Professional Translators’ Establishment of Skopos

- A ‘Brief’ Study

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Foreword

I would like to thank the 10 translation companies who were so kind to participate in my study and help me with my thesis. I would especially like to thank the project managers and the translators for their time and effort. Also a special thanks to all 47 freelance translators who spend their valuable time on responding to my questionnaire.

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Last, but definitely not least, I would like to thank my supervisor Karen Korning Zethsen for all her great help and motivation.

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1. Introduction
Before the 1970s, translation scholars were primarily interested in researching translation products. Translation researchers compared source texts with one or more target texts and studied the differences between the source text and the target text or the different target texts. This approach later started to include an interest in the translation process and finally, in the translator himself. The above-mentioned approach with focus on comparison of source texts and target texts was much concerned with the concept of equivalence, and how it could be reached. However, in the 1970s and 1980s, the equivalence-based approach shifted and focus was instead placed on functionalism in the translation process, and on the receivers of the target text. The skopos theory emerged with an emphasis on the function of the target text and on its receiver.

With functionalism, numerous scholars (e.g. Christiane Nord, Justa Holz-Määttäri and Janet Fraser) started stressing the importance of having a translation brief, i.e. giving the translator instructions about the translation to be made, e.g. concerning function and receiver. Furthermore, this importance is now also being stressed by many translation teachers in the translation classroom when talking about translation theory. However, it is suspected that this part of the translation process is different in practice than it is in theory.

One of the main problems concerning briefs is that according to research and translation literature translators are often not provided with one. One problem in this area is that clients do not understand the complexity of the translation process especially today, because the Internet has made online translation tools possible, and many clients think that translation cannot be that difficult as you can just type your sentences into e.g. Google Translator and instantly your target text will appear. (Gouadec 2007: 3). This is one of the reasons why clients find translation expensive and time-consuming and they therefore do not understand why translators ask so many questions e.g. concerning briefs.

Also, the fact that translation has been used in foreign-language teaching has influenced people outside the translation world, such as potential initiators and laypeople’s view of what translation is and what it involves (Goussard-Kunz 2003: 17).
1.1. Previous research involving briefs

This section will briefly introduce and discuss relevant research which has been conducted on translation briefs. This is important to put this thesis into the relevant historical and empirical background in order to know the current status of this area of Translation Studies. Also, as some of my hypotheses and choices are based on these previous studies, a short introduction is needed.

There has not been conducted a lot of research which deals exclusively with the translation brief. Searching for research about translation briefs (search words: ‘brief’, ‘translation commission’, ‘übersetzungsauftrag’, ‘translation assignment’ and ‘translation instructions’) in Translation Studies Bibliography does not yield very many hits, and of these hits, only 5-6 actually deal with briefs whereas the rest just mentions the term. Also, most of this research does not focus exclusively on translation briefs; most of the articles have other elements as their main foci.

Several studies which partly included research on briefs were conducted by Fraser (Fraser 1993, 2000a). A total of 33 professional translators participated in her studies. Even though her studies had other foci than mine, they still showed the various problems concerning translation briefs in practice such as the fact that many translators do not receive one and also, that they do not ask for one. The studies were based on immediate retrospection and TAPs (think aloud protocols). Fraser discovered that translators expressed that they often experienced difficulties getting the information and resources they needed from their clients, i.e. getting briefs, which they thought was of great importance for the translation task (Fraser 2000: 54). Because of this, Fraser conducted a new study involving a survey through which 296 translators expressed their opinions about the importance of the translation brief among other things. The survey emphasised what was found in the protocol studies; only 12% said that they were given details about the target text receiver ‘as a matter of course’ and 21% were told the purpose of the target text as ‘as a matter of course’. The survey also showed that if given no brief, 8% of translators would ask who the receiver of the target text was and 3% would ask for the purpose.
Fraser’s studies show that professional translators think that having a translation brief is very important, however, often, they are not given one, and interestingly, many of them do not ask for one.

Another interesting outcome of one of Fraser’s studies involving community translators, who were not given a brief, was that because of the used methodology, it was possible to see that the translators had a perceived brief in mind, and it was possible to see what the translators thought the brief would have said if there was one. However, even though similar functions were given to the target text by the various translators, there was still disagreement about how much explicitness should be used in the target text (Fraser 1996: 88). This shows that at least some translators work with a brief in mind without being given one explicitly. Therefore, it is possible to establish some kind of skopos, it might, however, not be the same for different translators and it might not be the skopos intended by the client.

Another study dealing with briefs is Schjoldager and Zethsen’s (Schjoldager & Zethsen 2003) study about the establishment of skopos which involved a focus group of five professional translators. The focus group translators were to discuss the establishment of skopos with each other, and two months later, individual follow-up interviews were conducted. The results of this study were that according to the translators themselves, they established skopos based on text type, name of client, the headline of the translation, ongoing textual analysis of source text or if the client complained that a translation did not live up to their expectations. These translators seemed to be able to infer the skopos without an explicit brief, i.e. by analysing the source text, looking at text type etc.

Also Jääskeläinen (e.g. Jääskeläinen 1989, 1990) has conducted a study in which both professional translators (these were called professional translators, but were in fact 5th year university students who did not have any professional translation experience) and novices participated. The two groups were given a translation task and an assignment. From what Jääskeläinen says about her ‘assignment’, it seems to be equivalent to what is called brief in this thesis. Her brief gave the target text a slightly different function than the source text. One of the main aims was to see the translators’ reaction towards the translation brief and the hypothesis was that the professional
translators would take the brief into close consideration in their translation processes whereas the novices were expected to treat the brief less systematically or completely ignore it. The latter assumption was based on Krings’ TAP study in which eight novices in translation (German students learning French) did not take a potential brief into consideration, however, these were not given a specific translation brief with their instructions. Jääskeläinen’s hypothesis was somewhat confirmed, however, the novices did in some cases take the brief into consideration.

This seems like two diverging attitudes concerning the use of and the need for translation briefs. Some of the research on briefs shows that need and the importance of briefs. It shows that translators do in fact think that briefs are important, and it also shows that translators need it in order to make the proper choices for the target text, e.g. know how much they should use explanations and how much they should make explicit. On the other hand, some of the previous research shows that a brief is not always necessary because the translators are able to establish the purpose of the target text from the translation situation, e.g. from source text analysis and text type.

1.2. Why is it interesting to research the use of briefs?

As seen above, some research has been performed on briefs, however, most of these studies had other main foci than the brief. The problem with many of the functionalist approaches is that they are based on translation at academic institutions, and therefore, a lot of them have not been empirically tested (Nord 1997a: 116, Schjoldager 2008: 181). Therefore, some of the theoretical models which include briefs, and which emphasize the importance of briefs, have not been empirically tested to see how important this stage in the translation process actually is in practice. Furthermore, it has not been empirically tested whether practising translators think briefs are necessary and important, how translators use them, what translators actually do when receiving a translation task without a brief etc (Martín de León 2008: 1).

Another reason why research into briefs is interesting is that the problem receiving them has been voiced by some professional translators (cf. Zethsen’s & Schjoldager’s study and Fraser’s study).
Also, from my own experience, both as a translation student, and as a freelance translator, I have seen that translation tasks are given without any context or brief or the like.

Andrew Chesterman says about briefs that they presumably affect the way translators view a translation task, and the decisions s/he makes during the translation process. According to Chesterman, there is, however, a need for more research concerning the relationship between the brief, the features of the cognitive process of translating and the features of the resulting translation (Chesterman 2007: 78). Further research in this area will also help underline the scientific status of Translation Studies as an empirical science.

As seen below in the theory chapter, the translator is to use a brief, and if not given one, s/he is to ask for one. This attitude is shared by other translation scholars, e.g. Schjoldager, who says that if a translator does not think that a brief is sufficiently explicit, “s/he will probably get hold of the client and ask for additional information, or, perhaps, even renegotiate the contents of the brief” (2008: 157). It is, however, suspected that this is often not the case in practice, which leads to the next section; the main research questions.

1.3. Research questions

As it has been shown by the above-mentioned studies, and as will be shown in more detail later, there is a strong theoretical and prescriptive push concerning the importance of the use of briefs, however, more empirical research into the actual working habits of professional translators is needed to see how this actually happens in practice.

The main research question of this thesis is therefore:

- How do professional translators use translation briefs in practice?

To be able to answer this question, the following subquestions will be answered and the following hypotheses will be investigated:

- Do professional translators normally receive briefs from their clients?
• Do professional translators ask for a brief when they do not receive one from their client?

• How do professional translators translate when they do not have a brief?
  o The hypothesis is that the translators will translate very source text oriented by staying close to the source text terminology and elements

• How do professional translators translate when they have a brief? Do they translate according to the brief?

• Theory says that professional translators are sometimes able to elicit and establish skopos based on the translation situation and the source text without having received an explicit brief. Is this correct? Are they actually able to establish the intended skopos?

• Do practising translators think that briefs are important?

This thesis will research the translation process; however, emphasis will be on the preliminary phase of the translation process, i.e. the analysis and interpretation of the brief and on how this shows in the target texts. More specifically, the thesis will investigate whether Danish translators are normally provided with briefs, and what they do when faced with a translation task without a brief. Do translators actually follow the advice they have been given by theory and by their teachers and ask for a brief or at least negotiate the purpose of the target text with the client? Do they instead translate without a brief? How do they establish the function and who the receiver is, i.e. how do they establish skopos? The hypothesis is that a translator without a brief will stay close to the source text and translate very source text oriented as default, i.e. use a literal word-for-word translation. If given a brief, how does the translator use it? Does he follow it? Also, it will be researched whether translators feel that it is important to be given a brief. The research questions will be investigated by use of two empirical studies; a translation task and a questionnaire. The methodology will be further explained below.

The purpose of the study is not to come up with a certain normative or prescriptive way translators should proceed when they receive a task with a brief and a task without a brief, the study has a more exploratory nature, i.e. the purpose is to explore what actually happens in practice.
Therefore, the purpose of this thesis is to investigate both a prescriptive claim (thou shalt never translate without a brief and thou must translate according to it), i.e. test whether professional translators follow the advice of translation scholars and teachers, as well as to test a descriptive claim (translators tend to translate more literally when they do not have a brief).

1.4. Outline

The thesis is divided into three main chapters: a theory chapter, a methodology chapter and an analysis chapter. The thesis will end with a conclusion and presentation of ideas for further research.

The first chapter, the theory chapter, deals with the theoretical framework on which this thesis is based, the skopos theory. To understand the importance of briefs in the translation process, Nord’s translation process model will be presented as well as her and other scholars’ views concerning briefs. Also, theory about microstrategies and macrostrategies and source text orientation versus target text orientation is presented and discussed as this theoretical framework is needed for the analysis of the empirical data. This chapter also presents the field of medical translation and some of the problems often faced by translators when translating English Latin-based medical terms into Danish.

The second chapter deals with the methodology of the empirical studies which were conducted. The first part of this section contains the reasons for using the two chosen methods, and the methods themselves will be described in detail.

In the third chapter, the results from the two empirical studies will be presented and analysed, and they will be discussed with a view to answering the research questions.

In the conclusion, the overall results, i.e. the results from both empirical studies will be summed up and each research subquestion will be answered.
1.5. The receivers of the thesis

The potential target audience of this thesis is a somewhat heterogeneous group as it consist of translation researchers, translation teachers, translation students, i.e. different receivers from the academic sphere, and it also consists of professional translators and receivers in translation companies, i.e. project managers who are in contact with clients. Secondly, the thesis could also be used by frequent translation clients as this would give them a thorough understanding of the translation process, and it might give them an understanding of the importance of providing an explicit translation brief. This could be a way of educating clients, which it often encouraged by translation scholars (Chesterman & Wagner 2002: 40, Barbara Reeves-Ellington 1998: 106).

As the target audience is a heterogeneous group, and also because there is a tendency in Translation Studies to use different names for similar concepts (Chesterman et al 2003: 199), all key concepts have been explained and/or defined. In this way, terminology and concepts which might have been foreign to one part of the group prior to reading the thesis will be explained and all readers will have the same background in order to understand the thesis.

It should also be emphasised that the readers of the thesis must be familiar with both the English and the Danish languages, because an English-Danish translation is used, and the questionnaire was elaborated in Danish. However, potential English readers will be able to get a thorough understanding of the thesis as well as, in the analysis chapter, it has been endeavoured to translate the Danish terms or phrases where necessary and the same applies for quotations from the questionnaire. Also, a translation of the questionnaire can be made available by contacting me.

1.6. Delimitation

This thesis only researches written translation, i.e. interpreting theory and practice is not taken into account.
The main focus of this thesis is the translation process. Many scholars have researched the full translation process, however, this thesis will primarily cover the preliminary phase before the translator starts analysing the source text and starts translating, i.e. when analysing the brief or establishing the purpose and the function of the target text.

Many recent empirical studies in Translation Studies have been within protocol studies, which are focused on cognitive elements of the translation process; this thesis will not take cognitive aspects into consideration.

As will appear from the methodology chapter below, because of time and funding constraints, it was not possible to make a large-scale study involving a more representative segment of the Danish translation profession.

1.7. Explanation and definition of central concepts

1.7.1. Definition of translation

Even though translation is a concept known by most people, experts as well as laypeople, it is defined in many different ways by different scholars making it polysemous within the field of Translation Studies (Malmkjær 2000: 163). Defining ‘translation’ is, therefore, more easily said then done as the concept of translation always has been viewed as “notoriously slippery” (Munday 2009: 6) and extremely difficult to define. Kade for example uses ‘translation’ as a superordinate term for both translation and interpreting whereas other scholars only include written translation (Munday 2009: 9). Also, the definition of translation was formerly centred around the product of the translation process, but today there is agreement that translation is a lot more than that.

For the purpose of this thesis, when referring to ‘translation’, it means the entire translation process and situation, but refers only to written translation; ‘translation’ as product will instead be referred to as target text (or TT, please see section 1.7.6. Abbreviations used, page 12).
1.7.2. Definition of Translation Studies

The problem concerning the definition of Translation Studies has been, and is, that different translators and scholars disagree on its scope, i.e. whether it should be purely descriptive or prescriptive etc. It is not within the scope of this thesis to discuss the different views concerning the establishment of a definition nor is it to come up with a more adequate definition. However, in this thesis, the discipline covering translation and its many aspects will be referred to as Translation Studies; the term coined in 1972 by James S. Holmes (Munday 2009: 5).

The term ‘translation theory’ will be used when referring to the opposite of practice, and when referring to what is taught in the translation classroom.

1.7.3. Definition of translation process

The term ‘translation process’ is also a very ambiguous concept as it is defined and described differently by different scholars and in different contexts. One meaning of the term ‘translation process’ is the conscious and unconscious cognitive operations that happen during translation (Séguinot 1989: iii), but in this thesis, another meaning of the process will be used, i.e. the progressive, physical process which begins when the client contacts a translator and gives him/her a source text (and a brief) and ends with a target text as the product.

1.7.4. Definition of translator

In this thesis, only professional translators with a ‘Master of Arts Degree in International Business Communication (cand.ling.merc.) with a specialisation in Translation and Interpretation’ and an accreditation (i.e. with the Danish title of ‘statsautoriserede translatører’ (state-authorised translators)) participated. Therefore, whenever the term ‘translator’ is used with regards to the two empirical studies in this thesis, it refers to state-authorised translators. However, in the other sections of the thesis, such as in the theory chapter, ‘translator’ merely means a person who translates (not necessarily with an academic background) as scholars use this term indiscriminately. Because two groups of translators were used in this thesis, the first group, the company translators participating
in the translation task will be referred to as ‘in-house translators’ and the freelancers participating in the questionnaire will be referred to as ‘freelance translators’.

1.7.5. Definition of brief

The translation brief is the central concept in this thesis, and therefore, it is necessary to define and explain it further. The term ‘Übersetzungsauftrag’ is the originally coined German term for this concept. However, the German term can be translated in different ways, such as ‘translation commission’ or ‘translation assignment’. These terms have been used by functionalist translation scholars when using the term in English. Furthermore, Nord introduced the term ‘translation instructions’. However, the term, ‘translation brief’, introduced by Fraser seems to be preferred by several scholars (one of them being Nord who switches from using ‘translation instructions’ to using ‘translation brief’: 1997a: 30) and Translation Studies sources, which is why this term will be used throughout this thesis when referring to the German ‘Übersetzungsauftrag’. The concept is defined differently by different scholars. Chesterman (2007: 178) e.g. says that it includes the ST, the skopos, the resources, the deadline, fee etc. Other scholars do not see the skopos as part of the brief as the skopos is something which should instead be elicited from the brief. Vermeer, one of the founders of the skopos theory, defines it as the instruction, given by oneself or by someone else, to carry out a given action, in this connection: to translate (Vermeer 2000: 235). According to some scholars, (e.g. Schjoldager 2008: 157) translators are, in fact, always provided with some kind of brief. It might not be sufficiently explicit as a brief could mean that the translator is simply told to translate a text. This request is also a brief per definition. However, for the purpose of this thesis, the translation brief is defined slightly differently than by e.g. Chesterman and Vermeer. The brief is only the explicit instructions concerning function or receiver or the like given by the client or negotiated between the client and the translator, and which is given in writing or orally. The brief does therefore not include instructions given by the translator himself. Furthermore, briefs do not explicitly contain the skopos as the skopos is established by the translator based on the brief.
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1.7.6. Abbreviations used

The following abbreviations will be used throughout the thesis:
LSP: Language for specific purposes
SL: source language
ST: source text
TL: target language
TS: Translation Studies
TT: target text
TT1-TT10: Used for target texts 1 to 10 made by the 10 professional translators

1.8. General methodology (in short)

To strengthen the validity of this study, method triangulation has been chosen. Method triangulation is the mixed use of several different methods in order to account for the possible weaknesses of one single (or two) methods as the different methods supplement each other (Andersen 1999: 203 and Darmer & Freytag 2002: 227). Therefore, this thesis is based on both theory and two different empirical studies.

The first chapter is the theory chapter, in which the most important theory concerning skopos theory, translation processes, translation briefs, translation macro- and microstrategies, medical translation and its challenges are introduced and discussed.

As far as empirical methods are concerned, in order to compensate for weaknesses of the individual empirical method, two different methods have been applied. First of all, 10 professional in-house translators were asked to translate a short text without knowing they were doing so for a Master thesis and without being given a brief. To be able to generalise about professional translators and their use of brief and establishment of skopos questionnaires were also sent out to 80 professional translators yielding 47 responses.

In this way, it was possible to compare theory and practice and also possible to compare data on what translators say they do and what translators actually do.
2. Theoretical framework

This chapter contains the theoretical background of the thesis and the theoretical framework on which the analysis of the empirical data is based.

The chapter outline is as follows: As a starting point, the skopos theory, being the theoretical framework of this thesis, will be introduced and discussed. It will be seen what skopos theory says about ST- and TT-orientation, and then, theory concerning the translation process is presented. Focus will be on the concept of the translation brief and the analysis needed in order to establish skopos. In this way, it can be seen what translation scholars suggest (or even prescribe) should happen during the translation process. It will then be possible to compare this with the results of the two empirical studies, and see if the translators participating in this thesis actually follow the suggestions proposed by theory. This will be particularly interesting because, as mentioned above, one problem with many of the functionalist approaches is that they are mainly based on translation at universities, and therefore, a lot of them have not been empirically tested (Nord 1997a: 116). The same is the case for briefs; their use and content still lacks empirical basis (Martín de León 2008: 1). This thesis does not claim to be able to empirically test these theories thoroughly, but by presenting some of these functionalist process theories and functionalist scholars’ views on briefs, which emphasise the importance of briefs, it can later, in the analysis chapter, be investigated how these theories are linked to practice.

Before Nord’s translation process model and process theory is presented and discussed, former two- and three-phase models will briefly be introduced. Nord’s model has been chosen as it contains the initial phase in which the brief is used by the translator. The section will conclude with a critical discussion of the model. Emphasis will especially be placed on the importance of the brief, and how it should be used. The section about Nord will end with criticism of her theories.

The next section ‘Translating without a brief’ contains different scholars’ viewpoints about what translators should do when they do not receive a brief. This section is included to be able to later analyse whether the translators live up to these suggestions.
One of the hypotheses of this thesis is that by not giving a brief to translators, they tend to use an ST-oriented strategy when translating. Therefore, some theory and scholarly views concerning this phenomenon will be presented.

Furthermore, to be able to analyse the 10 TTs, a theoretical framework is needed on which to base this analysis. Thus, in order to see whether the translators have opted for an ST-oriented or a TT-oriented macrostrategy, a thorough analysis is needed to be able to conclude on this. For the analysis of the empirical data from the translation task, it is necessary to look at the translation strategies used. A presentation of the concept of translation strategy will be included and the concept will be defined. Anne Schjoldager’s microstrategies will be presented and discussed.

The chapter also has an introduction to the medical translation genre, and some of the translation difficulties which translators face when translating medical texts, especially, with regard to English >> Danish medical translations. This section is included to be able to conclude whether the translators were able to elicit the brief without being given a specific one, and in that way, fulfil the skopos as some of these difficulties are relevant for the 10 professional translators in this study and their TTs. Emphasis is on the translation problems encountered when translating Latin-based terms from English into Danish as this is very important for the analysis of the TT. In order to fully understand the problems concerning the direct translation of Latin-based terms, Koller’s equivalence model is presented.

2.1. Skopos theory

The skopos theory was chosen as the theoretical framework because of the focus it places on the translation brief - the main subject of this thesis. Furthermore, the skopos theory is especially useful for medical translation because it relates language to its context, emphasizes the importance of the real world circumstances, and it points out how the translator’s choices are dependant on the client (Resurrecció & Davies 17-18).

As mentioned in the introduction, prior to the 1970s and 1980s, TS (which was not called TS yet) was mainly concerned with equivalence-based translation theory. Importance was mainly placed on translation products, i.e. researching and comparing
STs and their TTs. However, in the 1970s and 1980s, a lot of scholars and translators started thinking that the equivalence-based theory lead to a lot of confusion as it involved contradictory standards for selecting transfer procedures, and these varied for different genres and text types. After a while, scholars started looking at the translation profession and became dissatisfied with the gap between practice and theory, and the attitude emerged that a new approach was needed: functionalism was born (Nord 1997a: 8).

Functionalism commenced with German scholars such as Hans J. Vermeer and Katharina Reiss. They called their approach ‘skopostheorie’ or ‘skopos theory’ in English. Skopos is the Greek word for aim or purpose, and it is the aim or purpose of the TT which is the main focus of the skopos theory (Nord 1997a: 27). One of the most important elements when determining the purpose of a translation is the receiver of the TT, and because translation is defined as a purposeful activity, there is always an intended receiver. With functionalism, translation was no longer seen as a mere act of transcoding, but instead as an act of communication.

According to the skopos theory, all texts are perceived as serving a specific purpose, therefore, the translator should translate in a way which enables the text to function in the situation in which it is to be used and with the people who want to use it and in the way they want it to function (Nord 1997a: 29). Hence, the skopos theory rejects and goes beyond the eternal problem whether ST-orientation or TT-orientation should always prevail. Please also see section 2.1.1.1. Skopos theory and ST- vs. TT-orientation, page 16.

2.1.1. The six rules of skopos theory
Reiss and Vermeer formulated their theory by use of six rules (Reiss & Vermeer 1984: 119). The first rule is the skopos rule and it says that a TT is determined by its skopos, which means that the purpose of the TT is the main determinant for the chosen translation methods and strategies. These methods and strategies are used to produce a functionally adequate or appropriate result. The second rule is that a TT is an offer of information in a target culture and a TL, which is based on an offer of information (the ST) in a source culture and SL. Rule three of the skopos theory is that a TT is not clearly reversible, meaning that the function of the TT does not necessarily match the function of the ST.
This means that e.g. a back-translation might not lead to a translation which is similar to the original ST. The next and fourth rule is that a TT must be internally coherent, which means that the TT must be coherent for the TT receivers. The receiver must be able to understand the TT, and the TT has to be meaningful in the communicative situation and target culture. According to rule five, a TT must be coherent with the ST, which means that there must be coherence between the ST information received by the translator, the interpretation the translator makes of this information and the information that is encoded for the TT receivers i.e. intertextual coherence. Rule six of skopos theory is that the first five rules are in hierarchical order with the skopos rule being the predominate rule (Nord 1997a: 29-31).

2.1.1.1. Skopos theory and ST- vs. TT-orientation

One of the main hypotheses of this study is that translators use a ST-oriented strategy when they do not have a brief. Therefore, it is interesting to see how skopos theory deals with the problem of ST- vs. TT-orientation.

Vermeer maintains that in the skopos theory, the function of the TT may differ from the function of the ST (Vermeer 2000: 236). Pursuant to this theory, it is therefore the translator’s main task to produce a TT that satisfies the cultural expectations of the TT-receivers and their expectations to that kind of text. Vermeer stresses the great importance of the TT by proclaiming the dethronement of the ST and regarding it as a mere ‘offer of information’ and the translator’s ‘raw material’ (Nord 1997a: 37). It is important to bear in mind that the skopos theory does not say that TT-orientation is the right way to translate; the skopos of a given translation can also recommend a strict word-for-word translation (ST-orientation) or depending on the skopos of a translation, anything between these two extremes. (Nord 1997a: 29).

This shows that the skopos theory does not prefer one macrostrategy over the other, but it is instead the translator who has to make this choice in the given situation. In this connection, it should be noted that the skopos theory does not deal with translation strategies at micro level, and therefore, it does not provide the translator with any guidelines how to fulfil the intended skopos. This is because the skopos is dependent on
the situation in question and it can be different every time; therefore, the categorisation of microstrategies is not possible.

2.1.2. Criticism of skopos theory

After the skopos theory and functionalism had been established, it received quite a bit of criticism. It has e.g. been criticised for being too simplistic, and for not being a real academic theory. The reason why the skopos theory is not perceived as a real theory by some is that a real scientific theory must per definition be formulated as a hypothesis that can be empirically tested (Schjoldager 2008: 181). This is by some perceived as a problem because the skopos theory sets up prescriptions, however, these prescriptions have not been empirically tested, and they therefore merely describe ideals.

Also, it has been perceived by some as being unethical as it produces translators who are “mercenary experts, able to fight under the flag of any purpose able to pay them” (Nord 2006: 32), and the translator can pick any skopos s/he wants. This is contested by Nord, who says that this is a misinterpretation of the theory (Nord 1997a: 117). To avoid this misinterpretation, Nord suggested her principle of ‘loyalty’ as the answer to this criticism. Loyalty in this context means the responsibility that translators have toward their partners in the translation situation. This gives the skopos theory an ethical element, which limits the unlimited range of skopoi which could otherwise be used (Nord 2006: 33). This also means that because clients are not translation experts, they often do not know what information the translator needs in order to produce a translation that will fulfil their needs and expectations. Therefore, it is the translator’s responsibility to educate clients so they can learn to provide the necessary information and other available data (Nord 2006: 30).

It has also been claimed that the skopos theory is invalid because translators do not have a specific goal or a specific receiver in mind; they just translate what is in the ST. This obviously goes against all aspects of the skopos theory. As far as the receiver is concerned, Vermeer argues that there is always a receiver, it might just be a very fuzzy and indeterminate group of receivers (Vermeer 2000: 233).
Also, criticism has been put forward by Stolze and Newmark concerning the fulfilment of a given skopos. Their problem is that the skopos theory does not deal with translation strategies at micro level and therefore, it does not give any suggestions or help on how to fulfil the skopos (Stolze and Newmark quoted by Zethsen 1997: 23). According to skopos scholars, the reason for this is that the skopos theory says that you must “translate consciously and consistently, in accordance with some principle respecting the target text. The theory does not state what the principle is: this must be decided separately in each specific case” (Vermeer 1989: 182). Skopos is therefore dependent on the situation, and hence it is not possible to categorise into different microstrategies. This means that ad hoc microstrategies must be used instead. (Please see section 2.5. Translation strategies, page 28 for a further explanation of microstrategies).

2.1.2.1. Terminological problems concerning ‘skopos’

Another criticism of the skopos theory is the terminological issues concerning the word ‘skopos’. To Nord, ‘skopos’ is the more or less explicit description of the prospective target situation and it is to be derived from the instructions given by the initiator (Nord 1991: 9-10). “Therefore, it is the pragmatic content of the initiator’s instructions” (Pym 1993: 184). However, it also seems that Nord, especially in older sources, uses the term ‘skopos’ both when referring to the function/situation of the TT (as above), and also when referring to the translation brief (e.g. Nord 1991: 34).

In Reiss and Vermeer (1984), skopos refers to both the function of the ST and the TT, and Vermeer also sometimes uses skopos to refer to the aim of the translation process (Vermeer 2000: 227).

2.1.3. Summary of and response to criticism

For the purpose of this thesis, it is not perceived as a problem that the skopos theory might not be perceived as the ‘real’ theory in the original scientific sense. Some of the above criticism might actually be helpful for this thesis. Even though this thesis does not claim to empirically test the skopos theory, it will aspire to investigate whether and how one of the key elements of the skopos theory, i.e. the brief, is used in practice and in that
way, it might then actually give the skopos theory a slightly stronger empirical base. Also, it will be interesting to see what the data show about the claim that translators do not have a specific receiver in mind.

As far as the terminological problems with ‘skopos’ are concerned, in this thesis, the term ‘skopos’ is based on Nord’s newest definition, i.e. it only refers to the function of the TT, which is established based on a brief, and therefore, skopos does not have anything to do with the ST and skopos is never given to translators by clients; it is always established by the translator from an analysis and interpretation of the brief.

2.1.4. Summary of the skopos theory

It is seen that the main concern of the skopos theory is the function of the TT and the TT receiver. Skopos is established by the translator based on the translation brief. The skopos theory does not decide whether the translator should make a direct ST-oriented translation or a freer TT-oriented translation. It depends on the translation situation and the brief. On micro level, the theory does not provide the translator with any guidelines because these are different for each TT depending on the skopos. With the skopos theory as theoretical framework, it will be interesting to investigate whether the participants in the two empirical studies live up to its prescriptions.

2.2. The translation process

This section deals with the translation process in theory and process models. The reason for presenting a process model is to see what theory says about the translation process, especially, the part concerning the brief and establishment of skopos. In this way, theory can be compared with the data, and then it can be seen whether the translators actually follow the theoretical guidelines. Nord’s model (Nord 2005: 36) will be presented and discussed because it incorporates the brief and the establishment of skopos.

As an introduction, the models which precedes Nord’s model will be briefly introduced. Then, Nord’s model is be presented and discussed.
2.2.1. Two- and three-phase models

Before the introduction of functionalism, translation process models tended to be based on traditional equivalence-based two- or three-phase models. Two-phase models described the translation process as consisting of analysis followed by synthesis, and the three-phased models added transfer as a middle phase between analysis and synthesis (Nord 2005: 34-35). Nord does not agree with these process models as they do not really show the reality of professional translation (2005: 34-35). Also, they are only based on ST analysis, and therefore, they assume that every ST carries its own instructions which tell the translator how it should be transferred. This is not possible because even though the function of the ST might be found by use of analysis, this is probably not the only possible function that the ST could have and the TT function might also be different from it. Therefore, the problem with these models is that they ignore the importance of the translation brief. Nord therefore made her own model, which incorporates the brief and the establishment of skopos (Nord 2005: 36).

2.2.2. Nord’s model

Nord’s model (Nord 2005: 36), which can be seen below in Figure 1 below, is based on an ST and a more or less specific translation brief. She divides her process model into four main steps. The first step for the translator is to analyse and interpret the translation brief and by doing so, establish translation skopos.

The second step is the analysis of the ST. This step is divided into two parts; the first part is a rather quick analysis of the ST during which the translator merely gets a general idea whether the ST is compatible with the instructions in the brief. The second part of the second step seems to be somewhat optional. If it is needed, this part entails a thorough analysis of the ST with focus on elements which are of importance because of the TT skopos. The advantage of comparing skopos with the ST before commencing the translation is that the translator should be able to locate the problems that will arise in the translating process (Nord 1997a: 14).

At the third step of the model, the translator is now able to adapt relevant ST-elements to the translation skopos. The translator has to decide which TL elements, from
a potentially large group of elements, are suitable for the skopos. In the model, this step is called ‘Planning of TRL strategy’, which shows that this phase is mainly a planning phase, in which the strategies for the next step, the actual production, are elaborated.

The fourth, and final step, is the actual production of the TT. As seen in Figure 1 below, this closes the loop. It is important to note that Nord’s model is recursive, which is shown by the numerous arrows in the model. This means that the translator always has the possibility of returning to the former step in the process (Nord 2005: 38).

![Figure 1: Nord’s translation process model](image)

### 2.2.2.1. Nord and the translation brief

As mentioned above, Nord’s model is based on the translator having a translation brief. According to Nord (1997a: 60), the ideal brief should contain the following information either explicitly or implicitly:

- The intended text function or functions
• The TT-receiver or receivers
• The time and place of text reception
• The medium through which the text will be transmitted
• The motive or reason for producing or receiving the text

The client should give the translator very thorough instructions about the purpose, the receivers, time, place, occasion and medium, i.e. a very explicit brief. The initiator and the translator should together negotiate the purpose of the translation, however, the decisions concerning the translation task itself and applied translation strategies ultimately rest with the translator.

Translating according to a brief can be unethical

Nord also raises the question whether translating according to a brief in some situations could be perceived as unethical. She gives an example of a German translator translating a Spanish book which positively describes Fidel Castro’s new Cuba. The German translator was asked to adjust the Latin American ‘pathetic style’ and therefore, s/he toned down or omitted a lot of the positive utterances about Castro (Nord 1997a: 126-127). Nord raises the questions whether translators should analyse briefs critically. She never really answers these questions explicitly, but concludes that the translator could discuss the brief with the client.

2.2.2.2 Criticism of Nord

As Nord’s theory and model is based on the skopos theory, her work can of course also be criticised for the same things as the skopos theory. For this criticism, please see section 2.1.2. Criticism of the skopos theory, page 17.

Chesterman (Chesterman & Wagner 2002: 48) says that Nord does not highlight the client’s responsibility to provide a brief, and she does not highlight the importance of the consultation between the translator and the client. Chesterman argues here that a conversation with the client would often be quicker then making a detailed analysis of the ST and in this way, try to infer what the purpose is. I agree with Chesterman that often
contacting the client would be quicker and maybe also give more reliable information than what can be found in the ST.

Nord’s model is also criticised for being too detailed and elaborate. In this connection, it should be noted that the model is a didactic model aimed at translation students (Zethsen 1997: 36). The answer to this criticism could therefore be that the model must at first be familiarised by the translation novices/students, and then afterwards, the model will just become part of the translator’s working habits. Therefore, in practice, the translator might not always need to go through the entire model step by step.

Even though Nord suggests what should be included in a brief, there is not general consensus about this, and there are obviously no established norms in translation practice concerning this problem; which can be seen by the fact that translators often do not receive a brief, all they receive is information about price and deadline. This attitude is e.g. also shared by Emma Wagner, long-term professional EU translator, (Chesterman & Wagner: foreword), who says that one of the problems with briefs is that there is not one specific way upon which it is commonly agreed to specify the purpose and receiver of a TT.

Another claim presented by Nord is that it is sometimes possible to elicit the skopos from the ST without having a brief. I do agree that this might be possible in some situations, but it is not always possible to find out the purpose by analysing the source text as, like Emma Wagner says “the words on a page don’t tell the whole story” (Chesterman & Wagner 2002: 42).

2.2.2.3. Summary of Nord’s process theory

Nord’s model can be summed up as follows:

1. Analysis and interpretation of translation brief
2. ST analysis
   a. General analysis to ensure compliance with brief
   b. Thorough analysis of ST, focus on skopos relevant elements
3. Planning which strategy to use by deciding which potential TL elements are relevant for fulfilment of skopos

4. Production of TT

In summary, it can easily be claimed that Nord places great importance on the translation brief. Her statement “Translating without clear instructions is like swimming without water” (Nord 1997a: 78) shows that translating is impossible without knowing who and why you translate, or at least it is impossible to make a functionally adequate translation. However, she does say that translation is possible without a brief, or at least, that is what translators themselves argue. It does, however, seem that Nord thinks this is only the case for routine situations. Finally, according to Nord, briefs should contain very specific information about TT function, TT-receiver, time, place, medium and reason for translating the ST.

2.3. Translating without a brief

This section will present different translation scholars’ views concerning translating without a brief.

Nord realises and admits that clients often do not give very detailed information, either because they are not aware of what kind of translation is needed for their purpose, and more often because they are not aware of the difficulties involved in the translation task, and many of them consider translating as a mere code switching mechanism (1997a: 30). However, Nord does not think that professional translators always need an explicit brief. This opinion can be derived from what she says about translator training, viz. that translation students should always be given explicit brief and in this connection, she argues that this is the case because students, unlike experienced translators, cannot infer the skopos from the translation situation because they have no previous experience (Nord 1997a:59). Nord also explicitly says that translators themselves often do not feel that they need briefs, because their experience will help them determine that a specific text is to be translated in a specific way (1997b: 47).
Vermeer argues that the experienced translator will be able to infer the skopos even without a brief, by just taking the translational situation into account. He claims that in real life, the purpose, receivers etc of the TT are usually sufficiently apparent from the situation itself and therefore, there is still a brief as every translation presupposes a brief. The brief and the skopos might, however, be implicit and therefore, set by the translator himself. It should be noted here that even though Vermeer says that establishment of skopos is possible without a brief, he still stresses the necessity for a change in attitude among many translators and clients that detailed information concerning the skopos should always be given (Vermeer 1989: 182).

2.3.1. How to proceed without a brief

2.3.1.1. Find skopos in translation situation

If the information needed cannot be found in the brief or if there is no brief, the translator must find this information in the translation situation, which often is possible if the situation is a routine situation, in which the translator is able to rely on experience from similar situations (Nord 2006: 31). If it is not a routine situation, the translation skopos must still be considered by analysing the ST situation and considering the different options for the TT. After this, arbitrary specifications for the function, purpose and intended TT receiver must be set so the translator has something on which to base his translation strategy (Reeves-Ellington 1998: 113).

2.3.1.2. Contact client

If it is not possible to find the skopos in the translation situation, the translator must ask the client the necessary questions in order to solve the task satisfactorily. Some even argue that it is the translator’s responsibility to do so (Reeves-Ellington 1998: 107). Others argue that it is the client’s responsibility (Chesterman & Wagner 2002: 48). These questions include information about the receiver and the purpose. The translator interprets this information and includes his practical knowledge about common practice within the professional translation in a given situation.
According to Nord, if the client is unwilling to provide the necessary information, the client has to “take what they get”, which often is a TT that may fit many different functions, but not necessarily one that fits all the client’s needs (Nord 2006: 30).

2.4. ST-orientation as default

Several translation scholars agree that direct translation is the default choice in translation in general (they do not take a position on what to do with or without a brief as none of them deal explicitly with briefs in their theories; Vinay & Darbelnet 2004, Newmark 1989, Venuti 1995), and these scholars also think that this is the best way to translate. This means that according to these scholars, a translator only needs to deviate from literal translation if literal translation does not work. This means that TT-oriented translation strategies on micro level will only be used if the translator is not satisfied with an ST-oriented strategy.

Franco argues that the economy of effort plays an important role in this context. Because translators usually have very tight deadlines, and because they often work for a modest salary, there is a tendency to only deviate from the ST when it is really necessary, because “conservative translation is the fastest and most economical way of working” (Franco 2009: 80). This also means that in general, it is easier for the translator to import “ready-made words and structures than to create new ones” (Franco 2009: 80).

Another reason for ST-orientation as default could be the fact that the translation for many later professional translators originally came from language learning and acquisition, and therefore, because staying as close as possible to the ST was the goal or what the teacher wanted, the translators has the habit deeply rooted in them and therefore, they do the same thing later in their professional lives.

Another scholar who has researched what she calls the “literal translation automaton hypothesis” is Sonja Tirkkonen-Condit. She argues that there is a tendency for both novices and experts to translate word by word, and this is evident from both translation processes and products (Tirkkonen-Condit 2005: 407-208). It seems that literal translation is a default mechanism which is used until it is interrupted, e.g. when a problem occurs and conscious decision-making is triggered (Tirkkonen-Condit 2005: 407-208).
The same observations have been made by Vladimir Ivir, who says that the translator starts out by searching for formal correspondents with identical meaning and only when these are not available the translator uses formal correspondents with meanings that are not quite identical (Toury 1995: 191). Therefore, it is suspected that literal translation is the default procedure used as long as there is equivalence.

It is interesting that ST-orientation as default is not only supported by some scholars, some translators also seem to think that this is the only correct way to translate. This is shown by this quote by Emma Wagner (Chesterman & Wagner 2002: 44): “Translators, too, need to understand why they should translate differently for different purposes. Surprisingly many translators will argue that a translator’s duty is to translate accurately (not to make a silk purse out of a sow’s ear)…”

2.4.1. ST-orientation as default when translating without a brief

One of the hypotheses of this thesis is that translators tend to opt for an ST-oriented translation strategy when they do not have a brief, which means that they stay close to the ST and translate very literally. This is somewhat supported by Nord who have researched this phenomenon at least with regard to translation students who tend to cling to the source text when they do not have a brief (Nord 1997a:74).

Byrne (2006: 41) interprets the skopos theory as “unless the translator is told otherwise, the text type of the translation will be the same as the source text”. This is a very interesting aspect because this means that this view might be shared by practising translators as well.

It appears from one source (Vermeer 1989: 182) that Vermeer shares this view somewhat. Vermeer gives the example that a technical article about some astronomical discovery is to be translated as a technical article for astronomers. It seems as he says that if there is no brief, the translator will often choose ST-orientation (Nord 1997a: 31).

It will be interesting to see if this is the case in the data of this study as well; to see whether the 10 professional translators used literal translation as default when translating my ST and what the respondents of the questionnaire say about this phenomenon.
2.5. Translation strategies

To be able to perform the analysis of the 10 TTs, and to be able to conclude whether the translators have predominantly employed an ST-oriented strategy or a TT-oriented strategy, it is necessary to have a theoretical framework on which this analysis can be based. According to Candance Séguinot (1989: 24), we know intuitively when a translation is predominantly free (or TT-oriented) and when it is predominantly literal (or ST-oriented). This is, however, not sufficient for proper research, and therefore, objective criteria to base this analysis on must be used. To analyse which translation strategy the 10 translators participating in this study use, the most obvious source of information is to compare the ST and the TTs (Séguinot 1989: 23-24).

2.5.1. Translation microstrategies and skopos theory

As mentioned above (please see Nord’s process model step three on pages 20-21), by establishing the skopos of a given translation, it is possible for the translator to plan a translation strategy on macro level, which will enable him to fulfil the skopos. Even though the main theoretical framework of this thesis is the skopos theory and Nord’s process model, it has been necessary to draw on other theories to categorise the microstrategies to be used for the analysis of the 10 TTs. The reason is that the skopos theory does not provide translators with guidelines and it does not deal with prescriptive translation strategies at micro level. The skopos is dependent on the situation, and it is therefore not possible to categorise the strategies to be used.

Therefore, the theoretical framework must be extended to include a taxonomy of microstrategies.

2.5.2. Introduction to translation strategies general

There is no consensus in TS concerning what to call the concept of strategies; they are also referred to as ‘procedures’, ‘approaches’, ‘methods’, ‘principles’, ‘options’ etc. Different scholars have different preferences concerning the name of this concept. It is not within the scope of this thesis to discuss the different names individually, and decide
which one is to prefer. However, for the purpose of this thesis, the term ‘strategy’ will be applied as this connotes that there is a certain planned procedure behind the translator’s decisions, which fits the goal-orientedness of the skopos theory. In this connection, it should, however, be stressed that ‘planned procedure’ does not necessarily mean that this process is always fully conscious as, according to some scholars, translators might not be consciously aware of which strategy they use. This is because experienced translators tend to make these decisions intuitively (e.g. Schjoldager 2008: 67).

2.5.2.1. Macrostrategies versus microstrategies
First of all, there is a differentiation between translation strategies on micro level and translation strategies on macro level. Strategies on macro level refer to the translator’s overall plan or strategy, whereas strategies on micro level deal with the problems encountered on micro level, i.e. the choices made when translating specific words, phrases and sentences.

These strategies are by some scholars called global and local translation strategies (e.g. Chesterman 1997: 87, Lundquist 2005: 44), but in the following, they will be referred to as macrostrategies and microstrategies.

The term ‘translation strategy’ is also defined in many different ways, and there are many different views of what a specific translation strategy actually entails. For the purpose of this thesis, a translation microstrategy will be defined as: the procedure which is linked to reaching the goals of the translation brief and which is used consciously or subconsciously by a translator in order to translate a specific word, expression or phrase.

2.5.3. Macrostrategies
Many scholars have presented their individual macrostrategies. Even though these have different names, one major common feature is that they are dichotomies with one end of the spectrum being extreme ST-orientation and the other end of the spectrum being extreme TT-orientation. Some of the most well-known are (Schjoldager 2008: 70):
Professional Translators’ Establishment of Skopos - A ‘Brief’ Study
Matilde Nisbeth Jensen

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation scholar</th>
<th>Predominantly ST-orientation</th>
<th>Predominantly TT-orientation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jean-Paul Vinay and</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>Oblique translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jean Darbelnet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eugene Nida</td>
<td>Formal equivalence</td>
<td>Dynamic equivalence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peter Newmark</td>
<td>Semantic translation</td>
<td>Communicative translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gideon Toury</td>
<td>Adequate translation</td>
<td>Acceptable translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laurence Venuti</td>
<td>Foreignising translation</td>
<td>Domesticating translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christiane Nord</td>
<td>Documentary translation</td>
<td>Instrumental translation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These six scholars’ macrostrategies will not be discussed individually as this is not relevant for this thesis, however, it should be noted that a given macrostrategy is not necessarily either an ST-orientation or a TT-orientation, the scale is a continuum as demonstrated by Figure 2. As mentioned above, some scholars prefer one macrostrategy over another. Newmark, Venuti and Vinay & Darbelnet e.g. favour a ST-oriented macrostrategy, whereas Nida prefers a TT-oriented macro strategy (Schjoldager 2008: 71). This thesis will follow the view of Toury and Nord, i.e. that no strategy is better than the other, however, because my translation brief (see methodology chapter below) entails TT-orientation, this will be taken into consideration when concluding whether the translators have been able to establish skopos.

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ST-orientation     TT-orientation
<----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------->
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Figure 2: The macrostrategy continuum

2.5.3.1. Macrostrategies in the empirical data

For this thesis, a particular macrostrategy dichotomy has not been chosen as the different scholars define their two translation extremes differently. Instead, the macrostrategies used by the 10 translators will be referred to as either a “ST-oriented macrostrategy” or a “TT-oriented macrostrategy”. For this purpose, an ST-oriented macrostrategy is defined as: **an ST-oriented macrostrategy is used when the TT is a result of a translation**
process in which mainly ST-oriented microstrategies (please see below for ST-oriented microstrategies) have been used. There is more focus on transferring ST-elements than on the TT receiver.

A TT-oriented strategy is defined as: a TT-oriented macrostrategy is used when the TT is a result of a translation process in which mainly TT-oriented microstrategies (please see below for TT-oriented microstrategies) have been used. There is more focus on the TT receiver than on transferring ST-elements.

In this study, because it is not possible to ask the translators which strategy they used, it must be investigated by analysing their translation products, i.e. the 10 TTs. Even though Séguinot (Séguinot 1989: 24) claims that it is possible to know intuitively whether a ST or TT-oriented strategy has been used predominantly on macro level, this might not always be the case. Therefore, a thorough analysis of the TT and an investigation of the strategies used on micro level are needed.

2.5.4. Microstrategies

2.5.4.1 Problems concerning microstrategies

One of the main problems concerning translation microstrategies is that many of them have evolved and been drawn up as rules-of-thumb (Chesterman 1997: 91). The reason for this is that many of the strategies were originally elaborated based on translation practice, and elaborated to be used by practising translators. For this thesis, the strategies are to be used in a reversed manner: instead of using the strategies to make translation decisions, the different translation units in the TTs will be labelled with a specific translation microstrategy in order to see whether the translator mainly opted for ST-orientation or TT-orientation. In order to make conclusions as to the overall translation strategy of the 10 TTs, it is necessary to be able to make a thorough analysis of the microstrategies. It is therefore essential to have very precise and defined microstrategy categories. Therefore, in the following, the strategies used in the analysis will be presented and defined. For this purpose, Anne Schjoldager’s taxonomy of microstrategies (Schjoldager 2008: 91-110) will be the main microstrategies used. However, these will be
adjusted to the purpose of this study. Only strategies which are relevant for the analysis will be included.

2.5.4.2. Schjoldager’s 12 microstrategies

Schjoldager’s microstrategies will be used, however, in some cases, these are not described or defined explicitly enough, and therefore, some of them will be defined or described more precisely, and some will also be made broader in order to be applicable for the analysis of the 10 TTs.

The reason for choosing Schjoldager’s microstrategies, as opposed to e.g. Vinay and Darbelnet’s microstrategies is that Schjoldager seems more specific and thorough in the way that she uses her 12 microstrategies compared to the seven strategies of Vinay and Darbelnet. In this way, it is made easier to account for smaller nuances when analysing the TTs. Another reason for choosing Schjoldager’s microstrategies is that her strategies are developed with English <-> Danish translation in mind, whereas Vinay and Darbelnet’s theory is based on the English <-> French language pair. Also, Vinay and Darbelnet’s strategies were developed more than 60 years ago, in 1958. Schjoldager’s, on the other hand, were presented in her book from 2008. This does not mean that Vinay and Darbelnet’s strategies are outdated, but by using Schjoldager’s, it is ensured that strategies which are relevant for English into Danish translation today are used. Furthermore, because Vinay and Darbelnet established their strategies in a time where focus was on equivalence-based translation, this can be seen in their elaboration and definition of microstrategies. This means that the strategies were elaborated with a preference for literal translation in mind whereas Schjoldager does not favour one translation macrostrategy over the other (2008: 71).

In the following, Schjoldager’s microstrategies (Schjoldager 2008: 91-112) will be presented and divided into two groups, one for ST-oriented microstrategies and one for TT-oriented strategies. In this way, they can be used in the analysis chapter to analyse and conclude whether the elements in the 10 TTs are a result of an ST-orientation or an TT-orientation and to elicit what skopos the translators have established. In this way, it can be seen whether they were able to establish the skopos I had in mind without having
been given a brief. Only the microstrategies relevant for the analysis, i.e. the microstrategies found in the TTs will be included there.

When presenting the following microstrategies, examples from the ST translated by the 10 translators in this study (please see appendix 1 and 2), and their TTs will be used (please see appendices 4-13). Please note that the ST will be presented and discussed in detail below in the methodology chapter and the TTs will be analysed and discussed further in the analysis chapter.

- **Direct transfer**: Direct transfer involves transferring an ST item directly into the TT without changing it at all. Direct transfer could e.g. be a result of copying and pasting the element into the TT, or when using the TRADOS function ‘copy source’. It should be added here that a microstrategy is only a direct transfer when the transferred ST element is a foreign (in this case English) word which is not normally used in the TL. That means that using the Trados function ‘copy source’ for the ST element ‘hypertension’ would not be a direct transfer as the term ‘hypertension’ is also a Danish term. An example from the ST of this thesis could be transferring ‘Gestational diabetes’ directly into the TT even though the expression does not exist in Danish (TT8).

- **Calque**: Applying this microstrategy means transferring the structure of an ST element or making a very close translation resulting in TT elements which are unidiomatic. This unidiomaticity is the main difference between calques and direct translation (see below), because if an expression is transferred very directly, but it does not result in the TT element being unidiomatic, then it would merely be considered a direct translation. Calques are also sometimes referred to as false friends, i.e. words which are orthographically similar, but with semantic differences (Dollerup et al 2001: 108). An example of calque will be given below in section 2.6.7. Microstrategies revisited, page 40.

- **Direct translation**: Direct translation means translating word-for-word. The difference between calque and direct translation is that direct translation, as
opposed to calque, results in TT elements which are idiomatic and correct. Schjoldager also explains direct translation by saying it is the microstrategy used by translators when they choose the TT term that they think of first, because this is the term that resembles the ST term the most on a linguistic level. An example of direct translation from the TTs is ‘hypertension’. The English term ‘hypertension’ is translated using the Danish term ‘hypertension’. Another example is translating ‘hyperglycemia’ using the Danish medical term ‘hyperglykæmi’. These examples will be discussed further below in section 2.6.7. Microstrategies revisited, page 40.

- **Oblique translation**: At first, it should be noted that Schjoldager’s use of oblique translation differs from Vinay and Darbelnet’s who use it as a macrostrategy. As a microstrategy, it means that instead of trying to cover the entire meaning, including linguistic meaning, of a given ST item such as is the case for direct translation, the microstrategy oblique translation covers the contextual meaning. Schjoldager’s oblique translation is similar to functional equivalence as it is a sense-for-sense translation strategy. For my purpose, this microstrategy seemed a bit vaguely defined. It is hard to see exactly what constitutes an oblique microstrategy. When looking at Schjoldager’s examples of oblique translation, it seems that oblique translation occurs when linguistic changes are made, but this results in a more idiomatic TT. In order to be able to use this strategy for the analysis of the 10 TTs, it will be defined as a strategy which changes some linguistic element, but by doing so, a more idiomatic TT is created which takes the TT receiver into consideration. An example from the data material could be the translation of the ST element ‘hypertension’ using ‘forhøjet blodtryk’ (elevated blood pressure). The linguistic ST element ‘hypertension’ is changed (as seen above, a direct translation would have been ‘hypertension’), but the TT is made more idiomatic, and more functional for the non-expert TT receiver.

- **Explicitation**: A translator applying explicitation makes elements which were implicit in the ST explicit in the TT for instance by explaining something more
thoroughly. This could e.g. be by use of explanatory phrases or spelling out implicatures. Other scholars (e.g. Klaudy 1998) have several subcategories for this microstrategy such as obligatory explicitation and optional explicitation. It does not seem necessary to include such subcategories for the purpose of this thesis. For the purpose of analysing the 10 TTs, explicitation will also include further explanations added in parentheses. Examples of explicitation from the data material could be translating ‘insulin resistance’ as ‘resistens over for stoffet insulin’ (TT3), and translating ‘hypertension’ using the term ‘forhøjet blodtryk’ and then adding the Danish medical term ‘hypertension’ in parentheses (TT 5).

• **Paraphrase**: When paraphrasing, ST elements and their meanings are rendered into the TT, but they are rendered quite freely, and it can be difficult to see exactly how they are rendered. It is, however, not always difficult to see how it is rendered. Furthermore, this microstrategy will also cover what Vinay and Darbelnet call transposition; replacing one word class with another without changing meaning (Vinay & Darbelnet 2004: 132). An example of paraphrase could therefore be translating the phrase “…with onset or first recognition…” as “…som opstår eller først opdages ...” (TT8).

Schjoldager has six more microstrategies: condensation, adaptation, addition, substitution, deletion and permutation, however, because none of these are found in the 10 TTs, these will not be included in this thesis. Schjoldager’s first three translation strategies ‘direct transfer’, ‘calque’ and ‘direct translation’ are ST-oriented translation strategies. This means that if a ST is translated using these microstrategies predominantly, it leads to ST-orientation on macro level. The other nine strategies: ‘oblique translation’, ‘explicitation’, ‘paraphrase’, ‘condensation’, ‘adaptation’, ‘addition’, ‘substitution’, ‘deletion’ and ‘permutation’ are examples of TT-oriented microstrategy. Hence, using a majority of these strategies would lead to TT-orientation on macro level. These strategies, being microstrategies, are of course only an indicator of the translator’s choices on micro level, and the use of e.g. direct translation for one element does not mean that the overall translation strategy is ST-oriented.
However, the use of micro strategies can give clues about the overall translation strategy by analyzing whether there is a majority of ST-oriented microstrategies or TT-oriented strategies.

It is important to note that even though the different strategies have been defined, described and exemplified, it might be difficult to see exactly which strategy was used for a given ST element. Furthermore, the translation of an ST element might comprise the use of several strategies, and therefore, it might be difficult to distinguish them (Vinay & Darbelnet 1995: 40). An example is the translation of ‘hyperglycemia’ in TT7. The translator has written ‘blodsukkeret stiger til over det normale niveau’ (the blood sugar increases beyond the normal level) which can be viewed as paraphrase as well as explicitation.

2.6. Theory about medical translation

In order to be able to analyse the translations made by the professional translators and to be able to thoroughly understand the problems and challenges in the ST and the TTs, a brief introduction to medical translation is needed. This section contains a presentation of one of the major translation problems in English into Danish medical translation which is also present in the translation task used as data for this study: the translation of Latin-based terms.

2.6.1. Greek and Latin influence

Even today, medical terminology is based on Greek and Latin, which can be explained by the history of medicine (McMorrow 1998: 14). Scientific terminology in Europe originates from the Greek language and the terminology was subsequently translated into Latin. Later, these Latin terms were borrowed into the modern European languages (M.A.K. Halliday 1998: 199 quoted in Resurrecció & Davies 2007: 231). English medical language, and medical language in general, is therefore mainly based on terminology made up of formants (roots, prefixes, suffixes) drawn from Greek and Latin (Van Hoof 1998: 49).
2.6.2. The problem of Latin-based terms in English-Danish translation

The reason for looking at this problem concerning Latin-based terms is that it will help to analyze the 10 different TTs and the choices made by the professional translators. The problem with the translation of Latin-based medical language is that not all languages have absorbed the same amount of Latin-based terms, which is e.g. the case with English vs. Scandinavian languages. Latin-based terms are much more frequent in everyday English than they are in Danish, which has not absorbed as many words from Latin. Instead, Danish has doublets (Resurrecció & Davies 2007: 242) as it has both the specialized expert term, and when talking to non-experts, it uses words which are native and simple and which are easy to understand (Zethsen 2004: 134). This means that unlike English, Danish most often has two words, both an expert and a non-expert term, for a medical concept. An example from the source text is ‘pre-eclampsia’ from the Greek ‘eklampsia’. In Danish, two terms exist: ‘præeklampsi’, which is the medical term used by experts, and ‘svangerskabsførgiftning’, which is the non-expert term. In English, only one term exists for this condition: ‘pre-eclampsia’ making it both the expert and the non-expert term. Therefore, both English experts and non-experts would understand the term whereas the Danish ‘præeklampsi’ would only be understood by experts or people familiar with the condition.

2.6.3. Equivalence in LSP translation

Even though the concept of equivalence has been overshadowed by functionalism, it is often claimed that equivalence still exists within LSP translation (which includes medical translation as well). Because technical terms are often not bound to culture and because they are fully denotational, there should be a one-to-one relationship between two languages because technology is neutral, i.e. not culturally based (Halliday et al 1965: 129 quoted in Kragh 1994: 96). This would mean that an ST term can be directly transferred into the TL.

Other scholars argue, however, that not all technical terms are merely denotational, but also carry connotational meaning, which will be seen by the discussion below.
2.6.4. Direct translation in medical translation

According to Zethsen (2004), who has conducted research on Latin-based terms in English into Danish translation, a translator must be very careful when translating medical English, especially for laypeople. English uses a lot of Latin-based medical terms, even in everyday language as often there is no non-specialized equivalent, this is, however, not the case for Danish. Therefore, in a translation for a non-expert receiver, if the Latin-based medical terms are directly transferred into Danish, even though there seems to be total equivalence, the formality level will be a lot higher (Zethsen 2004: 125). It will be a lot higher than the ST and in some cases, a lot higher than the TT skopos prescribes. The TT receiver might thus not be able to fully understand the text and the TT will not fulfil its skopos.

2.6.5. Koller’s equivalence model

In order to show the problems concerning direct translation of Latin-based terms, Koller’s equivalence model (Koller 1989: 101-104) is presented. The model shows that an ST term and a TT term must agree on five levels in order to be classified as true equivalents.

1. Denotational equivalence: whether the two terms have the same denotational meaning
2. Connotative equivalence: whether the connotation that the terms transmit regarding style, register, social dimension, frequency etc. are the same
3. Text-normative equivalence: whether the two terms are used in same text types
4. Pragmatic equivalence: whether the intended TT receiver understands the TT term
5. Formal equivalence: whether the linguistic form and the expressive features of the ST, i.e. word play, individual stylistic characteristics are transferred
2.6.5.1. An example of direct translation of a Latin-based term using Koller’s model

To explain the problem concerning the direct translation of Latin-based terms, a term from the ST of this thesis, ‘hypertension’, has been chosen. The term ‘hypertension’ exists in both English and Danish, and the terms carry the exact same meaning in both languages on the denotational level. However, on the connotational level, there are significant differences. There are many different kinds of connotational meaning such as connotations of socially determined usage, connotations of emotion and connotations of register, the latter being the important one in this context. Connotations of register are concerned with the register and the formality level, i.e. normal usage, technical usage, medical usage etc. (Koller 1989: 102). Using the term ‘hypertension’ in Danish connotes a very high level of discourse. The main problem is formality and frequency and that everyday Danish has other non-technical words for these concepts. Therefore, ‘hypertension’ in English and Danish do not have the same connotative meaning. As far as Koller’s third level: ‘text-normative equivalence’ is concerned, ‘hypertension’ does not occur in the same text types in Danish and in English. English ‘hypertension’ could occur in both expert and non-expert literature, but it would be very rare in Danish non-expert literature. The fourth level, pragmatic equivalence has to do with the TT receiver and whether he understands the TT term. The TT which was to be elaborated for the purpose of this thesis has a receiver group consisting of non-experts (please see section 3.1.3. The brief for the ST, page 46). A non-expert receiver is unlikely to understand the Danish term ‘hypertension’, and therefore, pragmatic equivalence is not achieved. With regard to the linguistic form of the TT element ‘hypertension’, it is likely that it would look foreign to a non-expert Dane, which is why the fifth level ‘formal equivalence’ is not achieved either.

Therefore, even though ‘hypertension’ in English and ‘hypertension’ in Danish at first seem like perfect equivalents, this is not the case when translating for a Danish non-expert receiver. Instead, the two terms could be perceived as false friends, i.e. words that look and/or sound similar in the two languages, but differ in meaning.

As mentioned above, in order to achieve ‘pragmatic equivalence’, the translator must translate for a particular receiver. It is therefore extremely important for the translator to know who the TT receiver is, as otherwise, it might be almost impossible to
achieve pragmatic equivalence and fulfil skopos (this will be investigated later in the analysis chapter whether this is the case for the translators in this study).

2.6.6. The importance of briefs in LSP/medical translation

As seen above in the section about the skopos theory, in technical/medical translation (as well as in other kinds of translation), it is very important to know who the receiver of the TT is. If the receivers are experts, it is not problematic to directly transfer the Latin-based terms, however, if the receiver is a non-expert, a direct transfer will not be functional, and it will not fulfil its skopos, as the receiver is likely to find the TT difficult to understand or s/he might not be able to understand it at all.

2.6.7. Microstrategies revisited

Taking the problems concerning the translation of Latin-based terms into consideration leads to the need for a slight change of the microstrategies presented above. It has been shown that direct translation of Latin-based terms might result in an unidiomatic and very formal TT, which might not be functional if the translation skopos is to inform or educate a receiver group consisting of laypeople (as is the case with the TT in this thesis). Therefore, in these circumstances, microstrategies which would be analysed as ‘direct translation’ in cases in which the receiver is an expert would instead be analysed as calques because they become unidiomatic and too formal in the TT situation. An example from the ST could be translating ‘hyperglycemia’ using the Danish highly medical term ‘hyperglykæmi’.

2.6.8. Conclusion

It has been seen above that translation strategies are needed as a theoretical basis to be able to analyse what skopos the translators in my study had in mind. Schjoldager’s microstrategies are divided into ST-oriented and TT-oriented strategies and by assigning these to TT elements, it is possible to analyse which overall macrostrategy the translators have used. Also, it has been seen that translating Latin-based terms from English into
Danish poses problems on many different levels as it can lead to a TT which is too formal, has the wrong connotations, is unidiomatic or which is incomprehensible for the TT receiver.
3. Methodology

There is currently a lot of discussion as well as some disagreement concerning methodology in Translation Studies. This is mainly due to the fact that Translation Studies is a fairly young discipline. At the same time, a lot of new kinds of methodologies have been suggested and introduced in recent years, e.g. TAPs, Translog\(^1\) etc. The problem is that Translation Studies is not only a young discipline, it is also very multidisciplinary due to the fact that it stems from other disciplines such as linguistics and literary criticism (Schjoldager 2008: 134). Therefore, there are thus not yet a lot of established theoretical and methodological criteria on which to base research. Consensus with regard to the formulation of hypotheses, design of experiments, the choice of subjects etc has not yet been established (Beeby et al 2000: 99).

Therefore, also in connection with this thesis, it was difficult to choose a specific method. However, in order to compensate for the potential weaknesses of one individual empirical method, two different methods have been applied; a translation task which was performed by professional in-house translators and questionnaires which were to be sent out to professional freelance translators.

3.1. Translation task

3.1.1. Participants

As with any kind of empirical research, it is very important to select the right participants for the translation task as wrongly selected respondents can make the research useless in connection with the hypothesis and the objective of the study (Holme & Solvang 1996: 99). Therefore, only professional translators with a Master’s Degree in Translation and Interpreting and accreditation awarded by the Danish Commerce and Companies Agency (i.e. with the Danish title of ‘(statsautoriserede) translatører’ (state-authorised translators)) were chosen as participants. The reason for choosing professional translators

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\(^1\) Translog is a keyboard logging program for analysing text production processes. It was originally designed for translation process research in order to understand more of what goes on in the translator’s mind during a translation task.
as opposed to e.g. translation students was the importance of taking workplace conditions into account when researching. One of the problems in the past has been that studies of translation often took place *in vitro*, i.e. at universities with students as the participants, instead of *in vivo*, i.e. using professional translators (Mossop 2005: 1). The reason why most studies involving students have been conducted is probably due to accessibility. By undertaking workplace studies, the sociology of translation is studied. The force of workplace studies is that it allows the formulation and testing of hypotheses concerning translators’ behaviour, and it can also be relevant for translator training (Chesterman & Williams 2007: 24). Therefore, in this study, real practising translators (as opposed to students) have been investigated, and they have been studied in their habitual environment as this will enhance the ecological validity of the study.

It was also a conscious choice to use *state-authorised* translators (as opposed to translators without an academic degree) as this entails some level of training and expertise in translation, and it made it possible to generalise about professional Danish translators. Furthermore, in this way, it was ensured that the translators had been trained and educated in some translation theory. It might have been preferable if further selection criteria could have been added such as several years of professional experience, however, because it proved difficult to get participants, the main criterion was that the translators were certified translators.

### 3.1.2. The source text

An ST (please see appendix 1) was chosen with a view to it having a certain difficulty level, LSP-terminology etc. However, it was important that the text was not too difficult partly because the project was dependent on volunteers. This also meant that the ST used had to be fairly short to ensure that the translators were not burdened excessively, especially because this meant that they might have declined to participate. A fairly short ST of 906 characters with spaces was chosen and even then, several translation companies replied that they would like to help with the project, but for their usual fee or that they would have liked to help, but that they did not have time for it at the moment. It
could be expected that if the text had been longer and more difficult, these responses would have occurred even more often.

3.1.2.1. Receiver ambiguity in the ST

Another very important element concerning the ST was that because of the aim of the study, it was important that the ST was very ambiguous as to the intended receiver. This was done so the translators were not able to figure out the purpose of the TT easily and because this would hopefully prompt them to make a conscious decision concerning skopos.

A text concerning gestational diabetes was found on the internet. Intentionally, an English ST, which was to be translated into Danish was used as there is overall agreement in contemporary TS literature that translators should only (or at least as a rule-of-thumb) translate into their mother tongue (e.g. Pokorn 2000: 62). Purposely, an ST which contained both LSP/expert terminology and sentence structure, as well as non-expert sentence structure was chosen. It was important for this research that the translators would have difficulties determining the function and receiver of the TT to see whether they would then contact me or their project manager to receive more information. It was important that the text was not too expert-oriented as it is suspected that the translators would then just maintain the expert terminology as it is fairly unlikely that a very technical and terminologically heavy text would have to be translated for laypeople. For this purpose, the chosen text was slightly modified from its original form. The aim to make the intended function of the TT quite problematic to establish was also based on the results of previous research in the area. The studies made by Jääskeläinen and Tirkkonen-Condit have indicated that translators start asking questions about intended audience once they encounter problems which can be solved by taking the brief into consideration (Jääskeläinen 1989: 96).

3.1.2.2. Expert and non-expert language

Examples of LSP terminology in the ST is ‘Gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM)’, ‘Pre-eclampsia’ and ‘hyperglycemia’. Examples of a high level of formality at phrase level are
‘carbohydrate intolerance of varying degrees of severity’ and ‘post-natal obesity problem’ as both phrases have heavy pre-modifications. Some of the terminology might not be perceived as expert terminology for an English audience as Latin-based medical terms are a lot more common in the English language for both experts and non-experts.

Examples of non-expert language and non-expert phrase structure in the ST could be ‘Only about 3-4 out of 100 women may develop diabetes in pregnancy’ and ‘Possible complications to the Mother’ in which the phrase structure is fairly simple and the formality level is on a non-expert level because of the simple terminology and phrase structure.

3.1.2.3. Making the ST ready for analysis

Prior to sending the ST to the translators for translation, terminology and other important text elements were highlighted in a version of the text which was not sent out. Difficult phrase structure and interesting or challenging terminology were e.g. highlighted in order to facilitate the analysis of the data and to determine how the translators translated. Especially places where it was possible to translate primarily for an expert audience or primarily for a non-expert audience were marked. This was slightly changed after receiving the 10 TTs from the translators as new interesting translation choices and strategies emerged (please see appendix 2 for the final version). The reasons for choosing the ST elements in question can be seen below.

As seen in appendix 2, 11 elements in the ST have been highlighted. The ST terminology has been highlighted to help analyse the 10 TTs. In this way, there is a consistent way to investigate the used microstrategies and the choices made by the professional translators. The chosen elements are either individual terms or phrases. The 11 elements were:

1. Gestational diabetes
2. Carbohydrate intolerance of varying degrees of severity
3. With onset or first recognition
4. Family history
5. Pre-existing diabetes condition
6. Insulin resistance
7. Hyperglycemia  
8. Hypertension  
9. Pre-eclampsia  
10. Post-natal obesity problem  
11. Hypoglycemic

These elements were chosen because there are several ways to translate all of them depending on the skopos. When taking the above theory concerning the translation of Latin-based terms and connotational meaning into consideration, the translation of the above ST elements would show whether the translator in using an ST-oriented macrostrategy or a TT-oriented macrostrategy and hence see what skopos they had established.

3.1.3. The brief for the ST

To be able to supply the professional translators with further information in case they asked for it, a brief was elaborated. This would also enable me to analyse whether the translators were able to establish skopos without having the brief which I had in mind, and to see how the translators who asked for the brief would use it. Based on Nord’s suggestions for the content of translation briefs (please also see section 2.2.2.1. Nord and the translation brief, page 21), the following brief was elaborated: The target text is to function as a brochure/pamphlet for pregnant women and couples, women who consider becoming pregnant, and other people with an interest in the subject, i.e. the receivers are mainly non-experts. It is important that the text is user-friendly, so all the receivers are able to understand it, and so it can be read quickly, e.g. in a waiting room.

3.1.4. Pilot study

The ST was carefully chosen and adapted to ensure ambiguousness; however, it was not possible to be certain how the text would be perceived by the professional translators and whether they would find it ambiguous as well. Therefore, a pilot study was conducted. Pilot studies are usually carried out on members of the relevant population, but not on
those who will form part of the final sample (Darmer & Freytag 2002: 186). As it proved fairly difficult to find professional translation companies willing and able to participate in the actual research project, it was not possible to use professional translators in the pilot study as well. The source text was instead sent to 8 post-graduate translation students in their final year at Aarhus School of Business. The students are all very close to being professional translators themselves as all of them only need to finalise their final thesis before they graduate. Using students is not perceived as a problem in this connection as some translation scholars actually use final year translation students and call them professionals (Jääskeläinen 1990, Krings 1986). The students, because they are my co-students, were aware that the text was to be used in connection with a thesis on translation, but they did not know more about the subject or the content of the thesis. They were asked to write what they would do if they received the text for translation without any brief. They were asked what they inferred about the receiver, medium and function of the Danish TT. They were asked whether they would apply a ST-oriented translation strategy, a TT-oriented translation strategy, and whether they would translate the text primarily for experts or non-experts. The responses were very mixed, which was the optimal outcome. A few of the students thought that the TT would be for doctors because of the technical vocabulary such as ‘hypoglycemic’ and constructions such as ‘post-natal’. One person with this opinion expressed that the layout was more oriented toward an audience consisting of laypeople such as a pamphlet or brochure for pregnant women. The majority of the students thought that the TT should be directed at laypeople, e.g. at pregnant women or couples. However, they thought the terminology was LSP-oriented in some places. Interestingly, some of the participants also said that the text could either be translated to be used by pregnant women, i.e. laypeople or students studying to be doctors, nurses or midwives, i.e. experts or semi-experts.

In addition to sending the ST to the post-graduate translation students, it was also sent to one native English speaker, a non-translator, to investigate how a native speaker would perceive the text. It was interesting to see whether the text would be perceived as being for experts or laypeople. The English speaker said that he thought that the text was primarily for a non-expert audience as the terminology was “fairly everyday language”.
Therefore, after this small-scale pilot study, the text was deemed to be suitable as there were mixed perceptions of the TT function, audience etc. Furthermore, the text was not perceived as being highly difficult and only for experts which was positive as this would probably mean ST-orientation as default.

3.1.5. Correspondence with the translation companies

54 translation companies were contacted of which 10 accepted to participate. To make the study as naturalistic and as ecologically valid as possible, translators were studied in their habitual working environment with as little researcher influence as possible. In this way, the behaviour of the subjects corresponds to their normal behaviour (their behaviour in reality). Therefore, only project managers were contacted (or at least this was the intention, however, in some cases, the email was sent to translators as well, which meant that they were not able to participate in the study) and asked whether they were interested in helping. The project managers were informed about the focus of the project. They were informed that if they were willing to participate, the translator was not allowed to know that s/he was translating the text for a thesis, at least not before the completion of the translation task. Furthermore, the relevant project manager was asked to treat the translation task as a normal translation job. If the translator asked for more information concerning the function and the receiver of the TT, the project manager was to contact me, and I would give them my brief.

The reason why the translators were not told that they were participating in research for a Master thesis was that it might have limited the validity of the research as they might have translated differently, e.g. because they were afraid to be perceived as poor translators. Another reason for not informing the translators of their participation in a research project was that they would not take the translation task as seriously as they normally would. In their Master thesis, Sandberg and Jonstrup (2006) gave their three participating translators a vague brief. Their perception was that real-life translation briefs are often short and inadequate and therefore, to figure out to what degree their translators used the brief, and what they do if their brief is not sufficiently informative, they only gave their translators sparse information about the function, medium, receiver
etc. In this way, they tried to make the translation situation as realistic as possible. They told their participants that they could always be contacted if questions arose about the brief. However, their translators never asked them further questions about the brief, and the researchers thought that the translators might not have treated the task as a real task and just have translated based on the information they already had, because the translation situation was not a real translation situation. Therefore, to avoid that the translators participating in this thesis would treat the translation task with less seriousness than they normally would, they were not informed prior to the task that they were part of Master thesis research. By not knowing that the translation is to be used for research, it is not only avoided that the translators will not take it as seriously, but also the opposite effect is avoided, i.e. that the translators do not invest more time than usual to produce a result which will be a high standard because they do not want to lose face, and also, because they might not have as strict a deadline as they normally do. Therefore, the fact that the translators were not aware of the translation being used for research strengthens the ecological validity of the research.

The translators did not get a translation brief or any context. In this way, they were forced to contact me or make decisions concerning target receiver and purpose of TT, and in that way establish skopos without a translation brief. It was also going to be interesting to see whether the professional translators would ask their project manager/me for a brief.

The ST was sent to the project managers of the different translation businesses, and they were given fairly long deadlines. After receiving the TTs, each project manager was asked whether this translation process had differed from the normal procedure in any way (except for the obvious difference being that the process did not include an invoice).

### 3.1.6. Analysis sheet for 10 TTs

Also, a sheet was elaborated for the analysis of the 10 TTs (please see appendix 14). The 11 ST elements were included in the sheet as well as their 11 TT counterparts. The next column has room for the assignment of a microstrategy or several strategies as more than one can operate at the same time. The fourth column is used for any relevant comments.
In the bottom of the analysis sheet, overall comments about the TT in question can be made, and the overall macrostrategy assigned.

3.2. Questionnaire

3.2.1. Argumentation for choosing two empirical methods

To be able to get an overall impression of Danish professional translators and their views and behaviour concerning the use of translation briefs, method triangulation was used. In this way, it was possible to compensate for the potential weaknesses of using one method only. It was interesting to have both in-house translators and freelance translators participate in the study to be able to have an overall view and to be able to generalize about the Danish translation profession. Another reason for having two empirical studies was to both investigate how translators proceed without a brief and also investigate what they say about how they proceed when they do not have a brief. Also, by using a questionnaire, it was possible to research the subquestion relating to translators’ attitudes toward briefs, i.e. whether they think that they are important.

3.2.2. Argumentation for choosing a questionnaire

One of the reasons for choosing a questionnaire (e.g. as opposed to an interview or the like) was the time limit connected to the research project. Questionnaires do not require spending a lot of time, and at the same time, they provide relatively reliable information (Andersen 1999: 209). Another reason for choosing a questionnaire was to avoid interference from an interviewer as this could negatively affect the results. Furthermore, in questionnaires, the participants also have plenty of time to think about their answers before they fill out the questionnaire (Andersen 1999: 209). Finally, there was a methodological and practical reason for not choosing an interview: the participating translators who translated the medical text did not know before doing so that they were participating in a research project. Therefore, it might have been very difficult getting them to participate in interviews afterwards or find that it is too extensive a workload.
3.2.3. Respondents

Questionnaires were sent out to professional translators who were found through the websites of Dansk Translatørforbund (the Danish Association of State- Authorized Translators and Interpreters) and Translatørforeningen (the Association of Danish Authorized Translators). Both of these organisations have online member lists; Dansk Translatørforbund has 98 members, out of which 50 translate English, and Translatørforeningen has 240 members, out of which 126 translate English.

Specific selection criteria for the respondents were used to ensure that it was possible to make general conclusions and to be able to compare this part of the study to the other part relating to the translation task. Therefore, it was ensured that only translators from the two above-mentioned websites were contacted as only state-authorised translators are members of these associations and therefore, listed on their websites. Furthermore, also to be able to compare the two studies, only translators with the language combination English-Danish were included as respondents.

The member lists on the websites of the two associations have 176 state-authorised translators translating English-Danish. Of course, there could be other state-authorised freelance translators translating English-Danish in Denmark who are simply not members of these associations, and therefore, Dansk Translatørforbund and Translatørforeningen were contacted to see whether they were aware of the total number of state-authorised translators translating English-Danish in Denmark. Both associations replied that they are not aware of the total number. One association said that they can only establish that there are several thousand translators with authorisation, but they are unaware of what they do. Therefore, the population of 176 could seem like a small portion of the total population. It could, however, be suspected that many of the translators who are not members of these two associations are not working as translators. The group of 176 translators is, however, the only accessible population for this study.

Because of the scope and resources (especially in connection with time) of this research project, it was not possible to involve the entire population. Instead a spot test was carried out and the questionnaire sent to 82 translators who were systematically, but randomly selected from the above-mentioned websites. The translators appear on the websites in alphabetical order so systematic sampling performed by using every other
translator from the two websites was not a problem. (This type of systematic sampling would e.g. have been a problem if the translators were organised geographically or according to years of experience). The random selection was only deviated from in special cases, such as if the translators did not live in Denmark, or if they were involved in the other empirical study. The latter was done to avoid putting an excessive workload on the translators participating in that part of the study. However, in one case, this happened anyway, but this is not perceived as a methodological problem.

To ensure the validity of the results, it was important that the participating translators were at least somewhat experienced translators with established work behaviour and patterns. Responses from translators who are new to the profession might not be very valuable as results as these translators might not have had many translation jobs to base their experience and hence responses on. Therefore, at the end of the questionnaire, the participating translators were asked how many years of professional translation experience they had. The results showed that the majority of the respondents had many years of experience with 85.1% of all respondents having more than five years of experience, and of these, 61.7% had more than 10 years. Only one respondent (2.1%) could be considered a novice in the translation profession with less than 1 year of professional translation experience.

The respondents were contacted by use of email containing a link to the web-based questionnaire.

3.2.4. Elaboration of the questionnaire

3.2.4.1 The structure of the questionnaire

Based on the literature and theory on the elaboration of questionnaires, an introduction which stated who the data collector is, why the research is conducted and why the respondents were selected was put in an email sent to the respondents. The email also contained a link to the questionnaire. In this way, the respondents were able to get all the information about the purpose of the project, how long it would take to fill out the questionnaire, that it was anonymous etc. before they used the link and filled out the questionnaire. In the introduction to the actual questionnaire, there was information about
how to complete the questionnaire, how long it would take and how the data would be used (Moser-Mercer 2008: 152).

With regards to the order of the questions, the questions concerning professional experience and gender were intentionally put at the end as also suggested by the literature (e.g. Andersen 1999: 213). This was to ensure that these rather standard (and perhaps more boring) questions did not discourage the participants from completing out the rest of the questionnaire.

3.2.4.2. The content and wording of the questionnaire

Some of the following theory about questionnaires has been inspired by Barbara Moser-Mercer’s work with questionnaires in interpreting research (Moser-Mercer 2008). Even though her questionnaires deal with interpreting, the methodology and guidelines can easily be used for translation as well. One of her main suggestions is to be economical, which means that only the minimum amount of information should be included in questionnaires as the respondents’ time is precious (Moser-Mercer 2008: 148). Asking too many questions could affect the return rate of the questionnaires, because the respondents might give up half way through.

As far as the structure of the questionnaire is concerned, there is always an option of categorizing the questions into fixed questions and open-ended questions. Fixed questions mean that the respondents select an answer from a limited and predetermined amount of answers by the researcher. Open-ended questions, however, are not structured, an example of this being comment-type questions (Moser-Mercer 2008: 149). Both open-ended and fixed questions were used as both have advantages. This means that my questionnaire was both qualitative and quantitative. Fixed questions are easy to classify, and especially if there are a lot of respondents, it can be highly difficult to compare the results of numerous answers to open-ended questions (Darmer & Freytag 2002: 185). As far as open-ended questions are concerned, their strength is that they can provide the researcher with rich information and ensure that the respondents do not feel constrained by the predefined answers and they have a chance to say exactly what they think/mean/feel (Moser-Mercer 2008: 149). Also, by using a high degree of structure, and
thus not giving the respondents the possibility of commenting/writing longer answers, the study becomes very inflexible. By only giving predefined and closed answer categories, there is the risk that the way the researcher views the situation and reality is forced upon the respondents (Launso & Rieper 2005: 100).

Therefore, due to these different advantages, and due to the nature of the research question, a mix of both types of questions was chosen for the questionnaire.

3.2.4.3. The language used in the questionnaire

When elaborating questionnaires, it is important to be aware of using language and wording which is easy to understand, i.e. technical terms should be avoided. Furthermore, the researcher must ensure that words and terms are used that have the same meaning for the entire population (Andersen 2006: 55). Therefore, the term ‘translation brief’ (or the Danish term for it) was not used in the questionnaire. First of all, some translators might not be familiar with the term and what it comprises, and also, the term might not mean the exact same thing for the entire population. Therefore, the words ‘funktion’ (function) and ‘modtager’ (receiver) have been used instead. Also, I aspired to avoid leading questions as they could harm the validity of the results (Andersen 2006: 56). However, in order to investigate the subquestion concerning ST- versus TT-orientation when translating without a brief, it was necessary to make it somewhat explicit what sort of answer was needed in order to aid the respondents.

3.2.5 Increasing the response rate

One of the disadvantages of questionnaires is that the response rate can be very low and therefore, measures were taken to ensure that the response rate is as high as possible. One way to ensure a greater response rate is to make the questionnaire short (Andersen 1999: 215). Therefore, because of this, and because of what was mentioned above concerning asking only for the necessary information, this questionnaire has been kept very brief with nine questions, including two quick questions concerning experience and gender. Another way to increase the amount of participating respondents is to ensure anonymity
as some might choose not to participate if they feel it might be face-threatening or invade their privacy (Andersen 1999: 215). Another problem concerning a low response rate is that some respondents might not be interested in the subject, or they might simply forget to return and fill out the questionnaire (Darmer & Freytag 2002: 188). Therefore, in the introduction to the questionnaire in the email, it was emphasised how the research could be interesting to the respondents or how it could possibly help them in their future work and to ensure that the translators did not forget to fill out the questionnaire, a relatively short timeframe of one week was given. Darmer & Freytag (2002: 189) suggests a time-limit of 4-5 days. After the deadline, a reminder was sent out to the respondents to get a slightly higher response rate. Also, as one of the major problems concerning the response rate in questionnaires is the time-frame respondents have to use to participate (Andersen 2004: 215), it was emphasized that the questionnaire could be completed in about five to ten minutes.

Furthermore, to ensure that it is as easy as possible for the respondents to use and fill out the questionnaire, it was sent out by use of email containing a link which the respondents could then open and after filling out, the questionnaire was submitted automatically. In this way, the respondents’ anonymity was ensured, which is also a way of increasing the response rate as some might otherwise feel that answering some of the questions could be threatening to their professional reputation.

3.2.6. Pre-testing of the questionnaire

According to Moser-Mercer, “pre-testing and expert review are among the best ways to ensure validity and reliability” when it comes to questionnaires (Moser-Mercer 2008: 151). This means that the questionnaire should be tested on people from the relevant sample population before the final questionnaire is sent out and furthermore, the questionnaire should be sent to an expert in the field. Because of the limited amount of translators in the sample population, and because it can be difficult to get participants to complete out a questionnaire (Andersen 1999: 215), eight post-graduate translation students were instead asked to test the questionnaire. This is not a major issue according to Andersen (2006: 61), who says that if it is not possible to test a questionnaire on the
relevant sample population, it is important to test it anyway even though this is not on an exactly similar population and the size of the sample is smaller as long as the people participating in the pilot study are similar to the target population (Darmer & Freytag 2002: 186). The test respondents were asked if they were able to understand every individual question and how they understood it, whether they were able to understand the instructions. As far as the expert is concerned, the questionnaire was sent to translation professor Karen Korning Zethsen for review. The comments made by and the modifications suggested by the students and the expert were implemented before it was sent out.

3.2.7. Response rate analysis

Of the 82 translators contacted, 47 filled out the questionnaire. It was expected that some respondents would not participate, and because the questionnaire was 100% anonymous, it is not possible to see which translators answered and who did not. However, it is deemed that the part of the population that did not fill out the questionnaire is very similar to the translators who did fill it out, and therefore, this does not pose any methodological problem (Harboe 2006: 86). Furthermore, some of the translators who did not fill out the questionnaire contacted me by email, and explained why they did not participate. The reasons were e.g. that they were not active translators at the time or that they had specialised in one area, and therefore only worked for the same clients meaning that the target receiver and the function would always already be known. These responses showed that these translators probably would not fit in the target group for the questionnaire anyway, and they might even have made the results less reliable.
4. Analysis

In this section, the data from the two empirical studies will be analysed and discussed. The data from the two studies will be analysed separately, and there will be an ongoing discussion of the results.

Firstly, the data from the translation task performed by the 10 translators, i.e. the 10 TTs will be presented and analysed. As a starting point, it will be investigated how many of the translators asked for a brief. Then, the TTs made by translators who had asked for a brief will be analysed. This will be done to investigate the research question whether translators with a brief use it and whether they fulfil skopos. Afterwards, the TTs made without the use of a brief will be analysed. The analysis will commence on micro level by establishing which microstrategies the translators have used. This will be followed by establishing whether the translators opted for an ST-oriented or a TT-oriented macrostrategy. Finally, the macrostrategies of the TTs made with a brief and the TT made without will be compared. The analysis will be based on the theoretical framework concerning skopos theory, microstrategies and the translation of Latin-based terms presented above. Finally, this section will contain a conclusion in which the translation task results are compared with the elaborated research questions and hypotheses.

Section two of this chapter contains the analysis of the questionnaire responses. The analysis will be based on the theoretical framework presented above and the elaborated research questions and hypotheses. At first, it will be investigated whether translators normally receive briefs from their clients, and then what they (say they) do if they do not receive one. It will also be analysed how the respondents use briefs, whether they are able to establish skopos without one, and finally, whether they think briefs are important.
4.1. Results from 10 translation tasks

Because TAPs and/or follow-up interviews were not conducted in connection with the medical translation in this study (please also see methodology chapter for reasons these were not conducted), the products of the translation process, i.e. the TTs, were the data to be analysed. This means that because it was not possible to ask the translators, in order to be able to investigate whether the translators were able to establish the translation skopos from the ST, their translations had to be analysed for applied microstrategies and in that way, conclude whether a predominantly ST-oriented macrostrategy or a predominantly TT-oriented macrostrategy was used.

In some cases, it was difficult to analyse the micro elements and to assign microstrategies; therefore, to ensure as much objectivity as possible, for some of the elements, especially the Latin-based terms, an informal inquiry was conducted to ensure these terms were in fact incomprehensible for laypeople. For the other choices, my analysis and assignment of microstrategies were based on my linguistic background and my native-speaker intuition.

4.1.1. The skopos for the ST

As mentioned above, the first rule of the skopos theory is that the skopos is the determining factor for translation strategies. Furthermore, the first step in Nord’s process model is the analysis and interpretation of the translation brief and establishment of translation skopos. Therefore, in order to investigate whether the 10 translators have been able to find out what the skopos of the TT is, skopos must first be established. When skopos is established, it is possible to choose the overall macrostrategy.

To figure out who the TT receiver is and what his needs are, the following reader profiles will be used. In their book on medical translation, Resurrecció & Davies (2007: 53) introduces five reader profiles:

- General reader
- Patient
- Student
- Health professional
Based on the brief, the skopos of this TT is to make a text for general readers and patients, i.e. women with gestational diabetes. These reader profiles need medical information in order to prevent the condition or treat the condition (Resurrecció & Davies 2007: 53). Furthermore, the TT medium is a brochure/pamphlet, which means that the layout and content should be fairly simple.

Overall, the translation strategy on macro level should be TT-oriented to ensure that all the receivers understand the text as they cannot be expected to be familiar with specialized terminology. This means that on micro level, TT-oriented translation strategies should be used and the text should not contain medical terminology which is unknown to non-experts without a medical background.

4.1.2. Analysis of microstrategies and macrostrategies
Firstly, all of the TTs were put in a pile, and randomly marked ‘TT1-TT10’. The 10 translations can be found as appendices 4-13. They were then read and analysed by use of the ‘analysis sheet’ (please see appendix 14). The two TTs elaborated by translators who had received a brief were not singled out until after the preliminary analysis. This was to avoid any bias concerning the microstrategies and functionality of the two TTs made with a brief. All the TTs were then analysed more closely and after analysis, each text was read to get a feel for the microstrategies in context and the overall complexity and formality of the texts. Overall comments about the individual text and the translation strategies used were then made. All these steps enabled me to conclude on the macrostrategy of each translation and conclude whether the intended skopos had been established.

It should be noted that it will not be included in the analysis where translators have used the wrong terms when this is irrelevant for the analysis. An example is that in some TTs, the translators have translated hypoglycaemic using hyperglycaemic and the other way around. This could simply be because they use Trados or another translation tool which have suggested this term because there is a close match with the above terms.
This is an interesting phenomenon, but it is not within the scope of this thesis to investigate it.

4.1.3. Translation brief
At first, it is interesting to see how many of the 10 translators actually asked for a brief, or for more information about the ST and the potential TT. Only two of the 10 translators contacted me and asked for a brief. The eight other translators proceeded without a brief.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Asked for brief</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
<th>TT4</th>
<th>TT5</th>
<th>TT6</th>
<th>TT7</th>
<th>TT8</th>
<th>TT9</th>
<th>TT10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did not ask for brief</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1.4. Analysis of two TTs made with brief
Below are the two analysis sheets in which the TTs made with a brief have been analysed individually by assigning each micro level element with a microstrategy and then assigning each TT with an overall macrostrategy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST item</th>
<th>TT item</th>
<th>Microstrategy</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gestational diabetes</td>
<td>Graviditetsdiabetes</td>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>The Danish term has been used. The Danish term is also a medical term, but because it consists of the words ‘graviditet’ (pregnancy) and ‘diabetes’, it is much easier to understand for a non-expert than ‘gestationel diabetes’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbohydrate intolerance of</td>
<td>Varierende grad af følsomhed over for</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>The phrase structure has been changed. Instead of a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varying degrees of severity</td>
<td>kulhydrater</td>
<td>compound noun such as ‘kulhydratintolerance’, the Danish word ’følsomhed’ has been used followed by a preposition. This makes the phrase structure less complex and formal and easier to read for a non-expert</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With onset or first recognition</td>
<td>Der opstår eller opdages</td>
<td>Paraphrase The word class is changed from nouns to verbs. Maintaining the nouns would make the register and formality level in Danish very high, so this strategy helps the TT receiver understand the text</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family history</td>
<td>Diabetes i familien</td>
<td>Paraphrase Construction is paraphrased and simplified</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-existing diabetes condition</td>
<td>Allerede eksisterende diabetessygdom</td>
<td>Direct translation Fairly directly translated, however, not by use of the very complex adjective ‘præeksisterende’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insulin resistance</td>
<td>Modstandsdygtighed over for insulin</td>
<td>Paraphrase Using ‘modstandsdygtighed’, which is a more Danish-sounding word than ‘resistens’, makes the text less formal and more oriented towards the non-expert. Also, instead of a compound noun such as ‘insulinresistens’ or ‘insulinmodstandsdygtighed’, a preposition has been used.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(resistance to insulin) This makes the phrase structure less complex and formal and easier to read for a non-expert.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medical Term</th>
<th>Danish Term</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hyperglycemia</td>
<td>Blodsukkeret stiger til over det normale niveau</td>
<td>Paraphrase/explicitation</td>
<td>The Danish term is used and the sense of the word is made explicit by an thorough explanation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypertension</td>
<td>Forhøjet blodtryk</td>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>The Danish non-expert term is used making it easier for intended TT receiver to understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-eclampsia</td>
<td>Svangerskabsforgiftning</td>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>The Danish non-expert term is used. Even though the receiver might not know exactly what ‘svangerskabsforgiftning’ entails, they would have heard about it before. Also, by using the Danish term which consists of ‘svangerskab’ (pregnancy) and ‘forgiftning’ (poisoning), the receiver can elicit information about this condition. The expert term ‘præeklamsi’ does not provide a non-expert with any helpful information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-natal obesity problem</td>
<td>Overvægt efter fødslen</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>The phrase structure has been changed. Instead of using the very formal premodification ‘postnatal’, a postmodification</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
which is less complex (‘after the birth’) has been applied

Hypoglycemic | For højt blodsukkerniveau | Oblique | The Danish term has been used

**Overall comments:** All the Latin-based medical terms have been translated using non-expert Danish terms. Furthermore, explicitation has been used to ensure that the text is understood by the non-expert receiver. The phrase structure has also been simplified.

**Assigned macrostrategy and establishment of intended skopos:** The overall macrostrategy is very TT-oriented, and the translation very functional. The translator has used the brief and established the intended skopos.

**ANALYSIS SHEET FOR 10 TTs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TT3</th>
<th>ST item</th>
<th>TT item</th>
<th>Microstrategy</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gestational diabetes</td>
<td>Graviditetsbetinget sukkersyge</td>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>The Danish term has been used. The Danish term is also a medical term, but because it consists of the words ‘graviditetsbetinget’ (pregnancy-conditional) and ‘sukkersyge’ (diabetes), it is much easier to understand for a non-expert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Carbohydrate intolerance of varying degrees of severity</td>
<td>Glukoseintolerance af varierende sværhedsgrad</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>The translation is direct both lexically and structurally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenario</td>
<td>Translated Text</td>
<td>Paraphrase/Explicitation</td>
<td>Reason</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With onset or first recognition</td>
<td>Der debuterer eller først erkendes</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>Transposition, using verbs instead of nouns making it easier to understand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family history</td>
<td>Tidligere tilfælde af sukkersyge i familien</td>
<td>Paraphrase/explicitation</td>
<td>Construction is paraphrased and simplified</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-existing diabetes condition</td>
<td>Sukkersyge før graviditeten</td>
<td>Paraphrase/explicitation</td>
<td>Instead of using the highly formal premodification ‘præeksisterende’, a postmodification with a preposition (før graviditeten) has been used. This makes the text less formal and easier to read and understand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insulin resistance</td>
<td>Resistens over for stoffet insulin</td>
<td>Paraphrase/explicitation</td>
<td>Instead of a compound noun such as ‘insulinresistens’, a preposition has been used. (Resistance to insulin) This makes the phrase structure less complex and formal and easier to read for a non-expert</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperglycemia</td>
<td>Blodsukkerniveauet stiger</td>
<td>Oblique/Explicitation</td>
<td>The non-expert term, which is easy to understand for the non-expert receiver, is used</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition</td>
<td>Danish Term</td>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypertension</td>
<td>Forhøjet blodtryk (hypertension)</td>
<td>Explicitation</td>
<td>The Danish non-Latin-based term is used. The Latin-based medical term is maintained in parentheses.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-eclampsia</td>
<td>Svangerskabsfølgiftning</td>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>The Danish non-expert term is used. Even though the receivers might not know exactly what ‘svangerskabsfølgiftning’ entails, they would have heard about it before. Also, by using the Danish term which consists of ‘svangerskab’ (pregnancy) and ‘følgiftning’ (poisoning), the receiver can elicit information about this condition. The expert term ‘præeklamsi’ would not have provided a non-expert with any helpful information.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-natal obesity problem</td>
<td>Fedmeproblemer efter fødslen</td>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>The phrase structure is changed by deleting the premodification and paraphrasing. It makes the phrase much easier to understand.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypoglycemic | For lavt blodsukker | Oblique | The Danish non-expert term is used. This term is known to the non-expert receiver

**Overall comments:** All the Latin-based medical terms have been translated using non-expert Danish terms and the formal and complex phrase structures have not been maintained in the TT. In one case (‘Hypertension’), the Latin-based term is transferred and placed in parentheses. There might be good reasons for also maintaining the expert term in the TT. The technical terms are standardised and carry one specific meaning. Also, they can help the patient communicate with the doctor during the continued clinical management of the gestational diabetes (Albin 1998: 125). This is therefore another sign that the TT has been targeted at the intended receiver group, i.e. pregnant woman with gestational diabetes who will have to communicate with doctors concerning this.

**Assigned macrostrategy and establishment of intended skopos:** The overall macrostrategy is TT-oriented, and the translation is very functional. The translator has used the brief and established the intended skopos.

### 4.1.4.1. Conclusion about two translations made with briefs

The two translators who asked for a brief made very functional TT-oriented translations. They were able to establish the skopos I had intended and were therefore able to make translations which fulfil the skopos of informing non-experts about gestational diabetes. All the expert Latin-based terms were translated by use of Danish non-expert terms, and the complex phrase structures with formal premodifications were not maintained but were instead paraphrased into less formal phrases much easier to understand for a non-expert receiver needing quick and easy information in a brochure.

In conclusion, for these two translations, having a brief and knowing who the receiver was, led to very functional translations which fulfilled skopos.

### 4.1.5. The eight TTs made without a brief

In the following, the eight TTs which were made without a brief will be analysed.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST item</th>
<th>TT item</th>
<th>Microstrategy</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gestational diabetes</td>
<td>Gestationel diabetes</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>This is perceived as a direct translation, not a calque as the TT might not be unidiomatic and incomprehensible as the term is explained in the next sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbohydrate intolerance of varying degrees of severity</td>
<td>Kulhydrat-intolerans af variende sværhedsgrad</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>The translation is direct both lexically and structurally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With onset or first recognition</td>
<td>Der begynder eller diagnosticeres</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>The word class is changed from noun to verbs. Maintaining the nouns would make register and formality in Danish very high, so this strategy helps the TT receiver understand the text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family history</td>
<td>Familiære tilfælde</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Very formal to use the adjective ‘familiære’ in this context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-existing</td>
<td>Fortilfælde af</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>The phrase has been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diabetes condition</td>
<td>Gestationel diabetes</td>
<td>paraphrased in Danish, however, it is not made much simpler as the term ‘fortilfælde’ is a quite formal term in Danish.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insulin resistance</td>
<td>Insulinresistens</td>
<td>Direct translation Directly translated, but still understandable for non-expert receiver as it is more commonly used in non-expert discourse than other medical terms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperglycemia</td>
<td>Hyperglykæmi</td>
<td>Calque As mentioned above, this would normally be perceived as a direct translation, but here, it is labeled ‘calque’ because it will be unidiomatic and maybe even impossible to understand for the TT non-expert receiver</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypertension</td>
<td>Forhøjet blodtryk</td>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>The Danish non-expert term is used making it easier for intended TT receiver to understand the text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-eclampsia</td>
<td>Præ-eklampsxi</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>As mentioned above, this would normally be perceived as a direct translation, but here, it is labeled ‘calque’ because it will be too formal and maybe even impossible to understand for the TT non-expert receiver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-natal obesity problem</td>
<td>Overvægtsproblem efter fødslen</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>The phrase structure is changed by deleting the premodification and paraphrasing. It makes the phrase much easier to understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypoglycemic</td>
<td>Hypoglykæmisk</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>As mentioned above, this would normally be perceived as a direct translation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Professional Translators’ Establishment of Skopos - A ‘Brief’ Study  
Matilde Nisbeth Jensen

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST item</th>
<th>TT item</th>
<th>Microstrategy</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gestational diabetes</td>
<td>Gestationel diabetes</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>This is perceived as a direct translation, not a calque as the TT might not be unidiomatic and incomprehensible as the term is explained in the next sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbohydrate intolerance of varying degrees of severity</td>
<td>En mere eller mindre alvorlig allergi over for kulhydrater</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>The difficult postmodification ’of varying degrees of severity’ has been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Overall comments:** Many of the English Latin-based terms (e.g. hypoglycemic, hyperglycemia, pre-eclampsia) are directly transferred into the Danish TT making the formality level very high and the text very expert-oriented.

**Assigned macrostrategy and establishment of intended skopos:** Mainly ST-oriented and expert-oriented which means that skopos has not been established and fulfilled.
| With onset or first recognition | Som starter eller først opdages under graviditeten | Paraphrase | The word class is changed from nouns to verbs. Maintaining the nouns would have made the register and formality in Danish very high, so this strategy helps the TT receiver understand the text. Also, the verb ‘opdages’ is easier to understand than the one used in the above TT (TT 1) ‘diagnosticeres’.

| Family history | Sukkersyge i familien | Paraphrase | Construction is paraphrased and simplified.

| Pre-existing diabetes condition | Tidligere tilfælde af graviditetsbetinget sukkersyge | Paraphrase | Using ‘tidligere tilfælde’ instead of e.g. ‘præeksisterende’ makes the register and tone less formal.

| Insulin resistance | Modstandsdygtighed over for insulin | Paraphrase | Using ‘modstandsdygtighed’ which is a more
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hyperglycemia</td>
<td>Hypoglykæmi</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>The Latin-based term is directly transferred making this part difficult to understand for the non-expert receiver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypertension</td>
<td>For højt blodtryk</td>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>The Danish non-expert term is used making it easier for intended TT receivers to understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-eclampsia</td>
<td>Præeklamps</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>The Latin-based term is directly transferred making this part difficult to understand for the non-expert receiver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-natal obesity problem</td>
<td>Overvægt efter fødslen</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>The heavy premodification ‘postnatal’ has not been maintained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypoglycemic</td>
<td>Kan have hypoglykæmi</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>The Latin-based term is directly transferred making this part difficult to understand</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall comments: Many of 11 ST elements on phrase level such as ‘post-natal obesity problem’, ‘pre-existing diabetes condition’, ‘carbohydrate intolerance of varying degrees of severity’ have been translated using TT-oriented strategies. These have been paraphrased and rendered in more non-expert way in the Danish TT. However, many of the individual Latin-based terms have been translated quite literally such as ‘pre-eclampsia’ and ‘hypoglycemic’, and these terms would not be understood by a Danish non-expert.

Assigned macrostrategy and establishment of intended skopos: There seems to be a mix of overall strategies. On phrase level, a TT-oriented strategy has been applied by paraphrasing complex structures as opposed to word level where the strategy is ST-oriented towards experts. However, because the Latin-based terms are maintained, intended skopos has not been fully established and fulfilled and therefore, the overall assigned macrostrategy is ST-orientation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TT4</th>
<th>ST item</th>
<th>TT item</th>
<th>Microstrategy</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gestational diabetes</td>
<td>Svangerskabsdiabetes</td>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>The Danish term has been used. The Danish term is also a medical term, but because it consists of ‘svangerskab’ (pregnancy) and ‘diabetes’, it is much easier to understand for a non-expert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Carbohydrate</td>
<td>Glukoseintolerance af</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>Directly transferred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>intolerance of varying degrees of severity</strong></td>
<td><strong>varierende sværhedsgrad</strong></td>
<td><strong>both lexically and structurally</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>With onset or first recognition</strong></td>
<td>Opstår eller diagnosticeres første gang</td>
<td><strong>Paraphrase</strong></td>
<td><strong>Use of verbs instead of nouns making it easier to read</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family history</strong></td>
<td>Tidligere tilfælde af diabetes i familien</td>
<td><strong>Paraphrase</strong></td>
<td><strong>Construction is paraphrased and simplified</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pre-existing diabetes condition</strong></td>
<td>Eksisterende diabetestilstand</td>
<td><strong>Direct translation</strong></td>
<td><strong>Fairly directly translated, however, not by use of the very complex adjective ‘præeksisterende’</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Insulin resistance</strong></td>
<td>Insulinresistens</td>
<td><strong>Direct translation</strong></td>
<td><strong>Directly translated, but still understandable for non-expert receiver as it is more commonly used in non-expert discourse than other medical terms</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hyperglycemia</strong></td>
<td>Forhøjet blodsukker (hyperglykæmi)</td>
<td><strong>Explicitation</strong></td>
<td><strong>The non-expert is used, but at the same time, the specialized term is maintained in parentheses</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Danish Term</td>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Explanation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypertension</td>
<td>Forhøjet blodtryk</td>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>The non-expert term which is easy to understand for the non-expert receiver is used</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-eclampsia</td>
<td>Svangerskabsførgiftning (præeklampsip)</td>
<td>Explicitation</td>
<td>The non-expert term is used, but at the same time, the specialized term is maintained in parentheses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-natal obesity problem</td>
<td>Svær overvægt efter fødslen</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>The heavy premodification is changed by use of a simpler construction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypoglycemic</td>
<td>Lavt blodsukker</td>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>The non-expert term is used. This term is known by non-experts.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Overall comments:** This translator uses purely Danish non-experts terms for the translation of the Latin-based English terms. In two cases (‘Forhøjet blodsukker/hyperglykæmi’ and ‘Pre-eclampsia/præeklampsip’), the Latin-based term is also transferred and placed in parentheses. There might be good reasons for also maintaining the expert term in the TT. The technical terms are standardised and carry one specific meaning. Also, they can help the patient communicate with the doctor during the continued clinical management of the gestational diabetes.

**Assigned macrostrategy and establishment of intended skopos:** The translation strategy on macro level is mainly TT-oriented. In this case, the translator has been able to establish skopos and use the terms suitable for the intended receiver, i.e. non-experts.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST item</th>
<th>TT item</th>
<th>Microstrategy</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gestational diabetes</td>
<td>Svangerskabsdiabetes</td>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>The Danish term has been used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The Danish term is also a medical term, but because</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>it consists of ‘svangerskab’ (pregnancy) and ‘diabetes’, it is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>much easier to understand for a non-expert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbohydrate intolerance of varying</td>
<td>Kulhydratsintolerance af</td>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>Directly transferred both lexically and structurally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>degrees of severity</td>
<td>varierende sværhedsgrad</td>
<td>translation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With onset or first recognition</td>
<td>Som opstår eller opdages</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>Uses verbs instead of nouns making it easier to read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family history</td>
<td>Diabetes i familien</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>Construction is paraphrased</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-existing diabetes condition</td>
<td>En allerede eksisterende</td>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>Fairly directly translated, however, not by use of the very complex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>diabetestilstand</td>
<td>translation</td>
<td>adjective ‘præeksisterende’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Direct Translation</td>
<td>Explanation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insulin resistance</td>
<td>Insulinresistens</td>
<td>Directly translated, but still understandable for the non-expert receiver as it is more commonly used in non-expert discourse than other medical terms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperglycemia</td>
<td>Blodsukkeret stiger og bliver for højt (hyperglykæmi)</td>
<td>Explicitation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypertension</td>
<td>Forhøjet blodtryk (hypertension)</td>
<td>Explicitation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-eclampsia</td>
<td>Svangerskabsførgiftning (præeklampsio)</td>
<td>Explicitation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-natal obesity problem</td>
<td>Fedmeproblem efter fødslen</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Complex premodification is changed and simplified in the
**TT6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST item</th>
<th>TT item</th>
<th>Microstrategy</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gestational diabetes</td>
<td>Gestationel Diabetes</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>The expert term is maintained, however, it is perceived as a direct translation, not a calque as the TT might not be unidiomatic and incomprehensible as the term is explained in the next sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbohydrate</td>
<td>Forskellige grader</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>Directly translated,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intolérance de degrés de</td>
<td>af kulhydratintolerans</td>
<td>structure just changed slightly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sévérité</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With onset or first</td>
<td>Der konstateres i løbet af en graviditet</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>Transposition, using verbs instead of nouns making it simpler and easier to understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recognition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family history</td>
<td>Familiaær diabetes</td>
<td>Direct translation/Calque</td>
<td>Uses an adjective (Familiaær) which might not be understood by the non-expert. It is a word which might seem foreign to the TT receiver and it makes the text more formal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-existing diabetes</td>
<td>Allerede eksisterende diabetes</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>Fairly directly translated, however, not by use of the very complex adjective ‘præeksisterende’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>condition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insulin resistance</td>
<td>Insulinresistens</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>Directly translated, but still understandable for non-expert receiver as it is more commonly used in non-expert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition</td>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>Expression</td>
<td>Comment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperglycemia</td>
<td>Hypoglykæmi</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Latin-based expert term maintained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypertension</td>
<td>Hypertension</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Latin-based expert term maintained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-eclampsia</td>
<td>Præeklampsı</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Latin-based expert term maintained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-natal obesity problem</td>
<td>Postnatale problemer med overvægt</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Very direct translation; the premodification ‘postnatal’ has been maintained making the TT very formal and possibly incomprehensible for the intended non-expert receiver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypoglycemic</td>
<td>Hypoglykæmi</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Latin-based expert term maintained</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Overall comments:** This TT is very formal and expert-oriented. There are predominantly used direct translations and calques and none of the medical terms have been explained or provided with a Danish non-expert term.

**Assigned macrostrategy and establishment of intended skopos:** The macrostrategy is very ST-oriented. The translator had an expert receiver in mind and made a TT that is very close to the ST by using only ST-oriented microstrategies. The intended skopos has not been established and fulfilled.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST item</th>
<th>TT item</th>
<th>Microstrategy</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gestational diabetes</td>
<td>Gestational diabetes</td>
<td>Direct transfer</td>
<td>The English Latin-based medical term is directly transferred. (The ‘a’ in gestational is probably a mistake)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbohydrate intolerance of varying degrees of severity</td>
<td>Kulhydratintolerance af varierende sværhedsgrad</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>Directly translated both lexically and structurally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With onset or first recognition</td>
<td>Som opstår eller først opdages</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>Transposition. Verbs are used instead of transferring nouns. It makes the text less formal and simpler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family history</td>
<td>Diabetes i familien</td>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>Construction is paraphrased and simplified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-existing diabetes condition</td>
<td>Pæeksisterende diabetes</td>
<td>Direct translation/calque</td>
<td>Maintaining the premodification ‘pæeksisterende’ in Danish makes the text highly formal and very complex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition</td>
<td>Danish Term</td>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insulin resistance</td>
<td>Insulinresistens</td>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>Directly translated, but still understandable for non-expert receiver as it is more commonly used in non-expert discourse than other medical terms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperglycemia</td>
<td>Hyperglykæmi</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Latin-based expert term maintained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypertension</td>
<td>Hypertension</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Latin-based expert term maintained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-eclampsia</td>
<td>Præeclampsii</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Latin-based expert term maintained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-natal obesity problem</td>
<td>Svær postnatal overvægt</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Very direct translation; the premodification ‘postnatal’ has been maintained making the TT very formal and possibly incomprehensible for the intended non-expert receiver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hypoglycemic</td>
<td>Hypoglykæmi</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Latin-based expert term maintained</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Overall comments:** This TT is very formal and expert-oriented. There are predominantly used direct translations and calques and none of the medical terms have been explained or provided with a Danish non-expert term. A few of the ST elements have been paraphrased, however, the use of the premodifications ‘præeksisterende’ and ‘postnatal’ shows that the translator has been translating with an expert receiver in mind as these adjectives belong to very specialised terminology in Danish.

**Assigned macrostrategy and establishment of intended skopos:** This TT is very ST-oriented. The intended skopos has not been established and fulfilled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TT9</th>
<th>ST item</th>
<th>TT item</th>
<th>Microstrategy</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gestational diabetes</td>
<td>Gestationel diabetes</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>The Latin-based medical term is maintained, however, it is perceived as a direct translation, not a calque as the TT might not be unidiomatic and incomprehensible as the term is explained in the next sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Carbohydrate intolerance of</td>
<td>Intolerance af forskellig</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>Directly translated both lexically and structurally (carbohydrate left out)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>varying degrees of severity</td>
<td>sværhedsgrad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>With onset or first</td>
<td>Med debut eller</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>The nouns have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>Danish</td>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Notes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recognition</td>
<td>første erkendelse</td>
<td></td>
<td>been maintained. Using verbs would make it less complex</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family history</td>
<td>Familier disposition</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>Uses an adjective (Familier) which might not be understood by the non-expert. It might seem foreign to the TT receiver, and it makes the text more formal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-existing</td>
<td>Præeksisterende</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Maintaining the premodification ‘præeksisterende’ in Danish makes the text highly formal and very complex</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diabetes condition</td>
<td>diabetes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insulin resistance</td>
<td>Insulinresistens</td>
<td>Direct translation</td>
<td>Directly translated, but still understandable for non-expert receiver as it is more commonly used in non-expert discourse than other medical terms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperglycemia</td>
<td>Hypoglykæmi</td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>The Latin-based medical term is maintained</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypertension | Hypertension | Calque | The Latin-based medical term is maintained
Pre-eclampsia | Præklampsi | Calque | The Latin-based medical term is maintained
Post-natal obesity problem | Svær overvægt efter fødslen | Paraphrase | Complex premodification is changed and simplified in the TT
Hypoglycemic | Hypoglykæmisk | Calque | The Latin-based medical term is maintained

**Overall comments:** All the Latin-based medical terms have been transferred directly and some of the complex phrase structures have been maintained as well such as maintaining the premodification ‘præeksisterende’.

**Assigned macrostrategy and establishment of intended skopos:** An ST-oriented macrostrategy has been applied; ST elements have been translated directly and the translator seems to have had an expert receiver in mind, i.e. the intended skopos has not been established and fulfilled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TT10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gestational diabetes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbohydrate intolerance of varying degrees of severity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With onset or first recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-existing diabetes condition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insulin resistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperglycemia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypertension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-eclampsia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-natal obesity problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypoglycemic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall comments: The microstrategies used are a mix of ST- and TT-oriented strategies. In a few places, the Latin-based expert term has been maintained (‘hyperglycemia’ and ‘hypoglycemic’) The other expert terms, however, have been translated by use of Danish non-expert terms.

Assigned macrostrategy and establishment of intended skopos: There seems to be a mix between an ST-oriented and a TT-oriented macrostrategy. The translator has somewhat been able to establish the skopos I intended, however, in a few places the TT is for experts.

4.1.5.1. Conclusion about eight translations made without briefs

As can be seen below in Figure 3, the translators without a brief made very different choices for their macro level strategies. One of the translators did not seem to have a fixed skopos in mind and thus opted for a mix between ST-orientation and TT-orientation. Some ST elements were translated by use of Danish non-expert terminology and some were directly transferred leading to very formal calques. It seemed that this translator, because s/he did not have a brief, was unsure of the intended skopos.

More interestingly, two of the translators were actually able to establish skopos without a brief, or at least, they translated for the non-expert receiver which the brief prescribed. These two translators made very functional, TT-oriented translations by using Danish non-expert terminology and by paraphrasing and explaining where necessary.

Finally, as expected, the majority (5) of the translators made very ST-oriented translations. These five translators maintained all the Latin-based medical terms which shows that they did not have the non-expert receiver prescribed by the brief in mind. Instead, they translated for an expert receiver, and in some cases, because Latin-based terms is less common in the Danish language, they actually made the TT more formal and complex than the ST. Examples of this are the direct translations of ‘preexisting/præeksisterende’ and ‘postnatal/postnatal’. Another example is the term ‘breathing problems’ which was not included in the analysis sheet, because it did not provide interesting microstrategy choices in the other TTs. The term in English belongs to non-expert terminology and would be understood by experts and non-experts alike,
however, one translator used the Danish term ‘respiratoriske problemer’ (respiratory problems; TT8). This shows that this translator definitely had an expert receiver in mind as s/he chose to make the text even more complex and formal than the ST.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macrostrategies of translators without a brief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A mix of ST- and TT-oriented macrostrategies, 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainly TT-oriented, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainly ST-oriented, 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3: Macrostrategies used by professional translators

**4.1.6. Conclusion for translation task**

Even though the translation task results are based on a somewhat small-scale study of 10 translators, it is still possible to draw some conclusions from it. Below, each research question is concluded upon individually.

**Do professional translators ask for a brief when they do not receive one from their client?**

One of the main research questions of this thesis was whether translators ask for a brief when they do not receive one. From this study, it seems that this is not the standard or the norm within the profession, at least not for in-house translators. Only 20% (2 translators) asked for a brief, whereas 80% (8 translators) did not.

When I contacted the translation companies, some of the project managers said that they are normally the ones who ask for briefs, because they have the contact with the clients. This means that some of the translators might not be used to ask for briefs.
themselves. However, this also means that these translators are used to having briefs, and therefore, it is surprising that they do not ask their project managers for one.

**How do professional translators translate when they have a brief? Do they translate according to the brief?**
Concerning the question how translators translate when they have a brief, i.e. whether they follow the instructions of the brief, this study shows that the translators use the brief actively. It seems that theory is correct in saying that having and using a brief enables the translator to make a functional translation. It can of course not be seen from this study whether translators with briefs always make functional translations as some translators might not use the brief they have received. However, in this task, probably because the two translators asked for it themselves they also chose to use it actively.

**How do professional translators translate when they do not have a brief?**
One of the main reasons why this kind of empirical study was conducted was to see how professional translators translate when they do not have a brief. The hypothesis was that the translators would translate very ST-oriented by staying close to the ST. It was possible to get some somewhat extensive data on this as eight of the 10 translators translated without a brief. However, the results showed that the eight translators translated somewhat differently and used very different micro- and macrostrategies ranging from TT-oriented and functional to extremely ST-orientated. The hypothesis was, however, somewhat confirmed. 62% (5 translators) of the eight translators without a brief translated very ST-oriented and stayed very close to the ST by transferring ST elements very directly. This shows that ST-orientation as default when translating without a brief does in fact happen in practice. Because the hypothesis was that the translators would opt for ST-orientation, it was actually expected that a greater percentage would choose to do so. However, one of the TTs (TT10) which was assigned with a mix of macrostrategies could also have fitted into this category if only some of the microstrategies had been analysed as some of them were very ST-oriented.

Practice does seem to be connected closely to theory when it comes to ST-orientation as the default translation procedure when translating without a brief. As
mentioned above, Tirkkonen-Condit and Ivir say that ST-orientation continues as long as the translator can find equivalents with the same meaning. Therefore, in this translation task, the translators might not have been alerted because the words they have used are in fact proper Danish terms and phrases and because they did not have a brief to guide them, they were not alerted about problems because they did not know that directly translating expert terms would be problematic in the context.

**Theory says that professional translators are sometimes able to establish skopos based on the translation situation and the ST without having received an explicit brief.**

As mentioned in the theory chapter, scholars say that professional translators are sometimes able to establish skopos based on the translation situation and the ST without having received an explicit brief. This was also the case here. Two of the eight translators without a brief translated very TT-oriented and functionally, which means that, consciously or subconsciously, they were able to establish skopos. Even though only 25% of the eight translators were able to establish skopos without a brief, this was very interesting to see especially because the ST purposely was very ambiguous so establishment of skopos was difficult.

**The importance of briefs**

The results from the translation task underline the importance of the translation brief. The two translators who had briefs made very TT-oriented and functional translations which fulfilled the translation skopos. These translations could have been used directly in the context they were intended for. The other eight translators made translations which ranged from TT-oriented translations to extremely ST-oriented translation. The majority of the translators (6 out of 8) were not able to establish the correct skopos, and therefore, their translations were not functional and useable for the intended non-expert receiver. This shows that briefs are indeed needed in the translation profession, and that it is not always possible to infer skopos from the ST and the translation situation only as claimed by some scholars. It was, however, interesting that this was actually possible for two of the eight translators. It is impossible to know why these two translators were in fact able
to establish skopos, and one could also not know whether this was mere coincidence, but in their situation, the ST and the translation situation was enough to base their correct establishment of skopos on.

In this empirical study, interesting aspects about 10 in-house translators’ use of briefs were studied. In the following, it will be studied how freelance translators use briefs.
4.2. Results from questionnaire

The analysis of the questionnaire results is based closely on the subquestions and hypotheses presented in the introduction. Each subquestion will be treated individually by analysing the questionnaire data. The questionnaire (in Danish) can be found in appendix 3 and the responses to the questionnaire can be found on the attached CD-ROM. To ensure that this section can potentially be understood by English speakers, the questions of the questionnaire and the responses used in the analysis have been translated into English. The Danish STs have been placed in footnotes.

4.2.1. Do professional translators normally receive briefs from their clients?

The answer to this question is based on questionnaire questions 1 ‘When you receive a new translation job, are you told who the receiver of the translation is?’ and 2 ‘When you receive a translation job, are you told what the function of translation is, i.e. what it is to be used for and in which context?’

As seen in Table 1 below, the questionnaire results show that out of the 47 respondents, 17% always receive information concerning TT receiver, 44.7% often receive this information, 21.3% receive this sometimes and 17% rarely receive information about receiver. None of the respondents said that they never receive information concerning receiver.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer Options</th>
<th>Response Percent</th>
<th>Response Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>44.7%</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 Når du modtager en ny oversættelsesopgave, får du så at vide, hvem modtageren af oversættelsen er?
3 Når du modtager en ny oversættelsesopgave får du så at vide, hvad oversættelsens funktion er, dvs. hvad den skal bruges til og i hvilken kontekst?
With regard to the questions whether the translators receive information about TT function and context, of the 47 respondents, 12.8% said that they always receive information about function and context, 44.7% often receive this information, 27.7% said they receive it sometimes and 14.9% rarely receive information about TT function and context. None of the respondents said that they never receive this information (please see Table 2 below).

Because the translators could not be expected to know exactly what a translation brief is, they were asked if they receive information about receiver and function of the translation. As briefs are defined as “the explicit instructions given by the client or negotiated
between the client and the translator”, information given by the client about receiver and function can be viewed as a brief.

The responses show that translators actually receive a brief quite often. Even though 15-17% of the translators are rarely provided with briefs and that shows that practice does not fully live up to what is prescribed in theory, when comparing my results with literature on this subject and the results of scholars doing similar research (e.g. Fraser, Schjoldager & Zethsen), a surprisingly large number of Danish translators are always or often provided with briefs; 12.8-17% always receive a brief, and 45% of the respondents often receive a brief. It is very positive that none of the translators said that they never receive a brief.

4.2.2. Do professional translators ask for a brief when they do not receive one?

As can be seen in Figure 4 below, 22 (50%) of the 44 respondents who answered this question say that they would contact the client and ask for further information if they have not received a brief. 21 (47.7%) of the respondents would translate without this information. Only one respondent says that s/he would decline to do the job. According to what theory suggests or even prescribes, it seems like a large number of translators translating without a brief, and without contacting their client. However, when comparing with the results from the translation task, in which only two translators, or 20%, contacted me (their client) for a brief, 50% seems like a large number. Also, these numbers cannot be interpreted one-sidedly without looking at the further comments made by the respondents, because the respondents also had the possibility of writing a comment, or explaining further how they would proceed if none of the response categories were suitable for them. This yielded some interesting results which explained especially the large number of respondents saying they would translate without the information/brief.
If you do not receive this information concerning function and receiver, how do you proceed?

- Contact the client and ask for this information
- Translate without this information
- Decline to do the job

Figure 4: How professional translators proceed when they do not have a brief

First of all, some of the respondents expressed the wish of having the possibility of choosing more than one response category. Many of the respondents said that their procedures differed a lot depending on the translation task. If they are able to establish the function and receiver, which many of them said is often the case, then they just start translating as there would be no need to contact the client. Thus, if the translation situation made it crucial to know the function etc. and if they were not able to establish skopos without it, then they would contact the client.

Some of the respondents saying that they would translate without the brief have further comments explaining the different reasons for this. Some respondents only work for one client, or the same clients, and therefore, they always know this information without having received it explicitly. Another reason for not asking for a brief is that only one function and receiver is possible for some text types, e.g. a manual or a legal document.

Even though a larger number of respondents in the questionnaire would ask for a brief than was evident in the translation task (50% compared to 20%), there still seems to be a gap between what theory prescribes and what is done in practice. The reason why the number of translators asking for a brief is not higher can be elicited from some of the responses made by the freelancers. The comments made by the respondents show that a
larger number than 50% would ask for a brief if they could not establish the function. It could therefore be expected that if these translators had received my ambiguous ST, they would have contacted me.

It was interesting to see what translators based their choice of contacting or not contacting the client on. The following bullet points show what the translators base their choice on:

- Depends on the task
- Depends on time
- Depends on deadline
- Depends on mood
- Depends on price
- Depends on level of difficulty of text

These are some of the workplace elements which theory does not deal with. It makes sense of course that if the translator has a very tight deadline or if the price is very low, he might not want to spend the time contacting the client.

A few respondents voice that ideally, having a brief is extraordinary important, but that life after the protected environment of the university is quite different in the real translation world. Everything has to happen very quickly in order to sustain a decent hourly wage. As one respondent explains “The time aspect is the reason why we do not spend time asking”\(^5\). This seems to be congruent with Franco’s above-mentioned economy of effort. Another respondent emphasize the wish to live up to these ideals, but how it is not possible: “The teachers at the Business School think that we have oceans of time to translate an assignment, including time to contact the client about who the receiver is, then wait for an answer for hours or days etc. Said with a smile :-) In the real world, everything had to be finished yesterday, and even though we want to, there is seldom time and financial scope to realise these ideals!”\(^6\) This shows that the reason why some

\(^4\) Men man får lidt af et chok, når man kommer fra Handelshøjskolens beskyttede miljø ud i virkelighedens verden som oversætter. ALT skal gå frygtelig stærkt! Og man skal "rubbe neglene", hvis man skal kunne holde en bare nogenlunde anstændig timepris

\(^5\) Det er altså det tidsmæssige aspekt, der gør, at man ikke bruger tid på at spørge

\(^6\) Underviserne på Handelshøjskolen tror, at man har oceaner af tid til at oversætte en opgave, herunder tid til at kontakte kunden om, hvem der er modtager, vente på svar i flere timer eller dage, osv! Sagt med et smil. :-)

97
translators do not ask for a brief is not because of unwillingness and not because they do not think briefs are important, but merely because of workplace restraints.

Another reason why not all translators ask for briefs is because of clients who do not understand why the translators need a brief: “Some clients would also be annoyed if they were asked all the time. There is not a lot of appreciation of what translating actually means - it should just be done!”\(^7\) Another respondent said that especially the unprofessional agencies s/he translates for do not think that it is relevant to give the translator this information. These two quotes show the lack of understanding of translation and what it entails which translators sometimes meet from clients. This could be one of the reasons why 47.7% of the translators do not ask for information, but instead just translate.

4.2.3. How do professional translators translate when they do not have a brief?

Question 5 in the questionnaire was used to investigate the hypothesis that when translators do not have a brief, they tend to stay close to the ST and apply a ST-oriented translation strategy. In question 5, the translators, who had answered in prior questions that they translate without information about function and receiver, were asked how they translate in these situations. They were asked if they e.g. keep the translation close to the ST or if they use a more TT-oriented strategy based on a function they had found using analysis, had guessed etc. The question was an open-ended question giving the respondents the opportunity to write and explain how they translate in these situations.

24 of the 47 respondents answered this question. However, as mentioned above, it was endeavoured not to make this question too leading. Therefore, the respondents were not explicitly asked: “Do you use an ST-oriented strategy or a TT-oriented strategy when you do not have a brief”. However, this meant that six of the 24 respondents did not take a position on either a mainly ST-oriented strategy or a TT-oriented strategy. This leaves 18 respondents who said they opted for an ST-oriented strategy, a TT-oriented strategy or a mix. The distribution of microstrategies can be found in Figure 5.

\(^7\) Nogle kunder ville også blive irriterede over hele tiden at blive spurgt. Der er ikke så meget forståelse for, hvad det egentlig vil sige at oversætte - det skal bare gøres!
ST-orientation

12 of these 18 respondents, or 67%, said explicitly that they stay close to the ST when they are not informed of the TT function and receiver. One quote concerning ST-orientation explains this phenomenon very interestingly. “If you don’t have information about receiver groups, you probably assume that it is not distinctively different from the ST receiver group, and in that way, you could probably say that you stay closer to the ST then if you e.g. had been told explicitly that the receiver group was different⁸. This quote shows that there might be an expectation that translation clients will always specify it if there is a change in receiver group.

TT-orientation

Only four of the 24 respondents said, either explicitly or implicitly, that they use a TT-oriented strategy when they translate without information about function or receiver. However, one respondent said that as a starting point, he uses ST-orientation, but if this strategy does not work because the function makes it necessary to be more TT-oriented. This is very much in line with the literal translation automaton hypothesis described by Tirkkonen-Condit above.

⁸ Hvis man ikke har oplysninger om modtagergrupper antager man nok som udgangspunkt, at den ikke adskiller sig markant fra kildetekstens målgruppe, og på den måde kan man vel godt sige, at man holder sig tættere til målteksten end hvis man f.eks. eksplicit havde fået at vide, at målgruppen var anderledes.
**ST-orientation or TT-orientation**

With 12 respondents opting for an ST-orientation and four respondents opting for a TT-orientation, this leaves two respondents. These two respondents said that sometimes they use one strategy, sometimes the other. One respondent does not specify in which situations he uses one or the other. The other respondent says that it depends on the ST and the ST genre.

### 4.2.4. How do professional translators translate when they have a brief?

The respondents were asked what they use the information about function and receiver for. Two of the respondents skipped this question, leaving 45 respondents. This question was an open-ended question, and therefore, it yielded very many different responses. Overall, the responses can be grouped into two groups; one group with respondents who use the information about receiver and function (the information in the brief) actively, and seem to think that this information is important, and one group with respondents who do not seem to think that this information is very useful and does not seem to use it for much, at least not consciously, the former being the clear majority.

Only a few of the respondents belong to the category of translators who do not use this information much, but even though this is a minority, the view is still very interesting and should be introduced. These respondents e.g. say that (I don’t) “use it for much, but sometimes to establish the receiver group”. It was interesting to crosscheck these results with the results of questions 7 in which the translators were asked about their view on the importance of a brief. It was interesting to see the connection between how important they think briefs are and what they say they use them for. As will be presented in more detail below, two respondents said in question 7 said that receiving a brief is “not so important”. One of them did not say what he uses the brief for, and the other said s/he uses if to decide the level of style, but mostly just stay close to the ST.

Four of the five respondents who in question 7 were neutral as to the importance of

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9 Hvis du i spørgsmål 1 og 2 har svaret at du får informationer om funktion og modtager (enten ’altid’, ’ofte’, ’nogle gange’ eller ’sædvanlig’), hvad bruger du så disse informationer til?

10 Ikke særlig meget, men til tider fastlæggelse af målgruppe
receiving a brief seem to be the translators who do not use briefs very actively and consciously. Below are their question 3 statements, which seem to show a somewhat non-active or subconscious use of the brief:

- Use for background
- Do not really use the brief for much
- Make better translation
- Just gives a different feeling to know the target group

It therefore seems like the translators who do not think that briefs are very important are the translators who do not use the brief very consciously.

This was an interesting aspect found in the questionnaires, however, it was the minority of the respondents who did not seem to use briefs very actively. 87% of the respondents gave responses which showed that they in fact do use briefs actively and consciously. These translators were also the ones saying that they think that briefs are either ‘very important’ or ‘quite important’. It was very interesting to see what these translators used briefs for, and it can be summed up as follows:

- Adjust TT for receiver
- Formality level
- Register difficulty level
  - Expert
  - Non-expert
- Style
- Target language
  - US English
  - UK English
  - Does the receiver have the language as their first language?
- Price
- Satisfaction
  - Client
The clear majority of the translators use briefs when they are provided with one, and they use them for what is prescribed by theory, i.e. to adjust formality, style and terminology of the TT to the receiver, and to choose the right translation strategy to do so. Also, they use it to see if they need to make further explicitations or maybe even condensations in the TT. Lastly, they also use them to ensure personal/professional satisfaction as well as customer satisfaction by making sure there is nothing inappropriate being transferred into the TT.

4.2.5. Are professional translators able to establish skopos based without having received an explicit brief.

In question 6, the respondents were asked to state how they determine who the receiver is when they do not have information about this. The question is aimed at further investigating how translators go about establishing skopos when they have not received a brief.

The translators give many suggestions concerning the establishment of receiver when there is no brief. Many of the 31 respondents agree that often, it is easy to determine who the receiver is as it is obvious from the situation and context. They give examples such as a contract is to be used by the parties to the contract as the primary receivers and the receivers of an annual report are stakeholders, shareholders, potential investors etc. Four respondents said that they use the ST to establish the function and receiver of the TT, i.e. the skopos. They all say that often it is possible to analyse the content of the ST, and in that way, find skopos. The genre of the ST could e.g. be used to establish skopos as one respondent gives the example of a ST which is a tourist brochure.
or an advertisement. Because of the genre, he knows who the receiver is and tries to target it at this receiver.

Another aspect which is interesting concerning the establishment of skopos is that quite a few of the translators base their decision concerning TT receiver on experience. Three respondents said that they use their experience to assess who the receiver and what the function is as it is possible to get a feel for this after a while, and therefore translation without further information is possible. A few other respondents seem to share the same view, just in a slightly different way. One respondent says he uses what he thinks is the receiver and a function which is most likely and another says s/he uses a TT-orientation based on a receiver and function s/he has guessed. These last two responses could be interpreted as the translators use their prior experience to establish skopos. Also, skopos could be based on knowledge about the client found on the Internet, or prior experience when translating for the same client. Also, experience of translating similar subjects is used. This is all congruent with what Nord and Vermeer say about it being possible to establish skopos without a brief in routine situations.

Other respondents use technology to help them establish who the receiver is by browsing the internet, or using the Google search function or even by using the Translation Memory\textsuperscript{12}, which the client has supplied by seeing which receiver was translated for last time. One respondent also said that s/he uses parallel texts to find the skopos. It is difficult to see exactly what is meant by this utterance, but what could be meant is that s/he used other texts from the client’s website to TT-orient her/his translation. This is in line with another respondent’s view who says s/he uses the internet to help him find skopos. Furthermore, a few respondents say that they try to guess who the receiver is.

Interestingly, quite a few of the respondents say that sometimes, it is extremely difficult to determine who the receiver is, and sometimes, it is even impossible. In these

\textsuperscript{12} A translation memory, or TM, is a database that stores segments that have been translated previously. A translation-memory system stores the words, phrases and paragraphs that have already been translated and therefore, it can help the translator.
situations, some of the translators say that they translate using a neutral receiver group or by addressing the TT at a broad international group.

In conclusion, determination of TT receiver is based on:

- **ST**
  - Subject and text type
  - Difficulty level
- **Experience**
  - Same client
  - Similar task
- **Technology**
  - Internet search
  - Translation Memory
- **Guessing**
- **Impossible**

### 4.2.6. Are briefs important for practising translators?

To fully understand the use of briefs in practice, it was important to see how practising translators view briefs, i.e., whether they think they are important. As mentioned above, there seemed to be a connection between how or if translators use briefs and the importance they place on briefs. It was also interesting to see whether translators place as much importance on having a brief as translation scholars do. Some of the responses to the previous questions have suggested that this problem is not as big or as important as theory says it is. The question was created with five response categories ranging from ‘Very important’ to ‘Not important at all’. Furthermore, the respondents were given the option of commenting on the question/their response.

As seen in Figure 6 below, most of the 47 translators think that having a brief is important. 85.1% thought that having a brief is either ‘very important’ or ‘quite important’. None of the respondents said that having a brief is “not important at all” and
only 2 respondents, or 4.3% thought that receiving a brief is “not so important”. 10.6% were neutral.

Many of the respondents who said that receiving a brief is important comment that in some cases, you can easily guess who the receiver is, and in some cases, knowing who the receiver is, is not important, and in other cases, it is essential to make a good translation.

**Figure 6: The importance of briefs according to professional translators**

### 4.2.6.1. Why is it important to receive a brief?

Some of the respondents who have said that receiving a brief is important have commented and explained why they think it is important. Their responses can be summed up in the bullet points below:

- To deliver a good translation
- To know who you are translating for
- To make a translation which is more targeted and more functional for the reader
- To have a target receiver in mind to be able to find the relevant wording and expert/non-expert terminology
• To know the exact nationality of the receiver
• To give the best quality to the customer
• To avoid ‘noise’ in the translation

One respondent made an interesting comment concerning the use of briefs:
“You can make a better translation, which is more purposeful (and in that way more functional for the reader) if you know the function and the target group. But you can easily translate without it”\(^{13}\). This quote is interesting as it says that it is possible to translate without brief, however, you can often make a better and more receiver-oriented translation if you know function etc.

4.2.7. Conclusion on questionnaire results

The questionnaire results show that even though not all translators receive briefs always which they should according to theory, a larger number than expected actually receive this information. The same is the case for whether they ask for a brief. Just about 50% ask and 50% do not ask, however, many of the ones who said they do not ask, say they would if they were in doubt about receiver. In this context, it should be noted that many translators do not ask, not because they do not think it is important, but because of workplace conditions such as deadlines, price and even mood. They therefore describe asking for a brief as the ideal situation. Also, some clients are unwilling to provide a brief, because they do not understand the complexity of the translation.

The hypothesis that ST-orientation is the default situation when there is no brief was somewhat confirmed in the questionnaire study. 67% said they stay close to the ST. Also, theory seems to be correct in saying that it is possible to establish skopos without a brief; at least the translators seem to agree. This is especially the case when working for the same clients or when translating specific text types.

The majority of the respondents use briefs actively and most think that briefs are important in order to make functional translations. A small percentage does not think that

\(^{13}\) Man kan lave en bedre oversættelse, som er mere målrettet (og dermed mere funktionel for læseren), hvis man kender funktion og målgruppe. Men man kan sagtens oversætte uden.
they are as important as theory or this study seems to think, and these do not use briefs very actively.

4.2.7.1. Comparison with Fraser’s results

As mentioned in the introduction, Fraser conducted a similar study involving a survey. In her survey, only 12% said that they were given details about the target text receiver ‘as a matter of course’ and 21% were told the purpose of the target text as ‘as a matter of course’. The survey also showed that if given no brief, 8% of translators asked for who the receiver of the target text was and 3% asked for the purpose.

Even though Fraser’s answer categories were slightly different, it is still possible to compare the two studies. ‘As a matter of course’ means normally or as a normal procedure, and this could therefore be interpreted as ‘always’ in my questionnaire. In my study, 5 percentage points more of the translators answered that they receive information about the receiver. As far as information about the TT function is concerned, twice as many of Fraser’s translators were given this information compared to the translators in my study.

With regards to what translators do when they do not have a brief, a lot more of the respondents in this study would ask for one than in Fraser’s study. In her study, she asked whether they would ask for the TT receiver and the TT function as two separate questions making it a bit difficult to compare the percentages. However, in my study, 50% said they would ask for a brief compared to Fraser’s 8% and 3%, which shows a massive difference. It was not possible to get hold of Fraser’s exact questions and results, and therefore, it is hard to make any conclusions concerning this huge difference in answers. Hopefully, the vast differences can be explained by the fact that the translation profession has started to understand the importance of briefs and that it therefore has become more common since 1997 when Fraser conducted her study. It could, however, also be due to a difference in questionnaire design or answer categories. It is, however, also likely that it is an expression of a difference in translation practice between the UK and Denmark. In Denmark, we have a very strong accreditation system with the majority of accredited translators having a MA degree in Translation, which was the case for all
my respondents. Fraser’s translators might not be translators with an academic background and accreditation.

5. Conclusion

In the conclusion, the results from both empirical studies will be summed up. Each research subquestion will be concluded upon individually.

**Do professional translators normally receive briefs from their clients?**

As to whether translators normally receive briefs from their clients, the responses show that practice does not fully live up to what is prescribed by theory. 15-17% of the participating translators are rarely provided with briefs. However, when comparing my results with literature on this subject and the results of scholars doing similar research (e.g. Fraser, Schjoldager & Zethsen), it can be seen that many Danish translators actually receive a brief quite often as a surprisingly large number of the participating translators are always or often provided with briefs; 12.8-17% always receive a brief, and 45% of the respondents often receive a brief. It is very positive that none of the translators said that they never receive a brief.

**Do professional translators ask for a brief when they do not receive one from their client?**

Also here, there seems to be a gap between what theory prescribes and what happens in practice. Even though the skopos theory and Nord’s process theory places great importance on the brief, and on the translator’s responsibility to contact the client if s/he has not been given one or at least negotiate one in cooperation with the client, my data show that this does not always happen in practice. 20% of the in-house translators asked for one and 50% of the freelancers said they would ask for one. There also seems to be a gap different kinds of translators’ working behaviour. As mentioned above, only 20% of the translators in the translation task asked for a brief whereas 50% of the questionnaire respondents said they would ask for one, and if they could not infer skopos without it, an even larger number would ask for it. One of the reasons why the translators translate differently, and that some asked for a brief and some did not could indicate that there is a
lack of common practice and standards within the translation profession. Also, the
diverging behaviour could be an indicator that different translators view the role of the
translator differently. It could also be explained by the fact that in-house translators and
freelancers have different norms and working behaviour. This is, however, merely a
qualified guess and would need to be further investigated.

Even though there seems to be a long way to go before asking for a brief becomes
the standard within the profession, compared to previous research, such as Fraser’s, the
Danish translation profession actually seems to be on the right track.

**How do professional translators translate when they do not have a brief?**

Even though a small segment of the entire translation profession was used, the results
show that there might be a norm within the translation profession to use ST-orientation
unless otherwise specified by the client. 62% of the translators in the translation task used
an ST-oriented strategy and 67% of the questionnaire respondents said they would use
ST-orientation if they did not have a brief. The hypothesis is therefore somewhat
confirmed: the *majority* of translators translate very ST-oriented by staying close to the
ST when they do not have a brief. ST-orientation as default when translating without a
brief could be explained by the so-called economy of effort. Because some translators
work under very tight deadlines, and some for a rather modest remuneration, they tend
only to deviate from the ST when they find it really necessary. This is done because
direct ST-oriented translation is the fastest and most economical way of translating.

Another reason could be that some of the translators in my study still perceive the
ST as the most important element in the translation process. Prior to the arrival of
functionalism and focus on the TT, the equivalence-based approach placed great
importance on the ST and on literal, ST-oriented translation. As mentioned above, many
scholars from this point in time (e.g. Newmark, Venuti and Vinay & Darbelnet) argued
for ST-orientation as the best macrostrategy. This could be why some of the translators in
this study stayed close to the ST and translated directly as they also think this is the
optimal way to translate or they might even think that this is what is expected, which
corresponds with Wagner’s observations that some translators think that it is their duty to
translate accurately.
How do professional translators translate when they have a brief? Do they translate according to the brief?

From the translation task, it could be seen that translators with a brief actually use it very actively and translate according to it by establishing the correct skopos and making very functional translations. Also the questionnaire shows that most translators use the brief actively and translate according to it. This can be seen by their various statements saying that they use the brief to adjust the formality and register level, terminology and style to the TT receiver. They also base their translation strategies on the brief.

Only a small number of the respondents said that they did not really use briefs for much. This could be the case in practice, but it could also mean that they just do not use them on a conscious level.

Overall, my results show that if given briefs, translators would indeed translate according to them, which would lead to functional translations being made and hence satisfied customers.

Theory says that professional translators are sometimes able to establish skopos based on the translation situation and the ST without having received an explicit brief.

The results show that there is congruency between what is feasible in practice and what scholars such as Nord and Vermeer say about the establishment of skopos without a brief. It does in fact seem possible to establish skopos without a brief, but it depends on the translation task. The respondents of the questionnaire said that this is sometimes easy and can be done by analysing the ST, looking at ST content and text type, using their experience, using technology such as Translation Memory etc. The translation task showed that establishment of skopos is even possible when the ST is very ambiguous and the translator has not been given any information about the situation. Only 25% of the translators were, however, able to establish the correct skopos which means that, in practice, when dealing with translations which are not straightforward, to ensure a functional translation, it would probably be better to provide the translator with a brief as this study showed that all the translators with a brief (even though only two translators had one) made functional translations.
Are briefs important to practising translators?
It seems that, in general, briefs are indeed important to translators. 85.1% said that they think briefs are very important or quite important. The problem concerning briefs does not seem to lie with the attitude of translators towards them; it seems to lie with the client and the workplace conditions. What is meant by this is that in some cases, clients are unwilling to provide briefs as they do not understand why they are needed, and the other problem is that translators often are under stressful conditions such as tight deadlines and, therefore, do not feel like they have the time to contact the client and get a brief. Some translators also expressed that they did not want to spend the time if the price is low as this would mean they had to spend even more time which would mean an even lower hourly wage.

5.1. Ideas for future research in this area
In this study, we have seen that the two translators with briefs made very functional translations. However, two of the translators without briefs were also able to make functional translations. Therefore, it would be interesting to do a more thorough study on a larger scale investigating exactly how translators infer skopos without a brief.

Furthermore, it would also be interesting to find out why so many translators do not ask for a brief. The questionnaire results show that translators would ask and a lot of recent literature emphasises the importance of a brief and the translator’s responsibility when it comes to asking for a brief; the same emphasis is uttered in translation classes. Some of the respondents in this study seem to think it is because of the unwillingness of clients to provide this data, and others seem to think it is not their (the translator’s) responsibility when a brief has not been provided in the first place. It would be interesting to make a study on a larger scale which also included project manager and frequent translation clients to see their views on and working habits concerning briefs. It is suspected that an increasing emphasis on briefs in translation practice would lead to more functional translations and more satisfied clients. Translators would also be able to
make very conscious strategic translation choices on micro and macro level. This could long-term strengthen the status of the profession.

Another interesting study would be to investigate why translators translate ST-oriented as default. Is it because it is easier and quicker? Is there a norm within the profession that makes them do it?

5.2. Implications for translator training

As seen above, many scholars emphasize the importance of having a brief, and they also emphasised the importance of giving translation students various kinds of briefs, e.g. briefs which entail a shift of function from ST to TT. As Fraser also argues, this shows that there is an assumption that briefs are given to translation students in the first place (Fraser 1996: 94), which I, like Fraser, suspect, and have witnessed is not the case. Because it has been seen above that the lack of a brief in many cases leads to automatic ST-orientation, it seems highly important to teach students how to deal with different briefs, so they are not only used to translate directly by staying close to the ST. Translating in academic institutions has often been criticised for being unrealistic, but by giving briefs to student translators, this could prevent students from translating only for their teachers and it could also help to further cement the importance of briefs. Making students used to having a brief with every assignment might result in them always asking for one when they are finished at university and start translating in the real world. It has been seen from the questionnaire that some clients are reluctant to give briefs, but also that some have no problem providing a brief, they just do not do so by default, because they do not understand how important this is. If more translators in the future begin asking for (or even demanding) a brief, this might change the situation in the long term.
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Professional Translators’ Establishment of Skopos - A ‘Brief’ Study
Matilde Nisbeth Jensen


Summary
This thesis investigates professional translators’ use of translation briefs in practice. It is studied whether translators normally receive a translation brief, and if they do, how they use it. Based on previous research, it is investigated whether Danish translators ask for a brief if they do not have one, and if they do not ask, how they translate without it. It was hypothesized that these translators would stay close to the source text in their translations.

In order to investigate briefs in practice, two empirical studies were conducted. One of these studies was a translation task which was carried out by 10 in-house translators from different Danish translation companies. Also, a questionnaire was elaborated to which 47 Danish freelance translators responded.

The thesis is based on the skopos theory as its theoretical framework and especially what skopos theory and functionalist scholars such as Hans Vermeer and Christiane Nord say about the use and importance of translation briefs. Nord’s translation process model is presented to see the importance of the brief in the translation process and to see how theory says briefs should be used. The theory chapter also contains theory about source text orientation as the default translation strategy. In order to be able to analyse the 10 target texts, the concept of translation strategies is introduced and discussed as microstrategies are needed to be able to assign an overall macrostrategy to each target text. Focus is placed on Anne Schjoldager’s microstrategies. By presenting the difficulties concerning the translation of Latin-based terms from English into Danish and comparing these to the microstrategies, six microstrategies are found.

In the second chapter, the used methodology is thoroughly presented and discussed.

The third chapter of the thesis contains the analysis of the translation task results and the questionnaire results. It is found that only 20% (2) of the 10 translators asked for a brief. The 10 target texts are analysed individually and each assigned with an overall macrostrategy to see if they fulfil the skopos. The hypothesis that translators without a brief will opt for source text orientation is somewhat confirmed as 62% of the translators stayed close to the source text. At the same time, it is shown that translators are not always able to establish skopos without a brief, by just using the source text. However,
the statement by some scholars that translators sometimes can establish skopos without a brief is also confirmed by this study, as interestingly, two of the eight translators without a brief were able to establish skopos and translate for the non-expert receiver the brief asked for.

The questionnaire results show some of the same tendencies, but also some discrepancies between the two studies. The questionnaire results show that even though not all translators always receive briefs, which they should according to theory, a larger number than expected actually receive this information. The same is the case for whether they ask for a brief. Compared to the translation task, a lot of the freelance translators in the questionnaire ask for a brief. About 50% would ask, and many of the ones who said they do not ask, say they would if they were in doubt about the target text receiver. The reason why some do not ask is their workplace conditions such as tight deadlines, and therefore, asking for a brief is the ideal situation. The hypothesis that ST-orientation is the default situation when there is no brief was somewhat confirmed as 67% said they stay close to the ST. The questionnaire showed the same as the translation task, i.e. it sometimes is possible to establish skopos without a brief. The respondents said that this is especially the case when working for the same clients or when translating specific text types. The majority of the respondents use briefs actively and most think that briefs are important in order to make functional translations. A small percentage does not think that they are as important as theory or this study seems to think, and these did not use briefs very actively.

The conclusion of the thesis shows that having a brief is in fact important in order to make a functional translation, and also that translators think briefs are important. One of the reasons why briefs are important is that there seems to be a standard or norm within the profession to translate close to the source text unless otherwise specified by the client. The reason why there is a discrepancy between the two studies as to how many translators would ask for a brief could be that there is a gap between in-house translators’ and freelancers’ working habits and norms.

The thesis ends with ideas for future research in the area. Even though this thesis has investigated many aspects of the translation brief in theory and in practice, there are still many elements which need to be researched. It would be interesting to do a more
thorough study which investigates exactly how translators establish skopos without a brief. Furthermore, it would also be interesting to find out why so many translators do not ask for a brief or why translators translate source text oriented as default.

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