elements which receive draught force* and then transmit it to the vehicle in order to pull it. The support system is made up of the pieces which support the traces* or part of the weight of the vehicle. Finally, the braking system comprises the elements whose function it is to hold back the vehicle when the horse stops or when it goes downhill and to back up the vehicle. To these four main fields, I added three others: ornaments, driving harnesses and farm harnesses – the last two categories containing the names of the different harnesses. Sadly, in the end, I had to give up a large number of the words belonging to the ornament category, partly because I already had a sufficient number of entry words and partly because I ran out of time…

From that moment on, I had 7 semantic fields and 156 entry words to work with.

6.2 Oral sources

Finding oral sources to help me in my project proved to be challenging. I spent hours on the Internet trying to find an equestrian center specialized in horse driving or a store selling harnesses. I could find none in the North of France. So I then looked for a national association and found the AFA (Association Française d'Attelage), which specializes in showing events. I tried writing to the national office in Paris, but in vain, no one answered. I then browsed their website and found a list of regional judges of the association.

That is how I came to contact Danielle FANCONY, a judge from Rheims, who agreed to help me in my work and very nicely lent me a few books. She also opened her address book to me and without her, I would never have been able to visit the largest collection of carriages and harnesses in the world: the Sheidel Collection, in Mannheim, Germany. This experience was very helpful in writing my definitions as it gave me an opportunity to see from up close every piece of harnesses I had to define and how they were put together. It also helped me to differentiate the parts belonging to the harness from the ones that are parts of the vehicle, a distinction which can be tricky at times.

Besides, I found, completely by chance, the only harness maker in the North: Gabriel TASSART. I met with him in his workshop and he agreed to help me with my project. He lent me some of his books and met with me each time I was stuck because of a lack of literature on certain pieces of the harness. A priceless help. Without it, I would probably have ended up putting aside some of the words I had chosen.

6.3. Particularities of this subject

6.3.1. About the definitions

When defining an element of the harness, the horse, the vehicle or implement pulled, and the one who drives cannot be disregarded. Moreover, for a definition to be complete, many pieces of information have to be present: the material, the shape, to what other element of the harness it is connected, on which part of the horse it goes, which action it either has on

the horse or on the vehicle, and how it is useful to driving. Putting all these indications in the definition and remaining clear may have been the greatest challenge I had to face.

Being aware of the complexity of my subject, I tried as much as possible to make my definitions accessible to the greatest number. Yet sometimes I could not but use technical terms pertaining to the anatomy of the horse, harness making or parts of the vehicle directly in contact with the element of the harness that was defined. Therefore, I have added at the end of my thesis a number of appendices to help the reader: a figure representing the horse and its body parts, a glossary of harness making terms and illustrations of the parts of the vehicles I had mentioned. In the appendices, the reader will also find figures or representations of the different harnesses I chose to work on and detailed figures representing the parts of some elements such as the bridle*, the bit*, the breast collar* or the driving saddle*.

6.3.2. National and regional variations

Harness making being a traditional craft, it is no wonder that some elements of the harness are different from one country to another. These variations are most obvious in farming harnesses. Elements such as the cart saddle*or the ridger* are only present in the cart harness* used in Anglo-Saxon countries. The saddle* used in a French cart harness* is a « selle de limon » with a leather back band* passing on top and being looped around the shafts of the cart before being buckled. I cannot say how many days I spent looking for a possible French equivalent to the cart saddle*, happily finding a possible candidate, then realizing it was not the same after all, pulling my hair out and starting again from the beginning... In the end, I had maybe been looking too far as I finally found out that French people using this type of saddle today call it « sellette agricole anglaise* ».

Moreover, elements of the harness are often adapted into a variety of regional models. Such is particularly the case for collars*, which vary considerably according to which region they are from, to the type of vehicle they are put to, to the trade of the driver, etc. Knowing that it would be impossible to represent all of them in my glossary, as their number would make for an entire glossary alone, I have chosen to only have one general definition of the collar* and to put examples of regional variations at the end of this thesis. This choice was

also motivated by the fact that even though they vary in shape, their parts and functions are similar.

6.3.3. A great number of synonyms

There are often many ways of calling the same element of the harness in English – much more often than in French. For example, there are no fewer than four ways to say the French word « oeillère* » in English: blinker*, winker*, blinder* or blind*. Only by reading a lot, was I able to find slight differences in frequency.

Besides, Americans and British people tend not to use the same vocabulary. Sometimes, it is just that Americans seem to have simplified a number of words: for example, any strap of leather which goes up to be buckled to another tends to be called uptug* whereas the British keep referring to the element it goes from and add "tug". Such is the case for the breeching tug* which Americans call an uptug*. This being said, I often had to question the level of expertise the writer had on the subject

6.3.4. Variations in time

I also had to bear in mind that some variations could be due to time. The crupper* for example can be made in three different ways, no less. For practical reasons, I chose to define the one which is the most commonly used nowadays and only mention the others in comments. Speaking of the crupper*, it is interesting to note that this piece is problematic. The English word comes from the Old French « crupiere » which in time became « croupière* ». So it would only be natural to assume that this word is used for exactly the same object. Well, it is not. As the reader shall see, none of the British « crupper* », the American « crupper* » or the French « croupière* » is used to refer to the same element.

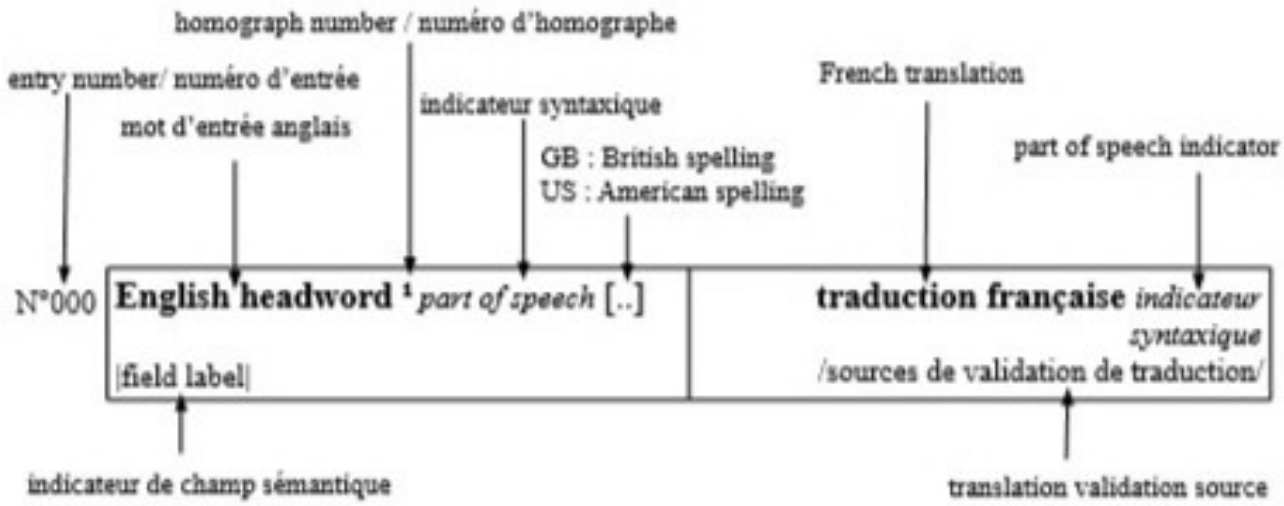
6.3.5. Practical view vs. Precise view

Another thing which I quickly came to realize was that Anglo-Saxons and the French look at things differently, a situation resulting in an unbalance in the number of words in the two languages. The French language tends to be more precise whereas English is more practical. In French, each buckle has a different name according to its shape, but in English the name of the buckle is defined by the element on which it goes. Thus, the hame tug buckle* is the buckle which is sewn onto the tug which goes from the hame*. Logical, right? No matter if the buckle changes in shape, it will always be named the same. But in French, it does not work this way: if the shape of the buckle varies, so will its name. Therefore, for one entry word, I often had several possible French translations. In the case of the hame tug buckle*, I chose to define the basic buckle and mention the others in the comment part. But when this entry word was present in the translation of some quotations, I had to translate using the right French word, which can sometimes correspond to one which is detailed in the comment part.

This unbalance also applies to words which are not directly linked to the harness. When several horses are put to a vehicle, the one which is closer to it is called a wheeler*, no matter the vehicle. Again this is logical as it is the horse that is directly attached to the vehicle, it is also the one which is going to make its wheels turn. But, the French do not see it that way. The horse will be named according to which element of the vehicle its harness is attached to. Elements which are also more precise in French. The "shafts" between which is a single horse can either refer to the « brancards » of a car, or to the « limons » of a cart. Therefore, the wheeler* who is between shafts can either be in French a « brancardier* » or a « limonier* ». But when there are two wheelers*, they are attached to the pole (the « timon ») of the vehicle and are called in French « timoniers* ». This situation has made the translations of many a quotation time-consuming, as I had to check the context in depth in order to choose the right French translation.

User's guide / Guide de l'utilisateur

1. Article structure / Structure des articles



DÉF	definition / définition
CIT	quotation < quotation source / citation < source de la citation
TRAD	translation of the quotation / traduction de la citation
VOIR	cross-references / renvois
COMM	comment / commentaire
ILL	illustration / illustration

N.B: Not all these sections are present in every article.

• For some words, there will only be a cross-reference to another entry word: more information can be found in this article because the two words are perfectly synonymous.

• The quotation may be missing. In this case, none giving relevant information could be found.

• Cross-references can either indicate a synonym of the entry word, a word closely related to it or an appendix containing helpful data.

• The comment provides additional information when needed.

• An illustration may not always be present in the article itself but, at the end of this thesis, the reader will find figures representing each piece within the different harnesses.

2. Punctuation and symbols / Ponctuation et symboles

A comma separates cross-references and synonymous headwords or translations.	,	La virgule sépare les renvois et deux mots d'entrée ou deux traductions synonymes.
A semi-colon separates two translation validation sources or cross-references to appendices from cross-references to other headwords.	;	Le point-virgule sépare deux sources de validation de traduction ou les renvois aux annexes des renvois à d'autres mots d'entrée.
A slash separates two possible translations of a headword.	/	La barre oblique sépare deux traductions possibles d'un mot d'entrée.
National variations in spelling appear between brackets, so do ellipses made in the original text.	[ ]	Les variantes orthographiques nationales sont entre crochets ainsi que les ellipses faites dans le texte original.
Translation validation sources appear between slashes.	/ /	Les sources de validation de traduction sont entre deux barres obliques.
The field label appears between vertical bars.	| |	L'indicateur de champ sémantique est entre deux barres verticales.
The parts of the headword which can be omitted appear between parentheses.	( )	Les parties d'un mot qui peuvent être omises sont entre parenthèses.
A bracketed ellipsis indicates that part of the sentence has been omitted.	[...]	Des points de suspension entre crochets indiquent qu'une partie de la phrase a été omise.
A less-than sign precedes a quotation code.	<	Un signe inférieur à est placé avant un code de citation.
An asterisk indicates that the word it follows is an entry in the glossary.	word*	L'astérisque indique que le mot qu'il suit possède un article dans le glossaire.
The headword and its French translation are in bold.	**word**	Le mot d'entrée et sa traduction française sont en gras.
A degree sign indicates that the word it follows is defined in an appendix.	word°	Le symbole degré indique que le mot qu'il suit est défini en annexe.

3. Part of speech indicators / Indicateurs syntaxiques

English / anglais	Part of speech abbreviations / Abréviations des indicateurs syntaxiques	French / français
noun	*n*	nom
feminine noun	*nm*	nom féminin
masculine noun	*nf*	nom masculin

4. Field labels / Indicateurs de champ sémantique

Field label	Traduction française
communication system	appareil de conduite
draught system	appareil de traction
support system	appareil de portage
braking system	appareil de retenue et de reculement
ornament	décoration
driving harness	harnais d'attelage
farm harness	harnais agricole

5. Translation validation sources / sources de validation de la traduction

Codes	Oral sources / Sources orales
DF	Danielle Fancony
GT	Gabriel Tassart

Code	Specialized dictionary/ Dictionnaire spécialisé
HK	Dictionnaire de la conduite d'attelage

Code	Specialized encyclopaedia / Encyclopédie spécialisée
BL	Encyclopédie de l'attelage

Codes	Books / Livres
LJ	Nouveau manuel complet du bourrelier sellier-harnacheur
PB	Manuel de sellerie
PL	Le livret du bourrelier-sellier harnacheur

Codes	E-books / Livres en ligne
EA	Encyclopédie d'agriculture pratique
EM	Cours d'équitation militaire
LG	Les fondamentaux de l'attelage
MM	Attelages et attelées

Code	Booklet / Plaquette
AFA	Attelage de Tradition

Code	Magazine
AM	Attelage magazine

Codes	Websites / Sites Internet
AF	attelage.org
AP	attelagepeda.info
APA	attelage-patrimoine.com
HI	hippotese.free.fr/blog
TC	traitcharentais.wifeo.com
TP	btb.termiumplus.gc.ca

Le code /traduction perso/ indique que la traduction donnée est personnelle car aucune traduction française n'existe.

6. Quotation sources / Sources de citations

Code	Specialized encyclopeadia / Encyclopédie spécialisée
SW	The Encyclopeadia of Carriage Driving

Code	Book / Livre
CH	The New Book of Saddlery & Tack

Code	E-book / Livre en ligne
CJ	The Carriage Journal: Vol 54 No 3

Codes	Websites / Sites Internet
EH	equineheritagemuseum.com
HH	heavyhorses.org.uk
JH	frogmusic.com
KB	thesprucepets.com
SFJ	smallfarmersjournal.com
WM	camptownharness.com

Codes	Miscellaneous / Divers
CP	horse collar patent
OM	Oregon driving manual