Translation of political speeches
- A skopos-theoretical analysis

Master Thesis: Cand.ling.merc. Engelsk. – Translatør- og Tolkeprofil

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Summary
The subject of this thesis is translation and political discourse. In particular, this thesis examines the translation of a particular type of political discourse, namely political speeches. By applying a skopos-theoretical approach, and identifying the micro- and macrostrategies used in translations of political speeches, the thesis answers the question of how political speeches are translated. The focus of the thesis is to determine whether there appears to be a general strategic approach to real-life translations of political speeches. Furthermore, the thesis focuses on translations of political speeches that were translated from American English into Danish. Also, the thesis focuses on translation of political speeches, in which the speaker was a native American-English speaker, and as such could be considered to be native to the American culture.

The thesis uses a practical skopos-theoretical model of analysis that was developed by Anne Schjoldager, and which has been used in translator training programmes at the Aarhus School of Business. The model includes a detailed textual analysis of the source text, an analysis of the target text and the communicative situation of the translation, and an analysis of the micro- and macrostrategies used. Furthermore, the thesis uses skopos theory as presented by Anne Schjoldager\(^1\) and as such draws upon her taxonomies of macro- and microstrategies, as well as her approach to categorizing translations.

The thesis uses a corpus of various texts as data collected via the Internet, mostly through web sites of news networks. The corpus texts include: Four Danish translations of American-English political speeches, four American-English transcripts of the speeches that were translated into Danish, and three transcripts and/or prepared remarks of Danish political speeches. The Danish speeches are used in a comparative genre analysis with the American source texts, for the purpose of determining the genre conventions in both the American culture and the Danish culture.

The thesis first examines how to define concepts such as text, text type, genre, political discourse and political texts. The purpose of this theoretical discussion is to find a model that can be used to describe and characterize genres for the purpose of translation. This model is then applied to the American source texts and the Danish speeches in order to determine cultural differences within the genre.

The thesis also examines how the concept of translation can be defined, and what other theoretical approaches that exists. This highlights how skopos theory differs from other types of theories in the field of translation. Furthermore, the thesis establishes that skopos theory is indeed valid for the purpose of the thesis, because skopos theory includes both theoretical conceptualization and a pragmatic approach, and it considers cultural differences.

Then the pragmatic analysis is carried out of first the genre analysis and finally the skopos analysis. There appears to be some differences in genre conventions between the two cultures, related to the frequency of rhetorical figures, religious and cultural references, and the level of formality.

In the final analysis the translations are compared to the source texts, based on the model of analysis mentioned above. The analysis indicates a clear pattern in microstrategies in all translations. Furthermore, the analysis finds no indications that the translations are adapted to Danish cultural conventions, nor does it find indications of a deliberate strategy to re-create the rhetorical effect of the original American speeches. Lastly, the translations are all presented as documentation of the original American speeches. The final conclusion is that the results suggest a tendency to translate political speeches using a source text oriented macrostrategy. However these results can only be said to be valid for translations that are used by mass media, because of how the data was selected. Also, due to the limited number of texts, the results cannot be taken to be general, but should more be taken as an indication.
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1. Introduction

The world we live in today is characterized by global communication. Every day millions of people communicate across the world using e-mail, web-based phone calls, movie clips, and YouTube. Communication is in fact so international that even local communication may become international unintentionally, as we saw in the affair with the Danish Mohammed cartoons. This is the setting in which all politicians have to operate. Politicians tend to speak a lot, they engage in political debates and sometimes they speak to the public in their own country, and now and then such speeches are then translated into other languages for various purposes. It was this line of thinking that led me to writing this thesis.

I particularly thought about the American president Obama and his speeches, as I recalled him being compared to John F. Kennedy in terms of rhetorical style. Then I wondered how one would translate such a speech into Danish? My initial thought was that you would either focus on semantic content and neglect the stylistic characteristics, or do the opposite. So I decided to look further into the subject of how to translate political discourse, or in other words, how other people had translated political discourse for real practical purposes, i.e. not for the sake of learning a language but because the translation was needed to fulfil a genuine communicative purpose. As my initial thoughts were concerned with Obama, and thus American culture, I decided that my thesis should investigate speeches that had been translated from American English into Danish.

1.1. Purpose

Based on the above it is clear that the main purpose of this thesis will be to examine how political speeches are translated between two languages and thus two cultures namely a source culture, the USA, and a target culture, Denmark. The overall goal is to see if there appears to be a tendency to either focus on reproducing the semantic content, i.e. the message of a speech, or the effect of such a speech, i.e. the function. This distinction between translations that are very close to their original and translations that seem to work as texts in their own right, is what is Nord refers to as documentary and instrumental translations, respectively (Nord 2007: 47-52). Thus, I have already suggested that skopos theory should be applied to examine this particular aspect of translation, which will be discussed further below.
Let us first examine the main problem of this thesis. By using a skopos theoretical approach and identifying the micro- and macrostrategies I will seek to answer this problem statement:

*How are political speeches translated?*

By introducing the problem statement in this way, I am assuming that skopos theory actually is a valid theoretical approach to answer this question. As will also be discussed in chapter 3, I believe skopos theory is valid for such a question as skopos theory focus on both pragmatic and theoretical aspects of translation. Also, in skopos theory translation is perceived as an act of intercultural communication, thus considering cultural differences in relation to translation. Furthermore, Schjoldagers (2008) taxonomy of macro- and microstrategies constitute a useful tool for translators to describe decisions related to the translation process itself. Thus, I will be using her skopos theoretical approach as presented by in her book “*Understanding Translation*” (Schjoldager 2008).

Specifically, I will be using her model of analysis, which has been used in translator training at Aarhus School of Business. This model will be presented in chapter 3 but can also be found in the appendices under the title “*What the translator did – and why*”. This model includes a textual analysis of the source texts, and this analysis includes the aspect of investigating the characteristics of the text genre of the source text. However, as genre conventions may differ across cultures, this will make it necessary to investigate both American linguistic conventions in relation to political speeches, as well as Danish linguistic conventions in relation to this genre. This aspect is relevant, as adapting to the conventions of the target language would indicate a translation strategy that is focused on the target text, and vice versa, but in order to determine if the translations adapt to the cultural norms of the target culture or not, it will be necessary first to establish what these norms are, which will be the goal of the genre analysis.

In order to do this, it will be necessary first to define what political language is and what political speeches are. Furthermore, it will be necessary to identify a method for characterizing and describing genres in relation to translation. I am then assuming that political speeches constitute a genre, and if this is the case then it should be possible to establish a method for characterizing this genre. Logically, any text genre must have certain
characteristics that enable text users to distinguish one genre from another, and this needs to be investigated for the purpose of translation.

From the above, my method of answering the main question of this thesis will be based on Schjoldager’s model of analysis, which includes an analysis of both source texts, including a genre analysis, target texts, and an analysis of the microstrategies, which all taken together should indicate which macrostrategy has been applied for each translation. By comparing these results, it should be possible to analyse and determine if there are any indications of a general strategic approach to translating political speeches.

As implied above, this thesis may be characterized as an exploratory empirical research. Empirical, because it will be based on real-life instances of translated political speeches. Exploratory, because it will explore if there seems to be a generally applied approach to translating political speeches. Furthermore, the thesis will include conceptual research as well, as it will investigate how to define political speeches and genres for the purpose of translation (Chesterman, Williams 2002: 58-64). As will be seen below, this thesis will be based on qualitative research on a small corpus of empirical data (Chesterman, Williams 2002: 64-67).

Now we should examine the outline of this thesis. The outline will list all major chapters of this thesis as well as a description of each part’s function in relation to the whole thesis. This should give an overview of how the problem statement will eventually be answered. The empirical data used in this thesis will be presented after this outline.

### 1.2. Outline

Chapter 1 is this introduction. Chapter 2 will examine what genre and political discourse is and discuss various theoretical concepts related to text genres and text types. Finally, chapter 2 will examine how genres can be defined and analysed for translation purposes, ultimately leading to a practical model of genre analysis that can be applied to American political speeches and Danish political speeches in order to determine differences in cultural conventions within the genre. In the end, this will enable me to determine if the translations have adapted to the Danish cultural norms or if they have merely transferred the American genre conventions, and this will be a helping element in determining the overall macrostrategy behind the translations. Chapter 2 will include theory from various scholars who touch upon the subjects of text types and genres in relation to translation, as well as political discourse and genre analysis in general. Some of these scholars include Suzanne

Chapter 3 will examine what translation and translation studies are. It will also present an overview of the many various theoretical approaches to the field of translation. Then there will be a presentation of the skopos theory, which also explains why skopos theory is valid in relation to this thesis. Lastly, there will be a presentation of Schjoldager’s model of analysis that I will apply on my data. Chapter 3 primarily includes the works of Jeremy Munday (2005), Anne Schjoldager (2008) and Christiane Nord (2007).

Chapter 4 deals with the data itself. It consists of two parts, where the first part elaborates on the selection process, e.g. which criteria are used for selecting my data. This part also elaborates on how the data has been processed in the appendices, and contains an explanation of how to read the appendices. The second part is the genre and skopos analyses of the data based on the models presented in chapter 2 and 3.

Chapter 5 briefly summarizes the aspects touched upon in the thesis. It then presents the results and proceeds by answering to the conclusion based on these results. Finally, it discusses implications of these results.

Chapter 6 is the list of references over any sources used in this thesis. Chapter 7 is where all appendices will be presented and these will have their own contents for ease of use.

1.3. Data
My data consists of a small corpus of real-life examples of political discourse in the form of political speeches. The corpus consists of four American political speeches, three Danish political speeches, and four Danish translations of the American political speeches. All texts were found through the Internet at various websites, mostly from major news networks or newspapers. The selection process and the selection criteria will be thoroughly explained in chapter 4 below, which will also present each text as well as describe how the data has been processed. The American speeches serve as the source texts for comparison against the Danish translations, i.e. the target texts. Furthermore, the American source texts will also enter into my genre analysis and will be compared the Danish speeches, which will then function as parallel texts for the purpose of determining genre conventions in both the source culture and the target culture.
1.4. Basic terminology

Due to the theoretical approach in this thesis, I will be referring to the source culture, target culture, source text or target text very frequently. For ease of reference I have made acronyms for these terms, which will be presented here together with a short definition.

My use of the term ‘source text’, henceforth called ‘ST’, refers to the text upon which any translation is based. E.g. when examining the translation of an American political speech into Danish, the ST will be the original American speech.

My use of the term ‘target text’, henceforth called ‘TT’, refers to the text that is the result of a translation action. In the example before, the TT would be the Danish translation of the original American ST.

My use of the term ‘source culture’, henceforth called ‘SC’, refers to the culture of the source text speaker. In the example before, if the American speaker of the ST is a native American-English speaker, as opposed to a German speaking American-English, then the SC would refer to American culture. This perception then assumes that there is something that can reasonably be called American culture.

My use of the term ‘target culture’, henceforth called ‘TC’, refers to the culture of the language used in the TT. In the example before, where the American ST was translated into a Danish TT, the TC would then be Danish culture. Again, this perception assumes that there is something that can reasonably be called Danish culture.

In relation to the roles of ‘sender’ and ‘receiver’, I will employ Jacobsen’s terminology of ‘addresser’ and ‘addressee’, respectively, as presented by Schjoldager (2008: 22). I then take the sender to be synonymous with addresser and receiver to be synonymous with addressee.

Whenever a piece of Danish text is included as an example it will be translated in footnotes using direct translation, unless the text example occurs together with the English text example that it was translated from, and it is translated using direct translation.

1.5. Delimitation

As implied above, this thesis will not examine how political speeches are translated into Danish in terms of product quality or in terms of process, but only in terms of strategic approach as analysed through Schjoldager’s model of analysis presented in chapter 3.
Regarding the selection of data, my criteria were selected to delimit the thesis in terms of which data it will be examining. Logically this thesis will not examine every single imaginable kind of political speech. Instead, my selection criteria have limited the potential speeches for examination, so that I would have comparable data. By having comparable data my results should be able to indicate whether or not there is a general approach for translating such texts.

This thesis is concerned with translations from American English into Danish, and is as such only concerned with the American SC and the Danish TC. Furthermore, due to the limitations of the size of the corpus, this thesis will not examine how any political speech in general is translated. Instead this thesis can only examine if there might be a tendency to translate according to a particular strategic approach, when translating political speeches that are similar to the ones found in my corpus.

As the STs are only transcripts of the original speeches, they themselves are only documentation of the speeches and cannot be said to ‘be’ the speeches. But my analysis of the communicative situation of the STs will be based on the original situations of the speeches, not the situation of the transcripts. My analysis will be based on the written transcripts, and as such, I am not including non-verbal communication, e.g. body language and facial expressions, in any form nor am I including any communicative signals emanating from other actors than the speaker, e.g. crowd yelling and applauses.

Due to the selection process and the selection criteria, my thesis will be constrained to using STs and TTs as presented by various mass media. The STs may not actually be the ‘real’ ST of the selected TTs due to the fact that many different versions may exist online, e.g. prepared remarks, actual transcripts of the speeches and transcripts that do or do not include applauses, “uhms” and “erhm” and other utterances carrying no direct semantic meaning. Without actually speaking to the people responsible for the translations, I can never know for sure what particular ST they used for their translation. It could be one of several possibilities: A transcript conducted by the translator him-/herself. A transcript by a colleague to the translator, i.e. a third-party transcript. Prepared remarks made public by the politician or government organisation. Any transcripts could also potentially have left out words or phrases, and there is always the possibility of transcript errors, i.e. the unintended leaving out of phrases and/or words. Finally, the translators themselves may have left out elements intentionally or unintentionally.
2. Genre and political discourse

As briefly mentioned in my introduction, the purpose of this section is to justify the existence of the text genre that I have chosen to label ‘political speech’. This whole thesis is a corpus study of practical translation solutions of texts, which I have categorized to belong to a genre that I call ‘political speech’. So I am effectively proposing a claim that a text genre exists and that this text genre can be labelled as ‘political speech’. The question then remains: How can this claim be justified?

First of all, it will be necessary to examine how various genres are defined in general for the purpose of translation. There must be some kind of method for identifying the existence of a text genre. Logically, any particular text genre must have particular features, which seem to function as a basis for classification of that particular text genre. If this is not the case, how can the existence of any text genre then be justified? After examining the method for identifying genres in general I will examine what others have written on the subject of translating political speeches in order to see how this relates to genre analysis in general, and in order for me to support the claim that such a genre do in fact exist. Once a ‘political speech genre’ has been identified, I will establish a practical analytic approach, or method, for genre analysis that serves the overall purpose of this thesis, and this approach will be based on the theoretical discussion on how do identify and describe genres for translation purposes. At the end of this section I will provide an outline of this method that will serve as my model of analysis in relation to my genre analysis of the STs and the Danish parallel texts. The purpose of this analysis will be to uncover SC genre conventions and TC genre conventions in relation to political speeches. Through this genre analysis I should be able to identify the characteristic features of political speeches and see if these differ across the two cultures. In turn this will later enable me to determine whether the translations maintain the genre conventions of the SC or if they adapt to the genre conventions of the TC, which serve as important indications of the macrostrategies applied for each translation. The practical application of this analysis will be presented in chapter 4, as will the final results of the genre analysis.

2.1. Defining genre

In her essay Text typology: Register, Genre and Text Type, Anna Trosborg provides a quite thorough description of the various theoretical approaches to the concept of genre. She argues
that scholars from various different theoretical schools, like rhetorical scholars, linguists and literary scholars, have had very different approaches when it comes to defining concepts like register, text, discourse and more importantly genre (Trosborg 1997: 4-8). First of all, the terms discourse and text seem to be more or less used as synonyms, and Trosborg further argues that: “Text and discourse can be directed to any aim of language or refer to any kind or reality; it can be a poem, a comedy, a sports commentary, a political speech, an interview, a sermon, a TV ad., etc.” (Trosborg 1997: 4). Register refers to language used under particular communicative circumstances, meaning that any particular use of language then can be referred to as a particular register. Thus there can be said to be a register called ‘scientific English or ‘newspaper English’, with each type having its own typically used grammatical features and typically used communicative functions. However, register differentiates itself from genre in that a register can cover many different genres within the same field (Trosborg 1997: 4-6). So in other words, different genres may share the same field or register, grammatical features and communicative functions.

Likewise, Trosborg demonstrates that various theoretical schools have had different approaches to, and thus descriptions of, the concept of genre (Trosborg 1997: 6-8). In linguistics, for example, there has been a tendency not to distinguish between register and genre, but this has changed, so that now there is a distinction between register and genre, as mentioned above (Trosborg 1997: 7). When examining these different approaches, Trosborg still comes up with several mutual-supporting descriptions of the concept of genre. For example, she points out that genre is: “Texts used in a particular situation for a particular purpose [...]”, and that such texts “[...] may be classified using everyday labels such as a guidebook, a nursery rhyme, a poem, a business letter, a newspaper article, a radio play, an advertisement, etc.” (Trosborg 1997: 6). Another description is that genre refers “[...] to a distinctive category of discourse of any type, spoken or written, with or without literary aspirations.” (Trosborg 1997: 7). Furthermore she states: “By means of the concept of genre we can approach texts from macro-level as communicative acts within a discoursive network or system.” (Trosborg 1997: 7).

When it comes to an exact definition of genre, Trosborg has identified one crucial criterion that serves this purpose, which seems to be a common denominator across the various theoretical approaches. This crucial criterion for defining genre is that of communicative purpose (Trosborg 1997: 9). However, defining genre solely on the basis of
communicative purpose is not sufficient, as many other factors influence how a genre is defined, such as content, form, intended audience and medium (Trosborg 1997: 9). This is evident from the fact that two different genres may serve the same overall communicative function, as for example with advertisements and job applications, which both seek “to promote the value of something, be it an article or a person.” (Trosborg 1997: 10-11). This is exactly what is understood as text type, namely the classification of texts due to their respective overall communicative purpose, also known as text function (Trosborg 1997: 30-31). So it is necessary to make a distinction between text type and genre, as there seems to be some kind of overlap between the two. This is due to the different theoretical approaches that underlie the concepts of text type and genre. This theoretical divide can be tracked back to classic rhetoric, and the dividing criterion seems to be whether focus is on purpose or type (Trosborg 1997: 12). The concept of text type seems to be the result of various theoretical approaches, like speech act theory for example. The main aim of these theoretical approaches has been to identify how language is used to reach a particular communicative goal, both at macro and microlevel, and thus text type focuses on purpose (Trosborg 1997: 13-14). Genre, on the other hand, focuses on type, and it seems to be a more practical oriented way for mature speakers of a language to classify texts after their particular external structure and situational use (Trosborg 1997: 16). Because of these two ways of classifying texts, it is possible for two different text genres to share the same linguistic characteristics, and likewise two texts of the same genre can be very different linguistically. The distinction is that genre refers to completed texts whereas text type refers to what a text, or piece of text, does (Trosborg 1997: 12).

This distinction between text type and genre, as described by Trosborg, is supported by Nord in her book, Translating as a Purposeful Activity. Here Nord argues that “genres are classified according to linguistic characteristics or conventions.” (Nord. 2007: 37). Furthermore she states that genres are certain kinds of text, which are used repeatedly in particular communicative situations, often with the same function, and thus these texts evolve a particular conventional form, and that sometimes this form even turns into a social norm (Nord. 2007: 53). When it comes to text types, Nord argues that these are classified on the basis of their dominant communicative function, and it is assumed that each text type covers many different genres, whereas one genre does not necessarily only cover one text type (Nord. 2007: 37-38).
Other scholars also point out that the concepts of text type and genre are often used synonymously. In his essay, *Text Type Conventions and Translating: Some Methodological Issues*, Paul Kussmaul points out that text type is an ambiguous term as it can be used to refer to the two German terms of ‘Texttyp’ and ‘Textsorte’. He argues that ‘Texttyp’ is a general classification of texts after their communicative purpose, e.g. if they are informative, expressive etc., where ‘Textsorte’ refers to specific entities such as business letters, weather reports etc. He also points out that: “*The very fact that there are names in a language for specific types of communication may be taken as a sign that these must have features in common*” (Kussmaul 1997: 69). Thus he points out what I also logically deduced in the beginning of this chapter, namely that if any genre in fact does exist, then any particular genre must have certain characteristic features that distinguishes that particular genre from other genres. If not so, how then can any genre be claimed to exist?

In their book, *Politics as Text and Talk – Analytical Approaches to Political Discourse*, Chilton and Schäffner argue that the two terms of text type and genre are often used synonymously but should in fact be distinguished from one another. Like Kussmaul, they argue that text type refers to the German term of ‘Texttyp’ whereas genre refers to the German term of ‘Textsorte’. These differ in that the text type is a more abstract and theoretical classification of texts based on overall communicative purpose where the term genre is used as a label to classify texts based on empirical evidence (Chilton, Schäffner 2002: 18-19). They also provide this definition: “*Genres (Textsorten) are defined as global linguistic patterns which have historically developed in a linguistic community for fulfilling specific communicative tasks in specific situations. They are a kind of generalization, based on the experience of the speakers of a communicative community*” (Chilton, Schäffner 2002: 19).

In order to be able to define a particular genre, Trosborg argues that it is necessary to apply several defining criteria. First of all there is the communicative purpose. The concepts of field, tenor and mode also need to be added. Field covers the linguistic content or discourse that is characteristic of the text genre. Tenor covers the sender and the receivers of the text genre and their relationship. Mode deals with the medium typically used for the text genre, i.e. if it is written or spoken. Lastly, a genre may have any other kind of defining feature, if such a feature is the focus of attention for the genre (Trosborg 1997: 11-12).
Supporting this method for identifying text genres we have Suzanne Eggins with her book, *An introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics* (Eggins 1994). Eggins provides a more practical approach to defining and classifying text genres, and just like Trosborg, she argues that any genre can be identified and defined using register analysis and examining the communicative purpose (Eggins 1994: 25-26). Just like Trosborg, Eggins argues that a genre’s register consists of three distinctive aspects namely field, tenor and mode. Field refers to the subject matter of a text, or what the text is about. Tenor has to do with the interactants of the text and the relationship between them, i.e. if the interactants are close friends or a customer and a salesperson etc. Finally mode deals with how the language is used in the text and it describes if, for example, the interactants are speaking face-to-face or over the phone (Eggins 1994: 25-26). But having defined the register is not sufficient to define a genre, as register merely highlights the circumstantial facts about a text. What is missing is the why’, namely why the register is the way it is, and for this purpose one needs to look at the overall purpose of the text, i.e. the communicative function. Only then will you have defined the genre (Eggins 1994: 26).

In order to define genre, Eggins brings the following two quotations by J.R. Martin: “*a genre is a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture.*” “*Genres are how things get done, when language is used to accomplish them.*” (Eggins 1994: 26). My reason for re-using these two quotations is the fact that these quotes seem to reflect a point of view, or practical approach if you like, which is very close to the general point of view, or practical approach, reflected by the quotations in Trosborgs essay referred to above. This point of view seems to emphasize that language is used in order to accomplish things in the real world, i.e. that language is used in many different situations for many different purposes. Furthermore many such situations are so conventional, both in circumstances and in terms of purpose, that these situations of language use have become genres. Lastly, language users belong to a given culture, in which they are native speakers, and it is largely due to their culture that these native speakers are able to identify which genre is applicable in which situation. So, this point of view, which is reflected by Trosborg as well as Eggins, exactly points to the fact that you need to examine the circumstances and purpose of texts in order to determine their genre, i.e. you have to examine the register and the communicative purpose.
Eggins argues that finding the register of a text identifies the context of the situation, and by putting this situation into the context of culture, i.e. the culture of the interactants in the situation/text, one will uncover the genre. It is through the context of culture that the text receives its meaning (Eggins 1994: 30). Eggins also argues that “linguistic behaviour is goal oriented”, meaning that a text is only understood because the reader knows the purpose of the text. Furthermore, linguistic behaviour, i.e. a text, takes place in a particular situation in a particular culture, and it is this situation and culture that determines what behaviour is appropriate (Eggins 1994: 29).

Eggins seem to go one step further than Trosborg as she, in addition to using register and communicative purpose to define a genre, also argues that any particular genre has a certain structure. When examining a text of a particular genre, this text will follow a certain structure of stages. As an example, Eggins demonstrates how a conversation between a customer and a clerk in shop can be said to belong to a ‘transactional genre’ and that this genre has a particular structure consisting of different stages of interaction (Eggins 1994: 30-32). Some of these stages are mandatory in order for a text to belong to the transactional genre, and other stages are optional. The first stage of such a text is mandatory and would always be some kind of opening line, through which the clerk signals to the customer that he/she is ready to serve him/her. This structure of stages, which are labelled after their respective function in relation to the whole text, is known as schematic structure (Eggins 1994: 33-41). Thus any text genre will have a schematic structure consisting of all the non-optional stages or elements which need to be present in a text, in order for that particular genre to be realized. Furthermore, it is the culture in which a genre exists that determines the schematic structure of a genre, namely because it is culture that determines what behaviour is appropriate in which particular situation. This means that the schematic structure of a particular genre in culture X may differ from the schematic structure of the same particular genre in culture Y; and sometimes the genre does not even exist in culture Y, meaning that genre conventions may differ across cultures (Eggins 1994: 41-42). This is relevant to know when translating, as translating between languages also means translating between cultures, and because of this there is always a possibility of running into differences in genre conventions when translating.

One last important point Eggins presents, is the notion of realization patterns. As genres are particular ways of using language to achieve certain goals in particular situation, this
means that genres are realized through language, i.e. genres are made real through the author’s, or speaker’s, choice of words and grammatical structure, and these choices are characteristic of texts belonging to particular genres (Eggins 1994: 41-42). So, different genres will be realized through language differently, or put the other way around, “realization patterns will differ across genres.” (Eggins 1994: 42). Likewise, different stages within a particular genre will also be realized through the author’s, or speaker’s, choice of words and grammatical structure, so “realization patterns will differ across schematic stages.” (Eggins 1994: 42). This implies that it is possible to identify genres by examining how particular genres are realized through specific linguistic characteristics in specific texts. It also implies that it is possible to identify the schematic structure within such texts by similarly examining how different stages within these texts are realized through linguistic characteristics.

2.2. Political discourse and political speeches

Before examining the particulars regarding political speeches as a genre, it will first be necessary to touch upon the concept of discourse and in particular the concept of political discourse.

First of all, as also mentioned in the discussion above, discourse is a somewhat vague term that is often used synonymously with the term text. However, there has often been a tendency in various theoretical approaches to these concepts to see text as something static, i.e. a product, and to see discourse as something dynamic, i.e. text production or understanding (Trosborg 1997: 4).

When examining it from a semantic-linguistic perspective, discourse seems to be understood as that ‘thing’ which makes a text into namely that, a text, instead of just a collection of random sentences. Thus, discourse is what gives cohesion between sentences, enabling the reader to understand one sentence based on the context of the previous sentence. Similarly, a text can often be understood in relation to other texts before that (Eggins 1994: 84-85, 111-112).

According to Chilton and Schäffner there are three general perceptions, or understandings, of the concept discourse. First, discourse can refer to real-time utterances in general. Second discourse can refer to a number of real-time utterances seen as a single language event, such as a political speech. This view also perceives a sequence of speeches,
e.g. at a political debate, as one language event. Third, discourse can also be perceived as “[...] the totality of utterances in a society viewed as an autonomous evolving entity [...]” (Chilton, Scäffner 2002: 18). In this sense discourse can also be seen as particular types of language use or language practises, e.g. medical practise discourse. This way of perceiving discourse is closely linked to the theoretical practise of discourse analysis, which focuses on making explicit how language is used to exercise power. (Chilton, Scäffner 2002: 18).

From the above it seems difficult to pinpoint precisely what discourse is, but it appears to have something to do with practical use, or uses, of language, and it seems closely connected to the concepts of power and society. This is at least the case when examining the more precise concept of political discourse. Chilton and Schäffner approach this concept from a philosophical/rhetorical angle to begin with, drawing on the works of Aristotle and Plato. They claim that present day academic approaches to language and politics all derive from this ancient philosophical tradition of perceiving language as a tool for obtaining or exercising power: “The whole classical tradition from the sophists to the enlightenment wrestled with the relationship between persuasion, truth and morality, carrying a deep suspicion of the power of language” (Chilton, Schäffner 2002: 1). As human beings we are inherently social, meaning that we socialize and form groups, and thus human nature is inherently political as we form coalitions, or social groups, based on shared perceptions of what is just and unjust, useful and harmful etc. This forming of political associations depends on the ability to communicate, and thus signalling the shared perception of values of these associations, as it is this signalling of shared perceptions of values that determines the boundaries of the group. Because of this, political activity does not exist without the use of language, but on the other hand language did not evolve solely for the purpose of politics (Chilton, Schäffner 2002: 2-3). On top of this philosophical foundation we find present day linguistic and discourse based approaches to politics, which tend to use real text and talk as empirical evidence, because such approaches perceive politics to be language (Chilton, Schäffner 2002: 3-4). Furthermore, they argue that the concept of genre is important for political discourse analysis, because of the important role genres play in the exercise of power and influence. Politics and political institutions, i.e. political activities depend on “…the transference of customary forms of utterance” (Chilton, Schäffner 2002: 21). This is because “genres specify patterns by which text and talk is sequentially structured, who speaks to whom, when, about what and in what manner” (Chilton, Schäffner 2002: 21). From this, it seems clear that genre is important to
political discourse, i.e. political language use, and therefore it highlights the importance of examining the genre when translating political discourse.

When turning to the particulars regarding political speeches we have Schäffner who, in her essay, *Strategies of Translating Political Texts*, argues that the term of political text is a vague term that covers a wide range of text genres. She implies that political texts are instances of political discourse, i.e. political language use, and that such language use may come in many forms, both within a nation state and between nation states. As a result, she argues that political texts can cover genres such as political speeches, multilateral treaties, editorials, commentaries in newspapers, a press conference with a politician, a politician’s memoir etc. (Schäffner 1997: 119). She also argues that the classification of a text as a political text can best be done based on functional and thematic criteria. Political texts are political because they are the result of or a part of politics, i.e. they are instances of language use for political activities and thus instances of political discourse. They fulfil various functions depending on different political activities, they are determined by history and culture, and their topics are primarily related to politics, e.g. political activities, political ideas etc. Additionally, political texts are often relevant to a wider public and they are often part of a wider political discourse, meaning that they will tend to show a high degree of intertextuality (Schäffner 1997: 119-120).

In the book, *Annotated Texts for Translation: English-German*, Schäffner argues that political texts in general, including political speeches, tend to be quite cultural bound, meaning that they tend to possess many cultural-specific references as for example references to history, important places or persons. Moreover such references often come in the form of abbreviations of government institutions or other organisations of importance to the culture in question (Schäffner 2001: 134). Schäffner also argue that political texts tend to be characterized by ideological aspects in relation to the speaker’s choice of words and especially words of ideological nature. This is often due to diplomatic reasons, as the speaker does not want to offend the addressees, should the subject of the speech contain political sensitive issues. Consequently, the speaker will often choose vague terms or terms that are not ambiguous. Likewise, this aspect is evident through the choice of adjectives, especially when used to describe the political institutions of another country, should the speaker him-/herself not be from this country (Schäffner 2001: 134-135). A third characteristic of political texts and often political speeches in particular, is the focus on stylistic elements, e.g. political
speeches often tend to have ritual forms of addressing the audience, which is a characteristic of the genre conventions regarding political speeches. However, political texts cover many other genres, which again have their respective genre conventions. Specific stylistic features in political speeches can often be closely connected to the speaker him-/herself, thus being an indication of that speaker’s style (Schäffner 2001: 135). In line with this, in her essay, Politics and Translation, Schäffner points to other researchers, like Newmark, who describes political language to be characterized by a high frequency of stylistic elements such as metaphors and euphemisms (Schäffner 2007: 142).

When it comes to other characteristics of political speeches, Schäffner have found evidence that public speeches or statements given by politicians often have the wider public as their addressee. Her example is two speeches given by German and American politicians in relation to the unification of Germany after the Cold War had ended. Such speeches do not only have the wider public of the German culture or nation as their intended addressee, but also includes the wider public in the rest of the world as addressees, due to the importance of the German unification to the world political agenda. (Schäffner 1997: 127). Schäffner also argues that within this group of speeches there are two distinctive sub-groups of speeches that are defined by their addressee/adresser relationship. The first type is characterized by having a politician as the addressee and a somewhat narrow target group, e.g. a group of politicians, as the addressees, which then represents internal political communication, i.e. politicians speaking to politicians. This type fulfils a function in policy making and texts of this type tend to be informative in their overall communicative purpose. The other type is characterized by having a politician as the addressee and the wider public as the addressees, thus representing external political communication, i.e. politicians speaking to the public at a particular occasion. Such speeches tend to be published in the mass media afterwards, and they are persuasive due to the fact that their purpose is to explain and justify political decisions (Schäffner 1997: 127-128). Lastly Schäffner have found one quite important aspect of political texts, namely that political text-genres rarely show highly conventionalised features, both at macro- and micro levels (Schäffner 1997: 138).
2.3. Model of analysis

As seen above, the concepts of discourse, text, register, genre and text type are not clearly defined concepts and the reason seems to be the many and various theoretical approaches to these concepts. However, for translation purposes, and for the purpose of this thesis, I use the concept of text to refer to any kind of communication, regardless of the medium, i.e. if it is a text, TV-broadcasting etc. I will employ the concept of register as presented by Eggins, meaning that the register of a text represents the lexical-grammatical features through which the text is realized in language, and it is comprised of the three aspects of field, tenor and mode, as described above. For the purpose of this thesis I perceive political discourse as language used in political activities, where political activities have to do with the exercise of power through language in some way. However, I will not engage in further discussions about when language is political and when it is not, I will merely assume that speeches by politicians are in fact instances of political discourse, and then also political language use. This assumption is also well supported by Schäffners work. Also, I do not confine the concept of discourse only to include texts that are presented orally, but in my use of discourse I also include written texts. Therefore, any type of communication, in my perception, can be seen as a text, and if such a text is an example of language used for political activities, then such a text can be said to be a political text. If such texts were delivered as speeches, then these texts can be said to be political speeches. As supported by Schäffner, I will consider political speeches to be a genre on its own, meaning that I am making a distinction between text type and genre as discussed above.

From the different theoretical approaches discussed, it seems that it is possible to deduct a practical approach to defining genres in general, for translation purposes, and then it should also be possible to apply this method for describing a ‘political speech genre’ in particular. There seems to be agreement on the first part of the method, namely the identification of genres by examining the communicative purpose and the field, mode and tenor of texts, which one expects to belong to that particular genre. Also, as Eggins clearly demonstrated there seems to be an additional element in defining genres, namely that of examining how a particular genre is structured in mandatory stages in order for it to be realized.

Consequently, for each ST and for each Danish Parallel Text, I will apply this model for describing the genres in the SC and the TC respectively:
- An analysis of the communicative purpose of each text based on the text’s communicative situation and the text itself.
- A register analysis, describing the field, tenor and mode aspects of the texts
- An analysis of the schematic structure
- Lastly, I will be on the lookout for any other characteristic features, which might be defining to the genre.

The schematic structure will be presented as a list of the respective stages of the speech, where each stage will be labelled using a functional label, i.e. a label expressing the particular function of the particular stage in relation to the whole text. Next to each label there will be a reference to the segments of the text that are considered to constitute that particular stage. Finally, there will be a short description for each stage.

In relation to communicative purpose, I will also be applying Jacobsen’s model of language functions as presented by Schjoldager (2008: 21-23, 172). These language functions are parallel to those mentioned by Lone Albrecht (1995: 18-23), so her descriptions will be used as basis as well, although I will be using the terminological ‘labels’ used by Schjoldager.

In relation to the aspect of tenor I will also be considering the level of formality. For this purpose I shall be using the theory of Lone Albrecht (1995: 109-111) as well as Anne Marie Bülow-Møller and Karsten Pedersen (2003: 37-42). However, I will be using Albrecht’s labels, thus a text can be characterized as frozen, formal, consultative, casual or intimate, with frozen being the most formal and casual being the most informal.

As it has also been indicated in the discussion of above, I expect that a characteristic feature of political speeches will be a high frequency of rhetorical figures. For the purpose of exemplifying this in my analysis I will be using the terminology of Kathrine Ravn Jørgensen (2003: 143-176). She presents a thorough overview of the classic rhetorical figures that are used in langue today, particularly in speeches. However, all the terminology is in Danish, so for ease of use I have made my own translations of these figures. A list of these translations and Jørgensen’s original Danish names of the figures can be found in the appendices under the title ‘Rhetorical figures’. This list also contains a very short description of each individual type of figure.

Once I have analysed the genre conventions in both SC and TC it will enable me to compare the translations, i.e. the T’s, with the genre conventions to assess whether the translated texts
reproduce the genre conventions of the SC or if they display an attempt to comply with the
genre conventions of the TC. The former would indicate that a ST-oriented macrostrategy had
been chosen for the translation, and the latter would indicate that a TT-oriented macrostrategy
had been chosen.

3. Translation

This chapter will first touch upon the very concept of translation, i.e. what translation is and,
in connection to this, what the concept of translation studies is. Afterwards, there will be a
section examining very briefly the various theoretical approaches to the field of translation.
The purpose of this will be to highlight that there are in fact many different approaches to
translation and that one of these is skopos theory, which lies within the group of theories that
are also known as the functional approaches. Highlighting and briefly describing the
principles of these various approaches will serve to illustrate how skopos theory differentiates
itself from other theories, and why skopos theory is indeed well suited for the purpose of this
thesis. Consequently, following the short section on various theoretical approaches, there will
be a section on skopos theory by itself. Here the theory will be presented, drawing upon the
work of Nord and Schjoldager, and the section will focus on the main features of skopos
theory as well as examining one key point of critique. At the end, I will present my model of
analysis with a clarification of how specific terminology will be applied.

3.1. The concept of translation

What is translation? That is a basic question that does not have a basic answer. It is not the
main focus of this thesis to discuss the concept of translation, but it is relevant to provide a
brief definition here, given that this thesis is about a pragmatic aspect within the field of
translation.

argues that the concept of translation may refer to several things. First of all it can refer to the
field of translation in general, it can refer to the product, i.e. a translation of a text, and it can
refer to the process of translating. The process of translating involves a translator who
changes the language of an original ST into another language of a TT, i.e. changing the
language code. Munday also makes reference to Jacobsen’s definition of translation, when seeking to explain the concept (Munday 2001: 4-5). According to this definition there are three types of translation:

- First, there is intralingual translation, which involves “an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language” (Munday 2001: 5), i.e. the rewording of a text into other words of the same language.
- Second, there is interlingual translation, also known as ‘translation proper’, which involves “an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language” (Munday 2001: 5).
- Third, there is intersemiotic translation, which involves “an interpretation of verbal signs by means of non-verbal sign systems” (Munday 2001: 5).

In the book, *Understanding Translation*, Schjoldager makes a similar reference to Jacobsen’s definition, when seeking to explain the concept of translation (Schjoldager 2008: 18). She also makes reference to another definition by Toury, which approaches the concept from a slightly different perspective. According to this approach, regarding a text as a translation involves basing it on these three postulates:

- First there is the source-text postulate: “It is assumed that another text, source-text, exists and that this has been used as a starting point in the production of the translation, the target text” (Schjoldager 2008: 18).
- Second, there is the transfer postulate: “It is assumed that certain features in the source text have been transferred from the source text to the target text” (Schjoldager 2008: 18).
- Third, there is the relationship postulate: “It is assumed that the source and target texts share certain features that can be ascertained in a comparison between the two” (Schjoldager 2008: 18).

Schjoldager also argues that scholars from different theoretical schools have proposed various definitions of the concept of translation. For example, there is the classical definition by Catford, who defines translation as: “the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) [the source language] by equivalent textual material in another language (TL) [the target language]” (Schjoldager 2008: 17). This reflects the equivalence based approach to translation, as will be mentioned below. Other scholars following the descriptive approach to translation even see any text that has a similarity to another text in another language to
constitute a translation. (Schjoldager 2008: 17). Schjoldager also proposes her own definition of translation: “A translation is a text that expresses what another text has expressed in another language” (Schjoldager 2008: 19). Although this definition seems somewhat vague, it takes into account that a user of a translation may not be aware that he/she uses a translation. This relates to the concept of overt and covert translations, which will be discussed below. However, what is clear about the first and the last of these definitions is the fact that they both operate with a sense of translation that resembles Jacobsen’s interlingual translation, i.e. translation that involves changing the language. This is also the case in this thesis.

The above reflects some aspects about what translation studies are about. Basically, the concept of translation studies refers to the academic discipline that deals with the studying of the problems in connection with translations (product) and translating (process) (Munday 2001: 5). The academic discipline of translation studies is a rather new one. In spite of the fact that written and spoken translations have played a crucial role in human interaction throughout history, the academic discipline of translation studies has only come into existence within the past 50 years (Munday 2001: 5).

3.2. Different theoretical approaches

This section will provide a very brief overview of the various theoretical approaches to translation, where a few key concepts and theorists will be mentioned. It will primarily draw upon the work of Jeremy Munday, as he provides an excellent overview of the various theoretical approaches as well as a brief historical account of the concept of translation and the development of translation studies (Munday 2001).

As mentioned above, the academic discipline of translation studies is a relatively new one, but interest in the field of translation can be traced back to antiquity. According to Munday, the practice of translation was already being discussed in the first century BC. Two important thinkers in that age were Cicero and Horace. Another important thinker in translation practise, although of the fourth century AD, was St. Jerome, who translated the bible from Greek into Latin, and disputes in the field of translation, as well as political
disputes for more than 1000 years would often be rooted in disputes over translations of the bible (Munday 2001: 7).

The work of these thinkers, or indeed practitioners of translation, has influenced the perception of translation up to the twentieth century. It has especially fuelled the discussion of whether translation should be perceived as a word-for-word procedure or a sense-for-sense procedure, with the former reflecting a ‘literal’ approach and the latter reflecting a ‘free’ approach. For example, the ‘literal’ approach, which Cicero represented, where the norm in Roman times where STs, mostly in Greek, were translated into Latin, but where the reader of the TT would always lay down both texts side by side when reading them. According to Horace, on the other hand, translation was about creating a text in the TL that was both creative and aesthetically pleasing, which represents the ‘free’ approach (Munday 2001: 19-20). Up through the Middle Ages the Roman Catholic Church was preoccupied with ensuring that translations of the Bible and other religious philosophical texts would render the ‘correct’ meaning, which of course was a quite political issue. Not fulfilling the requirements for a ‘correct’ translation could mean that the work would be banned or censured, but in some cases it could be outright lethal not to render a correct translation, as the translator risked being declared a heretic and burned at the stake. Due to these conditions, translations in this period were very ‘literal’. However, advocates of a more ‘free’ approach to translation used ‘non-literal’ or ‘non-accepted’ translations of the Bible as a means to fight the Church, with the most famous example being Martin Luther, who sparked the Reformation (Munday 2001: 22-23).

Munday argues that John Dryden’s seventeenth century triadic model of translation represents the starting point for a systematic approach to the field of translation (Munday 2001: 24-25, 33), but it was not until the second half of the twentieth century that modern translation theory came to be an academic discipline as we know it today. There are many and extensive theoretical approaches to translation today, but Munday proposes that these can be grouped according to their general approach to translation and according to when they were developed, i.e. chronologically (Munday 2001: 1-3).

The first of these groups of theories were concerned with the concepts of equivalence and equivalent effect, and this approach to translation saw its beginning in the 1950s and 1960s (Munday 2001: 35-36). One of the first theorists within this approach is Roman Jacobsen, who we touched upon above regarding the definition of translation. According to
Munday, other important theorists within this approach would be Eugene Nida, Werner Koller and Peter Newmark, to name some. These theorists where concerned with concepts such as linguistic meaning and equivalence, and their theoretical contributions to the field, especially Nida’s, caused a transition from the ‘literal’ vs. ‘free’ discussion of the past several hundred years to a more modern perspective involving Nida’s concepts of formal and dynamic equivalence (Munday 2001: 35-52).

Other theorists have followed an approach know as the translation shift approach. This approach includes theorists such as Jean-Paul Vinay, Jean Darbelnet and Kitty van Leuven-Zwart. What makes the works of these theorists come under the same headline is the fact that they follow a linguistic approach to the field of translation and that they in some way all work with the concept of translation shift, which basically refers to small linguistic changes that occur in translations. Theoretical models of translation within this approach operate both with translation shifts at micro level, but also at macro level, e.g. by identifying patterns of micro level shifts (Munday 2001: 55-69).

Then we have the group known as functional theories, which includes skopos theory, and theorists following this approach include names such as Christiane Nord, Katharina Reiss and Hans J. Vermeer. The main features of these theories involve the shift in focus from sentence level to text level. The concept of equivalence is still applied but at whole texts instead of words or sentences. Also, the concept of text type is introduced with regard to certain text types having certain communicative functions, which again leads to certain translation strategies. Other key features are the perception of translation as an act of intercultural communication and the focus on both purpose and circumstances regarding the TT and the ST as well (Munday 2001: 72-82).

Other theorists follow an approach using discourse and register analysis, and include names like Ian Mason, Basil Hatim and Mona Baker. As this approach implies, the main idea is that of applying models of textual analysis, derived from applied linguistics, to translation, namely discourse analysis and register analysis. Important features of these theories include the focus on sociocultural meaning behind texts and their communicative function as seen through micro level linguistic choices, as well as comparative evaluation of translations by examining how STs and TTs are realized through language by applying register analysis (Munday 2001: 89-106).
Systems theories, yet another group of theories, are mainly engaged in examining translated literature and perceiving this as a system in relation to larger social, literary and historical systems of the TC. This approach to translation also involves an overall aim of trying to find norms and laws of translation, indicating a descriptive approach to translation (Munday 2001: 108-109). One particular interesting development within this group of theories is Toury’s “diagrammatic representation of Holmes’s map of translation studies” (Munday 2001: 111). The purpose of this diagrammatic map is to enable a systematic overview of various translation theories and relating these to each other. Among others, this approach includes names such as Gideon Toury and Andrew Chesterman (Munday 2001: 108-125).

Other theories seek to describe translation through cultural studies. While some theoretical approaches tend to examine translations at word-, sentence- or text level, theories within this approach go above text level and even above language, by examining how culture and translation are related. This indicates a shift from focus on translation of texts to a perception of translation as defined by culture and politics. This is what Mary Snell-Hornby calls ‘the cultural turn’, which is a dominating concept of this approach. Other aspects are examined as well e.g. from how translation standards change over time, the relationship between postcolonialism and translation, to the relationship between ideologies, such as feminist writing, and translation. Other theorists representing this approach include André Lefevre, Sherry Simon, and Susan Bassnett (Munday 2001: 126-142).

Closely connected to the cultural studies approach, some theorists take on the approach to translation of examining the role of the translator in detail. In particular Lawrence Venuti is focused on the cultural and political agenda in translations and the so called ‘invisibility’ of translators and translations. Venuti proposes that translation is value driven, thus contrasting Toury’s attempt of describing translation as free of values and governed by norms and laws. Venuti incorporates concepts such as domestication and foreignization, which in short refers to the process of either adapting a translation to own cultural norms or maintaining a text’s foreign cultural norms. Other aspects of interest could be the power of publishing companies or Antoine Berman’s concept of the negative analytic. Theories along this approach are primarily concerned with literary translations however. (Munday 2001: 144-160).

Others approach translation by applying philosophical theories instead of the linguistic, literary or cultural approaches mentioned above. One theorist within this approach is George
Steiner with his hermeneutic approach to translation, which basically focuses on the concept of what it means to understand written or oral speech. Especially, focus is on the translator’s understanding of a text as he goes through four stages of the translation process, also known as Steiner’s hermeneutic motion. Another theorist, Walter Benjamin also focuses on the translator and the purpose of the translator to express the relationship between languages through translation, and ultimately finding a pure language. Christopher Norris on the other hand, focuses on deconstruction, which basically is about pulling apart languages and indeed the very systems behind language (Munday 2001: 162-179).

One last type of approach to translation is the interdisciplinary approach. As implied by the word interdisciplinary, the basic principle of this approach is combine different theoretical approaches, e.g. literary, cultural and linguistic approaches, into one approach to translation. As an example Mary Snell-Hornby’s ‘integrated approach’ incorporates theory regarding text types with cultural history, literary studies, sociocultural and area studies (Munday 2001: 181-195).

Although very short and superficial, the above descriptions indicate that there are indeed many different theoretical frameworks, reflecting different approaches to translation, which can be grouped according to the general approach that each specific theory reflects. It is not the purpose of this thesis to engage in a discussion of whether Munday’s grouping of theoretical approaches is indeed valid, or if other ways for systematically grouping theories would be more valid. The main purpose of this short walkthrough is mainly to highlight that there are in fact many different theories of translation and that some theories tend to focus on certain aspects while other theories focus on other aspects. Among all these theories, we find skopos theory, which may be characterised as adhering to a functional approach to translation. In the following section, we have a closer look at this theory in particular.

### 3.3. Skopos theory

The concept of skopos theory was developed by Hans J. Vermeer in 1970ies, and it introduced the idea that a translation should always be conducted to fulfil the purpose of the TT in the TT’s situation (Nord 2007: 10-12). However, there was much criticism of the theory that it neglected the ST too much, especially in terms of the ST’s linguistic features below text level. This problem was accommodated when Christiane Nord introduced her model of
translation-oriented text analysis, which contained a detailed model for analysing the ST (Munday 2001: 80-81). As mentioned in the introduction, I will be using Anne Schjoldager’s ‘version’ of skopos theory, which is presented in her book *Understanding Translation* (Schjoldager 2008). The book is a textbook designed for translator training courses, but it could also be of interest to other people operating in the field of translation, e.g. professional translators, translation scholars and teachers. The book is based on skopos theory, as this approach is considered to be particular useful for the purpose of translator training (Schjoldager 2008: 11-12). As I will be using Schjoldagers approach, I will effectively also be using her definition of translation, as mentioned in the beginning of this chapter.

In my opinion, what makes Schjoldager’s work particular useful for the purpose of this thesis is the fact that it both incorporates skopos theory, i.e. the work of both Vermeer and Nord, but also presents a practical taxonomy for describing both macro- and microstrategies in translation. This provides the translator with the tools to describe his/her pragmatic solutions in relation to a specific translation task. These strategies can also be applied to already existing translations when compared to their STs, which is very relevant in relation to the aim of this thesis. Before elaborating on the basics of skopos theory and Schjoldager’s taxonomies of macro- and microstrategies, we will first examine one point of critique of skopos theory in general.

There appear to be many points of criticism of skopos theory, and Nord touches upon 10 different points (Nord 2007: 109-122). Schjoldager also touches upon three particular points of critique (Shjoldager 2008: 180-181). However, I will only present one here, namely that it has been suggested that skopos theory is in fact not a theory as such. This is based on the perception that a proper theory should be a hypothesis that can be tested empirically. As it is not possible to detect what translators are thinking inside their heads, it is also not possible to prove that translators do in fact consider the skopos of the TT when translating. As a response, Schjoldager argues that: “[...] its lack of empirical foundation does not invalidate the skopos theory as a useful conceptual framework for our understanding of translation” (Schjoldager 2008: 181). When similarly addressing this point of critique, Nord argues: “Now the fact that people have been observing apples falling off trees since the happy times of Paradise does not deprive Newton’s law of gravity of its originality or, at least, of its importance for modern science” (Nord 2007: 114). In connection to this, it is important to note that skopos theory both provides a theoretical understanding of translation, as well as
serve as a practical method for translators to use. Skopos theory is commonly placed in the ‘branch’ of translation theory also known as applied translation studies, i.e. focusing on pragmatic aspects of translation, but the fact that it also examines the concept of translation itself, suggests that skopos theory can be placed in the theoretical branch of translation studies as well (Schjoldager 2008: 151-152). This focus on both pragmatics as well as theory is another reason why I believe skopos theory to be well suited for this thesis. This is where skopos theory differentiates itself from other approaches, e.g. Holmes’ theoretical framework which is purely descriptive, and not ‘applied’ (Munday 2001: 10-11).

Now let us briefly go over to the most important characteristics of skopos theory, as it is used by Schjoldager. One main aspect of skopos theory is that it recognizes the translator as a professional specialist within the field of translation. As a professional, the translator works under market conditions so to speak, which means that the translator carries out translation tasks for customers. This in turn means that the translator is employed to carry out tasks as they are given in ‘translation briefs’, which is the translation instructions from the commissioner, i.e. the one paying for the translation. In line with this, there are many different roles in the translation process such as the initiator, the ST producer, the ST sender, the TT sender and so on. This aspect of skopos theory makes the translator aware of which particular role he/she has in the process. The translation action itself should always be carried out based on the skopos, purpose, of the TT, i.e. what the TT is supposed to do in its own context (Schjoldager 2008: 153-162). This should also be defined in the brief. Based on this skopos, as well as a thorough analysis of both the ST and the TT through a specific model, the translator may select a macrostrategy indicating how close the translation should be to the original ST, thus lying somewhere on a continuum between two extremes of either ST-oriented, which corresponds to Nord’s documentary translation, or TT-oriented, which corresponds to Nord’s instrumental translation (Schjoldager 2008: 166-174). Based on the selected macrostrategy, the translator may then select several microstrategies in line with the goal of the translation. These strategies are often not conscious choices, but are rather intuitive choices taken along the way. The taxonomies of macro- and microstrategies are Schjoldager’s own development, although influenced by the work of other scholars (Schjoldager 2008: chapter 5-6). She also presents a framework for categorizing translations based on certain characteristics, i.e. if they are overt or covert, professional or non-professional, if they are oral, written or mixed media, and if they are within the area of
literary, special- or general-language (Schjoldager 2008: chapter 3). One last important aspect in skopos theory is the recognition of translation as an act of intercultural communication. This is relevant in relation to specific translation problems that occur due to the cultural differences between linguistic conventions in the SC and the TC (Schjoldager 2008: 155, 174-175).

3.4. Model of analysis

My model of analysis is basically the same as the one Schjoldager introduced in the translator training courses at the Aarhus School of Business, which can be found in the appendices under the title What the translator did – and why. It consists of four parts, with each part containing several questions that should be answered through analysis. The first part examines the ST:

(1) The source text
1. How is the source text presented (title, author, publishers, etc.)?
2. Who is (are) the sender(s)?
3. Who is (are) the intended receiver(s)?
4. Where and when was the text communicated (medium and time)? Was it published?
5. Why was the text written (spoken)?
6. Is there a predominant language function?
7. What is the genre? What are the characteristics?
8. What is the subject matter (field)?
9. What is the relationship between the sender(s) and receiver(s) (tenor)?
10. Is the language characteristic of its medium and what is the level of formality (mode)?
11. What is particularly interesting about this text as a source text for translation?
12. Which features in particular should influence the translator's choice of translation strategies?

As seen above, there appears to be an overlap between this model and the model for genre analysis, namely in relation to field, tenor, mode and communicative function. Logically then, these particular aspects will be analysed and presented in relation to the genre analysis, but they will be considered in relation to the skopos analysis as well.
The second part deals with the TT:

(2) The target text
1. How is the translation presented (title, author, publishers, etc.)
2. Where and when was the translation made available?
3. Is it a written, oral or mixed-media translation?
4. Who is the translator?
5. Is it a professional translation?
6. Is it overt or covert?
7. Is it a literary, general-language or special-language translation?
8. Who commissioned the translation? Why?
9. Who is (are) the sender(s) of the translation?
10. Who is (are) the intended receivers?
11. What is (was) the function of the target text (skopos)?
12. What is particularly interesting about the target text and its communicative situation?
13. How would you expect the translator to have been influenced by the communicative situation?

Many of these questions deal with the categorization of the translation, i.e. whether it is overt or covert. Thus, for answering these questions I make use of Schjolager’s taxonomy for categorizing translations (Schjoldager 2008: chapter 3).

In connection with my analysis of the TTs I will also be including the last two parts of the model:

(3) Macrostrategy
1. Can you identify the macrostrategy of the translation?
2. Can you guess at the translator's reason(s)?
3. How does the macrostrategy relate to the communicative situation and the function of the translation?
4. Is the macrostrategy appropriate?
(4) Microstrategies

1. Can you identify some microstrategies?
2. Can you guess at the translator's reasons?
3. Can you identify a pattern?
4. How do the microstrategies relate to the assumed macrostrategy?
5. Are the microstrategies appropriate?

These two parts are based on Schjoldager’s taxonomy of micro- and macrostrategies, mentioned above (Schjoldager 2008: chapter 5-6). Regarding the questions in relation to microstrategies, I will process my data in such a way that it will enable me to determine patterns of microstrategies, as will also be discussed in chapter 4. For instance, a predominant use of microstrategies such as paraphrase, deletion and substitution, could indicate a predominant TT-oriented macrostrategy. In relation to microstrategies it will be relevant to see if the translations carry any signs of attempts to reproduce the effects of rhetorical figures. Such a reproduction of rhetorical effect could be an indication of either adaptation or permutation, and thus could indicate a TT-oriented macrostrategy (Schjoldager 2008: 103-104,109-110). Lastly, when conducting the actual skopos analysis, I will not go through each question slavishly, but rather answer them in one cohesive paragraph of text that covers all the questions.

4. Data

This chapter will deal with two key aspects in relation to the corpus texts, i.e. the data, and consequentially, the chapter consists of two main parts. The first part deals with the selection process in relation to the data, which will elaborate on which criteria has been applied for selecting the texts, why these criteria are relevant and a general evaluation of the data sources. This part will also elaborate on how the data has been processed, and how it is presented in the appendices. The purpose of this section will be to justify the selection criteria, validate the data, and provide the reader with an understanding of how the data have been processed and how to read the appendices.

The second part will focus on the analysis of the data, and it will consist of three minor parts. First there will be a part containing the genre analysis of each ST and each of the
Danish parallel texts. This genre analysis is based on the model presented in chapter 2. Second there will be a short part containing results of this genre analysis. This is where the genre characteristics of the SC and the TC will be compared to find out how they differ. These results are presented here, as they only constitute a tool for the skopos analysis, which is the main area of focus in this thesis. The last part will be the skopos analysis of each ST and TT pair wise, i.e. analysing ST 1 and TT 1 in the same subsection.

4.1. Data selection

As mentioned above, this part deals with the selection process and the processing in relation the data.

4.1.1. Selection process

My selection process was purely web-based, i.e. based on Internet searches. I searched in both library databases as well as several databases of news networks, government agencies, political organisations and the like. First of all, my main focus was to find real life, practically used translations of political speeches, i.e. orally rendered political discourse that had been translated in real life for a real purpose. Such speeches would then constitute empirical evidence of political discourse, as also implied by Schäffner in the discussion in chapter 2. Furthermore, I wanted texts that were no older than 10 years to ensure that all speeches would reflect the same ‘mode of expression’. Anyone who have watched and old film will know that people spoke differently many years ago, as compared with today. Setting this time criterion would help avoid such linguistic differences due to time gaps between the different speeches. I did not have any preferences as to who the speaker was, but despite this three of the speeches have Barrack Obama as the speaker.

Besides the initial criteria above, I had the following criteria in relation to selecting the TTs:
- They should be translations used for a real professional purpose, i.e. they should not be translations that had been used in a controlled environment, as for example in a translator training-course.
- They should be translations from American-English into Danish.
- They should be translations of speeches in which the ST addresser was a native American-English speaker, i.e. the ST addresser was native to the American SC.
- They should be translations of speeches that also had an accessible ST in the ST language. Here I do not mean that particular ST used for each TT, as I have no way of knowing which texts were used as STs, without talking the translators who made the TTs. Instead I mean a text that could serve as ST in my analysis, as for example a transcript.
- They should be translations of speeches that were delivered within the SC, so that the ST addressees would be native to the SC. However, I deviated from this criterion in relation to TT 4, as this takes place in an international setting and thus logically could not have a ST that took place in the SC. I allowed this deviation as the three other STs all took place within the SC, and I then had enough material for my genre analysis. Although ST 4 did not take place in the SC, I still expect the speech to follow the SC genre conventions to some degree.

For all STs and Danish parallel texts I had the following criteria:
- That the addresser should be a politician or a person with similar addresser status, e.g. a government official.
- That the addresses were not confined to a very small and narrow group of people.
- The texts should be from a reliable source, e.g. a well-known news network or another organisation that would be expected to present such a text in a factual and objectively manner.

In relation to selecting the Danish parallel texts, I had the following criteria:
- They should be instances of real political speeches delivered by native Danish speakers, i.e. speakers native to the TC.
- The communicative situation of these texts should take place within the TC, and the addresses in this situation should be able to be considered native to the TC as well.

I believe these criteria to be valid for the purpose of this thesis, because of the following: As mentioned in the introduction, these criteria ensures that my STs, for example, are comparable to each other and that the STs as a group, except maybe for ST 4, are comparable to the Danish parallel texts as a group, at least for the purpose of this thesis. If the addresser and
addressees in the STs are all native to the SC, and the communication of the STs take place within the SC, I would expect such STs to be adequate material for a genre analyses that aims at uncovering genre conventions for that genre in the SC. Similarly, If the addressee and addressees in the Danish parallel texts are all native to the TC, and the communication takes place within the TC, I would expect such Danish parallel texts to be adequate material for a genre analysis that aims at uncovering the genre conventions for that genre in the TC. Then, by comparing genre conventions, I will be able to identify cultural differences in relation to genre convention for this genre. As the STs are all comparable, although ST 4 does not take place within the SC, their translations should also be comparable, as they are translations of the same type of texts. In turn, this suggests that if there is a patterns in how these texts are translated, in relation to strategic approach, then this would indicate that such texts tend to be translated in line with a certain strategic approach.

In the next part, I will present the data that I have selected and elaborate on how it has been processed.

4.1.2. Data processing

Based on the above criteria I have selected the following texts:

ST 1 is a transcript of Barrack Obama’s victory speech, from when he won the American presidential election on November 4 2008. The transcript was found at the website of the American news network CNN under the title: “Transcript: ‘This is your victory,’ says Obama.”

ST 2 is Barack Obama’s inauguration speech, which was delivered January 20 2009, when he officially took office. It was found at the website of the news network Reuters under the title: “President Obama’s inauguration speech.”

ST 3 is George W. Bush’s inauguration speech, which was also delivered on January 20, but in 2005. The ST was found at the website of the news network MSNBC under the title: “George W. Bush 2nd inaugural address.”

ST 4 is Barack Obama speech at the climate summit in Copenhagen, called COP15. The speech was delivered on December 18 2009. ST 4 was found at the website of the Danish
news network ‘Berlingske’ under the Danish title: “Dokumentation: Læs hele Obamas tale til COP15.”

TT 1 is the translation of Obama’s victory speech, which was made public by the Danish newspaper ‘Jyllands Posten’, also known as ‘JP’, at their homepage on September 5 under the title: “Dokumentation: Her er Obamas tale – på dansk”.

TT 2, the translation of Obama’s inauguration speech, was made public at the website of the Danish news network ‘Danmarks Radio’, or just DR. It was made public on January 20 2009 under the title: “Barack Obamas indsættelsestale.”

TT 3 is the translation of Bush’s second inauguration speech, which was made public on the website of the Danish news network ‘Berlingske’. It was made public on January 21 2005 under the title: “Dokumentation: Præsident George W. Bushs indsættelsestale torsdag 20. januar.”

TT 4 is the translation of Obama’s speech at COP15, which was made public by the Danish newspaper ‘Information’ at their website on December 18 2009. It was published under the title: “Obamas tale til COP15.”

Danish parallel text 1 is a speech by Poul Nyrup Ramussen, who was Danish Prime Minister at the time. He delivered the speech on January 1 2001. I found the speech at a Danish website called ‘Danske Taler’ which works as an online data base containing thousands of different speeches in many languages. The speech was presented under the title: “Nytårstale 2001.”

Danish parallel text 2 is a speech by the political leader of the Danish party called ‘Socialistisk Folkeparti’, or simply SF. The speech was delivered on May 1 2008 in a park named ‘Fælledparken’ in Copenhagen, in connection with the celebration of the International Worker’s Day. I found it at the Danish website ‘Danske Taler’ under the title: “1. maj-tale.”

Danish parallel speech 3 is a speech that was delivered by Anders Fogh Rasmussen, Danish Prime Minister at the time, and it was delivered on June 5 2008 in connection with the

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2 “Documentation: Read all of Obama’s speech at COP15.”
3 “Documentation: Here is Obama’s speech – in Danish”
4 “Barack Obama’s inauguration speech.”
6 “Obama’s speech at COP15.”
7 “Danish speeches.”
8 “New years speech 2001.”
9 “Socialist People’s Party”
10 “May 1st speech.”
celebration of the Danish constitution known as ‘Grundlovsdag\textsuperscript{11}'. It was also found at the website ‘Danske Taler’, under the title: "Grundlovstale.\textsuperscript{12}"

All texts are presented in the appendices under their respective functional titles, e.g. ST 1 or TT 3, and with a full reference to their on-line locations. Furthermore, all ST/TT pairs are presented together, side by side in a table. More precisely, all the text that actually constitutes the speech has been presented in a table. All the text that is not considered to be included in the speeches as such, e.g. introductory texts describing the circumstances of the speech, is presented immediately before the speech itself, outside the table. Each ST and TT have been divided into segments, mostly based on grammatical full stops in the ST, and subsequently put into the table. This means that for each ST segment there is a corresponding TT segment, unless there is somehow made alterations in the translation. In the left side column of the table, each ST/TT segment pair has then been numbered to enable clear reference. In the right side column of the table I have listed the microstrategies that have been applied when translating each segment of text. Some segments have more than one microstrategy labelled, as they might contain a deletion but otherwise appear to have been translated using direct translation, for instance. Reference to such a text segment appears like this example: (ST/TT 3: segment 27). This refers to segment 27 of ST 3 and TT 3. Sometimes reference will only be done to one of the texts, but the method is the same.

All of this also applies to the Danish parallel texts, although they are presented alone instead of side by side. Sometimes I may also simply make a reference like this: (ST 2). This simply indicates that I am referring to the introductory text or the whole of the text, which will appear from the context. Lastly, three lines sometimes divide the introductory texts like this: ---. This indicates where the speech text was presented relatively to the introductory text in the original presentation of the text.

The purpose of indicating the microstrategies for each ST/TT segment is to facilitate a clear overview of how many instances of the respective microstrategies were used for each translation. I am aware that the designation of microstrategies is debateable, and that the number of segments in the texts is also not clear-cut, but it still serves to provide an overview, and it should help to see a pattern in which microstrategies have been applied.

\textsuperscript{11} 'Constitution Day'
\textsuperscript{12} "Constitution speech"
4.2. Analyses

This is the second part of chapter 4, containing the practical analyses based on the models presented in chapter 2 and 3.

4.2.1. Genre analysis of corpus texts

4.2.1.1. ST 1

ST 1 is Barack Obama’s victory speech, which he delivered on the night of the American presidential election on November 4 2008 in Grant Park in the city of Chicago, which is located in the state of Illinois in the United States. As it is a victory speech, this speech marks the culmination of Barack Obama’s run to become the president of the United States. It is an important speech as it marks the transition of Obama from being just a presidential candidate to actually being the elected president of the United States. Instead of being the proposed leader of some Americans, he has now been elected to lead all Americans.

When considering this communicative situation, the speech is best classified as being a conative text, i.e. serving the conative language function. The overall purpose of this text is to ‘persuade’ the general population, and indeed those who did not support Obama in the presidential election, to support him politically, i.e. adapt his point of view or at least support his point of view. Its function bears a close resemblance to the function of the texts examined by Schäffner, as mentioned above. These political speeches intended to persuade the addressees to support the addressers by justifying political decisions of the addressers. In this case however, the addresser, Obama, must gather support for future political decisions, as has just been elected president and thus have not yet made any decisions as president. Although this text is overall conative, it carries multiple sub-functions as well. The opening and closing remarks (ST 1: segment 1, 89) are examples of the phatic language function, signaling that the speaker is either about to speak or done with speaking. Another language function, the poetic, is evident through the high frequency of rhetorical figures, which will be discussed below. The entire text is in fact basically emotive, i.e. expressing the addressers subjective opinion, as the speech constitute Obama’s point of view on particular topics. This does not change the fact that the text is overall conative, as the main purpose still is to make the addressees adapt his point of view.
When examining the tenor aspect of register, it is quite clear that the sender is the newly elected president of United States, and the receivers are, at first, members of the American Democratic Party and other Obama followers present in Grant Park in Chicago, where the speech was delivered. However, given the fact that this is technically a speech by the American president, i.e. the political leader of all Americans, and given the political significance that the change in political leadership of a nation must have, this speech must surely be for the wider American public, although it could be of interest for leaders as well as the wider public of other states as well. This wider scope of receivers is supported by the fact that the speech was televised live and that it was published in the mass media afterwards, reaching a nation-wide if not worldwide audience. This quite broad group of addressees is evident through several phrases and words within the text as seen in these examples: “It’s the answer spoken by young and old, rich and poor, Democrat and Republican, black, white, Hispanic, Asian, Native American, gay, straight, disabled and nor disabled.” (ST 1: segment 4), “We are, and always will be the United States of America.” (ST 1: segment 5), “Those are the values that we all share.” (ST 1: segment 55), “As Lincoln said to a nation far more divide than ours, we are not enemies but friends.” (ST 1: segment 56), “And those Americans whose support I have yet to earn, I may not have won your vote tonight, but I hear your voices. I need your help. And I will be your president too.” (ST 1: segment 57).

As the addresser is the new president and the addressees are the wider public it would be easy to conclude that the relationship between addresser and addressees would be a characteristic authority/subordinate relationship, which would be expressed linguistically through a formal language style. This is not the case, however, as the text is in fact consultative to casual, signifying a addresser/addressee relationship that resembles a relationship between equals, or at least between a non-authoritarian leader and his/her employees/co-workers. This may be due to the fact that even if the president is the leader of the nation, i.e. the American people, the people also in some way has authority over the president as it is the people who elects the president. The consultative level of formality is evident in the text through the low frequency of complex noun phrases and nominalizations, and the predominant use of actives instead of passives, although there are some passives as for example: “[...] the answer told by [...]” (ST 1: segment 3), “[...] the answer spoken by [...]” (ST 1: segment 4), ”[...] change has come to America.” (ST 1: segment 7).
Furthermore, there is a high frequency of personal pronouns like “I” (ST 1: segment 8, 11, 12, 13, 22), “we” (ST 1: segment 5, 6, 10, 33, 73) and “you” (e.g. ST 1: segment 17, 32, 33, 41, 42), which lowers the level of formality as these pronouns makes the text more personal to the addressees, especially seen in the context of the original communicative situation where the speech was delivered by Obama, the addresser, by speaking face-to-face with the crowd, the immediate addressees.

Considering the field aspect of this speech, the first impulse is to label it with the word “political ideology”, as it is quite difficult to come up with an all-inclusive label that defines it more precisely. The speech is related to the activity of American presidential election, and more importantly this is the speech of the victorious candidate. Therefore this speech contain many different elements, e.g. from paying tribute to supporters to presentation of specific political problems that must be faced in the time to come. To illustrate this, it would be logical to go straight to the schematic structure of this speech:

‘Speech initiation’ (ST 1: segment 1): The speaker’s opening remark, signaling that he is going to deliver his speech now.

‘Paying tribute to voters in general’ (ST 1: segment 2-7): The speaker is praising the efforts of all American voters at this election, which seem to emphasize the purpose of rallying all Americans under his leadership.

‘Paying tribute to various supporters’ (ST 1: segment 8-31): Obama thanks his family, campaign staff/helpers and general supporters and pays tribute to his competitors in the election, Senator McCain and Governor Palin, signaling human qualities like gratefulness and sportsmanship.

‘Presentation of problems’ (ST 1: segment 32-39): Obama talks about the problems that the American people have to face and overcome.

‘Presentation of solution’ (ST 1: segment 40-57): Obama explains how the problems can be overcome through his leadership if all Americans work together as a team.

‘Addressing the world’ (ST 1: segment 58-61): Obama talks directly to the rest of the world, although in very general terms.

‘Making an allegory to show the way’ (ST 1: segment 62-88): Obama uses an allegory, the life story of the American voter Ann Nixon Cooper who was 106 years old at the time.
Through this allegory, Obama explains how problems of the past were overcome and that present problems can similarly be overcome.

‘Ending the speech’ (ST 1: segment 89): Obama gives his final remarks, signaling that the speech is over.

In terms of mode this text can be characterized as face-to-face and as a spoken monologue. There are some linguistic features in the text that indicate the spoken language form of the speech, namely the contractions of personal pronouns and the following verb as for example, “It’s” (ST 1: segment 3, 4, 6), “that’s” (ST 1: segment 14), “you’ve” (ST 1: segment 17), “didn’t” (ST 1: segment 32). However, as we must assume that a speech is always prepared in advance, a speech is not spontaneous as a casual conversation, which seem to make the language appear more as written language, e.g. with a more planned use of particular words and structure, which is evident in the frequent use of rhetorical figures, as seen below.

Besides the above characteristics, this text has other special characteristics that are typical for political speeches, as discussed above in the genre chapter. The first of these features is the use of culturally linked terminology and concepts, e.g. “Native American” (ST 1: segment 9), “New Deal” (ST 1: segment 72), “When the bombs fell on our harbor and tyranny threatened the world [...]” (ST 1: segment 74). Closely related to this aspect is the characteristic use of religious references in the closing remarks: “God bless you. And may God bless the United States of America.” (ST 1: segment 89). One last characteristic feature of this text is the frequent use of rhetorical figures as for example the allegory (ST 1: 62-88) mentioned above. Other examples could be:

Rhetorical questions: “[...] what change will they see?” (ST 1: segment 84)
Rhetorical question: “What progress will we have made?” (ST 1: segment 85).
Climax/gradation: “If there is anyone out there who still doubts that America is a place where all things are possible, who still wonders if the dream of our founders is alive in our time, who still questions the power of our democracy [...]” (ST 1: segment 2)
Metaphor: “[...] to put their hands on the arc of history and bend it once more [...]” (ST 1: segment 6)
Metaphor: “The road ahead will be long. Our climb will be steep.” (ST 1: segment 37).
Anaphor: “Yes we can.” (ST 1: segment 71, 73, 75, 77).
Parallelism: “Sen. McCain fought long and hard in this campaign. And he has fought even longer and harder for the country that he loves.” (ST 1: segment 9).

Parallelism + alliteration + assonance: “[...] block by block, brick by brick, calloused hand by calloused hand.” (ST 1: segment 44).

Epistrophe: “[...] this time must be different, that their voice could be that difference.” (ST 1: segment 3)

Hyperbole: “[...] an extraordinarily gracious call [...]” (ST 1: segment 8).

Antithesis: “[...] young and old, rich and poor [...] disabled and not disabled.” (ST 1: segment 4).

### 4.2.1.2. ST 2

ST 2 is Barack Obama’s inauguration speech, i.e. it is the speech that he gave on Tuesday 20 January 2009 in connection with the official ceremony of talking over the presidential office of the USA. This is a quite ritualistic communicative situation, as there are certain formal procedures that must be carried out, and as it is a recurring historical event in American history, i.e. it takes place every time a new president is elected, or when a president is re-elected for a second term, and officially begins his work as president. The speech was televised live.

Similar to the communicative purpose of ST 1, this text is conative, as the main purpose of this speech is to “persuade” the American people to support their new president and to accept his plan of action for the coming presidential term. Obama explains which problems that need to be overcome in the near future and how to do so. As in ST 1, this text also contains various sublevel text functions. It has a referential element (ST 1: segment 4) and the opening and closing remarks are instances of the phatic language function (ST 1: segment 1, 97). As with ST 1, the entire text can also be seen as basically emotive, i.e. expressing the addressers subjective opinion, as the speech is Obama’s perception on particular problems, solutions, values etc. Lastly the use of rhetorical figures, being stylistic elements, indicates the poetic language function. Some of these figures will be presented below.

This speech is communication between the political leader of USA and the general American population, as also indicated by the sentence: “My fellow citizens” (ST 2: segment 1). Obama also makes a direct address to the leaders and the people of other nations in general, which
makes the wider world a secondary addressee, at least in these particular sections of the speech (ST 2: segment 63, 75-79). As in ST 1 this relationship may be characterized as one between a democratic leader and his population/voters, indicating that both parties have some kind of power over the other party. In terms of formality the text is consultative, i.e. mainly consultative but with some formal features that makes it appear slightly more formal than ST 1. The predominant use of active voice (ST 2: segment 3, 7, 11, 20, 41) and the use of first person pronouns, “I” (ST 2: segment 2, 3, 16) and “we” (ST 2: segment 7, 9, 13, 35, 53, 83), indicate the consultative level of formality. Similarly, the vocabulary used shows few indications of Latin and other foreign words as well as complex and technical terminology. On the other hand, the entire communicative situation and its rather ritualistic nature makes the text appear more formal than ST 1, which is also evident when comparing the opening lines of both texts: “Hello Chicago” in ST 1 (ST 1: segment 1) and “My fellow citizens” in ST 2 (ST 2: segment 1). The former appears almost casual where the latter represents how one would expect a leader of a nation to address his/her people as a professional leader.

The field can be described using the label of ‘political ideology’ and more precisely, “political problems and solutions”. This is what the speech is about, namely Obama’s evaluation of particular problems and their solution. As in ST 1 there are many subjects included in the speech as seen here, when examining the schematic structure:

‘Speech initiation’ (ST 2: segment 1): The opening line signallling the speaker’s intent to commence his speech.

‘Paying tribute’ (ST 2: segment 2-8): Obama pays tribute to former presidents and to American values and ideals.

‘Presentation of problems’ (ST 2: segment 9-19): Obama presents the problems that the American people have to face.

‘Tribute to American forebears and history, and historical solutions to historical problems’ (ST 2, segment 20-34): Obama explains how Americans before has faced great problems and over come these because of American values and that the current problems also can be dealt with in a similar manner.
‘Presenting and defending a plan for dealing with domestic problems’ (ST 2: segment 35-59): Obama presents a plan to deal with the current domestic problems and defends his plan by dismissing hypothetical points of critique.

‘Presenting approach to foreign policy’ (ST 2: segment 60-80): Obama presents how America should relate to the rest of the world as a leading nation based on core values of freedom and liberty. He also touches upon specific international problems, and makes a direct address to other nations in general.

‘Praising the ideal good American citizen’ (ST 2: segment 81-98): Obama explains how a good American citizen should be in relation to facing the problems ahead.

‘Comparing current problems to the American War of Independence’ (ST 2: segment 99-107): Obama compares the American War of Independence and in particular the spirit of endurance this symbolizes, with what the American nation should do now to overcome the current problems.

Like ST 1 the mode can be characterized as a spoken monologue, with linguistic characteristics of a prepared speech as mentioned above. As it was televised live, the addressees would also have the impression that the speaker was addressing them face-to-face.

ST 2 also contains additional characteristics, similar to ST 1, namely the occurrence of cultural bound references and religious references. As examples of cultural references we have: “For us they died in Concord and Gettysburg; Normandy and Khe San.” (ST 2: segment 31), “[...] our founding documents.” (ST 2: segment 7). As example of religious references we have: “[...] the God-given promise [...]” (ST 2: segment 23), “[...] that God calls on us [...]” (ST 2: segment 96). Lastly, as in ST 1 there is a frequent use of rhetorical figures e.g.: Metaphor: “[...] rising tides of prosperity and still waters of peace.” (ST 2: segment 5)

Metaphor: “[...] the ground has shifted beneath them [...]” (ST 2: segment 52).

Periphrasis: “[...] every willing heart [...]” (ST 2: segment 59).

 Allegory: Entire segments (ST 2: segment 7, 86, 87).

Parallelism: “They are serious and they are many.” (ST 2: segment 17).

Parallelism: “But our time of standing pat, of protecting narrow interests and putting off unpleasant decisions [...]” (ST 2: segment 39).
Anaphor: “Where the answer is […]” (ST 2: segment 8).
Asyndeton + climax/gradation: “Homes have been lost; jobs shed; businesses shuttered.” (ST 2: segment 12).
Antithesis: “[...] whether the market is a force for good or ill.” (ST 1: segment 57).

4.2.1.3. ST 3

ST 3 is President George W. Bush’s second inauguration speech, i.e. the speech he gave when initiating his second presidential term. He gave the speech on January 20 2005, and it was televised live just as Obama’s speech, and the communicative situation as such is parallel to that of ST 2.

The communicative purpose of this speech is, as in ST 2, to ‘persuade’ the addressees to adapt the addressers point of view, i.e. to support him as their leader and to support his future political course of action. As such, the text is overall conative, but this text also contains other language functions. In the sense that the text basically is a representation of George W. Bush’s subjective political view, the text is emotive. The opening remarks and closing remarks are instances of the phatic language function, focusing on the channel (ST 3: segment 1, 97). Lastly, the many rhetorical figures, which will be exemplified below, emphasize language style, which supports the poetic language function.

In terms of tenor, the addresser of ST 3 is the re-elected president of USA, George W. Bush, and the addresses are primarily the wider American population. As in the two other speeches, this speech also contain segment in which the speaker addresses a secondary target audience located outside USA, which includes both leaders of other nations and the people of other nations (ST 3: segment 38,43, 45). In terms of formality the relationship between addresser and addressee in this text is consultative to formal. As in the speeches described above, this speech predominantly makes use of active voice and it contains many personal pronouns like “we” (ST 3: segment 2, 7, 14, 24, 39, 69) and “I” (ST 3: segment 3, 4, 32, 48, 49), which together leads to a consultative level of formality. However, there are some aspects that pull the level of formality upwards. First, there are several complex sentences (ST 3: segment 2, 8, 13, 28), i.e. sentences containing long relative clauses or pre-/post modifications of nouns.
Second, there seem to be several (ST 3 segment 10, 11, 29) nominalizations like: “The survival of liberty [...]” (ST 3: segment 10). Lastly the choice of words and phrases seem to emphasize a sense of solemnity in the text e.g.: “On this day, prescribed by law and marked by ceremony, we celebrate the durable wisdom of our Constitution [...]” (ST 3: segment 2), “At this second gathering [...]” (ST 3: segment 4), “And when the soul of a nation finally speaks [...]” (ST 3: segment 20). In spite of these aspects, I would still argue that the level of formality is still consultative, as features of the formal level of formality are not numerous enough to colour the entire text, although they make the text appear slightly more formal than ST 1 and ST 2.

Turning to the field aspect, this can also be described as ‘political ideology’. When compared to the field of the two previous texts, this text appears to focus more on ideological praising of particular values than on specific pragmatic problems that must be faced and overcome. The entire speech appears to be constructed around a structural metaphor of freedom vs. tyranny, in which the forces of freedom and good battle the forces of tyranny and evil. This is evident through the very frequent use of the keywords “free/freedom” (ST 3: segment 5,9,11,19, 21, 24, 27, 30, 31, 32, 40, 42, 51, 69, 86), “liberty” (ST 3: segment 10, 31, 32, 63, 94) and “tyrant/tyranny” (ST 3: segment 8, 9, 18, 22, 35, 38). This perspective is also directly addressed several places e.g.: “There is only one force of history that can break the reign of hatred and resentment, and expose the pretensions of tyrants, and reward the hopes of the decent and tolerant, and that is the force of human freedom” (ST 3: segment 9), “The survival of liberty in our land increasingly depends on the success of liberty in other lands” (ST 3: segment 10), “So it is the policy of the United States to seek and support the growth of democratic movements and institutions in every nation and culture, with the ultimate goal of ending tyranny in our world” (ST 3: segment 18), “We go forward with complete confidence in the eventual triumph of freedom” (ST 3: segment 88). Now we shall examine the schematic structure:


‘Presenting the goal’ (ST 3: segment 4-18): Bush presents the ultimate goal, to end tyranny in the world and spread human freedom, and justifies this goal based on ideology.

‘Presenting a plan of how to get there’ (ST 3: segment 19-31): Bush vaguely explains how the goal can be achieved, e.g. by supporting people around the world in obtaining their freedom.

‘Justifying the plan and addressing the world’ (ST 3: segment 32-47): Bush justifies his point of view and addresses the leaders and people in the world.

‘Justifying the plan to the American people’ (ST 3: segment 48-61): Bush speaks directly to the American people about why they should follow his approach.

‘Defining the roles of the government and the people’ (ST 3: segment 62-78): Bush explains what the government should do and what the citizens should in relation to domestic issues, but also in how people should related to each other and help each other.

‘Explaining why and how this goal should be achieved’ (ST 3: segment 79-96): Bush explains that America should pursue this goal for the sake of honour and good, and that the goal is achievable if the American people stand together.

‘Ending the speech’ (ST 3: segment 97): Bush’s closing remarks, signalling the end of the speech.

In terms of mode, this text is also spoken, i.e. delivered orally, and as it was broadcasted on TV, the speech appears as face-to-face communication, although the addressees were physically separated from the speaker. Similar to the other texts the language is characteristic of a prepared, i.e. non-spontaneous, speech.

As with ST 1 and ST 2, this speech also contains additional characteristic features. One of these features is the occurrence of culturally determined terminology e.g.: ‘[…] the Homestead Act, the Social Security Act and the G. I. Bill of Rights.” (ST 3: segment 65), ‘When the Declaration of Independence […]”, “[…] Liberty Bell […]” (ST 3: segment 94).

In connection to this, there are several religious references as in: ‘[…] because they bear the image of the Maker of Heaven and earth.” (ST 3: segment 13), ‘[…] the truths of Sinai, the Sermon on the Mount, the words of the Koran, and the varied faiths of our people.” (ST 3: segment 72), ‘May God bless you, and may He watch over the United States of America.” (ST 3: segment 97).
Lastly, there is a frequent use of rhetorical figures e.g.:
Parallelism + anaphor + climax/gradation: “[...] came years of relative quiet, years of repose, years of sabbatical – and then there came a day of fire.” (ST 3: segment 6).
Parallelism + antithesis: “[...] because no one is fit to be a master, and no one deserves to be a slave.” (ST 3: segment 14).
Parallelism: “In the long run, there is no justice without freedom, and there can be no human rights without liberty.” (ST 3: segment 31).
Antithesis: “The morale choice between oppression, which is always wrong, and freedom, which is eternally right.” (ST 3: segment 27).
Asyndeton + climax/gradation: “[...] freedom is the permanent hope of mankind, the hunger in dark places, the longing of the soul.” (ST 3: segment 91).
Metaphor: “[...] a day of fire.” (ST 3: segment 6).
Metaphor: “History has an ebb and flow of justice [...]” (ST 3: segment 93).
Alliteration: “[...] attacks and emerging threats.” (ST 3: segment 25).
Assonance: “[...] the honour of this hour [...]” (ST 3: segment 3).
Homeoteleuton: “I am grateful for [...] mindful of [...]” (ST 3: segment 3)
Chiasm: “The survival of liberty in our land increasingly depends on the success of liberty on other lands.”; “The best hope for peace in our world is the expansion of freedom in all the world.” (ST 3: segment 10-11).
Rhetorical question: ”Did our generation advance the cause of freedom?”; “And did our character bring credit to that cause?” (ST 3: segment 81-82).

4.2.1.4. ST 4
ST 4 is the speech that Obama delivered on December 18 2009 at the recent international climate summit called COP15, which was held in the ‘Bella Center’, a conference centre in Copenhagen. The speech was delivered to members of the world press and the political delegates from the participating nations. This communicative situation resembles the situation in the first of Schäffner’s speech types, mentioned in chapter 2. Schäffner defined this type of speech as being connected with policy making and that the primary addressees would be other politicians. Lastly she argued that such speeches would be referential rather than conative. This speech could be seen as being part of a legislative process, as the goal of COP15 was to
achieve some kind of international agreement regarding a reduction of greenhouse gas emissions. However, I would argue that this process can not be seen as a normal legislative process, as there was no guarantee beforehand that a legally binding treaty would be the result of this summit. Also, I would argue that this speech has two addressees, namely the political delegates of the participating nations, which constitute the primary addressees, and the wider public of the world in general, constituting the secondary addressees. This is because the speech is supposed to both ’persuade’ the delegates to try and actually reach an agreement as well as to store confidence in the populations of the world’s nations that the problem will be solved.

Consequently, I argue that this speech is overall conative as the three other STs. It does contain some purely referential elements, i.e. text stating objective facts (ST 4: segment 23, 29, 30). As with the other texts, this text also constitutes the speaker’s point of view and as such supports the emotive language function. Also, the use of rhetorical figures, which will be presented below, supports the poetic language function. Lastly, the opening and closing remarks are instances of the phatic language function (ST 4: segment 1, 48).

In terms of tenor this speech is communication between a politician and other politicians but also the wider public of the world. This is reflected in a consultative level of formality, which is evident by the general absence of formal- and informal style markers. Also, the text predominantly uses active voice and there are many personal pronouns as “we” (ST 4: segment 3, 7, 14, 17, 38, 47), “I” (ST 4: segment 10, 21) and “me” (ST 4: segment 2, 4, 10), which makes the text less formal.

The field can be described as ‘climate change’. Unlike the other STs, this text is focused on one particular overall subject, namely the problem of climate change and what to do about it. This is also expressed explicitly in the text e.g.: “We come together here in Copenhagen because climate change poses a grave and growing danger to our people.” (ST 4: segment 3), “So the question is no longer the nature of the challenge – the question is our capacity to meet it.” (ST 4: segment 8). Here is the schematic structure:

‘Speech initiation’ (ST 4: segment 1): Obama’s opening remarks, signalling the speech has begun.
‘Paying tribute to delegates’ (ST 4: segment 2): Obama pays tribute to the delegates that have come.

‘Presenting and elaborating on the problem’ (ST 4: segment 3-11): Obama explains why the problem is serious.

‘Presenting America’s plan of action’ (ST 4: segment 12-18): Obama explains what America has already done and will do to solve their part of the problem.

‘Presenting an international plan of action’ (ST 4: segment 19-33): Obama explains that it is necessary with an international plan in order to solve the problem, and he presents and elaborates on such a plan.

‘Justifying the plan and emphasizing the need to stand together’ (ST 4: segment 34-47): Obama explains that without standing together through a shared plan of action, the problem cannot be solved.

‘Ending the speech’ (ST 4: segment 48): Obama’s ending remarks, signalling that he is done speaking.

The mode is spoken monologue, face-to-face with the primary addressees at least. This text also shows the signs of a prepared speech, as discussed with the other texts.

As with the other STs, this text also contains many rhetorical figures although they seem less frequent than in the previously examined STs. Here is some examples:

Parallelism, “This is not fiction this is science.” (ST 4: segment 5).

Parallelism: “[…] by making historic investments in renewable energy; by putting our people to work […] and by pursuing comprehensive legislation […]” (ST 4: segment 14).

Climax/gradation: “Unchecked, climate change will pose unacceptable risks to our security, our economies and our planet.” (ST 4: segment 6).

Alliteration: “[...] poses a grave and growing danger [...]” (ST 4: segment 3).

Homeoteleuton: “[...] we can act boldly, and decisively [...]” (ST 4: segment 10).

Antithesis: “[...] whether we will move forward together, or split apart.” (ST 4: segment 34).

Antithesis: “We must choose action over inaction; the future over the past [...]” (ST 4: segment 47).

Metaphor: “For without such accountability, any agreement would be empty words on a page.” (ST 4: segment).
4.2.1.5. Danish parallel text 1

The first of the Danish parallel texts is a speech by Poul Nyrup Ramussen who was Danish prime minister at the time. He delivered the speech on January 1, 2001, which is also a recurring event in Denmark, i.e. that the prime minister delivers a speech on the first day each year, which is also why this speech is referred to as a ‘new year speech’. The speech was televised live to the wider Danish public.

The speech is conative, as the main communicative purpose is to present and justify the political course of action of the coming year. There are indications of other language functions though, namely the emotive, the phatic, the peotic and the referential. The referential is evident in this example: “Siden 1993 har vi gennemført reformer [...]” (Danish parallel text 1: segment 12). The phatic is primarily seen in the opening and closing remarks: “Godaften – og godt nytår.”; “Jeg ønsker alle et rigtigt glædeligt nytår.” (Danish parallel text 1: segment 1, 66). These remarks appear emotive, but I would still argue that their function is to signal the initiation and ending of the speech to the addressees. As with the STs, this speech is basically a representation of the speaker’s own subjective opinion and is as such emotive. The use of rhetorical figures, which will be seen below, is an indication of the poetic language function.

In terms of tenor, this speech is communication between the Danish prime minister, the addressee, and the wider Danish population, the addressees. I argue that the text is consultative as it does not contain many formal or casual style markers in general. However, there is frequent use of personal pronouns like “vi” (Danish parallel text 1: segment 5, 7, 15, 31, 41, 57) and “jeg” (Danish parallel text 1: segment 2, 6, 14, 37, 52), which makes the text more personal to the addressees. Furthermore, the verbs are predominantly active, which also emphasizes that the text is not formal.

The field can be characterized with the label of ‘political ideology’ or ‘political problems’, as the speech focus on both ideological political values and pragmatic political problems that

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13 “Since 1993 we have implemented reforms [...]”
14 “Good evening – and happy new year.”; "I wish every one a really happy new year.”
15 “we” and “I”
should be overcome. Compared to the STs there seem to be more focus on the pragmatic problems and less focus on ideological ‘worshipping’ as for example: “Derfor skal vi holde orden i økonomien. Og pengene skal vi bruge klogt. Vi kan så let sætte det hele over styr igen.” (Danish parallel text 1: segment 18).

Here is the schematic structure:

‘Speech initiation’ (Danish parallel text 1: segment 1): Rasmussen’s opening line, signalling the speech has begun.

‘Things are great in Denmark’ (Danish parallel text 1: segment 2-7): Based on a reference to a question Rasmussen once got from the Korean Prime Minister, Rasmussen argue that Denmark is a great place to live.

‘Explaining why it is great’ (Danish parallel text 1: segment 8-13): Rasmussen argues that Denmark is a great place because of the mutual effort of the Danish people and the current government’s political work.

‘Presenting domestic problems and their solutions’ (Danish parallel text 1: segment 14-54): Rasmussen presents several specific problems that need to be solved in the new year. For each problem he also proposes what to do.

‘More Danish participation in the EU’ (Danish parallel text 1: segment 55-63): Explains that just as the Danes should stand together in relation to domestic problems, so should Denmark stand together with the EU in order to ensure a peaceful Europe.

‘Assuring that the problems will be solved’ (Danish parallel text 1: segment 64-65): Rasmussen returns to the question presented in the beginning of the speech. He argues that Denmark is not perfect, but it is a great country to live in because the Danes stand together, and because they stand together the problems discussed can be overcome.

‘Ending the speech’ (Danish parallel text 1: segment 66): The closing remarks, signalling that the speech is over.

The mode of the speech is a spoken monologue that appears as being face-to-face. As with the STs the use of rhetorical figures (see below) indicates that the speech was prepared, i.e. it was written to be spoken.

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16 “Therefore, we must keep our economy in order. And we must spend the money wisely. We can so easily jeopardize it all again.”
The text has one other characteristic feature, which also has to do with the fact that it is a prepared speech, namely the frequent use of rhetorical figures, although less frequent than in the STs. Here are some examples:

**Metaphor:** “[...] er det en knivskarp balance [...]” (Danish parallel text 1: segment 21).

**Metaphor:** “Vores sundhedsvæsen er en hjørnesten i velfærdssamfundet.” (Danish parallel text 1: segment 34).

**Hyperbole:** “En kolossal arbejdsløshed [...]” (Danish parallel text 1: segment 10).

**Parallelism + anaphor:** “Vi skulle have gang i økonomien. Vi skulle have mennesker i arbejde. Vi skulle have penge til velfærd.” (Danish parallel text 1: segment 11).

**Alliteration:** “[...] på bekostning af mennesker, miljø [...]” (Danish parallel text 1: segment 41).

**Climax/gradation:** “Et land i stagnation, mismod og krisestemning.” (Danish parallel text 1: segment 10).

**Corectio:** “Vi vil ikke gentage de fejl, ja vi vil ikke engang risikere det [...]” (Danish parallel text 1: segment 17).

### 4.2.1.6. Danish parallel text 2

The second Danish parallel text is a speech by the political leader of the Danish party called “Socialistisk Folkeparti”, or simply SF. The speech was delivered on May 1 2008 in a park named “Fælledparken” in Copenhagen, in connection with the celebration of the International Worker’s Day.

In this situation the addresser is Villy Søvndal and the primary addressees are the people in the park at this event, which numbered up to 25,000 people according to a web-article of the Danish newspaper Information (Sterling 2008: Tibetansk frihedsfakkel til 1. maj-fest). These primary addressees would most likely be people interested in the celebration of the Worker’s Day, but the addressees could in theory be any one, due to the public nature of

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17 “[...] it is a knife-sharp balance [...]”
18 “Our health services are a corner stone in the welfare society.”
19 “A colossal rate of unemployment [...]”
20 “We had to get the economy going. We had to put people to work. We had to save money for the welfare.”
21 “[...] at the expense of people, environment [...]”
22 “A country in stagnation, dejection and a mood of crisis.”
23 “We will not repeat those mistakes, yes we will not even risk it [...]”
24 “Socialist People’s Party”
such an event. Also, the fact that the speech is publicly available through the homepage of SF and the web site called “Danske Taler,”\textsuperscript{25} could indicate a secondary addressee, namely the wider Danish public.

I would argue that this speech’s overall communicative purpose is also conative, as the focus of speech is on the addresses. I would argue that the speech is supposed to highlight the political difference between SF and the Danish government in order to gather political support from the addressees. In line with this, the speech contains an imperative, and imperatives are overtly conative as they are often used as commands: “\textit{Til de 97 \% der ikke er medlemmer af vores fagforeninger: Tag så og få jer organiseret.}\textsuperscript{26}” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 23). There are also instances of other language functions, e.g. the referential: “\ldots at den udenlandske arbejdskraft i gennemsnit kun betaler mellem 10 og 12 \% i skat.”\textsuperscript{27}” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 14). The opening and closing remarks (Danish parallel text 2: segment 1, 48) have a phatic function, as in the other speeches. The poetic language function is seen through the use of rhetorical figures, which will be presented below. Lastly the entire speech is basically the subjective opinion of the speaker and can as such be taken as an instance of the emotive language function.

Regarding tenor, the addresser and addressee have already been described above, and their relationship is that of a politician speaking to a mixed crowd of people, who probably have an interest in the celebration of the Worker’s Day. In terms of formality, I would argue that this speech is consultative but in the lower end of the spectrum, and I would label it consultative to casual. The consultative is evident through the general absence of formal style markers, the predominant use of active voice and a predominantly simple grammatical sentence structure. Furthermore there are outright casual elements to be found. First, there are multiple instances of humoristic expressions, e.g.: “\ldots nej til pigelon – og ja til ligelon.”\textsuperscript{28}” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 2). “\ldots når spørgsmål ikke besvares eller erstattes af papegøjesvar.”\textsuperscript{29}” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 39). “\ldots hver journalist får to spørgsmål – og nul svar.”\textsuperscript{30}” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 40). Second, there are some casual expressions as e.g.:

\textsuperscript{25} "Danish Speeches"
\textsuperscript{26} "To those 97 \% who are not yet members of our trade unions: Get yourself organized!"
\textsuperscript{27} "\ldots that the foreign workforce only pays between 10 and 12 \% in tax on average."
\textsuperscript{28} "\ldots no to girl pay – and yes to equal pay."
\textsuperscript{29} "\ldots when questions are not answered or are replaced with parrot answers."
\textsuperscript{30} "\ldots each journalist gets two questions - and zero answers."
“Denne beslutning skal skæres ud i pap - så selv en dommer ved EF-domstolen kan forstå det.” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 19). “[…] ja, det er statsministeren, ham der hedder Anders Fogh.” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 34). I would argue that these casual elements do not make the entire text casual, but the definitely pull the overall level of formality downwards, hence the label of consultative to casual.

The field is ‘political ideology’, but in more detail this speech put emphasis on problems in relation to worker’s rights and working conditions, which is natural when considering the communicative situation. As with the other speeches, this speech also addresses specific problems and their proposed solutions. To illustrate this we have the schematic structure:

‘Speech initiation’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 1): Søvndal’s opening remarks, signaling the beginning of the speech.
‘Presenting the first problem’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 2): Søvndal presents the first problem, namely the problem regarding equal pay.
‘Presenting SF’s ideology and calls for action’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 3-4): He presents the fundamental ideological base of SF in relation to this problem and calls for action to do something about it.
‘Elaborating on the problem’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 5-11): Søvndal elaborates in more detail on the problem regarding equal pay.
‘Presenting the solution’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 12-13): He presents a solution to the problem, i.e. what SF believes need to be done.
‘Presenting the second problem’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 14): Søvndal presents the second problem regarding the EU expansion to the east and the movement of eastern-European workers into the Danish labor market.
‘Elaborating on problem and presenting solutions’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 15-22): He then elaborates on various aspects of the problem and proposes solutions.
‘Direct address to workers in DK of eastern-European origin’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 23): Søvndal makes a direct address to the eastern-European workers in Denmark, that they should get organized in unions in order to solve previously discussed problems.

31 “This decision must be cut out in cardboard – so that even a judge at the European Court of Justice will be able to understand it.”
32 “[…] yes, that is the Prime Minister, the one called Anders Fogh.”
‘Presenting what SF will do and is doing to solve problems’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 24-28): Søvndal explains that SF seeks to change legislation in order to solve problems.

‘Presenting international problem and what needs to be done’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 29-31): Søvndal presents and discusses international problems regarding worker’s rights, especially in relation to Tibet.

‘Elaborating on ideological differences between SF and the Danish Prime Minister’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 32-40): Søvndal explains what SF is doing and how this differs from what the government end the Prime Minister has done wrong.

‘What SF will do in general and a direct appeal to addressees to act’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 41-47): He presents a general political plan for SF and calls on the addressees to act in order to get a new government.

‘Ending the speech’ (Danish parallel text 2: segment 48): Søvndal’s closing remarks signaling that the speech is over.

As with the other texts discussed above, the mode of this speech is that of a prepared speech, i.e. it is a spoken monologue. In the original situation in the park in Copenhagen, the speech is also face-to-face to the primary addressees. The fact that this speech was prepared is quite clear in this particular text, as there are several sentences in the text, which appear to be headlines for the following sections, i.e. these sentences would probably not have been spoken. These ‘headlines’ only occur in this text because it clearly must be the prepared remarks and not a transcript of the spoken words. Here are a couple of examples of such ‘headlines’: “Håb, forandring, resultater” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 41), “International dag!” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 29). Of course, these sentences would only be noticed by readers of the speech, and not the primary addresses in the park.

In terms of special features this speech makes use of humour, as seen above. There are not that many instances of cultural specific terminology, although the entire speech is about Danish political issues, which in that sense is culturally determined. There are only a few core cultural-specific terms as e.g. the party name “SF”, or the name of the Danish union

33 "Hope, change, results"
34 "International day!"
organisation “Arbejderbevægelsens Erhvervsråd” (Danish parallel text: segment 14). Furthermore, there is also some use of rhetorical figures, but as with Danish parallel text 1 it seems to be much less used than in the American STs. Here are some examples:

Antithesis: “[…] nej til pigeløn – og ja til ligeløn.” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 2).

Alliteration: “[…] konkret, kontant […]” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 4).

Alliteration: “[…] passe og pleje […]” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 5).

Rhetorical question: “Er det det, vi vil byde vores syge og ældre?” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 8).

Rhetorical question: “Men hvad gør SF ved det hele?” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 24).

Metaphor: “[…] færre stopure […]” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 13).

Metaphor: “Han sidder på sidste omgang.” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 34).

Climax/gradation: “[…] mindre bureaukrati, færre stopure og mere omsorg.” (Danish parallel text 2: segment 13).

4.2.1.7. Danish parallel text 3

This is a speech that was delivered by the Anders Fogh Rasmussen, Danish Prime Minister at the time, and it was delivered on June 5 2008 in connection with the celebration of the Danish constitution known as ‘Grundlovsdag’. The speech was delivered out-doors at two occasions that day and at two different natural locations that both have historic value in Danish culture, namely ‘Ejer Bavnehøj’ and ‘Skamlingsbanken’.

The overall communicative purpose is to ‘persuade’ the addressees to accept and share his perception on political ideology and on particular political subjects. As such the speech is overall conative, but contains other language functions as well. The speech is also emotive, as it is the subjective opinion if the Prime Minister. This text appears to have no opening and closing remarks, signalling the beginning and the end of the speech, and thus does not contain

35 “The Economic Council of the Labor Movement.”
36 “[…] no to girl pay – and yes to equal pay.”
37 “[…] specific, no-nonsense […]”
38 “[…] care for and nurture […]”
39 “Is this what we will offer our sick and elderly people”
40 “But what is SF doing to solve all this?”
41 “[…] fewer stopwatches […]”
42 “He is in his last round.”
43 “[…] less bureaucracy, fewer stopwatches and more nurturing.”
44 ‘Constitution Day’
any instances of the phatic language function as the other texts. The use of various rhetorical figures, which will be presented below, reflects the poetic language function. Lastly, the speech contains a few instances of the referential language function e.g.: “Danmark fik som bekendt sin frie forfatning den 5. juni 1849.” (Danish parallel text 3: segment 1). “Frederik Bajer blev valgt til Folketinget I 1872 [...].” (Danish parallel text 3: segment 7).

In the two communicative situations mentioned above, the Danish Prime Minister is the addressee and the participants of the events constitute the addressees. Thus, I would characterize the tenor as communication between the political leader of a nation and the wider public of this nation, as anyone could be there as addressee. In terms of formality I would argue that this speech is consultative, as it does not contain many formal or informal style markers in general. It does contain personal pronouns as for example “vi” (Danish parallel text 3: segment 13, 48, 60), but they are not frequent enough to give the speech a personal style. Thus, this lack of personal pronouns seems to pull the level of formality towards the formal end of the spectrum. On the other hand, the predominant use of active voice and the predominant simple sentence structure, seem to pull the level of formality in the other direction.

The field is ‘political ideology’ as the speech is about specific political problems and ideological values or concepts. As with the other texts this is reflected through the schematic structure:

‘Historical introduction’ (Danish parallel text 3: segment 1-2): Fogh introduces the speech by explaining when Denmark got it’s constitution and that it happened in relation to many liberal revolutions across Europe at the time.

‘Elaboration on liberal values and women’s voting rights’ (Danish parallel text 3: segment 3-14): Fogh elaborates on liberal values and the historical development leading to women’s right to vote.

‘Explaining how Denmark is world champion in democracy’ (Danish parallel text 3: segment 15-17): Fogh explains that the Danish democracy has evolved even further so that Denmark is now the world champion of democracy, according to the World Bank.

45 ”As known, Denmark got it’s free constitution on June 5 1849.”
46 ”Frederik Bajer was elected for Parliament in 1872 [...].”
47 ”we”
‘Elaborating on the historical foundation for democracy’ (Danish parallel text 3: segment 18-23): Fogh explains how the European era of enlightenment gave way for liberty and democracy and the separation of religion and politics.

‘Presenting the first problem’ (Danish parallel text 3: segment 24-28): Fogh explains how the attacks on America on September 11 2001 and the fear of terrorism that followed, has put democratic rights under pressure.

‘Presenting the solution to the first problem’ (Danish parallel text 3: segment 29-38): Fogh explains how EU cooperation can work to solve this problem.

‘Presenting the second problem’ (Danish parallel text 3: segment 39-53): Fogh discusses the problems connected with Denmark not participating fully in EU cooperation due to the Danish political reservations.

‘Presenting the solution to the second problem’ (Danish parallel text 3: segment 54-65): Fogh explains why Denmark should cooperate fully with the EU without these political reservations in order to meet the terrorist threat.

‘Elaborating on how Denmark is and how Denmark should be’ (Danish parallel text 3: segment 66-98): Fogh explains how Denmark is a free and safe society due to core cultural values and a sense of ‘togetherness’. He then explains how Denmark should also be so in the future while still having many different cultures inside Danish society.

‘Elaborating on how Denmark should relate to the world’ (Danish parallel text 3: segment 99): Fogh explains how Denmark, based on Danish cultural values, will face the challenges of globalization and terrorism in cooperation with EU and the rest of the world.

The mode of this speech, in the situation it was delivered, is face-to-face spoken monologue. Furthermore, the speech was prepared, i.e. it is not spontaneous as a casual conversation. The fact that it was prepared is evident in the use of rhetorical figures, although these are not as frequently used as in the American STs.

Regarding other special characteristics, there are some cultural determined references like the two historical references mentioned above in relation to language functions. As with the other texts, this speech also contain several rhetorical figures, although not as frequently as the American STs. Here are some examples:
Rhetorical question: “Hvordan kan det så lade sig gøre, at Danmark bade er et af verdens frieste og fredeligste lande?” (Danish parallel text 3: segment 68).

Climax/gradation: “[…] at religion er en privat sag. At religion er underordnet samfundets love og regler. Og at religion kan og skal tåle kritisk debat […]” (Danish parallel text 3: segment 82).

Metaphor + antithesis: “De store liberale revolutioner vendte op og ned på datidens Europa.” (Danish parallel text 3: segment 1).

Parallelism: “[…] evner og talent er vigtigere end stand og position.” (Danish parallel text 3: segment 5).

Parallelism: “[…] fredsbevarende operationer, som EU står for, og som FN har bedt om.” (Danish parallel text 3: segment 51).

Alliteration: “[…] sag til sag […] mandskab og materiel [...]” (Danish parallel text 3: segment 54).

Alliteration: “[…] fredeligt eller frit [...]” (Danish parallel text 3: segment 67).


4.2.2. Genre analysis results

Based on the above analysis, this section will now seek to define the genre conventions in the SC and then compare them with the TC texts. This should be helpful to the skopos analysis, when determining if the translations are adapted to TC norms or if the SC norms have just been transferred directly. In turn, this will be one of the indications as to which macrostrategy has been applied for the translated texts.

48 "Then how is it possible that Denmark is one of the world’s most free and peaceful countries?"
49 “[…] that religion is a private matter. That religion is subordinate to society’s laws and rules. And that religion can and should be able to bear critical debate.”
50 “The major liberal revolutions turned the Europe of that time upside down.”
51 “[…] ability and talent is more important than social status and position.”
52 “[…] peacekeeping operations that are lead by the EU, and asked for by the UN.”
53 “[…] from case to case […] personnel and equipment […]”
54 “[…] peaceful or free […]”
55 “In other words we have been given an elective arrangement. A very favorable elective arrangement. We can introduce this elective arrangement if the population says yes in a referendum.”
ST 2 and 3 are parallel when regarding communicative situations. Furthermore ST 1, 2 and 3 all take place within the SC community, where ST 4 takes place in an international setting. Although they are different in terms of situation and context, when examining the STs in terms of overall communicative purpose they all seem to serve the conative language function, i.e. the primary aim of the STs is to persuade the addressees to rally behind the addressee and support his ideas, plan or ideology and so on. At the micro-level all STs also make use of the poetic and the phatic language functions. Furthermore, ST 2 and 4 contain some instances of the referential language function. Lastly, all STs can be seen as emotive speeches, as they are basically the subjective opinions of the respective addressers.

All STs are very similar in terms of tenor. In all texts the addresser is a political leader and the addressee is the wider public, but in ST 4 the wider public constitute the secondary addressee and not the primary addressee. In terms of formality the STs may be characterized as consultative, although with some formal features, particular in ST 3.

When it comes to field, all STs may be said to belong to the category of ‘political ideology’. All the STs tend to both focus on various ideological aspects as well as discuss specific pragmatic problems, although in various degrees of detail. Furthermore, all texts contain proposed solutions to presented problems, although equally in various degrees of detail. How much emphasis is given to pragmatic problems or ideological concepts seem to vary a lot. Thus ST 3 seem to be mostly concerned with the ideology of ‘freedom’ and ‘liberty’, where ST 4 is focused on one key pragmatic problem, ‘climate change’. This indicates that the field is very much addresser determined as long as it fits under the broad label of ‘politics’ or ‘political ideology’.

In terms of mode all STs were originally spoken monologues delivered at a particular situation where the addresser was face-to-face, some via TV, with the addressees. All STs were prepared before being delivered, which is primarily evident through the high frequency of rhetorical figures, which would not be expected had the speeches been spontaneous.

The high frequency of rhetorical figures tends to be characteristic for the STs, but the specific stylistic features of the individual ST seem to be defined by the addresser’s specific linguistic choices rather than the genre. Thus what is characteristic is the emphasis on style but not on a particular type of style. Another feature that is characteristic for the STs is the occurrence of religious and cultural bound references, although there were no cultural (except
for ‘secretary Clinton’: segment 30) and religious references in ST 4, which is probably due to the international communicative situation of that particular text.

In terms of schematic structure, all STs had an opening stage, and 3 out of 4 had a closing stage. This suggests that these opening and closing remarks are to be expected, if not considered mandatory to realize the genre. ST 2 does not contain a closing stage, which maybe is due to that text being prepared remarks, in which the speaker did not want one particular way of closing the speech, but wanted a spontaneous solution instead. It could also be an indication that the closing remarks are not always required to realize this genre. With regards to the other stages, it is difficult to define a pattern. All texts contain stages of presenting problems or solutions and paying tribute/expressing gratitude. However there does not seem to be a specific rigid pattern in which these stages should follow one another, although it appears that the paying tribute/expressing gratitude stage comes very closely after the speech initiation, if it occurs. Furthermore, there appears to be a tendency to put special stages right at the end of the speech, e.g. the allegory in ST 1 and the comparison with the American War of Independence in ST 2. Besides these apparent tendencies, the realization of this genre in the SC appears to be based more on the particular register variables and communicative purpose rather than a strict structure.

When examining the Danish parallel texts, these seem very similar to the STs in all aspects. However, there are discrepancies. Obviously the communicative situations differ, as all parallel texts occur in various situations within the Danish TC. One other place where the Danish speeches differ from the STs is in relation to the level of formality. The Danish texts are also overall consultative but they may be slightly more colloquial than the ST’s, in that the addressee of parallel text 2 uses humour to get his message across, and this makes that speech almost casual at times. At least this indicates the possibility of using humour in the SC.

Furthermore, all Danish texts tend not to be as ritualistic and religiously founded as the STs in their closing stages. In fact, the Danish parallel texts do not contain any religious references as the first three STs did.

Both SC and TC texts contain culturally determined references and logically these are bound to their respective cultures, but the genre characteristic is the same in both cultures.

Another difference between SC and TC conventions appear to be in relation to rhetorical figures. These are also a characteristic feature in the Danish texts, but they appear to be much
less frequent. Thus there seem to be less focus on style in the genre-conventions of the TC as compared to the SC.

In terms of field, the Danish texts tend to focus more on specific pragmatic problems and less on ideological ‘celebration’, although parallel text 3 is rather ideological in nature. Also, the Danish texts do not contain the stages that focus on praising other people, be it voters or political opponents. These differences in field are also evident in the schematic structure, as seen above. Only two of the three Danish speeches contain opening and closing stages, indicating that these stages are not mandatory in order for the genre to be realized, although they are often used and therefore to be expected.

Based on the above, the most characteristic differences in genre convention appear to be related to religious references, culture specific references, certain optional aspects of formality (humour and casual style), and the frequency of rhetorical figures, i.e. the focus on stylistic elements. Thus, when examining the translation it will be relevant to see if there are made alterations in relation to these particular features. For example, if a target text bears signs of deliberately leaving out religious references and a lowering of the formality level, this could indicate an attempt to adapt the text to the TC conventions and thus indicate a TT-oriented macrostrategy.

4.2.3. Skopos analysis of STs and TTs
As mentioned above, when presenting the model of analysis used for this skopos analysis, there are several aspects that occur in both the skopos model of analysis and the model of genre analysis. These aspects are field, tenor, mode, communicative purpose and the communicative situation. Logically, as these aspects are already analyzed above, we shall not present them again here unless further elaboration proves necessary. Furthermore, as discussed in relation to data selection, the STs that I use to compare against the translations may not in fact be the ‘real’ ST of these translations. Instead I am considering the speeches as they were delivered orally to be the real STs of the translation.
4.2.3.1.  ST 1 – TT 1

ST 1 is Barrack Obama’s victory speech, which was delivered in Grant Park in the American City of Chicago, in the state of Illinois. The speech was delivered in the evening (local time) on the day of the American presidential Election, November 4 2008. The speech was televised live on American TV, and subsequently aired on news channels across the world. Today the speech is easily accessible as video through the homepages of various news networks from the Danish TV2 to the American CNN (CNN 2008: Transcript: ‘This is your victory,’ says Obama; TV2 2008: Video: Historisk sejrstale af Obama). The speech was also subsequently published in writing on many of these news networks’ websites e.g. CNN and BBC (CNN 2008: Transcript: ‘This is your victory,’ says Obama; BBC 2008: Full text: Obama's victory speech.). The speech probably did not receive a presentation as such in the original communicative situation, but it is possible that another person introduced or announced the entry of the speaker, Barrack Obama, before he went onstage to deliver his speech. The fact that a speech is delivered orally, i.e. that it is in fact spoken to the addresses, is probably closely connected to the nature of political activity in general, and to political elections in general. In theory, Obama could just have made a short victory announcement in writing in the paper the day after. However, it is probable that the activity of political election is closely linked with the expectation that the involved parties, especially the winner of the election, should perform a speech once the election is determined. This is also implied by Chilton and Schäffner as discussed above (chapter 2), namely because that political activities are closely linked to language use, and has been since antiquity, where classical rhetoric was developed for the purpose of conducting speeches. In turn, this implies that modern political culture is also closely connected to the act of conducting speeches.

When considering this speech for the purpose of translating it, there appears to be three aspects that are interesting. First, the speech was delivered face-to-face to the addresses and it was spoken. In such a situation the speaker has the possibility of communicating with both verbal and non-verbal means, but only the words may be translated. This indicates a possibility of information loss in the translation process. Second, the use of culture specific references could cause translation problems, should the translator fail to understand such references. Third, the frequent use of rhetorical figures, which tend to create a certain stylistic effect, could pose translation problems as well. In relation to these rhetorical figures the translator should consider whether to reproduce their stylistic effect or whether to emphasize
the semantic meaning that is expressed. But of course this will also depend on the purpose of the translation.

TT 1 is a written translation of Obama’s Victory speech. I would consider it to be a general-language translation, as the language is not technically complex, as e.g. a legal text would be. It was made public by the Danish newspaper ‘Jyllands Posten’, also known as ‘JP’, at their home page at 8:44 AM Danish time on September 5. Obama’s speech was delivered in the evening (Chicago time) on the September 4. If we assume that his speech was delivered after 9 PM local time, this implies that the translation was made public within 12 hours after the ST had been delivered.

It appears from the text that the translation was carried out by, or at least on behalf of three different news organizations, namely ‘Ritzau’, ‘AFP’ and ‘JP’ as indicated here: “Oversættelse: ritzau/AFP/JP” (TT 1). But who actually performed the translation is unknown. It may have been done by an in-house translator of one of the three organizations, or it could have been outsourced for translation in a translation agency. However, it was most likely carried out by someone within one of these organisations, considering that the translation would have been done in the middle of the night. Also it may not even be the work of a trained translator, but could in fact be the work of a journalist. Likewise, it is difficult to determine who initiated or commissioned the translation. As three organizations claim responsibility for the translation, any of these could also have commissioned and/or initiated the translation. It is possible to conceive the scenario that these three news networks had made a deal beforehand; that they would arrange for the victory speech of whoever won the American election to be translated. In any case we must assume that the translation is professional, i.e. done for money.

The translation is presented with a small introductory text explaining the circumstances and the situation of the ST. This, combined with the headline makes it very obvious that it is an overt translation: “Dokumentation – Her er Obama’s tale på dansk." (TT 1). The speech was probably commissioned and published to give the Danish public an opportunity to see for themselves what Obama said to the American people at this particular event. The intended addressees of the TT would then be the wider Danish public. The addressee in this situation would be ‘JP’. As indicated above, the skopos, or function of the translation would be to serve

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56 "Translation: ritzau/AFP/JP"
57 "Documentation: Here is Obama’s speech in Danish"
as documentation of what Obama said to whom, when and where. In other words the TT will have a referential communicative purpose, where the ST was conative. For this purpose, I would expect that the translator would have adopted a ST-oriented macrostrategy.

When examining the TT as compared to the ST through the 89 segments of text, as presented in the appendices (ST/TT 1: segment 1-89), I found 62 instances of what I would characterize as instances of the microstrategy called direct translation. Furthermore I found 18 instances of oblique translation, 9 instances of deletion, 9 instances of calque, 3 instances of explicitation, 2 instances of addition and 2 instance of condensation (TT 1: segment 1-89). Of course these microstrategies are seldom black and white cases, and thus may often be discussed. Nevertheless, this does in fact suggest that the translator has been very close to the word level of the ST, as direct translation seems very predominant. This suggests that the translator had been working in line with an overall ST-oriented macrostrategy. The 3 explicitations occur in relation to the translation of cultural references as for example the term “Native American” which is translated into “USA’s oprindelige folk (indianere)” (ST/TT 1: segment 4). When it comes to deletions, these often appear to be unintentional and random, as if the translator was in a hurry, which might be the case considering the time span between the publication of the ST and the TT. As an example we have: “[…] who built the best political campaign, I think, in the history of the United States of America.” In the translation, “I think” was left out (ST/TT 1: segment 19). But when reading the ST quickly it is also quite easy to miss. Another explanation could be that the translator simply saw the information in “I think” to be implicitly included in the text as it was, as the speech in general expresses the speaker’s subjective opinion. In that case, this would simply be an instance of condensation. It does seem that the deletion of the opening remarks, “Hello Chicago” (ST/TT 1: segment 1), are intentional, as the readers would not be needing this direct approach from Obama in the TT situation. There is one quite odd deletion though, namely in segment 79, where the entire text segment is missing except for the translation of the last sentence: “[…] America can change.” – “Amerika kan forandre sig.” (ST/TT 1: segment 79). This sentence is an instance of direct translation, but all the rest of this segment has been deleted in the TT. This is quite an intrusive move to do make in a translation, and normally, I would assume that large text segments would only be removed when opting for a very TT-oriented macrostrategy. However, as with the other cases of deletion this somehow appear accidental although it

58 ”USA’s original people (Indians)”
might have been a deliberate attempt to make the Obama’s allegory on the 106 year old Ann Nixon Cooper, a little bit shorter. But if this is the case, then why is this the only major segment of text to be removed? Then why not make the entire speech as short as possible? Also this does not seem to fit well with the headline of the TT claiming to document the words of Obama.

When examining the TT structure, this too appears very close to that of the ST. It appears as if the translator has been operating very strictly down through the text sentence-by-sentence and word-by-word, which is easy to see when comparing the ST and the TT in the appendices. When considering the many rhetorical figures of the ST, there are no indications that there have been any deliberate attempts to re-create the stylistic effects of these. As in this use of alliteration: “[...] cynical and fearful and doubtful [...]” – “[...] kyniske, ængstelige og tvivlende [...]” (ST/TT 1: segment 6). This example clearly demonstrates that the translator has prioritised the semantic meaning of words over the effect of rhetorical figures. Only rhetorical figures like anaphors, which get their effect through the position of the words in the sentence, seems to get their effect transferred to the TT. Thus the anaphor of “Yes we can” also becomes an anaphor in the Danish TT, “Ja vi kan.” (ST/TT 1: segment 69, 71, 73, 75, 77, 88). But again this seems to be coincidental rather than intentional, and based on the translator stringent following the ST structure. When considering the genre conventions that was examined above, there are no signs of adapting the text for the Danish conventions. For example, it would have been quite easy to use deletion in the last segment to remove the religious references here, but these have been translated directly as seen here: “Thank you. God Bless you. And May God bless the United States of America.” – “Tak, Gud velsigne jer, og må gud velsigne Amerikas Forenede Stater.” (ST/TT 1: segment 89).

Based on the above, it seems most likely that the translator did indeed make his translation based on a ST-oriented macrostrategy. The pattern in microstrategies, as well as all other aspects discussed, suggest this. This also makes sense when considering the communicative situation of the TT, as it would be clear to any Danish reader of such a text that it would be a translation of a previously delivered speech in an entirely different context.

4.2.3.2. ST 2 – TT 2

ST 2 is Barack Obama’s inauguration speech, which was delivered on January 20 2009. According to the Danish newspaper ‘Politiken’ it was delivered around 12 noon EST,
corresponding to around 6 PM in Denmark. The speech was aired live on American TV and in Denmark (Politiken 2009: *Program for Obamas indsettelse*), and subsequently published in various other media around the world; both as text (ST 2) and as film clip (CNN 2009: *Obama's inaugural speech*). The speech was delivered at a huge ceremony at Capitol Hill in the American Capital, Washington DC. According to the Danish news network TV2, there were thousands of Americans, which is also evident when examining film clips from the event (TV2 2009: *VIDEO: Højdepunkter fra Obamas indsettelse*). As with ST 1, this speech was probably spoken in this situation because of the political tradition of performing speeches, and because of the ritual traditions connected with the inauguration of a new president in America. The speech was spoken face-to-face with the addressees; it contained cultural references and made frequent use of rhetorical figures. This is what makes such a text interesting for translation, and especially the rhetorical features and cultural references could be problematic for the translator.

TT 2 is a Danish written translation of Obama’s inauguration speech. It was published on the website of the Danish news network called ‘Danmarks Radio’, or just DR. It was made public on January 20 2009 at 10:27 PM Danish time, just four and a half hours after the original speech was delivered. There is no information in the TT indicating who did the translation or who was specifically responsible for the text. As such we must assume that DR, or the editor of DR, is responsible for the translation. As to who actually translated the text, one can only speculate. For example, it might have been a DR journalist or a free-lance translator, but in any case seems fair to assume that it was a professional translation.

Regarding the roles of commissioner and initiator, there are no indications of who fulfilled these roles for this translation assignment.

The translation may be categorised as general language and overt. The speech is presented with a small introductory text giving the reader a short introduction to the speech, and this introductory text ends with the sentence: “*Læs talen oversat til dansk her:*” (TT 2). Consequently, the reader is never in doubt that he/she is reading a translation. As with ST/TT 1, the skopos of this text seems to be to document what Obama said to his people. The intended addressees would be the wider Danish public, but in particular anyone interested in learning about what Obama said when he took over the job of leading the USA. Then, the

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59 'Denmarks Radio’
60 Read the speech translated into Danish here:
overall communicative purpose of the TT is referential rather than conative as in the ST. Given these circumstances, I would expect that the translator would have opted for a ST-oriented macrostrategy, with an emphasis on copying the semantic content of words to Danish, rather than e.g. reproducing the effect of rhetorical figures.

From analysing this translation I identified the following (ST/TT 2: segment 1-107): 5 instances of the microstrategy calque, 60 instances of direct translation, 33 instances of oblique translation, 10 instances of deletion, 3 instances of paraphrase, 3 instances of substitution, 2 instances of condensation and 2 instances of explicitation. The predominant use of direct translation, in combination with the calque, suggest that the translator has followed the structure of the ST very closely, and that he/she primarily has been translating on a word-by-word and a sentence-by-sentence basis. The frequent use of oblique translation suggests that it has been necessary to make slight alterations, probably for idiomatic reasons. This is for example the case here: “Yet, every so often the oath is taken amidst gathering clouds and raging storms.” – “Men fra tid til anden bliver eden aflagt i tider med dunkle skyer og rasende storme.” 61 (ST/TT 2: segment 6). Here the translator probably did not want to translate “gathering clouds” directly as it would yield something like, “samlende skyer”, a rather un-idiomatic phrase in Danish. By choosing the solution above, the translator also succeeded in creating a metaphor in Danish, although the image, i.e. the effect of the metaphor is not entirely the same, as “gathering clouds” is not the same as “dark clouds”. Then, in a way this is an attempt to reproduce a rhetorical effect.

Similarly, this use of paraphrase also seems to be for idiomatic reasons: ”Homes have been lost; jobs shed; businesses shuttered.” – “Nogle har mistet deres hjem, job er forsvundet og forretninger har matte smække døren i.” 62 (ST/TT 2: segment 12). The image of shuttering businesses is transferred by introducing a longer Danish metaphor in the TT. This might make the TT more idiomatic, but the rhetorical figure of asyndeton in the ST is lost in the process. This indicates that the translator is more concerned with creating an idiomatic Danish version, than reproducing the rhetorical effect of the ST. In turn, this emphasis on idiomatic Danish language indicates a more TT-oriented approach. However, there are only 3 instances of paraphrasing in the translation, meaning that such rather free translated segments in no way dominate the overall perception of the translation.

61 “But from time to time the oath is taken in times with dark clouds and raging storms.”
62 “Some have lost their homes, jobs have vanished, and businesses have been forced to slam their doors”
There are also 10 instances of deletion, which normally also can be seen as a way of making significant changes in the ST, and this points to a TT-oriented macrostrategy. However, as with ST/TT 1, these deletions seem rather unintentional as they mostly involves deletion of individual words as for example the adjective “grandest” (ST/TT 2: segment 63), or the phrase “[…] whispering through the ages.” (ST/TT 2: segment 82). This last example could have been an attempt to make the text shorter, but if this was the general approach, then there should be many more instances of deletion and condensation than the 10 and 2 instances I found, relatively.

There appears to be no deliberate attempt to accommodate the text to Danish cultural conventions. For example, the religious references are translated directly (ST/TT 2: segment 23, 96). Also, when there are historic/cultural references, like “[…] they fought and died, in places like Concord and Gettysburg; Normady and Khe Sahn.”, these are not explicitated in the Danish translation. Perhaps the translator deemed that the average Danish reader of the translation, would also posses a basic knowledge of American culture and history, and as such would understand these references.

The overall impression of this translation is that it followed the structure of the ST very closely, and that there was an emphasis on the semantic content of the ST words, but with the purpose of making an idiomatically correct Danish text, as seen in the paraphrase example above. Furthermore, it is quite clear that the Danish text functions as a communication of someone else’s communication, i.e. it is quite clear in the TT situation that this speech was not delivered by Obama to the Danish population. Therefore it seems most likely that the translator had opted for a predominantly ST-oriented macrostrategy for this translation.

4.2.3.3. ST 3 – TT 3

ST 3 is George W. Bush’s inauguration speech, from when he was inaugurated for his second term as American president. As ST 2, this was delivered at Capitol Hill in Washington DC. It was aired live on American TV and subsequently published in writing through the websites of various news networks, e.g. CNN (2005: Bush: ’No justice without freedom’) or MSNBC (ST 3). The speech was similarly made public through video clips on web pages as for example the website of news network CBS (2009:Full Bush Inaugural Speech). The speech was delivered on January 20 2005, probably around 12 noon, i.e. 6 PM in Denmark. The translator
should pay attention to the special characteristics identified in the genre analysis, as these characteristics might cause difficulties, depending on the macrostrategy.

TT 3 is the Danish written, general-language translation of Bush’s inauguration speech, which was published on January 21 2005 on the web page of the Danish news network ‘Berlingske’. It was published at 3:30 AM Danish time, around nine and a half hours after the original speech was delivered. The translation was presented with a small introductory text and this headline: “Dokumentation: Præsident George W. Bushs indsættelsestale torsdag 20. januar” (TT 3). After the translation itself there is this piece of text: “Oversættelse: Pernille Holm.” (TT 3). This makes it clear to anyone reading the text, that this is a translation, i.e. it is an overt translation. We have then identified the translator, although it is unclear if this Pernille Holm is an employee of ‘Berlingske’, if she is a freelance translator, if she is a translator at a translation agency or if she is a translator at all. In any case it is fair to assume that the translation was professional. ‘Berlingske’, or someone from the organisation, would be the commissioner, and maybe also the initiator if the translation was done in-house. ‘Berlingske’ also constitute the addresser and Danish readers of the website, and of this text in particular, would be the addresses. In theory, the addresses could be anyone who reads Danish, and as such the addressees can be perceived to be the wider Danish public.

The above clearly indicates that the skopos is to document what George W. Bush said in his second inauguration speech. This is explicitly said by the word “dokumentation” in the title, as presented above. The addresses, Danish readers of the translation, would probably be more interested in what the president said than precisely how he said it. For example, readers of this text might be interested in finding out about Bush’s plan of action on a particular subject of interest. This means that I would expect the translator to be very close to the ST when translating.

Upon examining the microstrategies used for this translation, I found the following (ST/TT 3: segment 1-97): 55 instances of direct translation, 30 instances of oblique translation, 10 instances of deletion, 7 instances of paraphrase, 5 instances of explicitation, 4 instances of substitution and 1 instance of direct transfer. This pattern clearly indicates that the translator has been very close to the ST when translating, but the many uses of oblique

63 ”Documentation: President George W. Bush’s inauguration speech Thursday January 20”
64 ”Translation: Pernille Holm.”
65 ”documentation”
and the few paraphrases, also suggests that the translator has paid attention to creating an idiomatically correct text.

The direct transfer occurs in connection with the ST term “Liberty Bell” (ST/TT 3: segment 94). The fact that a cultural bound reference such as this one is transferred directly without any explicitation, also suggests that the translator was very close to his ST. On the other hand, there are several whole text segments that have been deleted, which could indicate a more TT-oriented approach (ST/TT segment: 68, 79, 80, 81, 82). Such deletions could indicate that the translator deemed the information in these segments to be irrelevant to the TT addressees and then decide to leave it out. Segments 81 and 82 are rhetorical questions, and in the communicative situation of the ST, the ST addressees would intuitively recognize them as rhetorical questions, but still they would reflect over these questions in a way that the TT reader probably will not, when reading them in the communicative situation of the TT. So, in this sense, these rhetorical questions could be deemed irrelevant to the TT reader. But then why was the opening and closing remarks (ST/TT 3: segment 1, 97) not deleted also, as this would serve that line of thinking? Furthermore, the information contained in segments 69, 79 and 80 is not particularly special in relation to the information contained in any other segment, so why would these segments be selected for deletion and not others? This suggests that these deletions were not part of any deliberate strategy of deleting segments.

There appears to be a tendency to recreate the effect of rhetorical features, when such effects are connected to the word meanings, as metaphors, rather than sentence structure, as the parallelism and anaphor do. For example we have the metaphor: “[…] and then there came a day of fire.” – “[…] og så kom ildens dag.” (ST/TT 3: segment 6). We can see here that the image of the metaphor is recreated, indicating that the effect of the rhetorical figure is transferred to the TT even while staying close to the ST in terms of the semantic meaning of the words. But in that same segment, there is also used a parallelism and an anaphor: “[…] years of relative quite, years of repose, years of sabbatical […]” – “[…] en række relativt stille år, år præget af fred, år hvor vi kunne holde fri […]” (ST/TT 3: segment 6). In this example the parallelism is not transferred and the anaphor is limited to only cover the two last instances of the word “år”, as opposed to all three instances in the ST with the phrase “years of”. The semantic meaning is translated but the effect of the rhetorical figures is diminished.

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66 “[…] and then came the day of fire.”
67 “[…] a number of relatively quite years, years marked by peace, years where we could take some time off […]”
This indicates that semantic content is valued above rhetorical effect, which makes sense given the skopos and the situation of the TT.

In terms of cultural conventions for political speeches, there are no indications that the translators have made any adaptation. One example could be instance of direct transfer in relation to the cultural term, already discussed above. Another example would be the religious references in segments 13, 72, 90 and 97, which are all translated directly. The overall impression is that the translator followed a predominantly ST-oriented macrostrategy, but with the aim of making an idiomatic translation. The translation does not appear to seek to recreate the overall rhetorical effect of the ST, instead it is merely documentation of the semantic content in the ST.

4.2.3.4. ST 4 – TT 4

ST 4 is Barrack Obama’s speech at the international climate summit in 2009 held in Copenhagen, which was called ‘COP 15’. As it is an international setting, this speech is also the only ST that does not take place within the SC as such. The speech was delivered on December 18 2009, to the delegates of the participating nations and the world press. It was probably aired live on TV in many countries, although I am not certain of this. It is a fact, however, that the speech can be found as a full-length video clip on the website ‘Youtube’ (2009: Obama Calls For Action, Time For Climate Change Talk Over (full speech)). Also, the British news network BBC as well as the Danish news network ‘Politiken’ both have a video clip of the speech, at their respective web sites, although not in full-length (BBC 2009: President Obama warns leaders over climate summit deal; Politiken 2009: Se Obamas tale ved COP15-mødet). This suggests that the speech was at lest recorded for subsequent publishing. It was also subsequently published in writing as seen in my ST from the Danish news network ‘Berlingske’. As seen in the genre analysis this speech has no religious references or references bound to the SC, probably due to the international setting of the speech. It does contain rhetorical figures, although these seem less frequent as compared to the other STs. So these rhetorical figures would probably constitute the only special feature of interest for the translator of this ST.

The TT is a written, general-language translation of Obama’s speech, which was published by the Danish paper, or news network, called ‘Information’ at their website on December 18
2009 at 2:36 PM, Danish time (TT 4). The TT is presented with a headline and a small text that introduces the speech and presents some of the speech’s main points. The headline says: “Obamas tale til COP15.68” (ST 4). Just before the speech itself there is this piece of text: “Dokumentation: Obamas tale.69” (ST 4). At the end of the text, after the speech text has ended there is this piece of text: ”Oversat af Mads Frese.70” (ST 4). This presentation of the speech clearly makes it an overt translation. A quick search on Information’s website, reveals that Mads Frese, the translator is employed as a journalist at Information, that he has a masters degree in Modern Culture and Culture Mediation and that he has translated several books into Danish (Information: ). This proves that the translation is a professional translation. The initiator and commissioner is most likely the editor at Information or someone else in charge. In the communicative situation of the TT, Information is the addressee and any potential reader of the text would then be the addresses, i.e. the wider Danish public is the intended addressees of the TT. In this situation the TT’s skopos must be to document what Obama said to the delegates and the world press at COP15. This means that a conative ST is translated into a referential TT. Again, I would expect the translator to emphasize semantic content and disregard rhetorical effect.

When examining the microstrategies used for this translation, I found the following (ST/TT 4: segment 1-48): 25 instances of direct translation, 11 instances of oblique translation, 6 instances of deletion, 4 instances of paraphrase and 1 instance of explicitation. The predominantly used microstrategy is direct translation, which suggests an overall ST-oriented macrostrategy. But, when considering the rather short length of this speech, there seem to be a lot of microstrategies indicating the opposite, namely the instance of paraphrase, deletion and maybe oblique translation.

When considering the deletions, four of these are entire text segments that have been deleted (ST/TT 4: segment 28-30). The last two instances are deletion of single words, namely the words ‘economic’ (ST/TT 4: segment 16) and ‘again’ (ST/TT 4: segment 41). The deletion of the segments 28-30 is that part of the speech, in which Obama elaborates on the third part of his plan of action, the part that deals with financing. From segment 21 to segment 30 Obama lists his plan of action containing three key aspects. However, he never explicitly mentions beforehand that there are three steps, he simply says “First” (ST 4

68 “Obama’s speech at COP15.”
69 “Documentation: Obama’s speech.”
70 “Translated by Mads Frese.”
segment 22), “Second” (ST 4: segment 24) and “Third” (ST 4: segment 28) before elaborating on the particular step of the plan. Because Obama does not mention beforehand that he is going to mention three steps, it is possible to leave out the third step of this plan (ST 4: segment 28-30), in the translation, as the TT reader would not know that it was actually a three-step plan instead of just a two-step plan, as it appears in the TT. So this could actually be a deliberate attempt to make the TT shorter. However, in segment 31 Obama mentions the three steps as key words: “Mitigation. Transparency. And financing.” (ST 4: segment 31). This segment is translated in the TT, which could cause confusion for the TT reader as he/she begins to wonder why Obama mentions the word “financing” when this aspect is not touched upon in the plan, as it appears in the TT. If these deletions were intentional, they could cause confusion in the reader, which is probably not the addressers intention. Also, it seems rather strange that a translation that has been presented as ‘documentation’ of a speech, would leave out information like this. This suggests that these deletions were actually an unintended error of the translator.

Considering the genre characteristics identified above, there appear to be no attempts of making this speech appear as a Danish speech e.g. by adding casual expressions. The ST is has no of religious references or cultural references, except for: “Secretary Clinton” (ST 4: segment 30.) However, that reference occurs in one of the deleted segments.

Regarding rhetorical figures, there is no indications of a deliberate strategy to re-create such rhetorical effects as for example seen in this instance of alliteration: “[...] a grave and growing danger [...]” – “[...] en alvorlig og voksende trussel [...]” (ST/TT 4: segment 3). The focus is clearly the semantic meaning of ”growing” rather then the stylistic effect of two words starting with the same consonant. In the translation of this metaphor, we see that the semantic content and the stylistic effect are both transferred: “[...] empty words [...]” – “[...] ord uden indhold”\(^71\). (ST/TT 4: segment 27). As with ST/TT 3, this coincidence of both semantic content and effect seems to be possible due to the nature of the metaphor.

Finally, I would argue that the aspects discussed above, would indicate that a predominantly ST-oriented macrostrategy have been applied for this translation. However, in the next chapter I will be discussing these results, before concluding anything final.

\(^{71}\) ”[...] words without content.”
5. Results and discussion

This thesis set out with the basic question of how political speeches are translated. However, this question was to be seen from the perspective of skopos theory, and more accurately a particular approach to skopos theory, namely as it is presented by Anne Schjoldager. Her taxonomies of micro- and macrostrategies, as well as her model of analysis, which has been used in translator training courses, seemed to be valid for the purpose of this thesis. It seemed valid because the question was about how political speeches are translated in terms of a general strategic approach, i.e. if there were indications of a tendency to select either a predominantly ST-oriented macrostrategy or a predominantly TT-oriented macrostrategy.

To answer this question it was first necessary to examine what political discourse is, and what kind of text genre political speeches is, assuming that it is a genre. Furthermore, it was necessary to examine how to define and describe genres for the purpose of translation. This discussion lead to a model that could be used to analyse political speeches rooted in both the SC and the TC, and by comparative analysis the difference in genre conventions could be found.

It was also necessary to examine what translation basically means and what other approaches there is to this concept or field. By briefly examining the various theoretical approaches skopos theory could be categorized, and further examination of particularly skopos analysis as presented by Schjoldager, lead to the conclusion that this is a valid approach in relation the purpose of this thesis. This is because it encompasses both theoretical conceptualisation, despite criticism that it is not a ‘real’ theory, as well as a pragmatic approach to work with translation and analyse translations. Also, skopos theory considers cultural aspects.

The data was selected using criteria that ensured comparability both between SC texts and TC texts, but also between the translations and the selected STs. The selected STs are not necessarily the ‘real’ STs used for the translations, as the translators of the TTs could have been using any kind of transcript or prepared remarks as their ST. This leaves the possibility that my STs could have several discrepancies with the STs used by the translator, and this should be taken into account when considering the results.

Through the final analysis I found that in all translations the predominantly used microstrategy was the direct translation, with the oblique translation as the second most
frequent. There were instances of paraphrasing and deletion in all translations, but these were
not frequent enough to influence the overall impression of the translations. Furthermore, most
of the deletions, as well as the few instances of substitution and condensation, seemed to be
unintentional, or at least not part of a deliberate strategy.

Regarding cultural and religious references, these were all translated. In one instance,
such a cultural reference was transferred directly, while explicitation was used in other
instances. The effect of rhetorical figures was sometimes reproduced in the translation, and
this seemed to be the case when the semantic content and the rhetorical effect where
connected, as with some metaphors. When the rhetorical figures relied on grammatical
structure or rhyme to create their effect, such effects where mostly not reproduced. This
indicated that the translator had a preference for semantic content rather than rhetorical effect.
There were no indications of deliberate attempts to lower the formality of the translations.
This, combined with the translations of rhetorical features, as well as cultural and religious
references, indicated that there were no deliberate attempts to adapt to the conventions of the
TC.

TT 1, 3 and 4 were presented with the word ‘documentation’ in the title or in the
introductory text, and all TTs had small introductory texts for the speeches. This was a very
clear indication that the TT was intended to work as documentation of ‘who said what when’.
In the situation of the TTs there was then no doubt about the translations actually being
translations of someone else’s communication. In other words, these translations all had new
addressers and new addressees in a new communicative situation, in which the purpose was to
document what another addresser had said to another group of addressees. This made the
translations obviously overt. Furthermore, it indicated a change in the overall communicative
purpose, from being conative in STs to being referential in the TTs.

All of these findings suggested that the translators had been using an approach of being
very close to the STs at word- and sentence level. It indicated a word-for-word and sentence-
for-sentence approach, with a focus on the semantic meaning of the words rather than
rhetorical effect, but with a deliberate attempt to write idiomatically correct Danish.

Therefore I argue that, when using a skopos-theoretical approach to examine
translations of political speeches, as they are defined in this thesis, there is a an
indication of a general strategic approach to how these are translated, and this approach correspond to a predominantly ST-oriented macrostrategy.

This result does not guarantee that all political speeches are translated according to this approach as there are some limitations based on the approach of this thesis.

First, as my STs are not necessarily the same texts as the STs that the translators of the TTs used, some of the discrepancies between my STs and the TTs, as for example the deletions, could be due to the translator using another transcription of the ST than I did.

Second, all my translations are translations presented by various news networks, and this raises a possible point of critique. As news networks are journalistic organisations, and thus subjected the journalistic principles of objectivism and impartialness, does this not imply that all translations of such organisations per se would be documentary and ST oriented?

This raises another question, namely if it is possible to make a translation that is TT-oriented but still serves as documentation of a political speech? And how would this be done, without changing the genre? Theoretically one could make a kind of summary-translation that would render the core meaning of the speech, and would then technically still document the meaning of the speech. But such a translation would still be communication of someone else’s communication, instead of being communication between the ST addresser and the TT addressee. So would it effectively be considered a TT-oriented translation? Another question could be if there actually do exist very different translations than those examined here, and if such translations would be used in a non-experimental context?

It could be interesting to examine whether there exist translations that are also used professionally, but in much different contexts. Is it possible that government agencies or large multinational companies would have certain political speeches translated for a particular in-house, professional use? And how would one get access to such translations if they exist? Such questions could be the starting point for further studies into this subject.

Lastly, my results do suggest that there is a general approach to translating political speeches, but the results are effectively limited to translations used by mass media. Also, due to the limited number of texts used, the results only suggest a general approach. In order to determine whether or not this approach is in fact general, it would be necessary to analyse a much larger corpus of texts.
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7. Appendices