Specialised Lexicography: The Preparation of a Specialised Dictionary

- Translating Legal Acts on the Single Supervisory Mechanism

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Abstract

The purpose of the Master Thesis ‘Specialised Lexicography: The Preparation of a Specialised Dictionary - Translating Legal Acts on the Single Supervisory Mechanism’ has been to prepare a draft for an English-Danish dictionary that can function as an aid for translators who are translating legal acts on the Single Supervisory Mechanism (SSM). The SSM is part of the European Central Bank which is an EU institution and as the EU has obliged itself to translate all its legal framework into the official EU languages, the legal framework that make up the SSM is to be translated into Danish. The draft dictionary being prepared in this thesis has been named the SSM-dictionary.

The methodology applied in the thesis is deductive. Communication in use is being studied as the legal acts already written on the SSM make up the translation corpus for the dictionary. The legal acts on the SSM are all official EU-texts and are therefore considered to be of high quality. The translation corpus has helped prepare the fields within the entries and some of the elements within the subject-field components. The translation corpus is supplemented with informative texts on the SSM that have helped prepare components that contain data on the subject field.

The function theory developed by the researchers at the Centre for Lexicography at Aarhus School of Business and Social Sciences makes up the theoretical basis for this thesis. According to the function theory nothing should be included in a dictionary if it cannot be argued on the basis of its function. Every phase during the preparation of a dictionary should therefore be influenced by its function. In order to determine the function of the SSM-dictionary the user group has been analysed. The user group is made up of the language staff employed by the ECB and university students studying translation. These two types of users have different needs due to their different skills, experience and knowledge on the subject field. The dictionary therefore tries to fulfil the needs of all the potential users by offering data of several types and several search options. The function of the SSM-dictionary is based on the communicative situation in which the users may consult the dictionary and is to provide the users with data that can help them translate legal acts on the SSM.

To help determine which data the dictionary should include in order for it to fulfil its function, the translation process is elaborated on as this is the communicative situation in which the users
need help. It is established that the users need help during all three phases of the translation process, namely decoding, transfer and encoding. The skopos theory is also elaborated on and has helped determine the skopoi of the translations on the SSM. The translations are all made for normative purposes as they are considered official EU-texts and the translations therefore share the same communicative purpose as the source texts. The purpose is to create translations that are equally authentic in the source language and that do not appear to be translations.

An online dictionary is prepared as this is determined to be the lexicographical tool that can best fulfil the needs of the users. By placing the relevant data in a database from which the users can search, the users can themselves customise their searches in order for the returned data set to only include the necessary data. Another advantage is that new data can easily be included in the dictionary as new legal acts on the SSM are written.

The result of the analyses leading to the determination of the dictionary’s function and the needs of its users has been a dictionary that contains several components. The users have different qualifications and needs in different situations, and as the translation process consists of several phases, the dictionary contains several components. These components cater for the different needs of the specific users based on their qualifications and the phases in which they need help. A translation table form parts of one of the subject-field components. This table is to help the users transfer the specific genre conventions and linguistic structures correctly from the source language to the target language as this is considered a prerequisite for producing successful translations, and can mainly help the users during the transfer and encoding phase. Some other components in the dictionary contain data on the subject field and are mainly to help in the decoding phase. To sum up, in order for the dictionary to be successful it has to fulfil its function and function as a lexicographical tool that can aid translators translating legal acts on the SSM. In order to do so, the dictionary contains several components which are to provide help in at least one of the translation phases taking the needs of legal translators into consideration.
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1 Introduction

Working as a translator, it is rather impossible to live without some sort of a lexicographical tool. This tool must not be a full dictionary, but an aid of some kind is rather essential. Whether the subject field of a text is known or unknown to a translator, it can be difficult to translate without any sort of lexicographical data available. Having been employed as a translator trainee at the ECB, I experienced how difficult it can be translating when appropriate tools are not available. One of the new subject matters to translate at the ECB at the moment is the Single Supervisory Mechanism (SSM). New terminology has been introduced due to the SSM stepping into force. This new terminology is therefore to be translated into the official EU-languages. Currently, no dictionaries cover this new terminology on the SSM as the SSM is yet to step into force.

On 4 November 2014, the ECB assumes responsibility for the supervision of the credit institutions within the EU. This supervision task is part of the newly established SSM. With the new European banking supervision new legal frameworks follow, all of which are to be translated into the official EU languages. The EU currently has 24 official languages, including Danish (European Commission, 2014). As the EU is a democratic institution, it has obliged itself to provide all of the official EU texts in all official languages in order for the institution to be able to communicate with all of its citizens in their own languages. This obligation was made in 1958 with the passing of Regulation No 1 determining the languages to be used by the European Economic Community in which it in Article 4 is laid down that “Regulations and other documents of general application shall be drafted in the official languages” (The Council, 1958: 385). The reason behind this is that the EU institutions pass legislation that applies to everyone within the EU meaning that everyone – individuals, organizations, courts – is to understand the documents (Generaldirektoratet for Tolkning, 2010). Languages are also a very sensitive subject within the EU and can be said to fulfil two functions, namely a communicative one and a symbolic one (Gazzola, 2006: 394). In order for all citizens to feel part of the EU and to be able to be heard, a system of equal treatment of the official EU languages has been established. The EU tries to adopt full multilingualism in its communication with its citizens which is being managed through the use of the EU institutions’ language services (Gazzola, 2006: 396), one of them being situated at the ECB.
For the ECB to be able to communicate its decisions to the countries within the EU that are affected by it, the legal framework related to the SSM has to be translated into every EU language. The Languages Division at the ECB does not employ that many translators for each language, and therefore freelancers are often used for the translation tasks. Both the in-house translators and the freelancers can therefore benefit from having an electronic dictionary that can ensure consistency and saving of time during translations. By preparing an electronic dictionary, the many benefits from this compared to a printed dictionary can be used, including the possibility of creating customised search options dependent on the needs of the user.

The first electronic dictionaries were based on the printed ones and basically contained the exact same data just presented on screen instead of on paper. The only benefit from this type of dictionaries was that it was faster to look up data than if a printed dictionary had been consulted. Today, the lexicographers preparing electronic dictionaries have started to make use of the benefits offered from computer science. This means that most electronic dictionaries offer several search options and include more content (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 239). The added content and search options can benefit translators having different needs in different situations. That more data is included can help the users gain access to all relevant data as several fields can be included in the entries, and more search options can help create individualised search results. The benefits of working with an electronic dictionary are many which is the reason for this option to be chosen by most lexicographers today.

1.1 Statement of Problems
In order to prepare a tool that can help the translators translate legal acts on the SSM, the following problem statement and research questions make up this thesis.

The purpose of this thesis is to prepare a draft for a bilingual English-Danish online dictionary that can function as an aid when translating legal acts for the ECB on the Single Supervisory Mechanism. The focus will be on the modern theory of lexicographical functions and therefore on the dictionary’s function, situation and user. These elements will influence the lexicographical choices made during the preparation. The communicative situation for the SSM-dictionary is translation as the legal acts on the SSM shall be drafted in Danish, and translation in general and the competences and needs of a legal translator will be focus points in this thesis apart from lexicography. The thesis
therefore contains a part on genre conventions and linguistic structures and a discussion of how these can aid the users and should be incorporated into the dictionary.

In order to prepare the draft dictionary, the following research questions are answered in this thesis:

- Which users are to use the dictionary? How does this influence on the lexicographical choices?
- What is needed for a lexicographical tool to be successful?
- Which competences are needed from a legal translator?
- Which components should be included in the dictionary in order for it to fulfil its function?
- Which legal status do the translated legal acts have?
- What constitutes an electronic dictionary? Which function does a database serve in the preparation of a dictionary?
- What is the benefit from working with an online dictionary compared to a printed one?

1.2 Delimitation
This thesis covers texts on the legal framework of the SSM. The prepared dictionary is to help translate texts of this kind. The institutions do not always agree on what to translate specific terms into and therefore only texts from the ECB form the basis for this thesis. The dictionary is to provide help to translators translating legal acts on the SSM for the ECB. The other EU institutions may benefit from components in the dictionary, but it cannot be guaranteed that this is what the specific terms are actually translated into by that institution. The equivalents presented in the dictionary are all based on translations written by the Language Division at the ECB and therefore only represent this institution.

Lexicography can be divided into two types, namely metalexicography and practical lexicography. Metalexicography deals with the development of theories and has a focus on the dictionaries’ function, structure and content and how these are conceptualized, including research on dictionary usage. Practical lexicography, on the other hand, deals with the planning and compilation of dictionaries (Bergenholtz and Gouws, 2012: 38). This thesis is based on practical lexicography as the purpose of the thesis is to prepare a draft dictionary.
1.3 Definitions and Use of Concepts

1.3.1 Data
The word originally referred to the plural form of the word ‘datum’. According to Swan, the word data can in Modern English be used either as an uncountable noun or as a plural noun “with no difference of meaning” (Swan, 2005: 516). In this thesis, the uncountable form of the noun is used with the result being ‘the data is…’

1.3.2 E-lexicography
E-lexicography can mean several things, including using technology to make dictionaries and publishing dictionaries in electronic form (Bowker, 2012: 379). In this thesis, e-lexicography refers to the latter as the focus is on not only creating an electronic dictionary, but also on the several possibilities that arise from creating an electronic dictionary compared with a printed one both in terms of content, search options and presentation.

1.3.3 Electronic Dictionary
An electronic dictionary is a dictionary published in electronic form. Electronic dictionaries do not contain an ordered set of lexical items and differs from printed dictionaries in that they do not have a macrostructure in the traditional sense. The macrostructure found in printed dictionaries is replaced by a “data presentation structure” (Nielsen and Almind, 2011: 148). Access to entries is provided based on a requested search, and entries are presented independently from other entries in the dictionary as an electronic dictionary does not present its lemmata in a set structured order, e.g. alphabetical, which is often the case for printed dictionaries (Gouws, 2009: 3). The SSM-dictionary is an electronic dictionary and is to be made available online.

1.3.4 Entry
Entry is used in this thesis to refer to the dictionary article. The entry contains sub-fields in which data on the lemma is presented.

1.3.5 Information / Data
According to many lexicographers, dictionaries do not contain information, but data. Information retrieval is an individual process which depends on a user’s “characteristics in terms of culture, language proficiency level, and general or specialised knowledge” Tarp, 2010: 460). A dictionary contains data that the user can turn into information via their characteristics. Different users may have the same information need, but they may require different types of
data in order to reach the same lexicographical information. The data is therefore selected on
the basis of the potential users of the dictionary and their needs. This data should be based on
the users’ characteristics in order for the information retrieval to be accomplished and
successful (Tarp, 2010: 460). In this thesis, the term data applied to refer to the data contained
in the database as this data cannot be turned into information before the user reflects on it.

1.3.6 Lemma
The term *lemma* is used to refer to the headword in an entry.

1.3.7 Potential User / User
When referring to the *user* in this thesis, this refers to the potential users of the dictionary being
prepared. The function theory sees the users as potential as they are not actual users until they
consult the dictionary. When referring to users after the analysis of the user group at the
beginning this, however, refers to the potential users who at that point have become actual users
as they have decided to consult a dictionary in an extra-lexicographical situation.

1.3.8 Source Text / Target Text and Source Language / Target Language
Abbreviations for the above terms have been used in this thesis. The abbreviation ST refers to
the source text, meaning the text being translated. TT refers to target text, meaning the
translation being produced. SL refers to the source language being used in the ST, while TL
refers to the target language being used in the translation.

1.3.9 SSM-Dictionary
The draft dictionary being prepared in this thesis is referred to as the *SSM-dictionary*. This is
the name of the utility product containing lexicographical data aimed at the potential user
group.

1.4 Outline
This thesis is divided into two main parts. Chapters 2-5 represent the first part in which the
overall theory and concepts forming the basis for the research conducted is presented and
analyses are made on which the preparation of the dictionary is based. In chapters 6 and 7, the
theory presented and analyses made are applied in order to actually prepare the dictionary.
Some new theory is, however, also included in chapter 6 and 7 as some of the theories only
apply to very specific sections in this thesis.
Chapter 2 presents the approach taken to lexicography, including a discussion on the different views on lexicography held by lexicographers. This chapter also presents the methodology applied in the thesis and the empirical basis that is being used in the study.

In order to prepare a draft for a dictionary, the function theory is applied in order to determine the selection of data and the structure of and access to this data. This theory is presented in chapter 3. This chapter contains a presentation of the function theory and the different elements it entails. In this chapter an analysis of the user group of the SSM-dictionary is conducted, which includes their needs and usage situations. These have all helped determine the function of the SSM-dictionary which will also be presented in this chapter.

Chapter 4 deals with translation in general, legal translation and the legal translator. This chapter is to help establish the competences needed from legal translators, which a dictionary can help them acquire. The purpose of this chapter is to help establish the needs of the user group. In order for the dictionary to fulfil its function, it is important to know what the users are in need of.

Chapter 5 presents a discussion of printed dictionaries versus electronic dictionaries. In this chapter, argumentation is provided for why an online dictionary is prepared and how this can benefit the users. This chapter also elaborates on the function of databases in e-lexicography.

Chapter 6 contains a presentation of the entry structure and access routes offered to the users of the dictionary. These elements are based on the conduction of the lemma selection and discussions of the different principles on which the dictionary is based. This chapter also elaborates on the function of databases as discussed in chapter 5 and illustrates and exemplifies how this has been applied for the compilation of the dictionary.

As a dictionary is not solely based on its entries, the different components that also help the dictionary fulfil its function are presented and exemplified in chapter 7. This chapter presents the general components, being preface and user instruction and includes a presentation of the subject-field components, including a discussion of why these components are included in the dictionary.

As this thesis is focused on several subject fields, e.g. lexicography and translation, chapters 3-7 are ended with sub-conclusions. These are to summarise the findings in the chapters and to
relate the individual chapters to the work conducted throughout the thesis. Discussions of theory, methodology and the preparation and compilation of the dictionary are included in the individual chapters and these are used to present the final conclusion in chapter 8. This conclusion includes a discussion of the possible future research within the field covered in this thesis.

The examples and illustrations provided in boxes in this thesis are all components from the draft dictionary which is the reason why the language being used in the boxes is Danish.
2 The Approach to Lexicography

2.1 The Scientific Status of Lexicography

Much discussion has taken place on the scientific status of lexicography. With regard to a lexicographical theory, Atkins and Rundell argue that they “do not believe that such a thing exists” (2008: 4). They argue that lexicography benefits from the body of linguistic theory and that lexicography cannot be viewed as an independent science. In this thesis, lexicography is, however, seen as an independent science and the argumentation for this will be provided in the following. Viewing lexicography as an independent science is in line with the view held by Tarp who has defined lexicography as “the science of dictionaries” (Tarp, 2008: 4). Since the early days of dictionaries, they have closely been connected with social needs. Dictionaries have been culture-specific products that have helped solve specific problems for specific people during history. Tarp refers to Mikkelsen’s discussion of the development of Danish specialised dictionaries and states that Mikkelsen has demonstrated that “specialised dictionaries are written for specific subjects and languages to meet the demands made by social developments and international relations in any given period” (Mikkelsen, 1992 cited in Tarp, 2008: 5). Due to this causal relationship between dictionaries and social needs, lexicography can be seen as an independent science.

Earlier on, lexicography was mainly considered a sub-discipline of linguistics and many lexicographers still share this view (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 172). There is, however, a large difference in terms of the object of study. Lexicography studies a culture-specific product (dictionaries), while linguistics studies something inherent in mankind (language). Lexicography does not only have a different object of study, it is also “rooted in the form of concepts, theories and hypotheses, comprises both the history of dictionaries and its own history, contains independent contributions to methodology”, and “includes directions for practical action” (Tarp, 2008: 6). The primary aim of the science of dictionaries is to gain greater knowledge about dictionaries and their role in connection with social needs, and to develop new and better dictionaries is only part of the aim. The purpose of this thesis is to prepare a lexicographical tool that can help a specific user group by focusing on their competences and needs. The focus is not on linguistics, but rather the situations in which the tool can provide help. Therefore, the view that lexicography should be seen as a sub-discipline of linguistics is not taken in this thesis. Even though lexicography can be seen as an
independent science, it cannot exist without other sciences. Lexicography is the science of dictionaries and since dictionaries can be based on several sciences, e.g. linguistics, social sciences and information science, it is impossible to deal with lexicography without interplaying with other disciplines. Lexicography therefore develops through its interaction with other sciences.

In order to define lexicography as a science and theory, C. Bergenholdt, H. Bergenholdt and Tarp looks into what actual defines a theory. According to the three, theory usage can be divided into three categories, namely non-science, social science and natural science (Bergenholtz, Bergenholdt and Tarp, 2008: 156). It has long been discussed whether any form of science should be based on that of natural science, meaning that everything can be verified or falsified. According to Bergenholdt, Bergenholdt and Tarp a theory should: 1) involve clear and consistent concepts; 2) describe the domain through the use of clear principles; 3) describe a connection between a and b via c; and 4) be able to be refuted through the use of empirical methods (2008: 158). They argue that lexicography satisfies these criteria and that lexicography therefore can be argued to be a theory in itself and thereby an independent science. The first criterion is satisfied as lexicography uses a number of clearly defined concepts, categories and methodological considerations. The second is satisfied as lexicography has its own limited domain being the study and use of lexicographical products and the lexicographical needs. Lexicography also entails not only the possible, but also the suitable use of lexicographical products, including the best way for a user to have the lexicographical needs fulfilled, relating to the third criterion. Bergenholdt, Bergenholdt and Tarp argue that the theory can actually be refuted (2008: 165). Through an empirical basis it is possible to verify or falsify specific data in a dictionary.

Even though it is still the subject of much debate, the view taken in this thesis is the view that lexicography is an independent science based on the work of Tarp, Bergenholdt and the Centre for Lexicography at Aarhus School of Business and Social Sciences. The primary focus in the function theory is the study and preparation of information tools that do not only focus on the content of the tool, but also on the possibilities offered by information science (Nielsen and Olivera, 2013: 323). One of the main reasons for choosing to use the function theory in this thesis is the statement by some of the researchers behind the function theory saying that “Dictionaries are tools made for the purpose of fulfilling specific user needs” (Bergenholtz and
Nielsen, 2006: 283). The SSM-dictionary is to function as a utility product that can help the users translate legal acts on the SSM. Therefore the purpose is to identify and determine their needs in order to prepare a product that can actually fulfil their needs. By choosing the functional approach provided by the Centre for Lexicography, it is possible to prepare a tool that can help the users in different situations and cater for their individual needs. This, however, does not mean that concepts from other disciplines cannot be included.

2.2 Methodology

2.2.1 Empiricism

According to Atkins and Rundell lexicographers are empiricists (2008: 49). Lexicographers are interested in describing what writers and speakers do during communication, and this is done by observing language in use. By doing this, generalisations are made in order to account for recurrent phenomena in a specific language. Even though Bergenholtz and Tarp do not share the same view on the scientific status of lexicography, they share this belief. According to them, an empirical basis including a text corpus is a prerequisite for preparing a dictionary of high quality (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1994: 94). Through this empirical basis, the language use can be studied and thereby the communication taking place between sender and receiver. Some lexicographers (and linguists) work within the paradigm of rationalism instead. While empiricists focus on observation, rationalists focus on introspection (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 49). Bergenholtz and Tarp argue that a lexicographer’s own competences cannot alone form the basis for a dictionary as it should not be limited by his or her knowledge (1994: 92). They therefore share the view by Atkins and Rundell, that lexicography should be based on empiricism.

The view taken in this thesis is based on empiricism as language in use is being observed. The situations in which communication or knowledge-transfer takes place is analysed in order to determine the functions of the dictionary. The choices made in connection with compiling the entries in the dictionary are based on observations of word use in a corpus. Bergenholtz and Tarp argue that in order for the lemmata, equivalents and collocations to be relevant and useful, the basis for their selection will have to be based on actual occurrences (1994: 92). The corpus therefore does not only form the basis for the selection of lemmata and equivalents, but also for the other fields within the entries, e.g. collocations and examples.
2.2.2 Empirical Basis

The function of a dictionary, including its users and their needs, should be the starting point for all dictionaries, which will be obvious from the elaboration on the function theory in chapter 3. The selection of the empirical basis for the preparation and data selection can therefore not be made before this has been defined. This section, however, presents the selection of data for the text corpus that will form part of the preparation of the dictionary components. References to the empirical basis can be found in Appendix 1.

According to Bergenholtz and Tarp, a text corpus should always form the basis for the data selection (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1994: 91). The material used for the compilation of a dictionary together forms the empirical basis. The material forming the empirical basis can be divided into three types, namely introspection, existing literature, and texts. For bilingual dictionaries, introspection is the lexicographer’s use of his or her own competences in terms of the knowledge on the two languages; existing literature can be dictionaries, encyclopaedias, manuals, textbooks and scientific journals; and texts can be a corpus gathered from several sources (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1994: 91).

The empirical basis for the SSM-dictionary is both existing literature and texts. The existing literature mainly take the form of dictionaries and informative texts covering the subject field, namely the SSM, while the corpus is made up of texts forming the legal framework for the SSM provided by the ECB. The corpus is not only used to create the dictionary entries, but also to form the basis for the compilation of the subject-field components on linguistic structures and genre conventions. A dictionary can also be based on textbooks on the subject, but as no textbook has been produced on the SSM, electronic resources have been used instead to include informative texts in the empirical basis.

A corpus is a collection of written or oral texts that are produced for communicative purposes. It is said to be exemplary if it is a collection of texts that are typical of the subject area and therefore can be said to the best of one’s judgement to cover a specific usage of the language of the subject in question (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1994: 95). The corpus for the SSM-dictionary consists of only written texts, not only because they represent the majority of texts on the subject, but also because the dictionary is to be used for translation of written texts. For the corpus to be exemplary, it will have to fulfil two requirements: 1) the sub-areas of the overall subject area must be covered, and 2) the text types that the dictionary is to help translate must
be covered in terms of their relevance for the users and user situations (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1994: 95). These requirements are met by the text corpus as it is made up of legal acts that cover the subject field, the SSM, and the text genre covers the genre of the texts to be translated by the users, namely legal acts.

Parallel corpora can be used to find equivalents for a lemma in the dictionary. A corpus can be either a comparable corpus or a translation corpus (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 476). A comparable corpus is a corpus in which the texts are selected based on shared parameters. This means that the texts in the two languages share the same subject matter, but are all original texts and not translations. A translation corpus on the other hand consists of both original texts and translated texts meaning that only 50 percent of the texts are original as the other half exists of translations. Bergenholtz and Tarp argue that by using translations, the lexicographer can benefit from having implicit relations between the two languages, but that this can also lead to falseness and errors in the dictionary (1994: 96). As most texts on the SSM are translated into Danish and not many texts on the subject that are not translations exist in Danish, the text corpus used in this thesis is a translation corpus. A translation corpus can naturally contain errors as was argued above, but as the legal acts are all official EU-texts, the translations are considered to be of high quality. Not only the original texts in English are official EU-texts but also their translated versions.

Bergenholtz and Tarp recommend that a translation corpus is supplemented with non-translated texts (1994: 96), but due to the obligation made by the EU to translate into all EU-languages, all the legal acts in English on the SSM that are also to apply to Denmark have been translated. The corpus used for the production of the equivalents of the individual lemmata in the SSM-dictionary is the translation corpus, while monolingual texts have been used to prepare the subject-field components and to help write definitions of the lemmata. These are informative texts that present data on the subject field that is to be covered by the dictionary, namely the SSM. These texts are also considered to be of high quality as they have been found on the ECB’s website which is being updated on a regular basis, on the European Parliaments website and on Folketinget’s website which provides data on the functioning of the EU. These websites are expected to contain correct factual data.

The total number of pages covered by the translation corpus is not that extensive. Some may argue that this amount of pages is not representative. Even though the corpus forming the basis
for the entries is not necessarily that extensive, it is, however, representative of the current LSP used in connection with the SSM as the corpus includes most of the texts currently written on the subject. The corpus therefore might not be representative of the future language used in connection with the subject matter, but it represents the current LSP.

2.2.3 Inductive vs. Deductive Methodology

Specifying user needs is one of the basic points for the modern theory of lexicographical functions. These needs can be identified through the use of either an inductive or deductive method (Tarp, 2008: 69). By using an inductive method, the users will have to be surveyed in an extra-lexicographical environment (an environment in which the need for a dictionary may occur) in order to identify the lexicographical problems that might occur. Creswell states that inductive data analysis is to be used in qualitative procedures and that the participants being the object of study can interact with the researcher in defining the themes relevant for the analysis (Cresswell, 2009: 175). When using a deductive method, on the other hand, the focus is on a communication model in order to determine the situations in which communication takes place and to identify the possible lexicographical problems that a dictionary can help solve.

According to Tarp, there is no doubt that the two methods in the future will be combined when identifying user needs (2008: 70). However, today only the deductive method is used in order to analyse the user needs that can help identify the functions of a dictionary. The deductive method is therefore applied in this thesis. The communication model forms the basis for the needs that the users will have in the specific situations and help identify the functions of the SSM-dictionary.

Tarp stating that the inductive method has not yet been applied in lexicographical work is not a valid argument for not choosing this method. As only two in-house translators are employed at the Danish desk at the ECB and only one of them is a lawyer-linguist and therefore translates the legal framework, using an inductive method would, however, not be representative. Cresswell argues that “particularity rather than generalizability is the hallmark of qualitative research” and therefore an inductive method would only provide results that could apply to the specific settings and participants being studied. As the dictionary is not only aimed at that one lawyer-linguist employed by the ECB, but also the freelancers – who change over time – and translation students who may in the future have to translate texts on the SSM, the results of an inductive method would not be very useful in terms of determining the needs of the potential...
dictionary users. The lawyer-linguist currently employed cannot represent the skills and needs of all of the intended users. It is argued by Tarp (2008: 41) that users do not themselves know what their primary needs are. They will be affected by their experience and their expectations of the dictionary, and therefore it will not necessarily improve the dictionary to include the users in the preparation process. Users do not always know themselves when they expect to consult a dictionary and what they are actually looking for. Due to this argumentation and the fact that an inductive method cannot be representative of the potential user group, a deductive method has been applied in this thesis.

The following chapter deals with the theory that has been argued to form the theoretical basis for this thesis, namely the function theory. The chapter presents an overview of the function theory and its application and an analysis is made in order to determine the function of the SSM-dictionary and the needs of the potential user group.
3 The Modern Theory of Lexicographical Functions

3.1 Two Theories on Dictionaries as Utility Products
It was stated in section 2.1 that in this thesis the view taken is that lexicography is an independent science and that the function theory, also referred to as the modern theory of lexicographical functions, is applied in which dictionaries are seen as utility products. The function theory cannot really be defined without also referring to the general theory of lexicography presented by Wiegand as he was the first person to define the dictionary as a utility product (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 178). Wiegand, Bergenholtz and Tarp all agree on the dictionary being a utility product and state that “Wörterbücher sind Gebrauchsgegenstände und haben daher genuine Zwecke (oder: genuine Funktionen); diese bestehen darin, dass sie anhand bestimmter Eigenschaften gebraucht werden können, um diejenigen Ziele zu erreichen, um deren Erreichung willen sie hergestellt wurden“ (Bergenholtz, Tarp and Wiegand, 1998: 1776). The difference between the general theory provided by Wiegand and the function theory lies in the understanding of the concept ‘utility product’. The focus in the two theories are on different things which will be elaborated on in the following, followed by an argument for why the function theory is applied in this thesis.

The researchers behind the two theories share the belief that lexicography is an independent science with the subject-field being dictionaries and that dictionaries are utility products that are prepared in order to satisfy human needs (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 172). Even though Wiegand with his general theory argues for dictionaries to be a utility product, the point of departure is not the users which would be expected. When applying the general theory, a distinction is made between language and extra-linguistic matter, and this distinction between different dictionary types is based on subject matter, not on users and their needs (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 180). The general theory on lexicography differs from the theory of lexicographical functions provided by the researchers from the Centre for Lexicography at the Aarhus School of Business in that its way of preparing a dictionary is seen as being reconstructivist. Tarp states that, according to Wiegand and his general theory “a dictionary function is identified by taking a given, phenomenologically determined dictionary type and using it to identify the predicted type components” (2008: 95). Applying a reconstructivist method is completely opposite of that applied by the function theory. By applying the function theory an analogously approach is used. Tarp elaborates on this approach by stating that “Given
are specific types of user, situation and problem. Based on these a dictionary function is identified, which in turn determines the dictionary type and its predicted phenomenology” (2008: 95). According to the function theory, the dictionary type therefore does not determine the preparation of the dictionary, but the function of the dictionary does. When preparing a dictionary, the users and their needs should first be defined, including their language use and knowledge, as it is seen as a utility product. The selection of subject field and dictionary structures should be the secondary object.

As it seems quite contradicting to define dictionaries as a utility product without having the users as the primary object in preparing dictionaries, the general theory prepared by Wiegand is not considered relevant for the production of the SSM-dictionary. By being a utility product, it seems obvious that the user situations in which the tool is to be used is more relevant than the subject field in question during the first stages. For the SSM-dictionary, the users and their needs are to be defined in order to determine the function of the dictionary. The subject field is therefore not the primary object, the user and user needs are argued to be so. The function theory therefore makes up the basis for the theoretical work prepared in this thesis and will be presented in the following.

3.2 The Function Theory
The concept of the modern theory of lexicographical functions is based on four elements: types of potential user, user need, user situation and assistance (Tarp, 2008: 44). The first three are all part of the extra-lexicographical environment. An extra-lexicographical environment can be defined as a situation in which information needs occur that can be solved through the use of a lexicographical tool (Bothma and Tarp, 2012: 90). The fourth element is intra-lexicographical in that assistance is the help the dictionary can provide to cover the needs. This element combines the extra-lexicographical with the lexicographical. Assistance is the situation in which the person accesses the data in order to retrieve the needed information from these data when this person experiences an information need (Bothma and Tarp, 2012: 7).

According to the function theory, the functions determine the lexicographical data included in a dictionary, and also the way the data is presented, structured and made accessible (Tarp, 2008: 86). It is the functions of the dictionary that form the basis for all decisions made in connection with the structure and content of the specific dictionary. As has already been argued, dictionaries are seen as human-made products and utility products that have been produced with
the purpose of satisfying specific needs. As the dictionary is seen as a utility product, human activities and thereby human needs must be studied. These needs will always be linked to a specific group of people and specific situations. As the users, the user needs and the user situations are the starting point for all lexicographical theory and practice according to the function theory, all considerations in connection with lexicography “[…] must be based upon a determination of these needs, i.e. what is needed to solve the set of specific problems that pop up for a specific group of users with specific characteristics in specific user situations” (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 172). Lexicographers have to create a profile of the intended user group in order to create a dictionary that can satisfy the group’s needs. The user situations in which the user group will need the dictionary will also have to be defined in order to determine the functions and genuine purpose of the dictionary and thereby the lexicographical data that is needed. The lexicographer’s job is to determine which needs the specific user will have in the specific situation, depending on which data they are searching for, what they expect to find in the dictionary and how this data should then be presented based on the profile of the specific user. The guiding principle for a dictionary according the functional theory of lexicography is that:

“The functions are the basic elements of lexicographic theory and practice and constitute the leading principle of all dictionaries. Everything in a dictionary, absolutely everything, is to a greater or smaller extent influenced by its respective functions. Neither the content nor the form of a dictionary can be conceived without taking the functions into account” (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 177).

As the function(s) of a dictionary influences every decision taken during its preparation, the function will have to be determined at first. The function(s) of a dictionary is dependent on the potential users, user situations and user needs. It is stated by Bergenholtz and Tarp that “the determinant element in a dictionary function is the user situation” (2003: 176). The user situations in which a lexicographical need can occur are therefore presented in the following.

3.2.1 Knowledge-Oriented and Communication-Oriented User Situations
In order to determine the user needs, a lexicographer has to define a profile for the user group at first. The user needs are not abstract, but concrete, and therefore the needs will have to be detected for every specific situation. Lexicographers have to determine which specific needs a specific user has in a specific situation. The function theory distinguishes between knowledge-
orientated and communication-orientated user situations. Dictionaries for knowledge-orientated user situations usually provide data on specific topics, while communication-orientated dictionaries serve as an aid in solving problems related to text reception, production or translation (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 176). In knowledge-oriented situations, communication takes place between the lexicographer and the dictionary user. The user needs data on a topic, e.g. encyclopedic information or information about a specific language in for example a foreign language-learning situation and the dictionary provides data to help them in this situation and nothing more than that (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 174).

In communication-oriented situations, on the other hand, communication between two or more persons take place and the lexicographer only helps indirectly when the user consults the dictionary in order to try to solve a communication problem (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 174).

The different types of communication situations are presented in the figure below. The phases in italics are all phases in which a communication problem can occur in which the user may consult a dictionary.

| L1 user → text production → L1 text → text reception → L1 user |
| L1 user → text production → L1 text → text reception → L2 user |
| L1 user → text production → L2 text → text reception → L2 user |
| L1 user → text production → L1 text → translation (by L1 translator) → L2 text → text reception → L2 user |
| L1 user → text production → L1 text → translation (by L2 translator) → L2 text → text reception → L2 user |

**Figure 1: Communication model (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 174)**

There are six different communication-oriented user situations in which a dictionary may be consulted, namely for production of texts in mother tongue or foreign language; reception of texts in mother tongue or foreign language; and translation of text from mother tongue into foreign language; or translation from foreign language into mother tongue.

As the determinant element in a dictionary function has proven to be the user situation (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 176), the different situations often form the basis for the function of the dictionary. The most important communication-oriented functions are

- to assist the users in solving problems related to text reception in the native language;
- to assist the users in solving problems related to text production of texts in the native language;
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By Maiken Refsing Rasmussen

- to assist the users in solving problems related to text reception in a foreign language;
- to assist the users in solving problems related to text production in a foreign language;
- to assist the users in solving problems related to translation of texts from the native language into a foreign language;
- to assist the users in solving problems related to translation of texts from a foreign language into the native language;

and the most important types of knowledge-orientated functions are:

- to provide general cultural and encyclopaedic information to the users;
- to provide special information about the subject field to the users;
- to provide information about the language to the users (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 176).

According to the modern theory of lexicographical functions, the function, which is determined by the user situations, should form the basis for all lexicographical work.

As the function of the dictionary determines the dictionary type, and this function is based on the user, situation and problem (needs), the next section of this thesis will deal with these matters. This is started by a presentation of the intended user group and their competences, including an analysis of their user situation and needs. This analysis is then used to establish the function of the dictionary which will be used to determine what data to include in the dictionary and how to structure and present this data.

3.3 The Users

3.3.1 User Groups
The competences and level of competences of the users are relevant when deciding what data to include in a dictionary. The criteria that are being used to define a specific user group have by Tarp been defined as “criteria that generate needs in specific situations requiring qualitatively different lexicographical treatment” (2008: 54). To help find the level of competences of the user groups, the users can be divided into three groups: experts, semi-experts and laypeople. By having divided the users into these groups, this can help a lexicographer define the user needs and thereby the data need in order to satisfy the needs of the group. By being able to identify the characteristics and the needs of the users, the lexicographer can determine the function of the dictionary.
Some main questions are to be answered in order to establish the user characteristics and competences being, according to Bergenholtz and Tarp (2003: 173):

1. Which language is their mother tongue?
2. At what level do they master their mother tongue?
3. At what level do they master a foreign language?
4. How is their experience in translating between the languages in question?
5. What is the level of their general cultural and encyclopaedic knowledge?
6. At what level do they master the special subject field in question?
7. At what level do they master the corresponding LSP in their mother tongue?
8. At what level do they master the corresponding LSP in the foreign language?

Tarp points out that these characteristics do not refer to the users’ “knowledge of a language”, but to their “mastery of a language” (2008: 54). The purpose of these questions is therefore not to answer what the users know on the two languages, but rather the level at which they can use this knowledge to produce, in this case, successful translations. The answers to these questions help establish the linguistic and factual qualifications of the users, including their language competences. When the users change from being potential users of the dictionary to being actual dictionary users, their lexicographical qualifications also play a role. The following three questions are to be answered in order to establish those:

1. How much do users know about lexicography?
2. What general experience of dictionary usage do they have?
3. What specific experience do they have of a specific dictionary? (Tarp, 2008: 56)

The potential users of the SSM-dictionary are presented in the following and the relevant questions will be answered in order to establish the competences of the users.

3.3.2 The Intended Users
The intended user groups for the SSM-dictionary are:

- Translators and language staff
- University students studying translation

The primary user group for the SSM-dictionary is the translators employed in the Legislation Division at the ECB, including the freelancers translating for this division, and the secondary
group is students studying translation. These two user groups have different factual, linguistic, production and translation competences, and the dictionary will have to contain data that can help all users in the two groups, but should mostly be catering for the primary group.

To become a permanent lawyer-linguist at the ECB, a university degree in law is required from this person in his/her home country (ECB, 2011; ECB, 2012). The translator in the Legislation Division is therefore a qualified lawyer and masters the LSP in the mother tongue, in this case Danish, at a high level. The freelancers, on the other hand, need not have a degree in law (even though this is regarded as an advantage), but are expected to have a minimum of two years’ experience in translating or revising legal texts from English into Danish. The freelancers therefore may not master the special subject field in question just as well as the lawyer-linguist, but they can still be considered semi-experts. The freelancers will on the other hand master both their mother tongue and the foreign language at a high level and their experience in translating between English and Danish may be more extensive than that of the lawyer-linguist. The lawyer-linguist and the freelancers are grouped together, and in the following referred to as the language staff.

The language staff employed at the ECB are expected to have experience with the subject field and to be familiar with the LSP. A translation student, on the other hand, will be a learner of both the subject field and the specialised language (Bowker, 2012: 380). Therefore the users may not only consult the dictionary in different situations, but can also have different needs when doing so. As the dictionary is an English-Danish dictionary, all intended users are expected to have Danish as their mother tongue and also to have thorough knowledge on this language. While the language staff is made up of experts and semi-experts on the LSP, the translation students are learners of the LSP in both their mother tongue and in the foreign language. The main focus of the dictionary should not only be on translations of the individual terms, but also on how legal texts are translated from English into Danish, including the different genre conventions and linguistic structures of the languages. This can benefit both groups as they may all need data on how the specific conventions are transferred from the English source text to the Danish target text. The translation students can especially benefit from this as they may not be that familiar with legal acts in any of the languages, and even though the lawyer-linguist is experienced in reading and writing legal acts in Danish, she may not be that familiar with the English documents and translation in particular.
3.3.3 User Situation
As has been defined above, there are two different user situations in which a dictionary can provide help: knowledge-oriented user situations and communication-oriented user situations. The SSM-dictionary is to provide help in communicative-oriented situations as translation is a communicative act. An in-depth definition of the translation process is provided in chapter 4.

The users of the SSM-dictionary are translators who need a tool that can help them during the translation process. The purpose for the SSM-dictionary is to help the translators solve communication problems during their text production. The purpose of dictionaries produced for text production is to help the users find answers to questions regarding for example grammar, syntax, style and terminology (Nielsen, 2012: 115). A writing process normally consists of three stages: planning, execution and finalisation. Dictionaries should be able to help translators at two of these stages, namely the execution and the finalisation stage. The dictionaries can help the users with writing, revising and editing their texts.

According to figure 1 in section 3.2.1 there are six different communication-oriented user situations. The SSM-dictionary is to function as a tool in two of these situations, namely production of texts in the mother tongue and translation of texts from foreign language into mother tongue. The translators will sometimes have to revise texts written by others on the subject matter, and as Bergenholtz and Tarp argue that revising should be seen as part of text production (2003: 175), this situation is also included. The revisers are, however, expected to need the same type of data as the translators as they all belong to the same user group and are all either revising or translating legal acts. This situation will therefore not influence on the needs as the needs in the revision and translation situation is determined to be the same. During the translation process, the users will need to be able to comprehend the text that is to be translated, but this is not regarded a reception situation as this situation is part of an ongoing process in connection with translation. As the purpose of this thesis is to provide a tool that can help users translate legal acts on the SSM, the dictionary should naturally provide help during this situation. All of the legal acts are written in English and therefore the dictionary is unidirectional as it only provides help translating from English into Danish.

Not that much focus will be put on the users’ lexicographical qualifications in this thesis. The users are all translators and will therefore have a thorough knowledge on dictionary use. Being a translator, whether an experienced one or a translation student, working with LSP dictionaries
is part of most tasks, and therefore the users of the SSM-dictionary have experience within the use of specialised dictionaries as well.

3.3.4 User Needs

The situations in which the users may wish to consult the dictionary all occur in an extra-lexicographical environment as defined above. The extra-lexicographical situations are often hypothesised in order to deduct under which conditions the potential users may benefit from consulting a dictionary as has been discussed above. Translators, text producers or anyone working with texts on the SSM are only potential dictionary users. The need for help will occur in an extra-lexicographical situation, and not until they decide to consult the dictionary are they working within the lexicographical environment (Nielsen and Almind, 2011: 149). The potential user may come across different problems during the writing/translation process and the dictionary should therefore be able to satisfy different needs of different users. The extra-lexicographical situations will have to be kept in mind when producing a lexicographical tool as the needs may vary from one situation to another for the same user, and as different users may share different characteristics and therefore have different needs in similar situations.

User needs can be divided into two, namely primary user needs and secondary user needs. The primary user needs are the needs that lead to a dictionary being consulted, while secondary user needs are needs that occur when the user is seeking assistance in a dictionary (Tarp, 2008: 56). Primary data is needed to solve the primary user needs and has been defined as “data that helps users to find the specific data that is relevant in the situation in question, and data that may help users to interpret it” (Tarp, 2008: 58). Secondary data, on the other hand, is data that the users can use to gain knowledge on the dictionary, which includes data on and instruction in the use of the specific dictionary.

As has already been determined above, the users of the SSM-dictionary may have different needs in different situations. The users may consult the dictionary to find the equivalent for a specific term or in order to find out what a specific term means. The needs are therefore all related to communicative-oriented situations as they all occur during a translation process. As the needs may differ, the dictionary will have to contain data on not only equivalents and definitions, but also on collocations, genre conventions and linguistic structures. In a translation process, data on only an equivalent is not useful, and therefore for the data to fulfil the need of
the user, the entries will also have to contain additional data on the lemma that has been searched on.

Due to the different level of competences of the users, their needs will differ. The language staff may be interested in seeing how a term is being used in a sentence, which is why collocations are included, while the translation students may as well be interested in actually understanding the specific term. How the users are being catered for is elaborated on in the section 6.2.2 on entry structures. The different needs of the users are not only being catered for in the entries, but also in the subject-field components that form part of the dictionary. Which specific needs a legal translator has and what is needed in order to create a successful translation is being discussed in chapter 4 on translation and the legal translator.

3.4 Function of the SSM-dictionary

Now that the user group has been described and analysed, the function of the dictionary can be established. The SSM-dictionary has a communicative function as it is to:

- assist the users in solving problems related to translation of texts from a foreign language into the native language;
- assist the users in solving problems related to text production in the native language (as defined by Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 176).

The dictionary entries contain definitions and the subject-field components contain data on the subject matter. All of this data is to provide help to the users during a translation process. The dictionary is to provide help understanding the terms on the SSM as the reception of English texts is part of the translation process. In order to translate the texts, the users will have to understand the text and its subject matter. The data is therefore not to provide help in knowledge-oriented situations. In a knowledge-oriented situation, a user consults the dictionary only to gain knowledge on a subject, not as a part of an ongoing communicative act (Nielsen, 2011: 210). It is therefore important to distinguish between the two functions. When a user for example consults a dictionary in order to find an equivalent, this user may also benefit from the definitions or collocations presented and thereby gain knowledge on the specific term. This will, however, not be considered a knowledge-oriented user situation as the user has not conducted the dictionary in order to gain this information, and this acquired knowledge should
only be regarded as a bonus (Tarp, 2008: 87). In order to be defined as a knowledge-oriented function, the user must consult the dictionary with a wish to actually gain knowledge on a specific subject matter. This is not a function that the SSM-dictionary is to fulfil as its function is to provide help during translation.

As the function of the SSM-dictionary is communicative, the dictionary can provide help in the following situations:

- Situations in which the user needs help understanding a term that is related to the SSM;
- Situations in which the user needs help translating a term;
- Situations in which the user needs help translating collocations.

The different usage situations create a demand for the dictionary to provide several search options and several types of data in order to help the user in the best possible way. How these functions are fulfilled is elaborated on in chapter 6. The above situations are the situations in which the dictionary is to provide help and therefore the function of the dictionary is to serve as a lexicographical tool offering relevant data to its user groups during a specific translation process.

Since the function of the SSM-dictionary has now been established, it is important to keep this in mind when continuing on with the preparation of the dictionary. Bergenholzt and Nielsen state that “No data whatsoever should be included in a dictionary if the inclusion cannot be justified on the basis of the dictionary’s respective functions” (2006: 288). Therefore, anything that is unnecessary and does not help the dictionary fulfil its function should be left out. The functions of a dictionary are the very essence of lexicography according to the function theory. They form the leading principle, and determine both form and content of a dictionary (Tarp, 2000: 198). All choices made during the preparation of the SSM-dictionary will therefore be based on its communicative function.

3.4.1 Genuine Purpose / Function of the Dictionary
As a dictionary can have more than one function, a distinction has been made between a dictionary’s function and its genuine purpose. It is stated by Tarp that “the genuine purpose of a dictionary is to satisfy the types of lexicographically relevant need that may arise in one or more types of potential user in one or more types of extra-lexicographical situation” (2008: 88). If a dictionary only has one function, this will coincide with its genuine purpose, but if the
dictionary has more functions these two will be distinctive. The SSM-dictionary only has one function, and therefore no distinction has to be made between the two. The concept of a genuine purpose is therefore not included in the further discussion in this thesis. When speaking of the function of the dictionary, this also refers to its genuine purpose. The function is a communicative one, and the dictionary is to help the users translate legal acts on the SSM. This is also the dictionary’s genuine purpose and therefore when referring to the dictionary’s function in the thesis, this coincides with its genuine purpose.

3.5 Sub-Conclusion
As the function of a dictionary determines both form and content of a dictionary, this has had to be established before anything else in this thesis. The users of the dictionary are the language staff employed by the ECB and students studying translation. These users have different needs due to their knowledge on LSP, subject field and translation in general, and these needs will have to be catered for in the dictionary. As the dictionary is to provide help translating legal acts on the SSM, their basic needs are, however, the same as they need assistance in understanding and translating the texts. The function of the dictionary has been determined to be communicative as the users need help during the translation process. What translation actually entails and which competences are needed from a legal translator will be elaborated on in chapter 4. It has been established that the dictionary is to assist the users in solving problems related to translation and in order to prepare a tool that can fulfil the needs of the translators in such situations, it has to be established what the translation process actually involves. Chapter 4 therefore provides an elaboration of the translation process and also on the competences needed by legal translators. This is to help determine the specific needs of the users as they are all to be translating legal acts.

4 Translation
As the primary function of the SSM-dictionary is a communicative one, this will form the basis for the following chapter. The dictionary is to help the users translate both terms and collocations related to the SSM. In order to determine what data the users will need in other for their needs to be fulfilled in connection with translation, it will have to be established what translation involves, and especially what legal translation involves as the texts being translated are legal acts. This chapter will therefore deal with translation in general and legal translation, and will also include a discussion of what is needed from a legal translator. This is to help
establish the extra-lexicographical needs that can occur, and to determine what data the translators will be in need of when consulting the dictionary in order for it to fulfil its function.

4.1 Translation Phases
Translation can be said to involve two overall phases: decoding and encoding, which are both composed of several sub-phases (Nord, 2005: 34; Bowker, 2012). Decoding is being utilised when the translator analyses and comprehends the source text, i.e. understands the text being translated, while encoding is being used when the translator communicates the target text, i.e. produces a text that is accurate and natural-sounding in the target language and fulfils its skopos (Bowker, 2012: 380). A definition of the skopos rule is provided in section 4.2.2. According to the two-phase model, the decoding phase is followed by the encoding phase, and these two phases are the only two, a translator has to go through. The three-phase model, however, includes a transfer phase (transcoding) in between the two in which the translator relates the intention of the target message to the meaning of the received message (Nord, 2005: 36). Nord, however, argues that none of these models represent the reality for translators. Nord does not reject that translation includes both decoding and encoding, but does not agree with the sequence in any of the models. Nord believes for the first step in the translation process to be an analysis of the skopos of the target text and not an analysis of the source text meaning. The analysis of the ST is the second step in the translation process, and is divided into a first part in which the translator establishes whether the skopos of the translation brief can be satisfied, and a second part in which the translator analyses in detail all the text elements that are of importance for the translation of the ST. The final step in the translation process is the final structuring in which the translator decides which target language elements will be suitable for the intended TT function (Nord, 2005: 37).

During the encoding phase – the phase in which the translation is being produced – the translator may need grammatical, syntactic, stylistic and pragmatic information, and information on collocations and phraseological data (Bowker, 2012: 381). One way for the translator to gain this information can be by consulting a dictionary. This will be elaborated on in the second part of this thesis. The general translation process has now been defined, but as the users are legal translators, the concept of legal translation is elaborated on in the following.
4.2 Legal Translation
Translation can be classified into several categories, for example literary and non-literary translation, ideational and interpersonal translation, and translation of pragmatic texts and literary or artistic texts (Cao, 2007: 7). More commonly, however, translation is classified into general, literary and specialist/technical translation. Which type of translation a text belongs to will be decided based on the differences and similarities between the different translation classes. The different translation types have their own peculiarities that make them belong to the specific class, but they will also share common grounds. This means that even though a translation can be categorised as belonging to one specific translation typology, this does not mean that the translation cannot share features with translations belonging to the other categories (Cao, 2007: 8). The texts on the SSM forming the basis for this thesis are all legal texts. Legal translation belongs to the specialist/technical category. Translating legal texts can be difficult as it does not only involve the translation of terms, but also of style and conventions. The translation activity of legal texts involves the use of language for specialised purpose (LSP).

4.2.1 LSP
As the SSM-dictionary is a specialised dictionary containing LSP, this will be shortly introduced in the following. Six features can be said to characterise an LSP variety (Chromá, 2004: 14):

(1) limited subject matter (in this thesis law and the SSM);
(2) lexical, semantic and syntactic restrictions (such as the use of terminology);
(3) “deviant” rules of grammar;
(4) high frequency of certain constructions (such as highly formalised sentence patterns in statutory texts);
(5) text structure;
(6) use of special symbols.

The first three will all form part of the lexicographical production of the dictionary entries. The subject matter is law, but the specific focus is on the SSM. The lexical, semantic and syntactic restrictions and the deviant rules of grammar will all form part of creating the entries for the dictionary. The last three, on the other hand, form part of not the specific entries, but one of the subject-field components in the SSM-dictionary. They can all be said to form part of the genre
conventions and linguistic structures that form the basis for the genre to which the dictionary is to be used, namely for translation of legal acts on the SSM. The frequency of sentence patterns and the structure in legal texts will therefore form the basis for the section on translating legal acts.

It is argued by Nielsen that “At a very general level, legal translators operate with three focal points: terminology, linguistic structures, and textual conventions” (2010: 24), but that the textual conventions have been given too little attention in the literature. Nielsen also refers to Asensio who argues that “[…] a genre can be described as a class of texts that is recognised as such by readers because these texts contain recognisable conventions regarding their structure and other linguistic elements and because they are produced in similar communicative situations” (Asensio, 2007, cited in Nielsen, 2010: 26). Therefore in order to translate an English legal text into Danish that has the same communicative purpose as is the case with texts on the SSM, the text has to be recognised in Danish as a legal text as well. In order for the Danish translation to be recognised as such certain genre conventions will have to be adapted to the target language due to differences in structures, style and use of symbols (as described above) in legal texts between the two languages. In order to determine the communicative purpose of the target text, the skopos rule can be applied. The skopos rule can help determine the purpose of the translation and can thereby help determine which strategy to apply during translation.

4.2.2 The Skopos Rule
The definition of the skopos rule is not completely consistent, as some uses the skopos rule to refer to the aim of both ST and TT, some use it to refer to the aim of the translation process itself, and some use it to refer to the aim of the TT only. In this thesis, the skopos rule will be used in accordance with the definition provided by Schjoldager (2008: 154), namely to refer to the aim of the TT. The rule of skopos says that the aim of the translation should be to produce a text that “serves a given purpose in the communicative situation” (Schjoldager, 2008: 154).

Before starting to translate, a translator must ascertain the legal status and communicative purpose of not only the ST, but also the TT. These may vary and therefore impact on translation. The legal texts on the SSM, however, all share the same communicative purpose in the source language (English) and the target language (in this thesis, Danish) as will be elaborated on in the following.
4.2.3 Classification of Legal Translation

In order to determine the communicative purpose of the legal acts being translated, they will first have to be classified. Cao classifies legal translation into three categories (2007: 10):

1. Translation for normative purposes;
2. Translation for informative purposes;
3. Translation for general or judicial purposes.

Translation for normative purposes is the production of “equally authentic legal texts in bilingual and multilingual jurisdictions of domestic laws and international legal instruments and other laws” (Cao, 2007: 10). These texts are not just the translation of law, they are the law itself. The legal texts of the EU all have the same legal force, even though most of them are originally produced in English (Cao, 2007: 11). Legal translations for normative purpose, therefore share the same communicative purpose in the ST and TT. The legal translations on the SSM are categorised as being translated for normative purposes as the TT is to be equally authentic and to share the same communicative purpose as the ST. Some of the legal texts on the SSM contain a note reading “Non-legislative act” e.g. Regulation (EU) 486/2014 (ECB, 2014), and therefore may be argued not to be normative in that they do not follow the above definition as they are not the law. However, the communicative purpose is still the same as that of the ST and the TT is still to be equally authentic. Even though the text is not legislative, it is still considered a legal instrument and therefore the translation will still be for normative purposes.

In order to understand what a translation for normative purposes really is, it is beneficial to also have a clear definition of the other two classifications for legal translations. Translations for informative purposes can for example be the translation of a Danish statute into English with the purpose of informing English speaking people on the Danish statute. The translated legal texts are therefore not legally enforceable, but only provide information. The third type of legal translation, translation for general or judicial purposes, refers to texts that are most often used in court proceedings as part of documentary evidence. These texts are descriptive and translated in order to help persons who do not speak the language of the court (Cao, 2007: 12). These texts differ from the second group, as these may also be translations of texts written by laypersons. The texts themselves are not of a legal character, but they are being used in a legal setting.
the second and third classification are not relevant for the translation process in this thesis, they are only included for informative purpose in order to distinguish between the different classifications of legal texts. The only classification used in this thesis will therefore be translations for normative purposes as the communicative purpose for translations within the EU is to provide legal texts that are legally binding in all countries within the EU.

Cao argues that for a translator it “is important to ascertain the status and communicative purposes of both the original text and the translation” (Cao, 2007: 12), and the status of and skopos for the translated documents will help form the basis for the tool that is to help the translators, namely the SSM-dictionary. As the legal texts on the SSM are prescriptive, it is important for the translator to also focus on the different genre conventions between the two languages. What is particularly difficult when translating legal texts is that legal language is not universal, but tied to a national legal system. National legal systems therefore have their own structure, rules, terminology and principles (Cao, 2007: 24). A legal translator does not only need data on the terminology used within the specific legal system, but also data on the structure of the legal texts as was argued in section 4.2.1. Genre conventions and linguistic structures will therefore also form part of this thesis, as data on these can help the translator produce texts that do not look like translations to the receiver. It is argued by Krogh-Hansen (1994: 118) that it is important for a translation to look like a usual text in the target language, meaning that the reader should not be able to identify the text as a translation. As the skopos of the texts translated on the SSM by the ECB is to provide Danish readers – and the citizens within the other EU-countries – with official EU-texts that are legally enforceable, the texts will have to appear as legal texts in the target languages. The citizens are to be able to read the rules that apply to themselves and the texts are to appear as legal texts in the target language in order for the receivers to fully understand the texts as being not only descriptive, but especially prescriptive as they lay down the legal framework.

It has now been defined what translation is and what the skopos of the legal acts being translated on the SSM is. Before continuing on to the preparation of the dictionary, it is, however, important to also establish the competences of the users of the dictionary, namely legal translators. The following sections will elaborate on the required competences of legal translators in order for these to help determine the needs of the users and thereby the data that the SSM-dictionary will have to provide in order to help its users.
4.2.4 The Legal Translator

In order to be able to create successful translations of legal texts, a legal translator (1) [...] must acquire a basic knowledge of the legal systems, both in the SL and TL; (2) must possess familiarity with the relevant terminology; and (3) must be competent in the TL-specific legal writing style (Cao, 2007: 37). In line with Cao (2007: 38), translation is seen as a knowledge-based activity, in this thesis. The knowledge-based activity is based on three aspects: the acquisition of knowledge, the storage of acquired knowledge in memory and reactivation of internalised knowledge (Cao, 2007: 39). In order to understand what a legal translator must possess in order to be successful, Cao distinguishes between translation competence and translation proficiency. Competence is being defined as referring to “knowledge of language as separate from the ability to use this knowledge”, whereas proficiency refers to “knowledge, competence or ability in the use of language irrespective of how, where or under what conditions it has been acquired” (Cao, 2007: 39). Translation proficiency is therefore the translator’s ability to mobilise translation competences in order to create a legal translation that matches the legal setting and the communicative purpose. To produce a successful translation, there are three basic components that are required for the translator for communicative use in translation. These are illustrated in the model below, and elaborated on in the following.

![Figure 2: Model of translational competence (Cao, 2007: 41)](image-url)
Translational language competence refers to the translator needing to have language competence in two languages, namely the SL and the TL which is the basis for all communicative language use. Translation has its own peculiarities and, according to Cao, translational language competence includes “(1) organisational competence in the SL and TL, which consists of (a) grammatical and (b) textual competence; and (2) pragmatic competence in the SL and TL, which consists of (a) illocutionary and (b) sociolinguistic competence” (2007: 42).

Translational knowledge structures are “the knowledge that is essential to achieve interlingual and intercultural communication in translation” (Cao, 2007: 44), meaning that the translator also needs to have knowledge on the subject matter being translated and on the world as a whole. In her discussion on translational knowledge, Cao refers to Wilss who state that “whether translators understand an LSP text depends, apart from familiarity with the respective terminology, upon their knowledge of the respective domain” (Wilss, 1996a, cited in Cao, 2007: 46). The translators do not only need data on terminology in order to produce a successful translation, but knowledge on the subject matter, in this case law, is also a prerequisite.

Translational strategic competence refers to the translator’s ability to process and synthesise. It can be defined as “the mental capacity for implementing the components of translational language competence and knowledge structures in contextualised translational activities” (Cao, 2007: 48). It is therefore the process in which the translator assesses, plans and executes the translation using his/her language competence and knowledge structures.

The above translation competences, i.e. translational language competence, translational knowledge structures and translational strategic competence, together constitute the translators translation proficiency. These competences are closely related and through the interaction of these competences, the translator can be able to produce a successful translation. The SSM-dictionary should help the users with the first two components by providing data than can help them acquire these competences. By providing data on these two components, the users should be able to use these data to plan and execute the translation process in order to create successful translations.
4.3 Sub-Conclusion

The above elaboration on translation in general, legal translation and the legal translator is an important starting point for preparing the SSM-dictionary. In order to prepare a dictionary, it is crucial to understand the users: not only in terms of their linguistic competences, but also in terms of their needs as translators. In order to prepare a translation tool that can actually help the users, it has to first be established what translation is and how this applies to the legal translators. Hereafter, it is possible to decide on what data it is necessary to include in the dictionary in order to create a tool that can help the users in all possible ways.

First of all, it is important to establish the skopos of a translation in order to be able to translate. The texts for which the SSM-dictionary is supposed to help as an aid can be said to all share the same skopos: they are all prescriptive. The users will therefore need data that can help them produce texts in which the ST elements are transferred to the TT without it appearing as a translation. As a legal translator does not only need language competence, but also translational knowledge structures, the SSM-dictionary will also provide help in this field. It will not only provide help in terms of translating LSP by providing a component on genre conventions and linguistic structures, it also contains a component that provides data on the SSM overall, not to help specifically translate, but to provide data that can help the translators gain knowledge on the subject matter. This can help the translators during the decoding phase of the translation process as it is in this phase, the translators analyse and try to understand the text that they are to translate. It was argued in section 4.1 that an analysis of the skopos of the target text is the first part in the translation phase. As the skopoi of the target texts have been argued to be the same for all the legal acts, namely to be legally enforceable just as the source texts are, the translators should have established this before even consulting the dictionary.

Before starting to prepare the dictionary and determining what data to include, it will be discussed why an electronic dictionary is preferred over a printed one. It will also be determined in this chapter, how the users can benefit from an electronic dictionary and how the different users can have their specific needs fulfilled. While the above chapter helps form the basis for the content of the dictionary, the following chapter will help form the basis for the structure of the content. Both content and structure is determined by the dictionary’s respective functions.
5 Electronic versus Printed Dictionary

5.1 Why Electronic and not Printed Dictionary?

There are several reasons for producing an electronic dictionary instead of a printed dictionary. First of all “Many experts are of the opinion that online dictionaries are the dictionaries of the future” (Müller-Spitzer, 2014: 4). Electronic dictionaries offer new possibilities for the lexicographers when producing dictionaries that are to fulfil the needs of the users. One of the main advantages from an electronic dictionary is that it is not constrained by space as is the case for printed dictionaries (Bowker, 2012: 379). Another great advantage is that the data sets and their components can easily be changed and new data can be added. The SSM is still a rather new subject field and therefore it is very beneficial for a lexicographer to have an open-ended dictionary. Not only can new terms be included, new definitions can also be added and as more texts are written on the subject, the corpus forming the basis for the electronic dictionary can also be enlarged, enabling more data to be included in the database. Some of the terms on the SSM are completely new in both English and Danish and therefore the translations of the terms can end up being changed due to the subject field being completely new. By working with a database, data can easily be added, revised and deleted, which is fundamental when producing a tool for translation on a subject that is rapidly changing (Nielsen and Fuertes-Olivera, 2013: 330). Another great advantage from having an online dictionary with a search engine is that it takes away the problem of compounds. As the words are not listed alphabetically, but will be found through a search on the lemma – whether this is a single word or a compound – the translator can search on the compound in just one search instead of having to look up every part of the compound in order to see where in the dictionary the compound is listed. Kewley-Draskau argues that the concepts and terms within one subject area are always expressed from a synchronous angle, and that these concept systems are changed over time (1994: 104). The tool providing help in the translation process will therefore have to be adaptable to changes as the terms may change their meaning over time, or may be translated into something different in the target language.

5.2 The Relation between the Database and the Electronic Dictionary

As a lexicographer working on an electronic tool, it is important to know the distinction between a database and the dictionary. Many believe for the database and the dictionary to be the same, but this is not the case. A lexicographical database has by Bergenholtz and Nielsen been defined as: “A database constructed to contain lexicographical data” (2013: 87). As with
the Accounting Dictionaries, many electronic dictionaries can be said to be electronic constructions having several components (Nielsen and Fuertes-Olivera, 2013: 328). For the Accounting Dictionaries and the dictionary in this project, three components make up the electronic construction. The database contains data that has been selected by lexicographers and is “structured in a way that facilities search and retrieval” (Nielsen and Fuertes-Olivera, 2013: 328). The second component is the SSM-dictionary as it is presented to the users. This is the user interface and does not contain any lexicographical data. Another interface also exists in a lexicographical project, namely the interface presented to the lexicographers when entering data into the database. The third component is the search engine which gives the users access to the lexicographical data that is contained in the database. The database and the dictionary are therefore not identical, but separate components. The database is nothing but a box containing the data that is to be presented in the dictionary. The database does exist even without anything in it, which is the reason for it being referred to as a box in which you can store something, in this case data. It does not contain structured data, but for a dictionary it will contain data in the different fields (Bergenholtz and Nielsen, 2013: 79). One of the benefits from a database is that the data is not structured, meaning that the entities are not necessarily separate, but can be connected to one another. If data is changed somewhere in the database, it will also change everywhere else where it is being used as the data can be related to each other. One of the most important features, however, is interdependency. All the data elements are dependent on other elements within the database and are presented in different tables (Nielsen and Almind, 2011: 143). Depending on the queries entered by the user of the dictionary, these elements will then through their interdependency return a data set that through the presentation of different elements, e.g. collocations and examples, can help the user in the specific situation. The most important thing to keep in mind is that "the database has no direct relationship to the intended use or user group" (Bergenholtz and Nielsen, 2013:79). Therefore, the data included in the database is not necessarily shown to the user as what they see is the dictionary as it is being presented in the interface. When the user enters a query, the data will be found in the different elements of the database and will result in displayed data, called the data set. This data set will contain data from different elements within the database that are combined in order to fulfil the request entered by the user. The different entries presented, can be related to other entries as well, but only the entries relevant to the user’s query should be presented. The result displayed
on the screen to the user after having been formatted is then what is called the dictionary; the
database is just the box containing all the interdependent data that can be useful to the user.

5.3 Sub-Conclusion
One of the main benefits from the database and the dictionary being separate is that the
dictionary can be monofunctional, and that it can help the users with their specific problems. By
having the data stored in tables in the database, the user can search for the needed data through
several search options without having to retrieve unnecessary data that does not help solve a
specific problem. The structures of the database and the dictionary should help the dictionary
fulfil its function by providing help based on the users’ needs. By having access to an electronic
dictionary that has all its data stored in a database, the user can benefit from the
interdependency of the elements within the dictionary. The user can therefore customise his/her
search in order to retrieve the relevant data. Why it is important for the users to be able to
customise their searches, and how the different elements and fields within the database actually
interact and are used to present entries to the users is presented in section 6.2.2 on entry
structure.

6 Entries and Access Routes

6.1 Lemma Selection
The term lemma refers to the headwords in a dictionary. A lemma can take the form of a word,
an abbreviation, a partial word or a phrase. Atkins and Rundell define a lemma as the “‘target’
of some form of lexicographic description, most commonly a definition or a translation” (2008:
163). The word-forms being chosen from the text corpus have to be lemmatised before being
included in the articles in the dictionary (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 88). The verb ‘authorise’
for example take several word-forms in the corpus, including ‘authorised’ and ‘authorises’. The
lemma being studied and included in the dictionary for verbs is the infinitive form. For this
specific verb, the lemma is ‘authorise’.

When deciding which words to include as headwords, there are five types of lexical structure to
be distinguished (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 180). These five are three types of simple items
being simple words, abbreviations and contractions, and partial words, and two types of
multiword expressions being fixed phrases and compounds. Single words are defined as “any
complete word written between two spaces” (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 180). Most headwords
in dictionaries in general take this form and this is also the case for the headwords in the SSM-dictionary. An example of an abbreviation is ‘NCA’ which is selected as a lemma in the dictionary even though ‘national competent authority’ is also a lemma. An example of a partial word is the bound affix ‘-ment’ which is used in for example ‘assessment’. These partial words are not given headword status in the dictionary, but are present in the entries. An example of a multiword expression is the fixed phrase ‘duty to cooperate in good faith’. This is a fixed phrase used by the ECB and EU and it also has an equivalent in Danish which is fixed. Atkins and Rundell argue that fixed phrases are normally handed within the entry of one of the lexical words within the phrase, but in the SSM-dictionary some of these fixed phrases are given lemma status as for some of the phrases, none of the lexical items within the phrase is given lemma status. Compounds are multiword expressions which are more often given headword status in dictionaries. This is also the case in the SSM-dictionary. An example of this is the compound ‘member state’. Phrasal verbs are also considered multiword expressions, but their status as lemma is based on the user’s knowledge on what phrasal verbs are (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 182). As the users of the SSM-dictionary are all considered semi-experts or experts in language, they are expected to know what phrasal verbs are and will therefore need to be able to search for them. Some phrasal verbs have therefore been given lemma status as for example ‘set out’. Words from most word classes will be included and lemmatised in the dictionary, namely verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions. This does not mean that the users cannot find data on other word classes such as pronouns and determiners: these word classes will be included in the entries, but will not be given lemma status.

The above examples of lemmata are not necessarily being presented in full articles in the following, but have only been included in order to provide examples of what the status will be of the different types of lexical structures in the dictionary. Before determining the principle for the lemma selection, the fields being covered by the dictionary will have to be established. In order to know which and how many terms to include, it is important to know how much of the subject field the dictionary is to cover.

6.1.1 Fields Covered by the Dictionary
Dictionaries can cover either a multi-field, single-field or sub-field. Single-field dictionaries cover the terms of an entire subject field, whereas multi-field dictionaries cover two or more domains, and sub-field dictionaries cover part of a domain. Single-field dictionaries can be
divided into two, namely a general-field dictionary trying to cover the entire subject field in question, and a sub-field dictionary covering a sub-field of the subject field (Nielsen, 2003: 173). While general-field dictionaries tries to cover all the terms within a subject field, sub-field dictionaries contain word lists covering part of the domain and therefore do not need a maximised word list. The SSM-dictionary can be argued to only cover one subject field, namely the SSM. The legal acts on the SSM, however, do not only cover one domain but two, namely law and economics. The dictionary is therefore a multi-field dictionary, but also a sub-field dictionary as it does not try to cover the entire fields of any of the domains. The word lists for sub-field dictionaries are shorter as not an entire field is being covered and therefore this type of dictionary can easier be adapted to changes. The decision on whether to cover an entire field or a sub-field, helps determine whether the dictionary should have a maximised or minimised word list (Fuertes-Olivera, 2012: 404). The decision to prepare a sub-field dictionary therefore influences the choices made during lemma selection which is elaborated on in the following sections.

6.1.2 The Principle for Lemma Selection
The selection of lemmata for a dictionary can be based on two principles, namely a maximising and a minimising one. When choosing a maximising lemma selection, the scope is cover to cover all the vocabulary of the specific LSP. The minimising principle, on the other hand, omits potential lemmata that are considered to be less important in terms of the classification of the subject (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1994: 102). As the legal framework on the SSM is still being developed by the ECB and the EU, the SSM-dictionary cannot cover the entire vocabulary of the LSP – at least not at the moment. Even though the corpus was argued to be representative at the beginning of this thesis, this does not mean that the texts written so far can cover the entire LSP of the subject field. The lemma selection is therefore based on the minimising principle. Lemmata which are considered important for the potential users to fulfill their needs are included.

It is argued by Fuertes-Olivera and Nielsen that by implementing the principle of relevance, as will be elaborated on in section 6.1.4, it is possible to design a maximised sub-field dictionary (Fuertes-Olivera and Nielsen, 2011: 163). It is, however, argued that a bilingual legal dictionary containing more than 10,000 words can be labelled as a maximising dictionary (Nielsen, 2003: 167). Based on the above discussion of the current scope of the subject field and also this
labelling, the draft SSM-dictionary can only be based on a minimised word list. As the LSP on the SSM develops and more legal acts on the SSM are written, the word list can become longer and the dictionary can contain not only more words, but can also cover more of the subject field. The purpose of the SSM-dictionary is to cover the full range of the vocabulary and is supposed to do so as the subject field develops and new terms are included.

The basis for the selection is the corpus that has been presented in chapter 2 and is available in Appendix 1. The principles for selecting which lemmata to include from the corpus are based on both frequency and relevance. The reason behind this and the reason for the dictionary to not only include LSP will be elaborated on in the following.

6.1.3 Specialised and General Language
Bergenholtz and Tarp recommend using both specialised terms and terms that are rather frequent in the corpus texts, when preparing a lexicographical tool that is to be used for text production and translation (1994: 104). As most translators are only completely fluent in one of the languages, they may have a need for more general language to be included in the dictionary. By providing this, the user will not have to consult several dictionaries when translating. Having as much data as possible for the user in one resource, can therefore be an argument for combining general and specialised content in a dictionary. Specialised terms only make up about 20 percent of a text (Bowker, 2012: 382), and if general language is not included in the dictionary, the translator will have to consult other dictionaries as well in order to translate. Therefore, for the SSM-dictionary to support the translation process as a whole, it will also contain general language – especially in terms of collocations, in order for translators to identify which words, e.g. adverbs, specific terms collocate with. Translation students will have an even higher need for general language to be included, as they will not yet be so familiar with the English language as experienced translators, and therefore may need additional help when translating general language. One way of choosing which general terms to include, can be through the use of corpus-based frequency data (Bowker, 2012: 384). It is argued by Bergenholtz and Tarp that this is a suitable way of including general language if the text corpus is large enough and covers a large part of the subject field (1994: 104). By using frequency data, the terms that the translators will often encounter can be selected as lemmata. Frequency data can be argued to not be the most useful data: just because a term is frequent in a text, it is not necessarily difficult to translate. However, general terms occurring frequently in a text, can
be used in several ways depending on the phrases in which it appears, and therefore such data can help the translator choose the correct translation and use in the specific phrases.

While frequency data can be used to select which lemmata to include on general language, it is not beneficial when deciding which terms to include from the specialised language. The text corpus will also be used in this process, but the selection principle will be based on relevance instead of frequency. No matter what the selection process is based on, the most important is that the corpora can also provide data on and give examples for the lexicographer of typical grammatical patterns, selectional restrictions, collocates and context, all of which are very useful for a translator when looking for help while translating a term or a phrase.

6.1.4 The Principle of Relevance
According to Fuertes-Olivera and Nielsen, the data selection process for specialised dictionaries should be based on the principle of relevance, meaning “[...]the quality of being directly connected with the subject field in question, the function(s) of the dictionary, and the user situations in which the dictionary is intended to be used” (2011: 162). The data that is provided in a dictionary should support a lexicographical function which has been defined beforehand, and should not provide any data that is of no concern to the intended user. The principle of relevance is applied in order to separate useful lexicographical data from data that is not useful for the intended user and does not comply with the function of the dictionary. The data provided in the dictionary should take the skills and competences of the user into consideration, and not provide data that will not serve the needs of the users in terms of their competences (Nielsen, 2012: 118). One of the main principles behind choosing lemmata according to relevance is that specialised dictionaries cannot be based on the principle of frequency. This strategy can be useful for dictionaries on general language, but not dictionaries on specialised language (Fuertes-Olivera and Nielsen, 2011: 163), which is the case for the SSM-dictionary. This is also the argumentation that has been used above where the lemmata from general language have been based on frequency. The main principle guiding the selection of specialised lemmata is therefore relevance: if a lemma is considered relevant in terms of fulfilling the function of the dictionary, it will be included in the dictionary. In practice this means that lemmata that are relevant for the users in connection with translation of legal acts on the SSM should be included in the dictionary.
The principle of relevance is used to determine which lemmata to include in order for them to fulfil the needs of the users in terms of their skills and competences. In order to apply the principle of relevance defined by Fuertes-Olivera and Nielsen, the subject matter of the dictionary has to be delimited. Only by doing this can the relevant terms, collocations and phrases be selected (Nielsen, 2005: 12). By delimiting the subject matter, the text corpus will be based on texts that contain relevant lemmata. The subject matter in the SSM-dictionary is legal texts on the SSM, and the focus of the lemmata is therefore on both legal terms and the SSM in general.

An example of the principle of relevance being applied is provided in the following. The principle of relevance has not only guided the selection of lemmata, but also their equivalents. All of the Danish equivalents have been found in the corpus of the SSM-texts written by the ECB. The lemmata might have several meanings, but if only one meaning is used by the ECB, only this Danish equivalent is included in the dictionary. One example hereof is the translation of the English lemma ‘authorisation’. By looking this up in an English-Danish dictionary, for example The Accounting Dictionaries, there are several translations to choose from.

Example 1: Looking up the term ‘acquisition’ in the Accounting Dictionaries (Nielsen, Mourier and Bergenholtz, 2004-2009)
In the corpus, it becomes obvious that when using the term ‘acquisition’ in connection with the SSM, it refers to the Danish term ‘erhvervelse’. This is therefore the equivalent provided in the dictionary. The dictionary is only to provide the equivalents that are relevant for the specific users, which is the equivalent being used by the ECB. This is also in line with Fuertes-Olivera stating that the lexicographer “must opt for a one-to-one equivalent in specialized lexicography” (Fuertes-Olivera, 2011: 107). In specialised language, the users need precise meaning of a term in order for them to choose the correct equivalent, and therefore only the relevant equivalents should be included.

The principle of relevance is mainly applied for selecting lemmata from the text corpus. As was defined in the section 4.2.1, an LSP is characterised by the following six features:

1) limited subject matter (in this thesis law and the SSM);
2) lexical, semantic and syntactic restrictions (such as the use of terminology);
3) “deviant” rules of grammar;
4) high frequency of certain constructions (such as highly formalised sentence patterns in statutory texts);
5) text structure;
6) use of special symbols.

It was argued that the first three would form the basis for the lemma selection and this is also the case. The principle of relevance is applied to select the terms from the text corpus that are deemed relevant not only in terms of the subject matter (such as the lemma ‘Single Supervisory Mechanism’), but also in terms of the restricted use of terminology (such as the term ‘acquisition’) and the “deviant” rules of grammar which are being included in the collocations and examples. These three have all been used to determine which terms, collocations and examples to include, and if the selected items were deemed relevant to the users in terms of satisfying their needs and fulfilling the dictionary’s function, they were included in the word list that should form the basis for the dictionary.

Had I had a concordance programme available, this would have been used this in order to compare the translations of the specific English term into Danish in different texts, especially for the use of frequency data. To prepare the entire dictionary, this would also have to be taken into use in order to find collocations and examples. However, as this dictionary is only a draft,
not that many terms have been chosen and therefore the process has not been too time-consuming. For each chosen term, the texts in the corpus have been searched through in order to find the Danish equivalents to the lemmata deemed relevant. If one English lemma was translated into the same in all the consulted texts, it was deemed an equivalent and thereby used in the entry. Should a lemma have two equivalents in Danish, these two will, however, both be included in the entry. The structure of the two entries is the same, but the two equivalents will contain numbers in order for the first entry to be placed above the other as in example 14 in section 6.2.2.7. By placing a number next to the first equivalent, the user will be made aware that another equivalent also exists even though this one may not be shown on the screen before scrolling down.

6.2 Searching the Dictionary

6.2.1 Information Costs
Lexicographical information costs are defined as the ease with which users are able to find the data they are searching for when consulting a dictionary. The costs are therefore “the effort that a user believes or feels is associated with consulting a dictionary, an article or any other text part of a dictionary” (Nielsen, 2008: 173). This does not only entail the search result in itself, but also the ease with which the user can find the required data in a data set. Information costs can be divided into two, namely search-related information costs and comprehension-related information costs. The first refers to the efforts that are related to the look-up activities required by a user when consulting a dictionary, and the latter are the user’s ability to interpret and understand the data being presented in the dictionary (Nielsen and Fuertes-Olivera, 2013: 13). The search-related information costs can be influenced by the access route, article structure, data distribution and cross-references (Nielsen, 2008: 170). The comprehension-related information costs, on the other hand, are influenced by the user’s ability to understand the presented data. The information costs are therefore a natural part of the process when consulting a dictionary and may not have a negative effect on the user’s experience. It is, however, argued by Nielsen that “[…]if they do not form part of the natural process they interrupt it, thereby becoming salient, causing users to notice them” (2008: 172). The aim for an electronic dictionary is to create a search engine in which the user can easily access the data, but also to present the data sets with a layout that makes the data easily comprehended and
interpreted by the user. The search options also play a part in this. In order for the search-related information costs to be kept down, the electronic dictionary will have to offer different search options to the user. According to Nielsen “the search options available in electronic dictionaries directly affect the users' perception of costs associated with finding help to solve their problems” (2008: 174), meaning that the user should not only be given the option to search for the specific term, but should be able to customise the search. This will present the user with a data set that is more easily comprehended as unnecessary data can be left out by the search engine, and for the user to be given the possibility of finding exactly what he/she is looking for without having to scroll through unnecessary data in the returned data set.

A dictionary will have to be built on potential users, user situations, user needs and types of data needed, as it cannot be build directly upon concrete and individual phenomena (Fuertes-Olivera, 2012: 400). However, all of these factors will create an individual act and therefore individualisation is important when it comes to e-lexicography. E-lexicography offers the opportunity of customisation as the content can be individualised depending on the specific users and their situations and needs. To keep down the lexicographical information costs that will force the user to search through a long text to find what is searched for, the dictionary offers more than just one search option. The user will not have to search through the entire text, but all the data will be kept in the same database from which the user can search. The users of the SSM-dictionary can search for help during one of the translation phases, whether this is during decoding, transfer or encoding. The users can search for data on a specific term in order to either understand it or in order to communicate the target text.

This elaboration on information costs helps form the basis for the following sections on the structure of an access to the data included in the SSM-dictionary.

6.2.2 Entry Structure
When deciding whether a linguistic feature should be included in the dictionary or not, decisions have to be based on certain things, namely “how much space it requires; how this impacts the system as a whole; whether it is in the best interest of users to devote so much space to it; [and] what has to be jettisoned to make that possible” (Atkins & Rundell, 2008: 23). These criteria will help a lexicographer decide on how much data should be included on a specific lemma. As has already been argued, whether a translator is translating to or from his/her mother tongue will have an influence on which and how much data is necessary. It is
stated by Atkins and Rundell that “an entry written for the SL-speaking user has to be much fuller than one for the TL-speaker” (2008: 487). As the communicative function of the SSM-dictionary is to help users translate from a foreign language into their mother tongue, the structure of the entries and the data contained in them reflect this. As the users are not only translating into their mother tongue, but can also be considered semi-experts – and some experts – within language and language use, the entries do not have to be as full as if the translational situation was for SL-speakers and if the tool was for users who were not that familiar with translating. This is the reason for the dictionary to not contain data on for example word class. The users of the dictionary are all at least semi-experts within language and should be able to identify themselves what the word class of a specific term. Even though the word class may not be obvious from the lemma, it can be identified in the examples provided. In cases of homonymy, the user will, however, be provided with an option to choose which one is being searched for. As the lemma selection is based on the principle of relevance, the fields on collocations and examples take up much space as these are relevant to the users in relation to their skills and the communication-oriented function of the dictionary. Grammatical data will, however, not be excluded from the dictionary. Inflections and grammatical number will be included in cases of irregularities. If a term does not follow the normal grammatical pattern for the LSP of the SSM or economics, or if an inflection or grammatical number differs between the two languages in question, this data will be included in the entry. This sort of data will not have its own field, but will in most cases be placed in the notes field.

In the database, the entries are all structured as in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lemma</th>
<th>Equivalent</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Synonyms</th>
<th>Collocations</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Cross-references</th>
<th>References</th>
<th>Notes</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

*Table 1: Entry structure in the database*

As this is how the entries are structured in the database and not how they are shown to the users, not all fields have to be filled in for the individual lemmata. Most lemmata will not need
a note and in these cases this field will be left blank in the database. As the database and the
dictionary are separate, leaving the field blank will mean nothing for the search result shown to
the user. This will not contain a blank field in the data set returned to the user, but the search
engine will return a result in which this field is left out. The source-field will never be shown in
the dictionary to the user. This field is only used by the lexicographers in their interface. In this
field, the lexicographer can add data on where the data presented in the entry has been found.
This is only to help the lexicographers working on the project and is of no use to the user of the
dictionary. The fields can also contain sub-fields. As will be obvious from the following
evaluation of the specific field, cross-references can be placed within other fields. Therefore a
sub-field will have to be available in the fields on definition, synonyms, collocations, examples
and notes as the cross-references can be placed in these fields which is elaborated on in section
6.2.2.5.2.

The specific fields provided in the user interface in the dictionary are elaborated on in the
following. All the discussions of the fields include at least one example. These examples are
only to present the specific field being discussed and do not show the full entries as they will
appear in the interface in the search results.

The entries are presented to the users in the following order and with the following headings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Lemma)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oversættelse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synonymer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordforbindelser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eksempler på kontekst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Se også</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yderligere data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bemærk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Entry structure in the database

It is argued by Nielsen that a dictionary should contain both data on the form of the lemma,
syntagmatic and paradigmatic data, and extra-lexicographical data (Nielsen, 2003: 171). The
form of the lemma and its equivalent presents the spelling of the two. No data on e.g.
pronunciation is included as the function of the dictionary deals with spoken language. The
individual fields also contain both syntagmatic and paradigmatic data. Syntagmatic data is
provided in the collocations and examples as these help the users identify the use of the lemma.
Paradigmatic data can be found in the field on synonymy, but also in the note field as additional data on the use of the lemmata can be found in this field. Extra-lexicographical data will concern the subject matter of the dictionary, in this case being law and the SSM, and data on this is provided in the field named ‘yderligere data’ containing references to the subject-field components.

What the individual fields include and how they are presented to the users is discussed and illustrated in sections 6.2.2.1-6.2.2.7. The examples provided in the individual sections are also illustrated in Appendix 6 as some of them are being referred to in other sections than the ones they are placed in.

**6.2.2.1 Definitions**

As the translation process includes several phases, the users will need to be provided with data that can help them in all of these phases. During the decoding phase, definitions can help the users understand the individual terms. It was argued in section 4.2.4 that legal translators “must possess familiarity with the relevant terminology” (Cao, 2007: 37). The definitions can therefore help the users during the decoding of the texts that they are to translate, but also during the transfer and encoding process. The definitions provided can help the users make sure that the lemma they have looked up is actually the lemma being searched for and thereby make sure that they have found the correct equivalent.

As it has now been established why it is relevant to include definitions, it will also have to be defined what definitions entail and how they should be customised to match with the skills and competences of the users. Nielsen defines a definition as: “The specific set of data that explains the meaning of a lemma and which is clearly addressed to the lemma” (2011: 202). A definition can differ depending on who the user is, and the user types can again be divided into layperson, semi-expert and expert. The users of the SSM-dictionary may be experts within certain fields e.g. law and translation, but as the knowledge on the SSM can be rather limited for the translation students and even for some freelancers, the definitions are aimed at semi-experts. The users are expected to have basic knowledge on the SSM – which for example can be found in the subject-field components or by reading through the component containing English and bilingual texts on the SSM, – but as most of them are neither experts within law nor economics, the definitions are produced in order to meet their factual needs and their competences.
An example of a definition is presented in the entry below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>authorisation</th>
<th>Oversættelse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tilladelse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Definition**

Et dokument af enhver art udstedt af myndighederne, som giver tilladelse til at påbegynde virksomhed som kreditinstitut.

**Example 2: Definitions**

In point (42) of Article 4(1) of Regulation (EU) No 575/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council, ‘authorisation’ has in the Danish version been defined as “en fra myndighederne hidrørende akt, uanset formen, som medfører ret til at drive virksomhed” (Europa-Parlamenet and Rådet, 2013). This, however, would probably not make sense to all the potential users of the dictionary due to their competences. Some users would have to look up the term in another place to understand the meaning of it, which would only lead to frustration and the dictionary will not live up to its purpose if it does not fulfil the needs of its users. The users with a thorough legal knowledge may consider this “normal” language, but as the users also include translation students, the definitions are not aimed at experts, but semi-experts and the definition has therefore been changed in order to coincide with the level of expertise of the users. At the end of the definition, it has been added that an authorisation gives the right to carry out the business as a credit institution. This is not included in the definition provided in the regulation, but this is what is being referred to. In general ‘authorisation’ does not only refer to this type of business, but as the dictionary is to provide data on the SSM, this has been included as this is what is relevant for the users. It is argued by Tarp that “data cannot be taken over uncritically from empirical research” (2010: 460) and therefore the data presented in the dictionary is adapted to the users’ competences and their needs.

**6.2.2.2 Synonyms**

Synonyms are defined as words who share the same meaning. In order to determine that the relationship between two words is synonymous, the formula “If X then Y, if Y then X” (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 135) has to be followed. For the legal acts on the SSM many of the synonyms detected are actually abbreviations. All of the abbreviations, e.g. ECB, NCA and
SSM, can, however, be argued to be synonym to European Central Bank, national competent authority and Single Supervisory Mechanism if the linguistic formula is followed. The synonyms are included in the dictionary in order for the users to easily identify the relationship between two lemmata as illustrated in the example below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>national competent authority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Oversættelse</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kompetent national myndighed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Synonym</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⇒ NCA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example 3: Synonyms**

If the synonym also has its own entry as is the case for the above example, a reference will be made to this entry. The different types of cross-references included in the dictionary are elaborated on in section 6.2.2.5. In the case of ‘national competent authority’, the user will understand the relationship between the two by clicking the hyperlink and will see that the two English synonyms are translated into the same in Danish namely the full term ‘kompetent national myndighed’ as the abbreviation in itself is not used in the Danish texts.

6.2.2.3 Collocations

A collocation in terms of the English tradition can be defined as two or more words that go together or are likely to go together in a text (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1994: 121). It is, however, not enough for the group of words to be placed together, they must also have a syntactic relation. The selection of collocations for dictionaries of LSP can be based on a criterion of technical relevance. This means that the collocations must be relevant for the specialised language and that not all collocations need to be included if they are not relevant in terms of the specialised and technical language (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1994: 122). Nielsen and Fuertes-Olivera state that translators need syntactic knowledge on the combination of words and structuring of word groups in order to avoid what they call “linear dislocation” (2013: 327). As the aim for the dictionary is to provide help during translations, it is not enough for the dictionary to provide data on only equivalents. The dictionary should help translate the full text
and not only single terms. The purpose of the collocations is to help the user translate full text and to provide data that can help the translators use the terms correctly. According to Nielsen “*Online dictionaries should be regarded as complex lexicographic tools*” (2012: 114), and as there is no real space constraint on online dictionaries, there is plenty of space to include several collocations in order to help the user in the best possible way. The number of collocations needed can be based on the user’s knowledge of both subject matter and LSP.

An example of an article containing several collocations is presented below. Fuertes-Olivera et al. use collocations as an umbrella term covering “*word combinations that are typical for the kind of language in question*” (2012: 299). This definition has also been applied in this thesis. In linguistics a distinction is made between trivial word combinations and semantically distinct combinations from which only the latter are considered collocations (Fuertes-Olivera et al., 2012: 298). This distinction cannot be applied in the SSM-dictionary as it is to help users identify how different words collocate. It is therefore of no importance whether the collocations are considered trivial because as they have been identified in the corpus, they may help the users encountering such collocations in future translations. An illustration of the structure of collocations in an entry is provided below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>acquisition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Oversættelse</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ehvervelse</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ordforbindelser</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assessment of acquisitions and disposals of qualifying holdings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assessment of potential acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assessment of proposed acquisition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Example 4: Collocations*

The term ‘acquisition’ is not a legal term, but can be placed under the economic domain. It was argued that the dictionary was to cover not just the legal terms on the SSM, but also the economic terms as these are also included in the documents being translated and are relevant for the users.
Using collocations in an online dictionary also has the advantage that the user will not have to figure out which word has been given lemma status in order to look up that specific word as is the case with printed dictionaries. If for example an ST contains the collocation ‘authorisation to take up the business of a credit institution’, the user will not have to figure out which word has been given lemma status and then look up this term in order to find the solution. By entering the entire collocation into the search engine, the entry containing this collocation will appear to the user. The entry will still contain the same data as above, but the collocation being searched for will be highlighted in order to keep down the information costs as illustrated in example 5 below.

Example 5: Searching for collocations in ‘view full entry’ mode

This is, however, not the only search option for the users when searching for collocations or examples. Another search option is elaborated on in section 6.2.4.4.

6.2.2.4 Examples
Examples differ from collocations in that they always consist of one or more full sentences and never only part of sentences (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1994: 140).

Examples can be presented in three different ways:

1. **Examples taken directly from an authentic text**;

2. **Examples based on full sentences from authentic texts that are rewritten so that unnecessary parts are taken out (e.g. names, empty words and parenthetical clauses)**;
3. Examples created by the lexicographer, based solely on his or her own language competences (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1994: 141).

Even though the last option is argued to be the least time consuming, it was easily opted out as a corpus forms the basis for the dictionary in which examples can easily be found. The selection of examples has been based on the first two options. Some examples are taken directly from the corpus while some have been slightly rewritten if they have for example been too long. Too long examples do not only take up too much space, they will also increase the search-related information costs for the users as they may spend longer time finding the data that can provide them with the data they need. The following example illustrates how examples are included in the entries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NCA</th>
<th>Oversættelse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kompetent national myndighed</td>
<td>Eksempler på kontekst</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For this purpose, the NCAs should follow the instructions given by the ECB when performing the tasks mentioned in Article 4 of the SSM Regulation. Med henblik herpå skal de kompetente nationale myndigheder følge de af ECB givne instrukser ved udførelsen af de opgaver, som er fastsat i SSM-forordningens artikel 4.

For the purpose of Articles 48 and 49, a supervisory procedure shall mean an ECB or NCA supervisory procedure. Med henblik på artikel 48 og 49 betyder en tilsynsprocedure en ECB- eller NCA-tilsynsprocedure.

**Example 6: Examples**

The examples are included in order for the user to not only see the words that the lemma collocates with, but also to see examples of how the lemma is being used in a context. Several collocations and examples should be included in each entry in order to identify how the term is being used, but also in order for more text to be included from which the users can search. This search option is presented in section 6.2.4.4. The entries cannot contain an infinite number of collocations and examples. First of all, they have to be deemed relevant for the users, and
second of all, too many examples will increase the information costs as the users will have to search through a larger amount of data in order to find the data needed.

6.2.2.5 **See also/cross references**
There are two types of cross-references in the SSM-dictionary:

1) Cross-references from one lemma to another in a separate field;

2) Cross-reference from one lemma to another in another field within the entry.

6.2.2.5.1 Cross-references from one lemma to another in a separate field
If the user is reading the entry on for example ‘acquisition’, a cross-reference is made to the lemma ‘acquire’ as illustrated in example 7 below.

```
acquisition
Oversættelse
erhvervelse
Se også
⇒ acquire
```

**Example 7: Cross-reference from one lemma to another in a separate field**

That the reference is underlined means that a link is added to it and by clicking the reference, the user will be sent to the article being referred to. The cross-references can be to all sorts of lemmata on the different word classes and can be placed in the different fields in the entries. The above is an example of a noun containing a reference to a verb. By clicking this reference, the users will be taken to the entry on ’acquire’. By having a cross-reference between nouns and verbs, the users can be shown how a noun is being verbalised. If for example, the user is translating a section on acquisitions, one or more sentences might include the verbalised form of this noun and therefore the users can easily find this article in the dictionary after having searched for only the noun. The user will then be shown an article as the one below in which the user can see a context in which this verb is being used. The example below is just an example of what the article can look like, and is not a full article. The purpose of this example
is only to show what type of data the user can be presented with which may help in the specific situation.

Example 8: Clicking the hyperlink in the cross-reference

6.2.2.5.2 Cross-reference from one lemma to another in another field in the entry
The cross-references do not only appear in their own entry field, but can also be placed within another field. This is to help the users gain easy access to a lemma that is included in a specific field in an entry. The following provides an example of why this can be relevant.

Example 9: Cross-reference from one lemma to another in another entry field
This cross-reference to the article for ‘NCA’ has been included in the note as it is important for the user to be aware of this specific use. By placing this cross-reference in its own field, it would not have gained the same attention from the user. What the note field is to include is elaborated on under section 6.2.2.7 on notes.
6.2.2.6 References

The references do not only need to refer to other entries, but can also lead to dictionary components outside the entries. The references can be argued to also be cross-references as they also refer to other components within the dictionary, but as the two types of references are placed in different fields in the entry, this has been given another name. The references can assist the users during the translation process. During the decoding phase the user can benefit from the subject-field component on the SSM, and during the encoding phase the user can benefit from the component on genre conventions and linguistic structures. The subject-field components are presented in section 7.2, and the basic purpose of these components is to provide the users with additional data that can help them during the translation process. Some of the data provided could be included in the entries, but in order to keep down the information costs by not including too much data in one field, the data has been included in the subject-field components that will be referenced to in the relevant fields.

The search on for example ‘regulation’ will return an entry containing a reference to the component on genre conventions and linguistic structures. A section in this component deals with regulations both in terms of a definition and a table for translating the separate conventions and linguistic structures in a regulation.

| regulation
| Oversættelse
| forordning
| Yderligere data

⇒ 2.2.1 Definition af retsakter - forordning
⇒ 2.1.1 Oversættelse af retsakter - forordning

Example 10: References outside the entries

These hyperlinks can provide the user with help both in terms of understanding what a regulation is, but also in terms of translating a regulation. This subject-field component does not only contain a further description of what a regulation is, but also guiding principles for
translating regulations. What the component on the genre conventions and linguistic structures looks like and contain can be found in section 7.2.4. The numbering being used in the references is explained in section 7.2.2. The structure of the components is not relevant here and has only been included as an example.

The entries can also contain references to other subject-field components that can provide help understanding the specific terms on the SSM which can be relevant during the decoding phase. If for example the user searches for the term ‘significant bank’, the system will return an entry containing a hyperlink to the subject-field component on the SSM. This component contains sub-sections in which some of the main concepts used in connection with the SSM are being elaborated on.

### Example 11: References outside the entries

What this specific section contains is presented in example 20 in section 7.2.3, and what is included in the individual subject-field components is presented in chapter 7.

### 6.2.2.7 Notes

Notes can be used in dictionaries when lexicographers wish to provide the users with data that does not fit in elsewhere in the dictionary entry (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 233). These notes can be either subject-oriented usage notes or local usage notes. Subject-oriented usage notes provide data on a group of words related to one subject. These notes are often cross-referred to as they provide data on interrelated terms. Local usage notes provide data that is related specifically to the lemma. An example of a local usage note is given in the following entry.
**national competent authority**

**Oversættelse**

**kompetent national myndighed**

**Synonymer**

NCA

**Bemærk**

Både ‘NCA’ og ‘national competent authority’ oversættes oftest fuldt ud på dansk. Se dog ⇒ **NCA** for eksempler på ordforbindelser og eksempler, hvor dette ikke er tilfældet

---

**Example 12: Notes**

This note provides the user with data on how the term is being used. The user is informed that it makes no difference whether the English source text says ‘national competent authority’ or the abbreviation, ‘NCA’, as it is most often written in a full word in Danish. The note, however, guides the user to look up the entry ‘NCA’ to see collocations and examples in which this rule cannot be applied. This data could not have been placed anywhere else in the entry which is the argumentation for having a note field. It can be seen from the below entry on ‘NCA’ why it is so important for the users to also look up the entry for ‘NCA’.

---

**NCA**

**Oversættelse**

**kompetent national myndighed**

**Ordforbindelser**

NCA decision NCA-afgørelse

NCA supervisory procedures NCA-tilsynsprocedurer

---

**Example 13: Clicking the hyperlink in notes**
It was stated in section 6.2.2 that data on e.g. irregularities and inflections would be placed in this entry field. An example of a noun that is treated differently in English and Danish is the term ‘information’. In English, the noun is uncountable, but in Danish the equivalent is countable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

*Oversættelse*

1. information

*Ordforbindelser*

exchange information with NCAs *udveksle informationer med de kompetente nationale myndigheder*

*Bemærk*

På engelsk er substantivet *information* utælleligt, mens det på dansk er tælleligt.

2. oplysninger

*Example 14: Notes*

In the above example it is obvious that there is a difference in the countability of the term between the two languages, but the note helps identify this difference and informs the user on it. In the full entries, collocations and examples are also included in order for the users to identify the difference between the term in English and its Danish equivalent. The above is also an example of data that does not fit in elsewhere in the entry. The users can identify this by looking at the collocation, but may not identify this. As the users are semi-experts and some are learners of language, this note is deemed relevant. The noun ‘oplysninger’ is only included in this entry in order to show how a lemma with more than one equivalent is presented to the user.

As the individual entry fields have now been presented, the focus in the following sections is on the search options for the users. For the dictionary to be able to fulfil its function, it is not relevant for the users how the lemma is structured in the full entries, but rather how the data set presented to them can include only the relevant data. In order to satisfy the users’ needs, the
A dictionary will have to cater for their specific needs in a way that can keep down the information costs. The above sections have dealt with the entry structures within the database, while the following will deal with the data actually being shown to the users during their dictionary searches.

6.2.3 The Concept of Accessibility

It is argued by Fuertes-Olivera and Nielsen that internet dictionaries should be based on the concept of accessibility (2011: 263). This means that the data sought should be accessed quickly and easily. Online dictionaries should therefore make use of the possibilities offered by the internet as the access to and search options for the dictionaries can be different than those provided in printed dictionaries. Creating an online dictionary removes the space constraints as the database can contain enormous amounts of data. The issue is, however, to present the data in a way that can keep down the information costs for the users. Atkins and Rundell state that [...] there is always a tradeoff between coverage (how much information a dictionary includes) and accessibility (how easy it is for users to find the information they need and successfully process it)” (2008: 21). The users will be able to search through the enormous amount of data, but in order to make sure that they will not have to look through it all, the user interface should present the user with several search options. The purpose of providing different search options is for the dictionary to provide “retrieval on demand” (Fuertes-Olivera and Nielsen, 2011: 263). The users should be able to customise their searches to make sure that the returned data can help solve their specific need in a specific situation. As the SSM-dictionary is based on a database that does not have a specific macrostructure, the users can retrieve the data sought by customising their search as the data is not structured in the database, but structured in the interface in which the search result is returned to the user.

6.2.4 Search options

Nielsen and Almind argue that search options depend on user needs. The users should be able to retrieve data in such a way that they can turn it into the needed information (Nielsen and Almind, 2011: 155). In dictionaries that only offer one search option to its users, it can be difficult to keep down both the search-related and the comprehension-related information costs. It can be difficult for the users to gain access to the needed data, but once it has been found, it can also be difficult to determine whether it is actually what was being searched for. Nielsen and Fuertes-Olivera argue that the original polyfunctional nature of dictionaries meant that the users had to look through entire entries in order to find the “relatively little relevant data among
a large collection” (2013: 355). The search engine to the SSM-dictionary will be monofunctional as it offers more than one search option to its users. The dictionary only has one function, but different situations may exist in which the users may have different needs. It is argued by Nielsen and Fuertes-Olivera that “dictionaries are tools and are designed for satisfying specific types of needs in specific types of extra-lexicographical usage situations” (2013: 342), and as the users may have different needs and needs that occur in different extra-lexicographical situations, the dictionary should provide a search engine that can help the users solve their specific problems.

Verlinde, Leroyer and Binon state that lexicographical work should be based on the lexicographical triangle as illustrated in figure 3.

```
User

Lexicographical triangle

Data

Access
```

*Figure: The lexicographical triangle – three angles, balanced focus (Verlinde, Leroyer and Binon, 2009: 3)*

The lexicographical triangle is symmetric as the focus on the three aspects should be balanced. What is deemed most important when preparing a lexicographical tool is to provide “user-adapted access to data” (Verlinde, Leroyer and Binon, 2009: 4). The focus should not be too much on any of the aspects, but should take in all of them. The user should be presented with data that is relevant and should be able to access it in a way that can satisfy the specific needs. The most important is to provide logical access points and search routes, and the search options should therefore only include the fields expected by the users.
The data types presented depend on the search option selected by the user. The SSM-dictionary has a communicative function and is to provide help in all the phases during the translation process. The bilingual SSM-dictionary will provide the following help to the users:

- Help to understand a term (in a communicative situation)
- Help to translate a term
- Help to translate a collocation or phrase

As the translation process includes three phases, different search options are made available in order to keep down information costs for the users. If only one search option was available, the dictionary just might as well be a printed dictionary as the users would still have to look through unnecessary data in order to find what they are actually looking for. It is at this point not taken into account that there are several other benefits from an electronic dictionary, e.g. that they also have the benefit of changing the lemmata along with the changes of language use.

It was argued in section 3.4 that no data should be included, if it cannot be justified on the basis of the dictionary’s function. In line with this, Bergenholtz and Tarp state that “the presentation and structures of these data should follow the same principles” (2003: 177). The search options made available to the users should therefore be based on the function of the dictionary, and if it cannot be argued to help the user in any of the user situations, it should not be included. The way the data is presented to the user should therefore have one specific situation in mind, either in terms of helping the user translate or comprehend a text. Which data is presented to the user depends on the query being entered into the search engine. The user is presented with several search options in order to keep down the time spent looking for a solution, i.e. the information costs. The user can choose between ‘understanding a term’, ‘translating a term’, ‘viewing the full entry’ and ‘searching in collocations and examples’ (forstå en term, oversæt en term, se fuldt ordbogsopslag, søg i ordforbindelser og eksempler på kontekst). These search options and the argumentation for why they are included are elaborated on in the following.

6.2.4.1 View full entry

As has been argued during the presentation of the function theory, users are not always aware of their needs when consulting a dictionary, and as Tarp argues, they are not always certain what they are actually looking for (Tarp, 2008: 41). The dictionary therefore offers the option of viewing the full entry. This option is also the default setting so that when pressing ‘search’ the full entry will be made available to the user. An example of a full article is presented below.
authorisation

Oversættelse

tilladelse

Definition
Et dokument af enhver art udstedt af myndighederne, som giver tilladelse til at påbegynde virksomhed som kreditinstitut.

Ordforbindelser
lapping of an authorisation bortfald af en tilladelse
withdrawal of an authorisation as a credit institution inddragelse af en tilladelse som kreditinstitut
authorisation to take up the business of a credit institution tilladelse til at påbegynde virksomhed som kreditinstitut

Eksempler på kontekst
The authorisation lapses in the situations referred to in Article 18(a) of Directive 2013/36/EU where the relevant national law so provides. Tilladelsen bortfalder i de situationer, der er omhandlet i artikel 18, litra a), i direktiv 2013/36/EU, hvis den relevante nationale ret indeholder bestemmelser herom.

Se også
⇒ authorise

Example 15: View full entry
If the user is searching the dictionary in order to either understand a term or to translate a term, this full entry may contain too much data and it will lead to high information costs. As different users may have different needs in specific situations, and as one user may also have different needs depending on the situation, three more search options are made available in the dictionary. These additional options can keep down the information costs for the users, as the users through the search engine can customise their search which can lead to the system filtering the unnecessary data from the necessary.

6.2.4.2 Understand a term
By choosing this search option, the user will be presented with lemma, equivalent, synonyms, definition, cross-references and references (provided that the fields are not left blank). The
dictionary could easily just return a definition – and may also do so for some lemmata if some fields are left blank – but as some terms may be more complicated, the return result may also include cross-references or references. It is argued by Nielsen and Fuertes-Olivera that users who need help understanding a term in a communicative situation “only need a definition and nothing more in this type of usage situation” (2013: 337). However, as a decision has been made in the SSM-dictionary to not provide too much data in the definition field, it can be beneficial for the users to be provided with additional data on the lemma being searched. References can be made to some of the subject-field components that are not included in any entries as these components may include additional data on a subject. If for example the user searches for the term ‘regulation’, the definition may not be enough for the user, and a reference can be made at in the reference field to the component that contains additional data on what a regulation actually is. An example of this is provided below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>regulation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Oversættelse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>forordning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

En forordning er en retsakt, der udstedes som supplement til gældende lovgivning. En EU-forordning udstedes af en af EU-institution og gælder i enhver medlemsstat.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yderligere data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

⇒ 2.2.1 Definition af retsakter - forordning
⇒ 2.1.1 Oversættelse af retsakter – forordning

Example 16: Search option: Understand a term

The above entry does not only include a definition, but also a reference to the component in which the user can find additional data on regulations. The user might choose this search option in order to understand the text that is to be translated. This search option is, however, mainly expected to be used in situations in which the user needs to understand a term that is to be translated, whether this is to be able to decode the text being translated or to make sure that the
chosen equivalent is the correct one for the specific term. An example of this type of communicative situation is provided in example 17.

**significant bank**

_Oversættelse_

_signifikant bank_

**Definition**

De største 120 banker i euroområdet vil være under ECB’s direkte tilsyn. Disse banker kaldes de signifikante banker.

_Synonymer_

⇒ significant credit institution

_Yderligere data_

⇒ 1.1 Den Fælles Tilsynsmekanisme ⇒ 1.1.2 Hvad gør en bank signifikant?

*Example 17: Search option: Understand a term*

In order to decode a text, it is important for the users to understand the terminology which is the reason for this search option to be included. The above example should therefore help the user understand the term being translated. The references are included as the definition in itself may not cover the full needs of the user. This search option is not expected to be the most used search option as the users are expected to mainly need data on the actual translation of a term. The search option that helps translate a specific term is presented in the following.

*6.2.4.3 Translate a term*

By choosing this search option, the user is presented with _lemma, equivalent, collocations, examples, cross-references, references_ and _notes_ (the ones that are filled in in the database). This option can be chosen for the users who need help translating a term during all of the phases of the translation process. The user is presented with an entry in which the relevant data is included. As has been argued, a need for collocations and examples exists in translation situations as these can help identify the correct words to collocate with the term being translated. An example of an entry that is to help in the encoding phase is presented below.
authorisation

Oversættelse

tilladelse

Ordforbindelser

lapsing of an authorisation bortfald af en tilladelse
withdrawal of an authorisation as a credit institution inddragelse af en tilladelse som kreditinstitut
authorisation to take up the business of a credit institution tilladelse til at påbegynde virksomhed som kreditinstitut

Eksempler på kontekst

The authorisation lapses in the situations referred to in Article 18(a) of Directive 2013/36/EU where the relevant national law so provides. Tilladelsen bortfalder i de situationer, der er omhandlet i artikel 18, litra a), i direktiv 2013/36/EU, hvis den relevante nationale ret indeholder bestemmelser herom.

Se også

⇒ authorise

Example 18: Search option: translate a term / collocation

The users are no longer provided with the definition, but the data that can help them translate a text. When the user chooses this search option, it is expected that he/she already knows the meaning of the term. If this is not the case, the user can either try and find the answer to this through the collocations and examples or, if this cannot help, can choose the default setting to see the full entry in which the user will both be given a definition of the term and a solution on how to translate it.

6.2.4.4 Search in Collocations / Examples

The user will also have an additional search option, namely to search in the collocations and the examples provided in the entries. By choosing the search option ‘translate a term’, the user will be presented with the equivalent and the collocations and examples provided for the specific lemma in the database. However, the user may not be interested in the equivalent, but more in the use of the term and the words it collocates with. This is the reason for the dictionary to
contain these two entry fields, but one entry cannot contain all collocations on a term. This would not keep down information costs. As an entry cannot contain all the collocations on one lemma, some of the other entries may contain collocations on the specific lemma. Therefore, if the user is interested in seeing the use of a term and the words it collocates with, the user will be presented with the search option ‘Søg i ordforbindelser og eksempler på kontekst’. The search result will then be a list of all the collocations and examples contained in the database that include the specific term being searched for no matter which type of lexical structure the term being searched for has. This can help the user identify the words collocating with the term and also the contexts in which it is being used.

6.3 Sub-Conclusion
This chapter has presented the lemma selection for the dictionary and the subject field covered by it. The previous chapters on the function theory, databases and translation have helped the preparation of the entries and the search options. The fields included in the entries are all based on the needs of the users based on the dictionary’s communicative function. The data included in the fields has all been adapted in order for it to match the qualifications of the users in order to make sure that it can satisfy the needs of all users. As the translation process can entail several phases, the search options have been prepared in order to help the users in the specific phases. In order to keep down the information costs, these options are prepared in order for the users to customise their searches. It has been elaborated on for each search option why it is deemed relevant during the translation process.

A dictionary does not only contain entries, and some of the additional components have already been introduced in the above chapter. It was stated in section 3.3.4 that users have both primary and secondary needs. The primary needs are the needs that lead to a dictionary being consulted and the primary data is amongst others provided in the entries. The secondary needs occur while the user is seeking assistance in a dictionary and secondary data is the data included in the dictionary on its content and usage. The entries therefore only form part of the dictionary and the components containing additional data, both primary and secondary data, are elaborated on in the following chapter.
7 Dictionary Components outside the Entries

There are several situations in which a user might consult a dictionary. It is therefore not enough for dictionaries to only contain lemmata and their equivalents as this data is not what the user needs in most situations. A dictionary contains several components which are all prepared in order to help the specific user. The entries constitute one of the components, while the additional components are elaborated on in this chapter. These components are in the following divided into general components and subject-field components. The general components include the preface and the user guide and contain the secondary data as was defined in section 3.3.4. These components provide general data on the dictionary and its use and the focus is not really on the subject field. The subject-field components, on the other hand, deal with the subject field of the dictionary and contain primary data. The purpose of these components is to help the users solve their specific problems in specific situations during the translation process. These components can help the users understand the subject matter in order to translate it correctly or can help them translate the genre conventions and linguistic structures in line with the overall translation strategy.

As the users of the dictionary are Danish, all the components are prepared in Danish. This can help the users understand the data provided in the components as the data provided may be on unfamiliar and culture-bound subject matters, and the subject-field components can also help the users identify the genre conventions and linguistic structures in a Danish context.

7.1 General components

7.1.1 Preface

The preface is normally placed in the front matter in a printed dictionary as it provides the users with the relevant background information on the dictionary (Nielsen, 2003: 175). As the SSM-dictionary is an online dictionary, the preface is placed on the front page of the website. The search engine will be placed above the preface so that users who do not need to read it will not have to pay attention to it. A draft preface is presented in Appendix 2. It is defined in the preface who the users are, namely translators for the ECB and translation students translating legal texts on the SSM. The scope of the dictionary is to provide help while translating the official EU-texts on the SSM. The function of the dictionary is also included in the preface. Nielsen states that a preface can also include data on the number of words (2003: 175). However, the discussion provided by Nielsen applies to printed dictionaries, and as the SSM-
dictionary is an online dictionary, the number of words can differ even on a daily basis when new lemmata are added, and the preface therefore contains no data on the number of words.

Furthermore, the preface informs the users on how to use the separate dictionary components. It is therefore be described what the individual components include. A reference is for example be made to the component ‘translating legal texts for the ECB’ in which it is described that this component provides the users with help while translating the legal structures and elements as these are the focus of this component. The same type of references is made to the other components in order for the users to gain basic information on what the specific components include and how they can help solve their problems.

7.2 User guide
The lexicographical qualifications of the users of the SSM-dictionary were established in section 3.3. As the potential users are experienced dictionary users, the user guide does not contain general data on how to use a dictionary. The focus is on the different features offered by the dictionary and how to best exploit these features in order to find the answers needed. The purpose of a user guide is two-fold (Nielsen, 2003: 175). It is not only to introduce the structure and contents of the dictionary to the user, but also to explain to the user how to consult the dictionary in the best possible way. According to Bergenholtz and Tarp, a user guide should be based on three main components (referred to as ‘elements’ in the following in order not to confuse it with the dictionary components). The user guide should include data on types of data provided, e.g. the data included in the entries and also the subject-field components; an explanation of the systematisation and organisation of the specific entries and also the components, including the order of the fields in the entries; and the mutual relations between the specific components in the dictionary (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1994: 177). No draft user guide has been prepared in this thesis, but the content of and structure of the user guide is elaborated on in the following.

In accordance with the first element presented above, the user guide will provide data on the fields contained in the entries as presented in table 2 in section 6.2.2. This will help the users identify where to find the needed data based on their specific needs. This section of the user guide will also contain data on the subject-field components which are described in section 7.2. The guide is to present what type of data the users can retrieve when consulting these components.
In line with the second element, the guide will provide the users with data on the structure of the entries. By providing this data, the users will know where to look in the entry to find the data needed which can keep down the information costs. The users will, however, also be presented with data on the different search options through which they can customise their searches in order to keep out data that is not needed. This section of the guide will also contain data on the organisation of the elements within the subject-field components. The users will be given data on the relatedness between the paragraphs in the field introduction as will be elaborated on in section 7.2.1, and also on the consultation of the component on genre conventions and linguistic structures and how the data in this component is to be used.

Along with data on the data included in the components and the structure of the components, the user guide will contain a part on the interrelatedness of all the components. This part is to help the users find additional data when needed. If for example the user is searching for a term, but needs additional data on the definition of this term, the user will be given a guide as to how to find this data in the component containing the field introduction. This part will include elaborations on both the cross-references and references within the entries, but also on the search methods when consulting the components separately and not as part of a search on a term. This part of the user guide will be based on the elaboration of the subject-field components in the following section and will be based on the principles provided in the section.

The explanation of the entry structure and the presentation of the additional components will all be followed by concrete schematic illustrations. These illustrations are to give the user an understanding of how for example the entries are structured and how references are made in the dictionary. By providing the users with concrete illustrations, they will gain an understanding of how to use the dictionary by reading the user guide and without having to consult the dictionary at the same time. In order for the illustrations to be useful, they are followed by an explanatory text. If for example the user is reading the guide on cross-references, the user will be presented with the following illustration as an example. This will be followed by an explanatory text in which the user is provided with data on what the ‘⇒’-symbol illustrates. The user will thereby be made aware how the entries within the dictionary are related, as the user will via a hyperlink be taken to the entry on this lemma by clicking the lemma after this symbol.
Example 19: User guide illustration

The above is an example of an illustration accompanied by an explanatory text. This principle is being used for all elements within the user guide. By providing illustrations, the users will be able to see how the elements are illustrated within the actual dictionary, and by being presented with this in the user guide, they can identify these elements when actually consulting the dictionary.

The user guide is prepared with the user needs in mind and with the purpose of trying to keep down the information costs for the users. By providing the users with help on how to consult the dictionary and also how to use the data found, the guide will not only keep down the search-related costs but also the comprehension-related costs. The user guide is to help the user find the data sought, but also to help them turn this into the information needed by providing the users with an explanation on the meaning of the individual fields within the entries and the dictionary’s additional components outside the entries.

As was stated above, no user guide has been prepared, but the guide will be based on the discussion of the fields in sections 6.2.2.1-6.2.2.7 and also on the elaboration of the subject-field components on the SSM and the legal acts provided in section 7.2.1 and 7.2.2.
7.2 Subject-Field Components

It has been stated throughout this thesis that the needs of the users in specific situations guide the selection of data to be included in a dictionary. As the users are all translators, the needs of translators should help guide the data selection. As was obvious from the model of translation competence, three basic components are required to be a successful translator. Translators do not only need data on linguistics and to have language competences, they also need to have knowledge on the subject matter. The subject-field components prepared for the SSM-dictionary are referred to as integrated outside matter as each component can be said to be “an independent dictionary component supplemented by cross-references to and from individual articles in the word list” (Bergenholtz and Nielsen, 2006: 284). The components can stand alone as being reference tools, but are also structured in a way that helps them interact with the entries. The subject-field components can be argued to have a knowledge-oriented function as it provides data on the subject matter. This is, however, not the case as the components are to help the users during translation. The components are integrated into the entries and should therefore aid the users during the translation process. Depending on which component being referred to, the components can help during the decoding phase, or it can be used during the transfer and encoding process as the user transfers the genre conventions and linguistic structures from SL to TL.

In order to provide the users of the SSM-dictionary with help in connection with the subject matter, namely the SSM and legal translations, the subject-field components are prepared. One of these components has legal acts as its subject field, and the focus is on the transfer of genre conventions and linguistic structures from legal acts in English into Danish. This component also contains data on the different types of legal acts that can be translated by the ECB. The legal framework for the SSM is mainly decisions and regulations and therefore these two are presented in this component. These components can easily be expanded as more legal acts are produced on the SSM. The other component contains data on the SSM: it provides the user with background knowledge on the SSM as a whole and on the functioning of it.

As the users have different needs related to their different competences, it is important that the dictionary contains data on the subject field (Tarp, 2000: 198). The subject-field components have several features and are therefore to help fulfil the specific needs of the users. Cao argues that in order to be able to create successful translations of legal texts, the legal translator (1)
must acquire a basic knowledge of the legal systems, both in the SL and TL; (2) must possess familiarity with the relevant terminology; and (3) must be competent in the TL-specific legal writing style (2007: 37). The subject-field components can help the users acquire these competences. The purpose of these two are to help the users acquire knowledge on the SSM and its functioning, and also to acquire knowledge on how to translate legal texts for the ECB. What the functions of the components are, how they are structured and in which situations the users can benefit from consulting them is elaborated on in the following sections.

7.2.1 Distribution Relationship
According to Bergenholtz and Nielsen there are six distribution relationships to choose from for lexicographers when integrating subject-field components into dictionaries, which are the following:

1. All data are placed in the subject-field component.

2. The data in the subject-field component are all restatements of the data found in the articles.

3. The data in the subject-field component are partly restatements of the data in the articles.

4. The data in the subject-field component complement the data in the articles.

5. The data in the subject-field component are restatements of all the data in the articles as well as new and supplementary data.

6. The data in the subject-field component are partly restatements of some of the data in the articles and partly new and supplementary data (Bergenholtz and Nielsen, 2006: 293).

Bergenholtz and Nielsen argue that number 6 is appropriate for dictionaries with a communicative function (2006: 294). This is also the relationship applied in the SSM-dictionary. The data is a mixture of data from the entries and new and supplementary data. For the translation process, some of the linguistic structures are included in the entries, while supplementary data on how to translate the additional linguistic structures is presented in the subject-field component on translating legal acts.
7.2.2 Structure of the Subject-Field Components

It is argued by Bergenholtz and Nielsen that “the optimal dictionary contains aided fully integrated subject-field components that supplement and complement the data included in the articles” (2006: 281). The subject-field components included in the SSM-dictionary should therefore supplement the entries by providing data which has not been included in the entries, but is still relevant for the users. In order for the subject-field components to be able to complement and supplement the users, references are included in the entries. The subject-field components are structured in paragraphs in order to ensure a successful reference system. The components are structured as in the following illustration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 SSM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Den Fælles Tilsynsmekanisme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2 Signifikant bank/kreditinstitut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Retsakter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Oversættelse af retsakter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.1 Forordning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.2 Afgørelse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Definition af retsakter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.1 Forordning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2 Afgørelse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 3: Structure of the subject-field components*

The components are structured into numbered paragraphs not only in order to ensure a successful reference system, but also in order for the users to identify the relationship between the fields within the components. As this is only to illustrate the idea behind the structure of the components, the fields included in the draft are illustrated. The full list will be much longer and the fields currently included in the illustration are not likely to have the same number as now. The numbers of the paragraphs have been included in the entries in order for the users to
identify the structure of the component being referred to and where in this structure, the specific field is as is illustrated in example 10 in section 6.2.2.6. As the purpose and structure of the subject-field components have now been established, the following sections deals with the preparation of the individual subject-field components and their content.

7.2.3 Field Introduction

Not all dictionaries contain a field introduction, but it can be beneficial for users of the SSM-dictionary to have a document that will bring them up to date on the subject matter. Many field introductions presented in translation dictionaries are comparative (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1994, 164), and legal dictionaries therefore provide an overview of the differences between two legal systems, for example the British and the Danish one. However, as this dictionary is not solely a legal dictionary, but a dictionary for translating legal texts on a specific subject, namely the SSM, the SSM is the main theme of the field introduction. The legal texts to be translated on the SSM are all normative as they are “equally authentic legal texts in bilingual and multilingual jurisdictions of domestic laws and international legal instruments and other laws” (Cao, 2007:10) as has already been defined earlier on and therefore the legal framework is identical in the two language versions. The focus will therefore be on the SSM as this can help the translators achieve the translational knowledge structures as has been defined in the chapter on the legal translator. By consulting the field introduction, the translator can gain knowledge on the subject matter which can help before and during the translation process. Another reason for producing two texts, one in English and one in Danish, is that the users can to compare the use of language and terms in the two texts (Bergenholtz and Nielsen, 2006: 294). However, as so many comparative texts already exist on the subject and as these are included in the component containing legal texts on the SSM, which is presented in section 7.3, the field introduction is only produced in Danish.

Nielsen states that a field introduction can be used as a mini text book for e.g. learners (2003: 176). This is also the case for the field introduction in the SSM-dictionary. The purpose is for the users to gain basic knowledge on the subject field covered by the dictionary. The data on the SSM can be beneficial for not only the students studying translation, but also for the lawyer-linguist and specialised translators as they may all need data updating them on the subject field being translated.
It is suggested by Nielsen that field introductions should be organised into separately numbered paragraphs in order for the references from the entries to be easily identified by the users. As the SSM-dictionary is an online dictionary, the references contain a hyperlink which means that the users are sent directly to the paragraph of interest. The field introduction has, however, been divided into separate paragraphs anyway as the users might not always consult it in connection with a reference from an entry, but might wish to gain knowledge on a specific sub-field by searching directly in the field introduction itself.

Appendix 3 provides a draft for the main part of the field introduction. This is to present the SSM to the user in order for them to understand the functioning of the SSM and the role of the ECB. The draft is created in order to provide an idea of the basic structure of the field introduction and its content.

The field introduction is closely related to the word list in a dictionary and as was described in section 6.2.2.6, the entries contain references to specific paragraphs in the field introduction. Due to the relatedness between the field introduction and the entries some of the terms that are specific for the SSM have been written in English in brackets and italics in order for the translators to see what the Danish terms are originally called in English. This can help the users identify the specific terms if they come across them in a text. And if no further data is provided in the field introduction on a specific term, the users can use the search engine to consult the data on the specific lemma in order to read for example a definition.

The field introduction also contains additional sections under which some of the specific elements within the SSM are explained. The dictionary already contains definitions, but due to space constraints these definitions only provide the basic definition of the lemma and no thorough data. This data is provided in this subject-field component instead in which information costs do not play the same role. The users consult this component if they are interested in thorough knowledge on a specific term and therefore space does not need to be considered. An example of an additional section is provided in the following.
1.1.2 Signifikant bank/kreditinstitut

Significant bank/credit institution

Hvorvidt en bank er signifikant, afhænger af:

i) den samlede værdi af dens aktiver, ii) dens betydning for økonomien i landet, hvor den er hjemmehørende, eller for EU som helhed, iii) betydningen af dens grænseoverskridende aktiviteter, iv) om den har anmodet om eller har modtaget offentlig finansiel støtte fra den europæiske finansielle stabiliseringsfacilitet (EFSF) eller den europæiske stabilitetsmekanisme (ESM), og v) om den er en af de tre mest signifikante banker i det pågældende land.

Mindst tre banker i hvert medlemsland betragtes som signifikante og bliver underlagt tilsyn. De mindre signifikante banker underlægges de kompetente nationale myndigheders tilsyn. Der er dog faste rammer for, hvordan dette tilsyn skal foretages i medlemslandende. ECB kan også til enhver tid vælge at overtage tilsynet med en mindre signifikant bank, hvis dette vurderes at være nødvendigt for at sikre en konsekvent anvendelse af høje tilsynsstandarder.

Example 20: Sub-field in field introduction

These sections are to provide the users with thorough data on the subject field. During the translation process, translators may encounter an unfamiliar term, and in order to choose the correct equivalent for the term, it is important to understand the true meaning of the term. The field introduction and its sub-components are to provide the users with data on SSM as not all data on the specific lemmata can be contained in the entries due to space constraints and the consideration of information costs. For the preparation of the field introduction the additional texts on the SSM presented in Appendix 1 have been used. These texts contain data on the SSM and have helped provide data on the concepts of the SSM.

The field introduction is not the only field component in the dictionary. A component on the legal acts being translated is also included. The reason for this and the preparation of this component is elaborated on in the following.

7.2.4 Legal Acts on the SSM

A subject-field component on the legal acts on the SSM translated by the ECB is also included in the SSM-dictionary. This component is divided into two: one providing help translating the
legal acts, and one providing help understanding the legal acts. The components contain sub-fields in which data is being provided on the different legal acts. This component will be structured as in the following table and will contain numbers that can be referred to from other elements within the dictionary. The component contains data on all the legal acts being translated by the ECB, but only regulations and decisions have been included in the table as the main parts of the corpus are made up of these two text types.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2 Retsakter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Oversættelse af retsakter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.1 Forordning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.1.1 Oversættelsesskema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.1.2 Eksempler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.2 Afgørelse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.2.1 Oversættelsesskema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.2.2 Eksempler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Definition af retsakter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.1 Forordning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2 Afgørelse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 4: Structure of the component on legal acts*

The field covered by this component is legal acts. The component is to provide help to the translator during the entire translation process. The definitions can help the users identify the legal acts being translated and help them establish the legal status of the texts and their application in the EU-countries. The other translation component is to help them during the transfer and encoding process as will be elaborated on in section 7.2.4.1.2.
7.2.4.1 Translating Legal Acts

For a translation to be successful, it has to fulfil its communicative purpose. In order to be able to do so, the ST reception has to include a strict analysis of all relevant text features, and the TT production has to be made in accordance with strict instructions with the goal of fulfilling its purpose in mind. This will help the translator choose one solution over another in order to produce a translation that fulfils the communicative purpose of the text transfer (Nord, 2005: 19). A text’s communicative function is the fundamental constitutive feature of the text and determines the strategies of text production. A translator does not only have to figure out the text function through an analysis, but will also have to look into each ST element in order to find out whether this can be translated directly in the TT or will have to be adapted. Genre conventions and linguistic structures play an important role not only in text production but also in text reception (Nord, 2005: 20). Nord argues that

“By means of a comprehensive model of text analysis which takes into account intratextual as well as extratextual factors the translator can establish the function-in-culture of a source text. This is then compared with the (prospective) function-in-culture of the target text required by the initiator, identifying and isolating those ST elements which have to be preserved or adapted in translation” (2005: 24).

When considering solutions for the translation of specific features in a text that can be related to genre conventions, it is therefore essential to establish the function of not only the ST, but also the TT in order to decide how to translate the features. This means that genre conventions in a ST should be adapted to that of the TT-culture when it is deemed necessary in order to fulfil the communicative function of the translation. The component on the genre conventions and the linguistic structures should therefore help the translators both during the decoding and encoding phase of the translation process which was defined in section 4.1.

Nielsen states that “In order to make a good legal translation, a good bilingual dictionary is required, not only to find the proper translation equivalents, but also to find collocations, phrases and textual conventions” (2000: 155). In order for the dictionary to serve as a tool when translating from one language to another, it will have to contain data on the genre conventions within the two cultures. The collocations and phrases included in the entries are not enough for the users to be able to produce a successful translation. The users will also need to be provided with data on the textual conventions, and the subject-field component on the
linguistic structure and genre conventions of legal acts translated by the ECB can provide the users with this data. In the case of a legal dictionary, the user will not only need data on how to translate a specific phrase, but will also need data on the conventions and structures in order to create a translation that can fulfil its skopos. For this specific project, the main communicative purpose is to translate English EU texts into Danish that present the same information in Danish as in English in a way that is not unknown for the Danish reader. A bilingual dictionary should therefore “help the users create TL texts that conform to the conventions in the TL culture, but which do not change the semantic contexts of the SL text” (Nielsen, 2000: 153). According to the modern theory of lexicographical functions, the main purpose of a dictionary is to help a specific user solve a specific problem in a specific situation. When this is applied to the SSM-dictionary, it means that if it does not provide data on conventions, the dictionary will not be successful in that the user cannot find the needed help. By choosing TL-conventions, the translator can create translations that are not only factually, but also conventionally correct for the intended target reader.

Before presenting what it means that the focus in the component is on choosing TL-conventions, the two translations strategies will be defined in order to help determine why the target-language oriented strategy is chosen above the other in the case of the SSM-dictionary.

7.2.4.1.1 Source-Language Oriented or Target-Language Oriented Translation Strategy

By applying a source-language oriented (SLO) strategy, the translator focuses on the differences between the cultures of the SL and TL (Nielsen, 2000: 156). The emphasis is on the conventions in the source text which will be transferred to the target text. It is therefore of no concern how the conventions are normally written in the TL as the focus is on the SL. By applying a target-oriented translation (TLO) strategy, on the other hand, the focus is on the TL as the linguistic material and genre conventions from the TL are borrowed. In order to adopt a TLO it is important that the texts belong to the same genre and also to make sure that the features and genre conventions share the same pragmatic function in SL and TL (Nielsen, 2010: 28). The translators of legal acts on the SSM have to adopt a TLO strategy. Normally, a translator does not have to choose a target-oriented strategy, the most important point is to be consistent: “One way of securing this consistency is to say that, for instance, all textual conventions in a genre or sub-genre have to be translated according to a source-oriented strategy or a target-oriented strategy. To use one strategy in some cases and the other in the rest only results in translations that violate both SL and TL conventions” (Nielsen, 2000, 161). Therefore, it is not incorrect to choose a source-oriented strategy as this can help to emphasise the differences between the two legal systems. However, as this project is
concerned with EU-texts that are not to show the differences between two legal systems, but are to actually provide people within the EU member states with the same information, a target-oriented strategy is the correct strategy to apply. The translations are produced in order for the individual EU citizens to have access to the same information as everyone else within the EU in their mother tongue. By creating a source-text-oriented text, the reader may have difficulty decoding some of the linguistic elements and therefore not be able to fully understand the text. For this reason, the dictionary is to contain target-oriented elements in order for the translations in Danish to be easily decoded by the readers. As the component on genre conventions is based on a comparative study of current legal acts translated by the ECB, the translation strategy is based on the results found in this study.

7.2.4.1.2 Preparing the Translation Tables
An LSP variety has been defined as containing six features. It was argued that three of these would form the basis for the component on genre conventions. These features are: high frequency of certain constructions (such as highly formalised sentence patterns in statutory texts); text structure; and use of special symbols. In order to create a component that could contain data on these features in order to help the users during translation, a comparative study has been carried out on legal acts on the SSM. Nielsen argues that in order to help the users in the best possible way, it is necessary to carry out comparative genre analyses that can help determine the specific genre conventions in SL and TL and to apply and appropriate translation strategy (Nielsen, 2000: 167). The empirical basis for this comparative study has been existing texts on the general framework for the SSM and their translations into Danish. As mainly decisions and regulations have been prepared on the SSM at the moment, these two text types have been used in the study. The two regulations presented in the corpus in Appendix 1 were chosen for the study of regulations, while three source texts on decisions also presented in Appendix 1 were chosen for the study of decisions. These three source texts are all part of the corpus, but are also presented in Appendix 4. At first an overview was made in which the specific conventions for this text type were chosen. If this specific feature was common in all texts studied, it was added to the table. If a feature was only used in one text, it was left out. However, for some of the elements, for example the bullet list, and overview was made of all five texts. As the pattern was detected in more than one text, and the others did not include a bullet list, this was also added to the translation tables. Choosing only five texts does not make the study that representative, but as not that many legal texts have been written on the subject
matter just yet, this is the empirical basis that the tables can be based on. And as the SSM-dictionary is an online dictionary, the tables can easily be changed and expanded if something should be changed in or added to the text genres in the future. The tables are not final tables, but only drafts that are to illustrate the data to be included in them which is also the reason for the comparative study to not be elaborated on any further.

2.1.1 Forordning

2.1.1.1 Oversættelsesskema

Vær opmærksom på brugen af store og små bogstaver. Der er i denne oversigt taget højde for forskellene på de to sprog, hvorfor der i denne oversigt er forskel på, hvorvidt der begyndes med stort eller lille begyndelsesbogstav på henholdsvis engelsk og dansk. Vær også opmærksom på brugen af tegnsætning: er der i den engelske tekst eksempelvis et komma, som ikke gengives i den danske tekst, er det fordi, denne tegnsætning ikke anvendes på begge sprog. Alt skrevet i kursiv er kommentarer, hvad enten de er skrevet i den engelske eller danske del af skemaet.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Placering</th>
<th>Engels</th>
<th>Dansk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>REGULATION (EU) No 673/2014 OF THE EUROPEAN CENTRAL BANK</td>
<td>DEN EUROPÆISKE CENTRALBANKS FORORDNING (EU) Nr. 673/2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>THE GOVERNING COUNCIL OF THE EUROPEAN CENTRAL BANK,</td>
<td>STYRELSESråDET FOR DEN EUROPÆISKE CENTRALBANK HAR *) —</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Having regard to</td>
<td>under henvisning til</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Whereas:</td>
<td>ud fra følgende betragtninger:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>HAS ADOPTED THIS REGULATION:</td>
<td>VEDTAGET DENNE FORORDNING:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>This Regulation</td>
<td>Denne forordning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Part 1</td>
<td>Del 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Article 1</td>
<td>Artikel 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Chapter II</td>
<td>Kapitel II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Article 8(2)</td>
<td>artikel 8, stk. 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>; (semikolon ved punktopstilling (litra) – afsluttes med punktum efter sidste punkt)</td>
<td>anvendes ikke i de danske tekster – dog sættes også punktum efter sidste punkt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This Regulation shall enter into force on the day following that of its publication in the Official Journal of the European Union. (denne kursiv henviser ikke til en kommentar, men er overført fra teksten)

This Regulation shall be binding in its entirety and directly applicable in the Member States in accordance with the Treaties.

Done at Frankfurt am Main

For the Governing Council of the ECB

Table 5: Translation table for the translation of regulations

The above is to present the users with a table for translating the common genre conventions and linguistic structures identified in the legal acts. As the function of the dictionary is a communicative one, and as it is to provide help translating legal acts, this table should help the
dictionary fulfil this function. The users can consult these tables not only during translating, but also while revising texts. As is obvious from the above, the subject-field components can also contain references. A reference is in this table made to the table on ‘Decisions’ which can be found in Appendix 4. The two tables contain some of the same data, but as not all conventions and structures are found in both texts, different tables have been prepared. The data found could also be presented in one table for all the legal acts, but this would not cater for the needs of the users in their individual situations and it would not keep down the search-related information costs as the users would be presented with too much unnecessary data.

7.2.4.2 Definitions of the Legal Acts on the SSM
The draft dictionary also contains a subject-field component on the different sub-genres within the legal framework. This component is placed along with the component on the genre conventions and the linguistic structures. The two components are placed under the heading ‘Retsakter’ as was presented in section 7.2.4. The first component which was presented above deals with translation of the legal acts, while the second component deals with descriptions of the documents. To keep down information costs, only short definitions are included in the entries and therefore this component is prepared.

A reference can be made to this section if the user has for example searched for ‘regulation’ and chosen the search option ‘understand a term’. The result shown to the user contains a short definition of what a regulation is, but a reference can be made to this section where a more thorough description of the term is given. This type of reference was presented in example 10 in section 6.2.2.6. By clicking this hyperlink, the user is taken to the component on the legal acts and to the specific page containing data on what a regulation is. An example of such a description is presented below.

2.2.1 Hvad er en forordning?
EU anvender flere forskellige retsakter, bl.a. forordninger. I Traktaten om Den Europæiske Unions Funktionsmåde er det beskrevet, hvad en forordning her. Her defineres det i artikel 288, at ‘En forordning er almengyldig. Den er bindende i alle enkeltheder og gælder umiddelbart i hver medlemsstat’. En forordning kan medføre pligter og rettigheder over for borgere i EU-landene, og en EU-forordning gælder også i medlemslandene, hvor der ikke er national lovgivning herfor.
Bestemmelserne fastsat i en forordning er derfor gældende i medlemslandene, men oftest fastsætter de enkelte lande selv de bestemmelser, der gør sig gældende ved eksempelvis overtrædelse af en forordning. Dog er forordninger bindende for medlemslandene på samme måde som national lovgivning, hvorfør myndighederne ikke behøver foretage sig noget.

Se også ⇒ 2.1.1 Oversættelse af retsakter - forordning

Example 21

For the preparation of this component, the Danish website EU-oplysningen has been used (Heron, 2010). This website is prepared and updated by the Danish Parliament, Folketinget, and is therefore considered a valid source. The sections on the legal acts on the SSM are to provide the users with an understanding of the legal status of the texts they are translating. As the different legal acts have different legal statutes, it can be beneficial for the users to be able to distinguish between these documents.

References are not only made in the entries but also inside the subject-field components. References are therefore made between the components on the legal acts. When consulting the field containing data on what a regulation is, the users may wish to see how a regulation is translated and can therefore by clicking the link be taken directly to the field within the component that contains this data. By providing this help, the search-related information costs can be kept down as the users will not have to themselves search for this component, but can be taken there by clicking the link.

As the two subject-field components have now been elaborated on, the following section will present the last component to be included in the SSM-dictionary, namely the component containing texts on the SSM.

7.3 Texts on the SSM

Translators can benefit from having access to the original corpora (Bowker, 2012: 391). In this way, the translators can themselves search the corpora for collocations and frequency if they cannot find the needed data in the entry or if they are merely trying to find additional data on language use. The legal acts forming the basis for the SSM-dictionary therefore forms part of a
component on the website containing the dictionary, but a hyperlink will also be made available sending the user directly to the ECB’s website containing data on the main documents on the SSM.

The text component is divided into two: one component containing monolingual texts and one component containing bilingual texts on the SSM. Both components contain external hyperlinks to web pages outside the dictionary.

7.3.1 Monolingual Texts
The monolingual component contains external hyperlinks providing the user with data on the SSM. An example of this is the external link to the ECB’s website which is provided in example 22. This website provides the user with data on what the SSM is, when it will come into action, who will participate, how it will work and how it will be organised. Furthermore, the website contains links to press releases and publications on the SSM.

Banktilsyn / Banking Supervision


På dette website findes bl.a. oplysninger om, hvad SSM grundlæggende står for, hvornår SSM træder i kraft, hvilke lande, der kan deltage og organiseringen af SSM. På websitet findes også yderligere links med henvisninger til pressemeddelelser og andre publikationer omhandlende SSM.

Example 22

For the in-house translator, the data on the SSM will not be that useful as she can be argued to be a semi-expert on the SSM already, and as she has herself translated or revised some of the texts on the website. For freelance translators working for the ECB and for students, however, it is important to understand the SSM before translating texts on the subject matter. In the decoding phase of the translation process, it is important for the translator to have background data on the subject matter in order to be able to comprehend the source text and thereby being able to communicate this text to the receivers of the translation.

7.3.2 Bilingual Texts
Under the heading ‘Retlige rammer’ which is presented in Appendix 5, the titles on the legal texts have been written instead of just a hyperlink to the text as this can help the translators check if a specific statute might be helpful for them and available from this website. If for example the source
text deals with the Administrative Board of Review, the translator can see that the Decision concerning the establishment of the Administrative Board of Review and its Operating Rules is available from this website and can therefore follow the link in order to find this specific decision in both English and Danish. As the users are translating from English into Danish, the English titles have been presented in this component due to the above reasoning.

The texts included in the component containing texts on the SSM all serve the purpose of trying to fulfil the functions of the dictionary. The bilingual texts are mainly to help the translators choose the correct translations of both terms and collocations, while the monolingual texts can provide help decoding the ST as was also the case for the field introduction containing data on the subject matter. As with all other components in the dictionary, the reason for the texts to be included is for them to help the dictionary fulfil its function which is what the function theory is all about.

7.4 Sub-Conclusion
This chapter has dealt with the dictionary components placed outside the entries. They are prepared in order to satisfy not only the users primary needs, but also their secondary needs as the components provide data that is not only connected to the translation process, but also data on the content and structure of the dictionary. When consulting the preface, the users should be able to easily determine whether or not the dictionary can help them solve their specific needs occurring in an extra-lexicographical situation. If this is the case, the user guide is to help the users utilise the dictionary and its components in the best possible way. The subject-field components and the texts on the SSM, however, have another purpose. They are to help the users during the specific translation phases. The field introduction provides the users with data on the SSM and helps them become familiar with the terminology and provide knowledge on the domain which is a prerequisite for producing successful translations that can fulfil their skopoi. The subject-field component on the legal acts and especially the translation tables are to make the users familiar with the legal writing style which was also deemed a prerequisite for producing correct translations.

The components are not only to function as supplements to the entries, but are all considered vital parts of the dictionary. All components in the dictionary, not only the entries, are prepared with the function of the dictionary in mind: namely to help the translators in their communicative situations translating legal text on the SSM from English into Danish.
8 Conclusion

The purpose of this thesis has been to prepare a draft dictionary that can provide help in connection with translating legal acts on the SSM. The function theory was applied with the result being that all considerations made and decisions taken during the preparation of the dictionary have been based on the function of the dictionary. In order to determine the function of a dictionary its potential users must be defined in order to establish the situations in which they may consult the dictionary. As the user group is made up of the language staff employed by the ECB and students studying translation, the users have different needs due to their different skills and qualifications. Even though the users have different needs, the main situation in which they will need help is, however the same, namely a communicative one. The function of the dictionary is therefore communicative as the dictionary is to provide help translating the legal acts on the SSM from English into Danish and as translation is considered a communicative act. It has been established that in order for the dictionary to be successful, it must fulfil its function.

In order to prepare a lexicographical tool that can help the specific users solve their specific needs in their specific situations, it has been determined what the different translation phases are and what competences are needed from the user group. It has been established that the dictionary should provide help in all three translation phases being decoding, transfer and encoding. In order to provide help in the different phases and to help the users acquire the proficiency needed for a legal translator, different components have been prepared. Legal translators need familiarity with the terminology of the subject field, the subject field in general and must be competent in the writing style of the TL. The dictionary therefore contains several components. These components are to cover the needs of the translators in terms of providing them with data that can help them fulfil their needs. In the dictionary entries, the users can find the relevant terminology covered by the subject field, while the field introduction provides data on the subject field in general, and the translation tables contain data on the genre conventions and linguistic structures of both the SL and the TL. The combination of these components is to help the users produce translations that fulfil their skopos. Not one component in the dictionary can help the users during the entire translation process, but the combination of them is to provide help during all the translation phases.
Translations of the legal acts have been argued to be made for normative purposes, as the purpose of the translations is to produce equally authentic texts. The translations are the law itself as not only the original English source texts are considered official EU-texts, but also its translations into Danish. This is another reason for the focus to have been on translating genre conventions and linguistic structures in legal acts. In order for the translations to be correct, the users need this type of data.

The dictionary is to take an electronic form. The main reason for this choice is that by working in a database that is connected to the electronic dictionary, new data can easily be added and the data can be changed over time which is some of the drawbacks of printed dictionaries. The SSM is a rather new subject field and therefore it is vital that the data can easily be changed and that new data can be added as new legal acts are included in the text corpus. As the dictionary is an electronic dictionary placed online, the benefits offered from working with a database and a dictionary that are not identical have formed the basis for the access routes offered to the data contained in the database. An electronic dictionary is often – and in this thesis – made up of three components. These components are the database, the user interface and the search engine.

The database does not contain anything but the data and is never shown to the user. Only the fields within the database can be viewed depending on the search option chosen. The search engine presented to the users is linked to the database which means that the users can themselves customise some of their searches and only retrieve data than can help them fulfil their needs. The different search options being offered are ‘View full article’, ‘Understand a term’, ‘Translate a term’ and ‘Search in collocations / examples’. As the users may encounter different needs when translating the acts, these different search options are offered in the dictionary. Due to the interrelatedness between the entry fields in the database, the data returned to the user does not necessarily come from just one entry, but depending on the search option chosen, data from several entries can be returned to the user and thereby fulfil their specific needs in the specific situations they encounter.

Each decision taken during the preparation of the dictionary has been based on the function of the dictionary. All of the components included have a specific purpose and the components are to fulfil the users’ primary and secondary needs. The purpose of this thesis has been to prepare a draft bilingual dictionary that can function as an aid when translating legal acts for the ECB.
8.1 Future Perspectives

The SSM-dictionary could be expanded to also include the other EU languages as the main components within the database could also be used for other language pairs as the source language is always English. If the dictionary was to be expanded, I would definitely recommend for a survey or interviews to be conducted in which the translators could express what it is they are actually looking for when consulting a dictionary, and what would be necessary for it to include if they were to benefit from using it during their translation processes. This inductive approach would, however, still not provide any general results as was also argued in section 2.2.3. A deductive method would still have to be applied as well in order for the needs of all potential users to be taken into consideration.

The SSM-dictionary could also be expanded to also have a knowledge-oriented function in order for economists to also benefit from it. By doing this, the field introduction and definitions would have to be adjusted to their language style. Due to the dictionary being prepared in electronic form, this extra function could easily be added as new search options could be offered. The entries for the lemmata already provided in the dictionary could be expanded in order for them to also contain data that can cater for another user group.

Furthermore, the SSM-dictionary can be expanded while still having the same function and the same user group. As new legal acts are prepared within the subject field, new terms will have to be included in order for the dictionary to cover the full scope of its subject field. It has been argued that the current text corpus can only be representative of the current legal acts that have been translated by the ECB, and therefore as new acts are translated, new terminology is added to the subject field and will have to be included in the dictionary.
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