PROBLEMS OF TRANSLATING
THE LAWS OF RUGBY UNION
FROM ENGLISH INTO FINNISH

Master's thesis

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Tiivistelmä – Abstract

Tässä käännösteoreettisessa opinnäytetyössä tutkitaan rugbyn sääntöjen kääntämisessä ilmeneviä käännösongelmia sekä tapoja ratkaista niitä. Työ on kommentoitu käännös englanninkielisten rugbysääntöjen otteista, ja tutkimusaineistona on 9 englanninkielistä rugbysääntöä. Työssä analysoitiin ensin lähdetekstin urheilukieli, lakikieleen viittaavat ilmaukset sekä lähdetekstin tarkoitus eli skopos. Tämän jälkeen säännöt käännettiin suomeksi, ja kääntämisessä kohdatut käännösongelmat analysoitiin hyödyntämällä Katarina Reissin ja Hans Vermeerin skoposteoriaa sekä Christiane Nordin funktionaalista lähestymistapaa käännösongelmiin. Kääntämisessä kohdatut ongelmat ratkaistiin teorian pohjalta, kääntäjän rugbykokemukseen perustuvina persoonallisina valintoina sekä hyödyntäen Andrew Chestermanin käännösstrategioita.

Analyysia varten käännösongelmat jaettiin neljään luokkaan: lajikohtaisiin, kielellisiin, tekstikohtaisiin sekä pragmaattisiin käännösongelmiin. Lajikohtainen terminologia osoittautui vaikeimmaksi, koska ennen tätä käännöstyötä rugbyn suomenkielinen terminologia oli vakiintumatonta. Lajikohtaiset käännösongelmat ratkaistiin luomalla uudissanoja. Muut käännösongelmat ratkaistiin etupäässä käyttäen kulttuurista suodatusta tai tekemällä eksplisiittisyyden muutoksia kohdetekstin vastaanottajat huomioiden.

Tutkimuksessa kävi lisäksi ilmi, että kääntäjän näkökulmasta on oleellisinta tietää, millaista kieltä ja sanastoa urheilulajin sääntötekstissä käytetään. Varsinaisessa käännös-työssä auttaa, jos kääntäjä tuntee kyseessä olevan lajin ja siinä käytetyn terminologian. Jos lajin kohdekielinen terminologia ei ole vakiintunutta, tulee käännösvaihetta edeltää järjestelmällinen termityö. Jos käännettävästä tekstistä on olemassa vanhempia versioita, raakakäännösversioita tai muunkielisiä käännöksiä, niitä kannattaa hyödyntää varsinaisessa käännöstyössä.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, people write about sports in many forms and for different purposes. In addition to traditional newspaper texts about sports, different types of sports writing texts include for example press releases, media advisories, feature stories, blogs, web site entries, fanzines, media guides, manuals, rules, game notes, game plans, fact sheets, reports and statistics. These different types of sport texts are usually written to entertain, to instruct, to persuade or to inform (Beard 1998: 83). Whatever the purpose is, all of the text types have one thing in common. They are written using language which demonstrates typical characteristics of the language of sport. For sport enthusiasts, the language of sport is easy to understand. For a translator not familiar with the terms, expressions and metaphors used in various sports, the language of sport, or sport jargon, may seem complete gibberish.

Of the different sport text types, *the rules of a game or sport* are usually written especially for players, coaches or referees in the form of manuals or rule books. Sometimes the rules are also written for people who have no previous experience but want to learn how to play a certain game or to perform a specific sport. Whatever the audience, rule books are usually created in order to explain the objectives and other factors of playing a particular game.

Describing rules of any sports game can be a challenging task. First of all, game rules should be written clearly in such a way that also readers who have never played the game or sport before would be able to understand and learn from their description. Secondly, the writer of the game rules needs not only to know the game thoroughly but also to be able to put into words the concepts relating to the sport in question. For example, the concept of *sin bin,* "the designated area in which a temporarily suspended player must remain for 10 minutes playing time" (International Rugby Board 2014: 8) has to be explained in the rules of rugby so that there would not be any room for misinterpretations.

The same applies also for the translations of the game rules into different languages. Translating the rules into some other language may be even more challenging especially if the sport in question is not so well-known in the target culture. In Finland rugby is such a sport with a minor status in the country, and a sport whose rules have not been translated into Finnish. Therefore, the present study will aim to look at problems that are encountered during translating the Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish. The present study is

an annotated translation, a type of research which consists of translating a text and writing a commentary of the translation process at the same time. In other words, in the present study theory and practice will be combined in order to produce a translated version of the Laws of Rugby Union which would be suitable for the Finnish audience.

To my knowledge, investigating translation problems of a sport-related text is an area of research which has not been touched within the Translation Studies. None of the recent studies conducted in Finland or abroad have addressed the issue of translating rules of a particular sport. Therefore, the subject area of the present study is interesting not only from the practical point of view but also from the point of view of Translation Studies.

The present study is divided into seven chapters. Following the introduction, Chapter 2 serves as an introduction to the topic of researching sport-related texts. This chapter first defines the terms jargon, sport jargon and sport language, next outlines the general characteristics of sport lexicon and finally takes a look at recent studies on sport language as well as studies conducted on translation of sport language and sport terminology. Chapter 3 will review and examine translation theories and concepts relevant to the present study, which include the core concepts of translation such as equivalence and loyalty, as well as functional skopos theory. In addition, the concepts of translation problem and translation strategy are defined and discussed in detail. Chapter 4 introduces the subject matter of the source text, that is, the background and origin of rugby union. This chapter also describes the status of rugby in Finland and briefly outlines the history and development of the Laws of Rugby Union. Chapter 5 describes the research context of the present study. These include the objectives and data of the present study, as well as the research questions and research design. The categorisations of translation problems used in the analysis of the data are also explained in this chapter. Chapter 6 first describes briefly the translation process completed in the present study. This chapter also presents the analysis of the lexicon in the source text, as well as the most interesting translation problems encountered during the translation process, along with the solutions found to these problems. In the final Chapter 7, the main results of the present study are summarized, reflected and evaluated. Finally, on the basis of the results, recommendations will be given on the Finnish rugby terminology to be used in future, for translating sport-related texts and for further research in the field of translating rugby and language of sport.

2   LANGUAGE OF SPORT

Usually the language of sport is seen as specific terminology or expressions used by people engaged in different sport activities. In other words, people performing, watching or reporting sports use language that differs from the common language and that can sound almost unintelligible from the point of view of a person not interested in sports. However, this view is rather limited since the language of sport is more than just mere terminology and expressions. In addition to terms and expressions such as *home run*, *inning*, *to stand at home plate* and *to throw a pitch*, also expressions such as *to take a rain check* or *to get to the first base* are often used. These latter two metaphors are examples of the kind of sport language which goes beyond the terminology limits and penetrates into everyday language use.

In the following chapter the focus is on the concept of sport language. First, the terms **jargon**, **sport jargon** and **sport language** will be defined. Second, general characteristics of sport lexicon will be briefly outlined. Finally, recent studies on sport language and translation of sport language and sport terminology are discussed.

2.1   Jargon and sport jargon

Historically, the term **jargon** has been defined as "gibberish or as an outlandish, unintelligible, barbarous [or] debased language" (*Encyclopædia Britannica*, s.v. jargon). However, usually jargon is defined as the technical or specialized language of a certain occupational or social group. For example, all occupations have a certain special language that is used to describe phenomena and activities in that particular field. Doctors use their own language when analysing and describing symptoms of a patient. Similarly, lawyers use specific language in courtrooms. In addition, also chemists, mathematicians, physicists and biologists use specific language when talking about their work. Thus, we can separate occupational codes such as the language of medicine, the language of law or the language of science.

Several attempts have been made to define jargon in more detail. According to Nash (1993: 4-6), the term jargon has two meanings. Firstly, the term jargon refers to the terminology used in certain professions or occupations. This kind of occupational jargon usually

changes over time, and some of the terms used in certain professions can enter into the common language. Secondly, jargon has social origins in a sense that by talking in jargon, a person takes the role of an expert of some kind. In the eyes of others, the jargon-speaking expert stands out from the common person, and by using the occupational code, the expert can demonstrate his or her expertise. Nash's view is partly supported by Crystal (1995, as quoted by Beard 1998: 48) for he states that jargon can be regarded either as technical language that is used in a certain field or as confusing use of this kind of technical language in some other context. In Crystal's view, any complicated words specific to one category of expertise are regarded as technical language, and this technical language can be an obstacle to understanding for those who do not use it.

In many cases the use of jargon causes a barrier to communication with those not familiar with the language of the field. The use of jargon functions as a divider between people who are part of the group and people who are left outside. This is notable for example in sports, where the enthusiasts, players and coaches are the insiders, while people not interested in sports are the outsiders. The insiders may not only share opinions, beliefs and knowledge about sport, but also the language used to describe sports events, as in the following passage:

> (1) The game was on the line as England opted to scrummage from the penalty and, after great work from the pack, the ball was popped onto the blindside for Charlotte Barras to score her fourth try of the tournament. McLean nailed a superb conversion to level the scores. (IRB Women's Rugby World Cup 2010)

As seen above, it is clear that similar to the occupational codes, every sport has its own specialized language, **sport jargon**. Whether the sport is played by professionals as an occupation or by amateurs as a hobby, the group of people involved in the sport share a common interest and a common language that is used when talking or writing about the particular sport. A rugby team is a good example of this kind of insider group. Each member of a rugby team knows more or less how the game is played, knows what is meant by expressions such as *score a try*, *engage in a scrum* or *form a ruck* and knows what equipment is used when playing rugby. The rugby team member is usually also familiar with famous international teams and events and knows who the most successful international players are or what usually happens during the third half. The team members use certain specialized language when talking about rugby, whether in practise, on or off

the field or during free time. In addition, the same knowledge and language are shared among the spectators and other aficionados who do not necessarily play rugby themselves.

According to Kuronen (1988), sport jargon serves as a means towards identity and independence. Using sport jargon related to a special sport may increase the sense of group identity. This view seems appealing since language is always part of individual's identity, and in sport context, sharing a common jargon among players or athletes and enthusiastic followers of a sport is very essential. By using a specialized sport jargon, a person can show he or she belongs to the group of insiders rather than outsiders.

2.2 Sport language

There are different opinions on what can be considered as language of sport. According to Zummo (2008: 37), the language of sport is something between code and jargon. It represents the double aspect of sports in which sport is seen either as a physical activity or a social pastime. When sport is seen as a physical activity, the sport language covers such technical words and terminology which refer to equipment used in the sport, special movements, techniques and rules of the particular sport. When sport is seen as a social pastime, the sport language covers linguistic areas such as jargon, images, figures of speech and metaphors.

Kowalikowa (2009: 63) partly shares Zummo's view. According to Kowalikowa, sport language is an expression of sport as a human activity which is seen in the form of sport jargon. However, while Zummo considers jargon to be part of sport language, Kowalikowa regards sport jargon to be more or less the same as sport language. Kowalikowa identifies sport jargon as a sport variation of the kind of language that has been developed among people engaged in sport activities.

Zummo (2008: 38) points out that there is a difference in whether the language of sport is used for technical use or for communication and entertainment. Thus, sport language is more than just a simple jargon or common terminology shared among certain group of people. Therefore, in the present study, the term **sport language** is used when referring to the specialized, technical or jargonized terms and expressions which are typical in various sports and which are used by different people in different sport activities and other social situations relating to sport.

Since there is such a thing as sport language, it can be questioned who actually speaks different languages of sport? According to the perspective of European Commission (Ooijen 2009), in Europe alone there are over 270 million people who speak languages of sport in 25 European Union member states. Of these, 180 million people speak languages of sport at least once a week. Furthermore, obviously in a global scale, the number is bigger.

The languages of sport are spoken by millions of people all over the world. The next chapter describes common characteristics of sport language shared by these people. The particular focus of the following chapter is on the sport lexicon, since the present thesis concentrates on terminology.

2.3   Characteristics of sport lexicon

According to Zummo (2008: 38), sport language can be considered as a special language because of its special lexical, syntactic and communicative aspects. In addition, the language of sport also shares other common characteristics that can be found in some form or another in any sport. There might also be other identifiable characteristics, but due to limited space, they as well as the syntactic and communicative aspects of sport language are not dealt with in the present study. Furthermore, these other aspects are not part of the focus of the present thesis. Thus, in the following passages only the characteristics of sport lexicon are discussed.

2.3.1   General sport lexicon

The latest *Dictionary of Sports and Games Terminology* gives definitions of more than 8,000 English terms used in different sports and games, ranging from well-known sports such as basketball and ice hockey to less widely played sports such as netball or archery (Room 2010: 1). In general, specific sport vocabulary covers for example names of individual sports, various technical terms, common words with special meaning, actions related to sports, outcomes of these actions, sport venues, sport awards, acronyms and finally, equipment used in sport (Kowalikowa 2009: 65; Zummo 2008: 42). Table 1 illustrates different categories of sport vocabulary.

Table 1. Categories of sport lexicon.

Category	Examples				
Names of sports	rugby	karate	lacrosse	ice hockey	boxing
Technical terms	grubber kick	kata	offside	icing	uppercut
Actions	to pass	to kick	to score	to tackle	to evade
Outcomes	a forward pass	a concussion	a goal	a penalty	a foul
Equipment	a scrum cap	a karategi	a crosse	a puck	a hand wrap
Sport venues	a pitch	a camp	a match	a rink	a ring
Sport awards	a medal	a diploma	Most Valuable Player award	a cup	a championship belt
Acronyms	IRB	WKF	MML	NHL	TKO
Everyday words	try	roundhouse	cradle	icing	punch

It is evident that sport vocabulary includes words that refer to the actual names of individual sports, such as *rugby* or *karate*. Different sports can also be categorised for instance to professional sports, amateur sports, combat sports, athletic sports, motor sports, mind sports, field sports, water sports or air sports. In addition, sports can be divided to team sports such as *lacrosse* or individual sports such as *boxing*. Sometimes sports are also divided into winter sports or summer sports. Naturally, one sport can belong to various categories. For example, *ice hockey* is not only a winter sport but also a field sport, a team sport, a professional or an amateur sport and an Olympic sport. There are over a hundred sports in the world and new sports emerge every year (Palvalin 1997).

The technical terms that belong to sport language usually refer to special movements or techniques used in a particular sport. For example, in rugby, the ball can be kicked forward in many ways, and all different types of kicks have their own name. Newcomers to the particular sport usually acquire the specific terms very easily, because the terms are used when introducing the techniques, tactics and objectives of the game or sport. In the case of rugby, the newcomer would learn how to perform for example *a grubber kick*, when would

be the best time to use that particular kick during a rugby match and why one should kick a rugby ball in the first place, instead of carrying it. Another area of technical terms relates to how the sport is usually practised. Especially the team sports have often very complicated rules with many technical terms such as *icing* or *offside*, and these concepts have to be defined in the rules. To sum up, the technical terms are big part of the vocabulary that forms the core of sport language.

In addition to sport names and technical terms, the language of sports contains also other specific items that describe how and where sport is performed, what the results of the sporting activities are and what kind of equipment is used. First, many sport language items are verbs referring to actions that occur when performing a sport. For example in rugby, players may *pass, kick, score, tackle, run* or *evade* a tackle. Secondly, many sport language words relate to actions in the form of outcomes. For example, passing a ball may result in *a forward pass*, which in rugby is *a foul*. If a player is tackled, she or he may suffer *a concussion*. After a more serious foul such as a high tackle, *a penalty* is awarded and *a goal* may be scored. Thirdly, many sport related words refer to equipment used in various sports. These range from *scrum gaps, pucks* and *crosses* to *hand wraps* and *karategis*. Finally, sports are always performed in some place or venue, like on a rugby *pitch*, during a karate *camp*, during a lacrosse *match*, in an ice hockey *rink* or in a boxing *ring*.

As Room (2010: 3) states, there is often also some overlapping in sport terminology for that sometimes a term that is used in one sport is also used in the language of another sport. For example, verbs such as *pass, kick, score, tackle, run* or *evade* are used not only in rugby but also in many other sports such as ice hockey or American football. In addition, some terms may also have several meanings within the language of one particular sport. For instance, as Room (2010: 2) points out, the term *club* is used in golf to refer either to the equipment that is used for hitting the golf ball, or when referring to the organisation whose members play golf.

Most sport is competitive, and the goal of competitive sport is usually to win some sort of an award, a trophy, a medal or a title. Thus, words referring to different sport accomplishments are naturally part of sport vocabulary. For instance, after winning a tournament such as the Ice Hockey World Championship, *gold medals* and a special *trophy* or *a cup* are awarded to the winning team. In addition, in many martial arts such as in

karate, a karateka is handed *a diploma* after successfully completing a black belt test. Furthermore, in many team sports such as lacrosse, a *Most Valuable Player award* is an honour given to the best performing player of a specific team, most often for a particular game or series of games. Moreover, in some sports such as boxing, the winner of each weight class is awarded *a championship belt*. Additionally, sometimes an award may even include *a monetary prize* given to the recipient, as in the major tennis tournaments. Finally, occasionally a mock or real award is also given, usually to an individual or team which has come last in a competition. This prize is commonly known in British English as *a wooden spoon* (Collins Cobuild English Dictionary 2000: 1929).

The trophies, awards and titles may also have special names attached to them. For example, the winning team of the Rugby World Cup is awarded *The William Webb Ellis Cup*. In North America, every ice hockey players' ultimate dream is to win *The Stanley Cup*. Furthermore, in some countries, the most prominent martial artists are inducted in *the Black Belt Hall of Fame*. In addition, in lacrosse, *The Mann Cup* is the trophy awarded to lacrosse champions of the senior men's league in Canada. Finally, in boxing, *The Edward J. Neil Trophy* is awarded annually to the best boxer in a given year. In summary, each sport has its own trophies and awards which may or may not have a special name, known by the sport loving public.

Sport language contains also lots of acronyms which can relate to for example organisations such as *International Rugby Board (IRB)* or *World Karate Federation (WKF)*; leagues such as *Major League Lacrosse (MLL)* or *National Hockey League (NHL)* or merely other terms such as *Technical Knockout (TKO)*. These kinds of acronyms are often used especially when writing about sports. The sports writers might favour acronyms because sports writing needs to be concise especially in the newspapers. In addition, it might be easier for the reader to follow the text if the author uses acronyms rather than writing the name of the organisation or venue all the time.

Various specific vocabulary items that form the core of sport language are also present in general lexicon (Kowalikowa 2009: 65). As estimated by Palmatier and Ray (1989), well over 1,500 different everyday words and phrases of the English language can be directly traced to sport origins. Furthermore, many sport related words have special meaning in everyday use. For example, in rugby, the purpose is to score *a try*, but in normal life one

usually tries to do something. In a karate dojo, a karateka may perform *a roundhouse kick*, but in normal life, an estate agent may show someone round a house. In lacrosse, a player carries the ball by *cradling* it, that is, by rocking a lacrosse stick back and forth in order to keep the ball in the head of the crosse, but usually people rock a baby to a sleep in a cradle. In ice hockey, *an icing* is called when a player shoots the puck so that it goes across at least two red lines and ends to the opponent's goal line, remaining untouched. However, usually people use icing to cover or decorate a cake. In boxing, a boxer throws *a punch* in a fight, but in normal life, punch is something that is usually offered in a party. It is clear that verbs such as to cradle or to punch are used not only in sport contexts but also in everyday language. In summary, these examples illustrate the fact that sport language is full of everyday vocabulary items that change their meaning in sport contexts.

Since some words change their meaning when moving from every day topics to sport context, it is sometimes difficult to draw a clear line whether a word belongs to general lexicon or to special sport vocabulary. According to Lavric et al. (2008: 5), one of the reasons for the difficulties, at least in the case of football, lies in the fact that football is a popular sport in most countries and its special terminology is well known all over the world. Another reason may be that many words and phrases originally introduced in sport contexts have become idioms or metaphors that are used in everyday life. The following chapter discusses metaphorical language that is embedded in the language of sport.

2.3.2   Metaphors

The concept of metaphor can be defined in many ways. The best known definition of metaphor is that of Lakoff and Johnson (1980), who view metaphor as something that is pervasive in our everyday life. According to Lakoff and Johnson, our conceptual system, the ways in which we relate to other people, how and what we perceive and what we think and do every day is fundamentally metaphorical in nature. Lakoff and Johnson give an example of a metaphorical concept *Time is money*. They argue that time in Western culture is seen as a valuable commodity which can be wasted, saved or invested. In other words, we conceptualize time in terms of our experiences with money. (Lakoff and Johnson: 3-9.)

Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 3) argue that one way to found out what our conceptual system consists of is to look at language. It seems that sport language is no exception, because

according to Beard (1998: 52) and Zummo (2008: 41), many sport language terms and expressions are metaphorical in origin. Beard (1998: 52) gives an example of the word *kiss* which in sport context means a gentle collision with two snooker balls. Another example of metaphorical term in sport context is the word *slider* which is used in baseball to refer to a type of pitch that breaks laterally and down. Word such as *bench*, *net* and *captain's armband* are also good examples of metaphorical language often used in sport context. The word *bench* usually refers to substitutes, coaches and managers; the word *net* is used to represent the goal, and the words *captain's armband* are used to refer to the responsibilities and duties that go with captaincy. These example words are used as shorthand to represent something bigger and more detailed to make language more dramatic, colourful and lively. (Beard 1998: 73.)

As Beard (1998: 53) points out, sport also acts as a source for metaphors. In other words, many specific expressions and phrases originally introduced in sport context have been transferred to common usage to mean something completely different. Examples of these include expressions such as *to hit below the belt* (meaning 'to say something that is often too personal, irrelevant and unfair or insulting') or *to skate on thin ice* (meaning 'to take a big risk'). In sport context, these expressions are used as such to mean exactly what they describe, but in every day talk they are used for example to persuade, to highlight certain topics or introduce difficult concepts in a language familiar to common people. Thus, the relationship between sport and metaphors is reciprocal for sport not only acts as a source of metaphors but also creates them.

Kellett (2002: 60-61) argues that the use of sport terminology in non-sporting contexts can be advantageous, because complex terms and their meaning can be clarified if the terms are understood through their connection to sport. For example, politicians may use sport metaphors to make political concepts more understandable to general public. Similarly, people in business may use sporting terms for encouraging their employees to teamwork by emphasizing team spirit and team play. Offstein and Neck (2003) point out that sport terms have also educational value because they cannot only simplify difficult concepts but also make communication cycles shorter and generate listener interest in many subject areas.

2.3.3 Metonymies

Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 35) define metonymy as "using one entity to refer to another that is related to it". Similarly to metaphor, metonymy structures our language, thoughts, attitudes and actions. However, there is a difference between metaphor and metonymy. While metaphor is a way of conceiving one thing in terms of another, metonymy is a way of using one concept to stand for another. Although the use of metonymies enables similar purposes as metaphors, it also provides means to focus more specifically on the concept what is being referred to. (Lakoff and Johnson 1980: 35-39.)

Metonymies are very common in everyday language. For example, reference *White House* can be considered as a metonymy for the American president, his staff and close advisors because although the White House is not part of the president or his staff it is closely associated with them. Similarly, *Downing Street*, which is a street in central London, is used as a metonymy for the British Prime Minister's Office. Reason for the metonymic use is that the official residence of the British Prime Minister is located at number 10 Downing Street.

In sport context, nick names are often used as metonyms to refer to a specific player or a team as in the following examples in rugby context (IRB Women's Rugby World Cup 2010, emphasis added):

> (2) Playing into the wind, Wales were being forced to run from deep, only to be repelled time and again by a wall of *gold jerseys*.
>
> (3) Wales made a bright opening, dominating the early passages and pinning *the Wallaroos* in their own half with some crunching tackles, but it was Australia that took the lead through wing Nicole Beck.
>
> (4) England had some scary moments in the final quarter and will know that they will have to step it up a gear if they are to deny *the Black Ferns* a fourth crown.

In the examples above, the expressions *gold jerseys*, *the Wallaroos* and *the Black Ferns* are metonymic entities used to refer to a team as a whole. The concept of gold *jerseys* is used to refer to Australia's rugby union, which usually plays in golden yellow shirts. The term *the Wallaroos* is a portmanteau of wallaby and kangaroo and it is used to refer to Australia's rugby union team. Finally, the term *the Black Ferns* is used to denote to New Zealand women's rugby union team, the equivalent term for men being *All Blacks*.

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Metonymies are most likely used in sport context to avoid repetition when reporting the actions of a sport game. Another reason for using metonymies that refer especially to people may be that the sports writer wants to show that he or she is familiar with the team and sport in question. In addition, as Zummo (2008: 43) points out, sometimes these kinds of nicknames are familiar only among fans who read fanzines and tabloids. Thus, the reporter may want to use the nickname metonymies as elements of sport jargon which is familiar to the audience that the sports-related text is aimed at. Thus, the reporter may want to generate more interest in the spectators by using familiar references to people performing the sports.

Metaphors and metonymies are ways to make sport language more dramatic and colorful. Another way to make sport language sound more dramatic is to use references to war and combat. The analogies to war in sport language will be discussed in the next chapter.

2.3.4   Analogies of war

Kowalikowa (2009: 66) argues that if any sport vocabulary is analysed in detail, a great number of words relating to warfare instead of mere competiveness in sport are likely to be found. For example, action, athletes, sporting contests, tactics, playing area, moves or positions are often described with vocabulary that refer to war and battle. According to Cornell (2002: 29), it is obvious that the language of sport reflects the connection between sport and warfare, since competitive games between individuals or teams imitate war. Beard (1998: 35) points out that the analogies of war appear most frequently especially if the sporting competition can be equated with actual wars which have taken place between the competing nations. Finally, as Cornell (2002: 29) states:

> […] even those who admit a playful element in sport, and are prepared to concede that it is not actually war, talk of victory and defeat, triumph and surrender, offence and defence, strategy and tactics.

Most sports, especially team sports, resemble war due to several different reasons. Firstly, both sport and war include contests of physical strength which require war-relevant skills such as running or throwing objects, differentiation of individual roles, coordination among team mates and tactical planning, especially when team sports are concerned (Winegard and Deaner, 2010: 434). Secondly, sport reinforces group solidarity and identity since the sport contests work as dividers between 'us' and 'them', similarly to war that divides

nations. Thirdly, sport and war arouse strong emotions not only among participants but also among spectators or civilians. Fourthly, heroes, as well as qualities such as courage, loyalty, stamina and discipline are highly valued in both sport and war. Fifthly, the conduct of war is similar to that of sport for it is artificial, regulated and ritualised in most cultures. Sixthly, both war and sport have been considered as mechanisms for male bonding since war and sport have reinforced male domination throughout history. (Cornell 2002: 29.) Finally, similarly to war, opposite teams usually wear distinctive uniforms with colours, symbols and team's names attached (Winegard and Deaner, 2010: 434).

However, it is worth noticing that not all sports may necessarily relate to war. For example, sports such as surfing, snowboarding, yoga or pilates are either forms of life-style or ways to improve individual's physical fitness or mental capabilities, and these kinds of sports have little resemblance to war. Nevertheless, most contact sports, such as American football, rugby or other related games, in which the objective is to gain territory and to prevent the opponents from advancing, are closest to war (Guttmann 1978; Hoch 1972; Sipes 1973, as quoted by Cornell 2002: 30-31). Additionally, combat sports and martial arts bear obviously the most resemblance to war.

The resemblance to war is reflected in the sport language that is used in combat and contact sports by media. The following two passages are good examples of warfare related vocabulary that is used by sports reporters when describing rugby events. The passages describe events that occurred during women's rugby world cup games played between England and Ireland as well as between New Zealand and Wales, in 2010. (IRB Women's Rugby World Cup 2010, emphasis added).

> (5) With England *pinned back*, Ireland's confidence grew but *an off target* drop goal from full back Niamh Briggs was their best effort before *a powerful break* from Heather Fisher *relieved the pressure* on the hosts.

> (6) Player-of-the-match Brazier needed only five minutes after the restart to claim a fine hat-trick and her score also opened the floodgates as the brave Welsh *defence* flagged in the face of *wave after wave of unrelenting attack*.

In the first example (5) above, the verb *pin back* is usually used in war context to refer to a situation in which the opponent's army troops are cornered and are prevented from moving. Moreover, *an off target drop goal* refers to an attempt to score a goal in rugby by dropping the ball from hands on to the ground and then kicking the ball just as it is rebounding back

up, over the crossbar between the goal posts (Cox 1999: 38). In this case, the attempt was unsuccessful, since the ball did not go between the posts. Instead of using the adjective *inaccurate*, the sports reporter had chosen to use the adjective *off target*, which is usually used in war context to refer to a missile attack or a shot that does not reach its target but accidentally destroys some other places such as civilian homes. The war-related terms were perhaps used by the sports reporter either to suit with the other war-related terms later in the text or to highlight the tough competition that was going on between the English and Irish teams. In example (5), the war-related words could be replaced by less war-related words, making the passage sound less entertaining and slightly longer, as in the following:

> (7) With England *unable to move away from their own half*, Ireland's confidence grew but *an inaccurate* drop goal from full back Niamh Briggs was their best effort before Heather Fisher *scored a goal* and *made the situation more tolerable* for the hosts.

Some war-related words are deeply rooted in the sport vocabulary, as the words *defence* and *attack* in example (6). Both the above examples (5, 6) clearly show that sports media use many references to war in their coverage of sporting events, as observed also by Beard (1998: 35). Research has also shown that high-identifying sport fans approve the use of war metaphors in the sport context (End et al. 2003). However, although high-identifying sport fans seem to approve the use of war metaphors in sport language, several individuals involved in professional sport have protested against sports writers' and sports fans' use of sport-war analogies, due to the terrorist attacks occurred on September 11th, 2001 (Holley 2001; Miklasz 2001, cited in End et al. 2003: 357).

Cornell (2002: 29) does not see war-related vocabulary in sport context as metaphorical at all but a literal description of what actually occurs in the sporting event. Beard (1998: 34) has an opposite point of view for he argues that sometimes people fail to realize that many of the warfare-related terms in sport language are in fact metaphors. The reason for this is that the metaphorical terms are so deeply rooted in the way that sport is described. For example, in many sport games, the term *sudden death* is used to refer to a situation in which the scores are equal at the end of the game, and the winner of the game can be decided only by continuing to play until either team or player gains the lead (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 2005: 1534). So in this case, no actual death is involved, but the expression is purely metaphorical.

Cornell's view is appealing to some extent. For example, neither the latest Finnish dictionary of sports (Raevuori 2005) nor the dictionary of sports and games terminology in English (Room 2010) list verbs *to attack*, *to defend*, *to beat* or nouns such as *a victory* or *a defeat* as words that belong to the sport vocabulary. This may indicate that the authors may have considered these words as belonging to the general lexicon rather than something that should be defined in sport context. Interestingly, the concept *sudden death* is defined in both dictionaries. This supports Beard's view since clearly the authors have considered the term *sudden death* as something worth explaining to the readers.

It has been pointed out by many researchers that sport is a traditionally masculine domain (Cornell 2002: 29; Parks and Roberton 1998: 480). This can be seen not only in the language that refers to warfare and combat, but especially in the usage of gender-marked language. The next chapter discusses sexist language in sport context.

2.3.5 Sexist language

Sexist language can be defined as "words, phrases, and expressions that unnecessarily differentiate between women and men or exclude, trivialize, or diminish either gender" (Parks and Roberton 1998: 478). For example, in everyday language, sexist language ranges from sex-differentiated job titles (e.g. waiter, waitress) to terminology that point to false generics (e.g. mankind). Similarly, the language of sport provides evidence for how men and women are viewed differently in society (Beard 1998: 17).

In sport context, sexist language is characterized by gender marking, diminution of females, devaluation of the athletic achievements of female athletes and focusing on women's physical traits or marital status instead of athletic abilities (Parks and Roberton 1998: 481). First of these characteristics, gender marking, relates to using *Lady* or ending *ettes* in the name of the women's team, as in *Oshawa Lady Blue Knights*, *Lock Haven Lady Eagles*, *Springfield Lady Kings*, *Duncanville Pantherettes* or *South Mornington Tigerettes*. Second, diminution of female athletes relates to using the word *girl* when referring to a female athlete. The third aspect of sexist language in sport relates to the way how men's sporting events are seen more prestigious and more real events compared to those of women's. For example, people talk about *Rugby World Cup* or *Ice Hockey World Championships*, and women's equal events are always the "other" event, as in this case *Women's Rugby World*

Cup or *Women's Ice Hockey World Championships* respectively. Finally, especially the media tends to highlight female athletes' young age or physical attractiveness by reporting someone sexy or slim, rather than concentrating on their athletic accomplishments. The list of *Most Beautiful Women in Sports* that is published annually is a good example of media's tendency to highlight non-sport related abilities of women athletes.

Many women's teams outside the English speaking countries use words such as *Lady* or *Chiefette* as a part of their team's name. For instance, the women's lacrosse team of Helsinki is called *Helsinki Chiefettes*, while the women's rugby team is called *Helsinki Rugby Club Ladies*. The spread of English team names all over the word is one example of anglicisms that are used in sport context.

2.3.6   Anglicisms

Many researchers have pointed out that international sport language abounds in anglicisms (Kowalikowa 2009: 65; Bernard-Béziade and Attali 2009: 2219; Zummo 2008: 35). An anglicism can be defined as a noun or a phrase that is adapted from English language to another language (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 2005: 51). The reason for the adoption of anglicisms in sports lies in the fact that most sports have their origin in an English-speaking country. After the Industrial Revolution, many athletic associations and team sports, such as football or rugby, were developed in England and the sport, along with the sport language related to it, spread to other European countries (Rosoff 1981: 403). Other reason for sports being one field in which English terminology abounds may be in the global market system (Zummo 2008: 35-36). Due to globalization, new sports spread quickly to other countries, often maintaining their native terminology. Finally, as Kuronen (1988: 18) points out, English is the official language of most international sports organisations, which is yet another reason for the usage of anglicisms in sport language throughout the world.

Zummo (2008: 36) argues that the English language is appealing in sports context for three reasons. First of all, the cultural aspects of English have affected the way of life in many countries. Secondly, English is appealing because of linguistic reasons, as English provides words which are more concise, charming and can be better adjusted to the sports reporter's needs. Moreover, sometimes English words are used because they may be more

fashionable, and the local corresponding word does not have any attractiveness. Thirdly, since English is used commonly everywhere as the language of communication, it is appealing for sociolinguistic reasons.

The use of English terminology in sport context may also be appealing simply because of pragmatic reasons. Sometimes it may be more convenient to use English, especially in team sports, if there are foreign players in the team. Since English is commonly used as lingua franca in other areas of life, it is easy and more convenient to use English rather than some other language so that everyone understands what is being said. This is especially the case in most Finnish rugby teams, since there are quite a few foreign players who have come to Finland to work or study.

Furthermore, if the local language lacks native equivalents to the sport terminology that is used in a particular sport, English or mixture of English and some other language may be used. This can be seen in Finnish rugby, since most of the existing rugby terminology that is used is in English. I have personal experience of having used myself and heard the coaches and other players use either Finglish or code-switching between Finnish and English not only in our rugby team's trainings but also in the Finnish women's national team's training camps.

The names of sports are good examples of sport-related vocabulary that is adapted to the vocabulary of the target language from English. The adaptation process can occur in many ways. Firstly, many names of sports are literal translations. Finnish words *lumilautailu* (snowboarding) and *amerikkalainen jalkapallo* (American football) are good examples of literal translations. Secondly, some names of sports are taken in use in the target language as such, for example French words *le rugby* or *le golf*. Thirdly, sometimes names of sports are translated into the target language in a way that the original form cannot be guessed very easily. Italian words *pallanuoto* (water polo) and *calcio* (football) are good examples of these kinds of translations. They were coined to substitute the English lexemes, instead of using their literal translations *polo d'acqua* and *palla piede* (Cappuzzo 2008: 133-134). Occasionally, the spelling of some names of sports is slightly altered to better adjust in the target language's pronunciation, as in Turkish word *ragbi* (rugby). Finally, sometimes names of sports are adapted first and then they are partly cut, as Italian words i*l surf* or *il windsurf* (Cappuzzo 2008: 131).

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Anglicisms exist in any language. Finnish language is not an exception, and it seems that in Finnish sport lexicon, there are many terms that have their origins especially in the English language. For example, although most names of sports in Finnish language have been translated into Finnish, there are also some exceptions. *Baseball, ringette, aerobic, curling, motocross* and *rugby* are good examples of sport names that have been adapted into Finnish language as such. As to the terminology in different sports, most of the terminology of traditional sports has been translated into Finnish. However, many terms relating to newer sports such as snowboarding or skateboarding have maintained their English forms and have been adapted as such to the Finnish language. (Hakulinen et al. 2009: 203.) Similarly, as Kuronen (1988) points out, both American football and golf jargon are rich in anglicisms.

Hakulinen et al. (2009: 203-204) claim that people use anglicisms in sport context because of reasons that relate to the image of the sport. To know the jargon attached to certain sport creates group solidarity and team spirit, and leaves people who do not share the language outside of the group. In addition, if an individual wants to read, talk and write about a hobby that includes anglicisms, he or she needs to learn the terminology first. If there are no native equivalents, the learned anglicized terms stay in common use.

To sum up, although each sport has its own sport jargon, the language of sport also shares common characteristics that can be found in some form or another in any sport. Sport language can be characterized in terms of lexicon, syntax and communicative aspects. When it comes especially to lexicon, sport vocabulary includes every day words as well as terms used exclusively in sport contexts. In addition, sport language includes metaphors, metonymies, references to military and warfare, anglicisms and sexist language. Therefore it is clear that sport language can be regarded as a special language of its own.

It can be asked why sport lexicon has such distinctive features as described above. One obvious reason may be that special vocabulary is needed when describing the sporting action, that is, everything that occurs and items that are used while people perform sports. Secondly, metaphors and metonymies may be used in sport language to say the same thing in another way and to enrich the sport language. Similarly, analogies to war may be used in sport context to make the sport language more colourful but more importantly highlight the fact that sport is usually competitive; it has its winners and losers, defeats and victories,

heroes and heroines and trophies worth fighting for.

Since language of sport has distinctive features and can be considered as a special language, it is clear that sport language should be researched equally to other types or languages, jargons and varieties. The next chapter takes a look into how sport language has been studied in the past.

2.4   Previous studies on sport language

To my knowledge, the first research on the language of sport was conducted by Tannenbaum and Noah in 1959. They examined the language of sport fans, which they called sportugese, by investigating newspaper reports of high school basketball games. They collected 84 different verbs that were used to describe the outcome of the games and asked the participants – sports writers, regular sports readers and nonsports readers – to make estimates of the final point spread of the game described by the collected verbs. The researchers found out that the nonsports readers were less accurate in their point spread estimates compared to the sports writers and regular sports readers. Based on the results, it was concluded that sports writers' and sports readers' understanding of the language of sport was higher than nonsports readers. (Wann et al. 1997; End et al. 2003.)

Wann et al. (1997) extended Tannenbaum and Noah's research using modern-day sport terminology. Wann's and his colleagues objectives were to replicate Tannenbaum and Noah's study and to assess whether factors other than reading and writing about sport were related to a better understanding of modern-day sporting terms. The researchers hypothesized that team identification, sport fandom and self-proclaimed sport knowledge may be related to an understanding of the language of sport. The results in Wann's and his colleagues' study were similar to Tannenbaum and Noah's study. In addition, the results also suggested that higher ratings of the hypothesized factors correlated with the understanding of the language of sport. Thus, Wann and his colleagues drew conclusions that even though the verbs may be different, the phenomenon found by Tannenbaum and Noah can still be observed today.

Probably the most researched area in the sport language studies is the language of football. The recent studies relating to football language have covered issues such as football terminology and language, football discourse and football and media. Of these, the research

done on football terminology and language are the most relevant when the topic of the present study is concerned.

Several researchers have shown that English loan words and loan translations abound in the language of football in many languages. Firstly, Pavić Pintarić (2008) examined the use of anglicisms and germanisms in the Croatian language of football reported in one of the daily newspapers. The research revealed that the English language is the source of football and sports terminological borrowings in denoting player's positions or rules of the game, whereas German loanwords are found in everyday communication. In addition, English loan words are used in their original form whereas German loanwords are adapted to the system of the Croatian language. Secondly, Sępek (2008) studied the spread of English football terminology into the Polish language by analysing football match broadcasts and post-match articles. The results showed that the English football terminology that is adopted into Polish offers new ways of expression and causes the development of a new variety of English. Moreover, the influence of the spread of English into the Polish language is somewhat significant within the field of football. Thirdly, Dosev (2008) studied the football lexis and phraseology in the contemporary Bulgarian by collecting vocabulary from Bulgarian dictionaries. He came to a conclusion that the Bulgarian football lexis is, for the most part, borrowed from English.

Despite the research done on football language, the language of sport in general is still a rather neglected area of research (Cappuzzo 2008; Broccias and Canepa 2005). This seems to be the case not only in linguistics in general, but especially in the field of translation studies. As Cappuzzo (2008: 138) points out, the reason for few existing studies on sport language may be in the close relationship between sports vocabulary and everyday language. Even though sports vocabulary plays a great role in common language, the researchers tend to concentrate on more special languages, such as the language of science.

In Finland, research done on sport language seems to have concentrated either on sport journalism or sports terminology work. Some of the studies in sport journalism have dealt with sport language and its general characteristics either in written sports reports in newspapers (Ketonen 1993; Kovanen 1978) or oral commentaries on television (Tammelin 2008; Pihlajamäki 2006; Selvenius 1995). A couple of studies have concentrated on the metaphors found in sport reports in newspapers and on television relating to ice hockey

(Nousiainen 2003) or metaphors found exclusively in newspapers relating to sport language and sportsmen and sportswomen in general (Pajusalo 2008; Tiitu 2008; Karjalainen and Luodonpää 1995).

During the last two decades, quite a few linguistic studies in Finland have dealt with the sport terminology work. Recently, Autio (2010) studied the terminology of synchronized skating. Her objective was to clarify the concepts affiliated with synchronized skating by compiling a comprehensive glossary of the Finnish, English and French terms. As a result, a glossary of 136 synchronized skating terms was formed. In addition to Autio, other researchers have also done terminology work by compiling or collecting glossaries of various sizes – in Finnish and English or some other European language – relating to some specific sport, e.g. haute école (Mäenpää 2010), motorcycling (Puhakainen 2008), figure skating (Haartela 2005), golf (Salminen 2003), Olympic-class rowing (Gorschelnik 2001), floorball (Peltomäki 2001), show jumping (Iisalo 1993) and basketball (Luostarinen 1993). Furthermore, some researchers have concentrated on analyzing the existing vocabulary of a specific sport from a certain angle. The semantic and pragmatic analysis of Finnish baseball vocabulary (Sivula 1998) and the study of semantics and etymology of Finnish riding terminology (Pakkanen 1994) are examples of these kinds of studies. Finally, the effect of English on the Finnish language of sport was addressed by Kuronen (1988) in his study on anglicisms in Finnish golf and American football jargon. However, none of these studies concentrated on the translation process that deals with translating the rules of a particular sport or on the problems that the translator might encounter while translating the rules. Thus, these studies will not be further addressed in the present study.

It seems that on an international level, translation of the terminology of a specific sport has not been the focus of translation studies in recent years. Over three decades ago, Marcotte (1975) made a remark about the fact that since fencing is one of the few sports originating in France, it needs translation into English. Marcotte compiled a list of French fencing terms and their English equivalents, but he did not mention anything about the problems of the translation of the terminology or fencing-related texts.

To my knowledge, Jansson's (2007) research is the only study that has addressed translation problems of sport-related text to some extent. Jansson studied translation problems that were encountered during the translation of the article "Football, Identity,

Place: The Emergence of Rugby Football in Brisbane" by Peter Horton from English into Swedish. The translation problems were divided into two categories: cultural differences and the stylistic level of the text. Of these, the problems related to cultural differences included problems of translating rugby terms and geographical names into Swedish. The main objective of Jansson's study was to analyse translation methods that were used to solve the problems encountered during the translation of the article. In Jansson's study, transfer was the most common translation method for translating rugby terms and geographical names. Furthermore, a complementary explanation was often added to the transferred cultural terms since no equivalent Swedish words existed. Finally, to solve problems related to stylistic level, the author decreased the number of nominalizations, made the sentences shorter and altered the length of the sentences to simplify complex sentence structures. (Jansson 2007: 19.)

As to the lack of studies on the translation of sport language and terminology, it may be that the other special languages such as legalese or medicalese have caused more problems for translators than sport language. Translating very specialized texts can be tricky, and the more there are common, everyday words in the text, the easier it is to translate. Although sport language can be considered as a special language of its own as demonstrated in chapter 2.2, some researchers may have neglected sport language in the translation studies because they may have regarded sport language too ordinary and non-problematic and not as a special language worth investigating. Another reason for the lack of existing studies in the translation of sport language may be that the researchers have not considered translating sport language as interesting in the first place.

It is worth noticing that none of the recent studies conducted in Finland or abroad have addressed the issue of translating rules of a particular sport from one language into another. Translating sport texts, especially rules, from one language into another may be problematic if the terminology used in the sport is completely new and is not well established in the target language. For example, in Finland, most people are familiar with the terminology relating to ice hockey or formula one car racing because these sports are popular in Finland also among people who do not practise sports themselves. In addition, the rules or competing conditions for these sports are well documented in Finnish. However, rugby terminology and the rules of rugby are unfamiliar for most Finnish people

since rugby has a minor sport status in Finland. Thus, the main objective of the present study is to investigate the possible problems that the translator may have to face when translating the rules of a team sport called rugby from English into Finnish, and how these problems can be solved. It is hoped that the present study would shed some light on the area of translating rules and sport terminology particularly from English into Finnish.

In summary, the language of sport has been studied to some extent both internationally and in Finland, but it seems that more work needs to be done for understanding the core of language of sport. As Zummo (2008: 35) summarizes, sport language does have special features and therefore researchers especially in the field of linguistics should pay more attention to it. Finally, as Beard (1998: 33) points out, one way to better understand sport's place in society is to investigate the language that is used in sport context, and the values and associations that come with the language. Another way to investigate the sport language is to examine the problems in translating sport related texts. Thus, the following chapter takes a look at concepts relating to translation.

3 TRANSLATING SPORT TEXTS

At its simplest, translation could be defined as expressing the content of the source language (SL) in terms of the target language (TL) (Vehmas-Lehto 1999:12). However, throughout the history, different scholars have debated on how this should be done and how equivalent to the source text (ST) the target text (TT) should be. As a result, Translation Studies abound with theories and strategies for translating lexical items from one language to another. It would be impossible to cover every theory and concept relating to translating in the present study, which is why only the pertinent ones are introduced.

This section describes and illustrates the translation theories and concepts relevant to the present study. First, the discipline of Translation Studies is shortly introduced. Next, some core concepts of translation are introduced. Finally, the concepts of translation problem and translation strategy are defined.

3.1 Translation Studies

Translation Studies is an academic discipline which concerns with the study of translation. It covers many areas of research, including literary and non-literary translation, technical translation, interpreting, dubbing and subtitling. In addition, Translation Studies deals with pedagogical activities such as translator training and developing criteria for translation assessment, as well as research activities such as the study of Translation Studies itself and the study of methods and models that are used in the types of research in the discipline. (Baker 1998: 277-279.)

Although there has been interest in translation almost throughout the history of mankind, Translation Studies as a discipline is relatively young. In the 1950s, Translation Studies was considered as a branch of applied linguistics, but later in the 1970s, scholars started to build on theoretical frameworks and methodology that were borrowed from other disciplines such as psychology, communication theory, anthropology and cultural studies. Lately, the discipline of Translation Studies has transformed into an interdisciplinary field of study, which also develops research theories and methodologies of its own. (Baker 1998: 279.)

3.2 Core concepts of Translation Studies

Different kinds of theories and concepts in Translation Studies abound. Thus, it would be impossible to cover all of them in the present study. Instead, for the purposes of analysing the research data later in the present study, the following concepts relating to translation are explained: equivalence, legal equivalence, equivalence in sport sense, skopos theory and loyalty. These concepts are presented shortly in the following chapters.

3.2.1 Equivalence

Equivalence in translation is probably one of the most controversial topics in Translation Studies. Many different theories of the concept of equivalence have been elaborated throughout the years: Some scholars have attempted to define the concept of equivalence, while others have ignored it partly or completely. In the present study, the concept of equivalence is important mainly for two reasons. Firstly, equivalence is one of the most crucial parts of translation because it centres on the processes interacting between the original source text and translated text. Secondly, equivalence is important in reproducing meaning in translation, and sometimes finding translation equivalents, i.e. corresponding words and expressions in the target language, can be the most problematic phase of the translation process.

In the following sections some views on equivalence are described. The purpose is not to give a full account of different ways of defining equivalence in translation. Rather, the objective is to give a general idea about the variety of views on equivalence presented by selected scholars, namely Nida, Catford, Nord and Baker. These views are presented because they are often considered the most significant ones in Translation Studies and it shows in that they are frequently quoted in the Translation Studies literature. More importantly, these views are useful in understanding the concept of equivalence in sport sense which is taken as a starting point for the translation of the Laws of Rugby Union the present study.

One of the most quoted views on equivalence is given by Eugene A. Nida. Nida (1964: 165-167) distinguishes between two types of equivalence, formal and dynamic equivalence. In formal equivalence, the translator aims at establishing equivalence in both form and content between the source text and the target text. Thus, the focus is on the message itself.

On the contrary, in dynamic equivalence, the aim of the translator is to achieve a similar effect on the target text readers as compared to the effect on the source text readers. The focus is then shifted from message to reception. Nida himself promotes dynamic equivalence by suggesting that the best way to translate is to find closest natural equivalent for the translated message. (Nida 1964; Nida and Taber 1969.)

Catford (1965) takes a more linguistic-based approach to equivalence by separating textual equivalence from formal correspondence. Textual equivalence is any target language text which in a particular occasion is equivalent to a given source language text. Formal correspondence, in turn, refers to any target language category ranging from unit to sentence structure which occupies the same 'economy' of the target language as opposed to the given category in the source language. (Catford 1965: 27.)

Nida's distinction into two types of equivalence has been very influential in later research in Translation Studies. Many scholars have taken up the same basic division, but named the equivalence categories or translation types rather differently. Translations have been divided into for example semantic vs. communicative translations (Newmark 1981), overt vs. covert translations (House 1997) or documentary vs. instrumental translations (Nord 2005). Of these, Nord's distinction is the most relevant for the present study.

Nord (2005: 80) divides translations into two types, documentary and instrumental translations. The former is "a document of a [source culture] communication between the author and the [source text] receiver", whereas the latter is regarded as "a communicative instrument in its own right". Examples of documentary translations include word-for-word translations and literary translations. Instrumental translations can be further divided into equifunctional translation that fulfils the same function as the source text; heterofunctional translation that fulfils other functions that are not compatible with the source text functions; and homologous translation which "is intended to achieve a similar effect by reproducing in the [target culture] literary context the function that the [source text] has in its own [source culture] literary context". (Nord 2005: 80-81.)

Other scholars have made more complex classifications of equivalence. For example, Baker (1992) combines linguistic and communicative approaches to equivalence by distinguishing equivalence on five different levels. First, equivalence on word level means that the TL has

a direct equivalent for a word which occurs in the SL. In addition, equivalence at word level is the first type of equivalence that needs to be taken into consideration by the translator. Second, the equivalence above word level means that collocations, as well as idioms and fixed expressions in the SL can be substituted with an expression that conveys the same or similar meaning in the TL. Third, equivalence on grammatical level refers to the diversity of grammatical categories across languages. Fourth, textual equivalence concerns with the equivalence between a SL text and a TL text in terms of information and cohesion. Finally, pragmatic equivalence deals with how texts are used in communicative situations that involves variables such as writers, readers, and cultural context.

To sum up, equivalence can be defined in many ways and consequently the translator has to decide what kind of equivalence she seeks and aims for when translating texts from one language into another. It is worth noticing that since translating sport texts has not been previously studied, it is unknown what kind of equivalence has been sought in sport contexts. In the present study, the equivalence is sought on two levels. Firstly, there should be equivalence on the textual level. By this I mean that the text type should be same as the original, and the text should contain the same information and be as coherent as the original. Moreover, my aim as a translator is to produce an instrumental, equifunctional translation that fulfils the same function as the source text. Secondly, the concept of equivalence in sport sense will be taken as a basic assumption of equivalence when translating the Laws of Rugby Union and thus it is presented in its own chapter in the following. However, to understand this new concept, legal equivalence is defined first.

3.2.2   Legal equivalence

Yet another definition of equivalence is introduced when translating legal documents. In legal translation, which is a type of specialized translation involving the translation of texts within the field of law (Cao 2007: 7), **legal equivalence** is usually defined in a broad sense as "a synthesis of content, intent and legal effect, with the main emphasis on legal effect" (Šarčević 2012: 192-193). In other words, the translator should aim at producing a target text which has the same legal effect as the source text, while maintaining the fidelity to the intended meaning. Furthermore, the translator should try to aim for the kind of legal equivalence which promotes identical interpretation and application of the target text

compared to the source text. (Šarčević 2012: 198; Šarčević 2000: 88.) Thus, the translator must be able "to understand not only what the words mean and what a sentence means, but also what legal effect it is supposed to have, and how to achieve that legal effect in the other language (Schroth 1986, as quoted in Šarčević 2000: 72).

As pointed out before, equivalence in translation has been an issue of debate within general Translation Studies. Similarly, equivalence has caused controversies in legal translation. For centuries, legal translation focused mainly on the preservation of the letter and spirit of the source text rather than on the effective reproduction of the source text in the target language (Šarčević 2000: 23-48). Although some legal translators still seem to strive for linguistic fidelity to the source text, nowadays most legal translators prefer seeking equivalent legal impact on the target reader. Therefore, the legal translator has become more of a text producer that does not merely reproduce the linguistic elements of the source text in another language but creates a text that functions in the target culture. (Harvey 2002: 180-181.)

It is understandable that achieving legal equivalence can be problematic. One reason is obviously in the differences between legal systems in each country. Another reason to the problems in legal translation seems to be the characteristics of legal language. As many scholars have claimed, legal language has a specific nature (Kocbek 2008; Cao 2007; Šarčević 2000). For example, legal language in general "does not merely convey knowledge and information but it directs, affects and modifies people's behaviour" (Kocbek 2008: 56). In addition, legal language has a specific performative power because it can be used for example to pronounce judgements, impose obligations, confer rights, grant permission or express prohibition. Furthermore, legal language often uses formal and impersonal style as well as complex and long sentences and structures, and it is characterized with extensive use of conditions, qualifications and exceptions (Kocbek 2008: 56-58). Cao (2007: 116) also points out that each legal language has its own syntactical characteristics. For instance, to express obligation or grant permission, legal English uses performative markers such as shall, must or may including their negatives, as well as performative verbs such as grant, declare or amend.

Harvey (2002) poses an interesting question by asking whether the term 'legal translation' should be used only for texts having legal effects. In sport context, there are many documents such as player contracts, sponsorship deals, anti-doping agreements or codes of conduct which are usually signed and which clearly can have legal effects if the mutual agreements are not met. However, although rules of a particular sport have no legal effect per se, they can have some legal characteristics. The rules of a sport not only describe the playing conditions and equipment needed in that particular sport but the objective of the game and everything else that is necessary to enable the particular game to be played correctly and fairly according to the rules. In other words, the rules of a game describe what a player may or must, may not or must not do during a game, in addition to sanctions, penalties or punishments which the referee or judge gives to the player or the whole team if fair play or rules of the game are not obeyed. Moreover, the referee gives permissions for players to enter and leave the pitch, allows coaches to perform substitutions and at the end of the match, declares the winner. So, clearly, the rules of a sport not only describe and provide information on the game but also direct, affect and modify participants' behaviour, which is similar to legal language.

As to the present study, the concept of legal equivalence is important for three reasons. Firstly, Šarčević's (2012) view on legal equivalence presented above seems especially applicable to parallel texts in a multilingual environment. As rugby laws have been translated in several languages, it is essential that all language versions, along with the Finnish translation, contain the same information and that nothing is left out. Secondly, as seen above, the rules of a sport do resemble legal texts in having some similar characteristics in terms of its language. Thus, it seems reasonable to aim for legal equivalence. Finally, it is important that the Laws of Rugby Union are translated into Finnish in a way that the translation would create same legal effect in the sport context in Finland. In other words, it is essential that the game of rugby is played according to the same rules as in the English-speaking countries, and that the rules can be interpreted and applied identically.

At this point it is worth acknowledging the fact that the Laws of Rugby Union are not a legal document in a real sense. The Laws of Rugby Union do not cause legal consequences to the players outside the rugby pitch, since there is not a real or common legal system such

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as Civil Law on the background. Therefore, for the purposes of the present study, Nord's (2005) idea on equifunctional translation and Šarčević's (2012) approach to legal translation are combined to form a concept of equivalence which is defined as an aim of the translator to produce a target text which is functional in the target culture's sport context as well as interpretable and applicable identically to the source text, thus creating a similar legal effect in the sport sense. From now on, this kind of equivalence is called **equivalence in the sport sense**.

3.2.3 Skopos theory

Translation theories can be roughly divided into linguistic and communicative translation theories (Vehmas-Lehto 1999: 35). Linguistic-oriented translation theories were born in the 1950s and 1960s and they assumed that all translation should convey the content of the source text precisely, but in natural and fluent target language. Communicative translation started to emerge at the end of 1960's. The communicative translation theories considered translation as conveying a message from the sender (source text author) to the receiver (target text reader). Amongst these theories are so called functionalist translation theories, which focus on the function(s) of the source text and the target text. (Vehmas-Lehto 1999.) One of the most popular amongst them is **skopos theory**.

Skopos theory was developed in Germany in the late 1970s by Hans Vermeer. It is an approach to translation that reflects the change from linguistic translation approaches to more functional translation approaches. The word *skopos*, derived from Greek, is a technical term that refers to the purpose of a translation. In skopos theory, translating is seen as a human action that has a purpose, a skopos. (Baker 1998: 235.) In addition to the purpose, the act of translation has an outcome, which is called a target text or a translatum, that is, the resulting translated text. The skopos of the target text does not necessarily have to be identical to the one of the source text. (Vermeer 1999: 221-223.)

Skopos theory consists of three rules: the general skopos rule, the coherence rule and the fidelity rule. According to the skopos rule, the purpose of the translation is essential in every type of translation. Furthermore, the methods and strategies used in the actual translation process are determined by the intended purpose of the target text. In addition, the strategies may vary according to the given skopos. The second rule, the coherence rule

states that the target text must be coherent enough in order for readers to understand it. This can be achieved by taking into account both the background knowledge and the circumstances of the situation of the intended readers. According to the fidelity rule, there must be some kind of a relationship between the source text and the target text, once the skopos rule and the coherence rule have been fulfilled. In other words, the target text needs first to be coherent enough and understandable according to the given skopos. Only then the relationship between the source text and the target text can be established. (Reiss and Vermeer 1986: 55-66; Baker 1998: 236)

According to Vermeer (1999: 221-222), the purpose of any translational action, as well as the mode in which the action is to be realized, are negotiated with the commissioner, that is, the person or organisation who commissions the translation work. Therefore every translation commission should contain the statement of skopos. However, it is the translator as an expert who ultimately decides what strategies s/he uses when executing the commissioned translation task in accordance with the intended skopos. The source text, then, acts only as a constituent of the commission, but otherwise it is up to the translator to decide what role the source text plays in the act of translation. (Vermeer 1999: 221-222.) The relationship between the skopos, the commission and the translator can be summarized as follows: *the skopos of a translation is therefore the goal or purpose, defined by the commission and if necessary, adjusted by the translator* (Vermeer 1999, as translated by Chesterman).

Vermeer's skopos theory was further developed and combined with a specific translation theory developed by Katharina Reiss, which resulted in a general translation theory (Baker 1998: 236). In the general translation theory, a text is considered as an offer of information that is made by a text author to the reader of the text. Thus, a translation is seen as information offered in a target language and in target culture about information offered in a source language in source culture (Reiss and Vermeer, 1986: 44.)

3.2.4 Criticism towards skopos theory

Both the theoretical foundation and applicability of skopos theory have been criticised from various aspects. Criticism has been put forward for example on the purpose of the translation and receiver-orientation, the status of the source text and the role of adaptation

in functional translation. (Nord 1997: 109.) Of these, the strongest argument against skopos theory seems to be that not all translations are goal-oriented and thus, it is not possible to determine their purpose. Vermeer (1999: 226) himself maintains that even translating "as it was in the original" can be regarded as a goal in itself. Consequently, the aim for translating always exists even though it might not be explicit. In the practical part that is completed for the present study, both the intention and purpose of the translation are crystal clear: In short, the purpose is to translate the Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish. (The actual skopos of the translation will be discussed in Chapter 5).

It has also been claimed that the translator has no specific addressees in mind when translating the source text. Vermeer (1999: 227, as translated by Chesterman) responds to this by stating that "It is true that in many cases a text-producer, and hence also a translator, is not thinking of a specific addressee […]". In other cases, however, the addressee(s) may indeed be precisely specified. Moreover, as Nord (1997: 111) points out, the translator may in any case have at least a clear idea for whom she is *not* translating for. In the present study, the translation of the Laws of Rugby Union is aimed at a specified audience, namely Finnish native speakers, a group of which may consist of rugby players, coaches, referees, teachers of physical education and teachers-to-be, people in the sport organisations, media, and general public - practically anyone interested in rugby or interested in learning the rules (and Finnish terminology) of rugby.

Finally, skopos theory has also been criticized because like other functionalist approaches to translation it is adaptive in its nature, it does not respect the original source text and it gives too many liberties to the translator (Nord 1997: 119-120). This critique is connected with the concept of loyalty, which is discussed separately in the next section.

3.2.5   Loyalty

To answer the criticism and to account for the culture-specificity of translation concepts, Nord (1991, 1997) introduced the principle of loyalty into skopos theory. Nord (1997: 125) defines **loyalty** as the "responsibility translators have toward their partners in translational action". In other words, translators are viewed as mediators between the source and target cultures having a special responsibility with regards to the source text author(s), the client or commissioner of the translation as well as the target text readers. In practice, the

principle of loyalty means that the purpose of the target text should match the intentions of the source text author. In addition, the translator should take into account what kind of a translation the target readers are expecting. Furthermore, in case of conflicting interests between the three partners, the translator has to negotiate and seek mutual understanding of all sides. (Nord 1997: 125-128.)

Nord also points out that the concept of loyalty should not be confused with fidelity or faithfulness. While fidelity usually refers to a linguistic or stylistic similarity between the source text and the target text, loyalty can be regarded as an interpersonal relationship between the translator and other people, and as such a concept it may replace the concept of fidelity altogether. (Nord 1997: 125-128; Nord 2005: 33.)

In addition, Nord argues that a text or a translation cannot be loyal. The concept of loyalty refers to the attitude and behaviour of the translator, not to the faithfulness of a text. In practise, the translator should act loyally with regard to the communication partners, in a given translation situation, keeping also one's own ethical principles in mind. (Nord 2005: 40.)

As to the present study, ignoring both the source text authors' intentions as well as the expectations of the target readers might cause the target readers misinterpreting the Laws of Rugby Union. In addition, not being loyal to the author and target readers would result in deception of the target text readers as well as disrespect towards the source text authors and the whole rugby community. Since the translation task of the present study does not involve any commissioner, it is important to take the source text authors' intentions and target text readers' expectations in mind when translating the Laws of Rugby Union into Finnish. However, because the rugby-related terminology in Finnish is not well-established, some liberties have to be taken in order to get the Finnish rugby terminology standardized and the Laws translated for the Finnish audience. This, however, does not mean that the loyalty principle is abandoned.

At this point it is worth noticing that even though skopos theory has been criticized, it also has its strengths. According to Schäffner and Wiesemann (2001: 15), Vermeer and Reiss's general translation theory is "sufficiently general to cover a multitude of individual cases i.e. to be independent of individual languages, cultures, subject domains, text types and

genres". Thus, the general translation theory seems well suited for the purposes of the present study. In addition, since skopos theory helps to bring the target text into focus (Baker 1998: 238), it is expected that this might help to recognise the translation strategies suitable when translating sports related texts, especially when the related terminology is not well-established in the target culture. Finally, as Reiss and Vermeer (1986: 51) point out, skopos theory leaves a lot of freedom for choosing the translation strategies and types of translation, which hopefully makes the translation process somewhat easier for an inexperienced translator.

As to translating sport texts with legal effect, many researchers have pointed out that functionalist approaches to translation, especially the skopos theory, seem to provide an adequate framework for legal translation (see for example Kocbek 2008; Šarčević 2000; Garzone 2000). Firstly, according to skopos theory, translation should have a clearly defined purpose, and translating in a legal setting always has a clear objective. Secondly, skopos theory is flexible and allows freedom to the translator to take account of the distinctive nature of legal texts, since skopos theory does not assume strict equivalence on any level. (Garzone, 2000: 8.) Moreover, even Vermeer himself, the creator of skopos theory, states that skopos theory is applicable to all text types, thus implicating its suitability for legal translation. Vermeer also proves the validity of the skopos theory to legal translation (Reiss and Vermeer, 2013). Finally, it should be noted that, to the author's knowledge, none of the previous studies have utilised skopos theory in translating a sport text. The present study seems to be the first study which applies skopos theory for translating the rules of a sport from one language into another.

To sum up, the general translation theory (containing skopos theory) by Vermeer and Reiss requires that (1) skopos must be assigned to the target text, (2) the target text should be coherent and it should offer information in a target language and in the target culture about the source text and (3) there must be intertextual coherence between the target text and the source text. Furthermore, Nord's principle of loyalty expands the functionalist skopos theory to regard translators as responsible agents in an interaction between the involved parties. According to skopos theory, the equivalence is secondary; it is more important to produce a coherent translation which is functional in the target language and in the target culture. Although skopos theory has been criticized, it seems appealing and useful for

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translating various types of texts.

3.3 Translation problems

Translation is a process that requires constant problem-solving. When translating the source text, the translator is likely to face many problems and difficulties that demand special attention. For example, the source text may be difficult to understand due to technical terminology that the translator may not be familiar with. Moreover, language used in the source text may include idioms and neologisms, unsolved acronyms or proper names of people or places which may be difficult to translate. In addition to problems relating to the source text, Chesterman and Wagner (2002: 57) describe problems that relate to searching information as well as problems that can block the actual translation work, such as problems relating to productivity.

In translation studies, the concept of **translation problem** has been defined in many ways. Firstly, according to a simple view, a word or a phrase poses a translation problem whenever the translator has to choose between more than one option in order to translate the linguistic element (Pym 2005: 72). Secondly, from a more restricted view, only elements that are untranslatable or inadequately translated from the translator's point of view can be counted as translation problems (Lörscher 1991: 80). However, both these definitions can be criticized. The first definition seems to concentrate merely on the decision-making that the translator goes through when translating. It is evident that there can be many options for translating a specific linguistic item, but it depends on the textual context, the translator's skills, personal preferences and targeted readers which option is eventually chosen as the translation equivalent. One weakness with the latter definition is that it does not take into account those problems regarding linguistic elements which at first seem problematic, but are nevertheless translated successfully by the translator, who is also satisfied with the final translation.

Yet another definition of translation problem is formulated by Nord (1997: 141). Nord defines translation problems as "problems which have to be solved by the translator in the translation process in order to produce a functionally adequate target text and which can be verified objectively or at least intersubjectively". Nord (2005: 166-167) also points out that there is a difference between translation problems and translation difficulties. While

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translation problems are objective and universal in the sense that they exist in source texts regardless of the translator's awareness of them, translation difficulties are more subjective because they relate to translator's personal translation competence and specific work conditions. Furthermore, according to Nord, translation problems remain problems even after they have been solved. Translation difficulties may disappear after the translator has gained more expertise in translating.

In the present study, what I shall be considering as translation problems are situations in which the translator's workflow has either paused or stopped completely and unexpectedly due to a doubt or hesitation when translating certain term or passage into Finnish. The doubt may have been caused by several translation options that are available for rendering the source text element or elements into target language in such a way that the resulted translation is perfectively understandable both grammatically and syntactically by a native speaker of Finnish. The doubt may also have been raised because of difficult, unknown vocabulary or grammatical constructions in the source language. Because of these doubts, the translator has been forced to abandon the work flow in order for example to consult a dictionary, check how the same word, phrase, clause, sentence or passage has been translated in a parallel text or in another rugby-related text, make comparisons with the Finnish raw translation or previous Law book when applicable. Later in the analysis, these translation problems will be categorised in different categories. Therefore, the next sections take a look at how translation problems can be categorised.

3.3.1 Categorisation of translation problems

Several researchers have categorized translations problems in different ways. Lefevere (1994) lists 18 categories of translation problems that arise during the translation process on the illocutionary level of language use. Even though Lefevere (1994: 17) points out that illocutionary use of language is not limited merely to literature, it is unlikely that this kind of language use is found in the written rules of a sport game. Therefore, Lefevere's categorisation does not seem suitable for the purposes of the present study.

Krings (1986, cited in Lörscher 1991: 92-96) provides an interesting categorisation of translation problems. He distinguishes between three types of problems: translation problems, L2-competence problems and translation-competence problems. A general

category of translation problems comprises all linguistic problems which are found within translations. This category is also subdivided into L2-competence problems, which result from for example lack in foreign language vocabulary or comprehension, and into translation competence problems, which relate to the translator's personal skills of translating. Although Krings' categorisation is old it is appealing, because in addition to the linguistic problems that the source text presents, the categorisation also takes into account problems that relate to the translator's lack of competence and skills. Consequently, it seems that in Krings' view both the source text and the translator itself pose problems that need to be solved during the translation process.

However, for the purposes of the present study, the analysis will be restricted to cover only linguistic translation problems which the translator is faced with when performing a translation because there simply would not be enough space to cover also problems relating to second language competence or translation competence, especially since it can be hard to make a distinction between these two competences. In addition, an external evaluator who is an expert on the subject area would be required to assess these kinds of translating problems, since criteria for self-assessing translations does not exist. Moreover, since I have competence on the English language and possess also some translation skills and experience, it is hoped and expected that problems relating to L2 or translation competence will not occur during the translation of the Laws of Rugby Union. Thus, Krings' categorisation of the translation problems does not seem suitable for the analysis of the translation problems in the present study.

The most interesting categorisation of translation problems from a point of view of the present study is formulated by Christiane Nord. Nord (2005: 174-176) classifies translation problems in four main categories: pragmatic, convention-related, linguistic and text-specific translation problems. **Pragmatic translation problems** result from the contrast between transfer situations in which the source text and the target text are used. Nord argues that pragmatic translation problems, such as references to time or place, are universal and present in any type of translation task and thus they can be generalised. **Convention-related translation problems** occur because of differences in the verbal or non-verbal habits, norms and conventions between source and target language cultures. Examples of these kinds of problems include general style conventions, measuring

conventions and text-type conventions. **Linguistic translation problems** result from the structural differences between source and target language. According to Nord, the differences relate especially to vocabulary or syntax of the languages in question. Finally, **text-specific translation problems** arise from the particular characteristics of the source text. Examples of problems bound to a specific text include for example puns, rhyme or figures of speech. In contrast to pragmatic translation problems, text-specific translation problems cannot be generalised since they vary depending on the source text that is to be translated. (Nord 1997: 65-67; Nord 2005: 174-176.)

All the above types of translation problems presented by Nord can usually be found in texts. That is exactly why they are relevant for the purposes of the present study, because the translatable item that the present study considers is a written text and not for example a film or a speech dialogue which might pose also different types of translation problems. In addition, since Nord's categorisation of translation problems is functionalist in nature and thus closely tied with skopos theory, it seems reasonable to utilise Nord's categorisation of translation problems as a basis for analysis in the present study. Finally, the categorisation seems not only practicable but also highly applicable to the investigation of translation problems relating to especially sport texts, because sports texts also pose problems that relate to for example in vocabulary, norms and conventions, spelling and syntax. The next chapter will take a look at translation problems that can be found in sports texts.

3.3.2 Problems in translating sport texts

Translating sports related texts may seem fairly easy compared to for example legal or medical texts. Legal and medical texts often contain specified and complex vocabulary which may include specialized words and phrases unique to the law or medicine, every day words having different meaning in law or medicine contexts, archaic vocabulary and loan words and phrases from other languages such as French or Latin. In addition to the complex vocabulary, legal and medical texts may include difficult sentence constructions which can make the understanding of a text hard even for a native speaker. Finally, while legal and medical texts are often aimed at professionals, sport texts are usually written for everyone. Thus, it may seem that translating sports texts does not require as much language knowledge from the translator compared to translating legal and medical texts.

However, a closer look reveals that translating sport texts can be as difficult as translating texts in other specialized areas. Sport texts can be problematic for the translator because of various reasons. Firstly, when translating sports-related texts, translators must have background knowledge of the sport in question, that is, translators need to know some of the history and at least the basic rules of the game. Secondly, translators have to be aware of the special vocabulary that is used in the sport in question. Thirdly, translators also have to bear in mind the audience of the translated text. Finally, since sports also evolve and their rules and tactics change over time, translators have to keep their sport knowledge up-to-date. If the translator does not know anything about the sport in question, does not know the rules or is not familiar with the sport-related vocabulary even in the source language or the vocabulary he or she knows is out-dated, the resulting translation might be unintelligible.

Translating rules of a specific game from one language into another may be especially challenging. Firstly, translating rules may be difficult because of the special vocabulary in the source language. In addition, sometimes it can be difficult for a translator to find a suitable term that would best correspond with the original term present in the source text. Moreover, in some cases, the translator may have to adapt the source language's term to target language's spelling. Furthermore, rules of a specific game may change from time to time, and the translator has to reflect the changes in the translated text as well. Sometimes it may be difficult to be consistent and use the chosen terminology accordingly, especially if the translator makes changes to the rules that were previously translated by someone else. Finally, coining new sport terms for the target language can be problematic if the terms used in the source text are very language-specific. This is the case especially with rugby-related terminology, since the terminology has close ties to the English language. Even though the rules of rugby have been translated into several languages, it seems that these translations include several English loan words and other anglicisms.

As seen above, sport texts, as well as any type of texts, may cause problems in translating. Thus, the translator has to be aware of various translation strategies that can be utilized for solving the translation problems effectively. The next section takes a look at how translation strategies are defined and how they can be categorised. The aim is not to treat the topic exhaustively but to give a general idea on different ways of grouping translation

strategies.

3.4 Translation strategies

Similarly to the concept of translation problems, several researchers have also defined the term **translation strategy** in different ways. Even though the definitions seem to differ considerably, most researchers agree that translation strategies are usually used when a translator encounters a problem while translating. Chesterman (1997: 88-91) lists several general characteristics of translation strategies. According to Chesterman, translation strategies usually (1) apply to a process, (2) involve text manipulation, (3) are goal-oriented, (4) are problem-centred, (5) are potentially conscious and (6) are intersubjective, that is, can be understood and experienced by someone other than the translator him/herself. However, since these are only general characteristics, four different ways of defining as well as categorising translation strategies are presented in the following sections.

One way to look at translation strategies is to see them as potentially conscious procedures which the translator utilises in order to solve translation problems (Lörscher 1991: 76). Lörscher argues that a translation strategy contains elements of problem-orientedness, potential consciousness and goal-orientedness, meaning that using a strategy when translating always involves more or less conscious problem-solving that aims at accomplishing a goal. Thus, according to Lörscher (1991: 96), the translation procedure always starts when the translator realizes that there is a problem, and ends either with a (possibly preliminary) solution to the problem or in the realization that the problem is unsolvable at the given point in time. According to Lörscher (1991: 96-107), translation strategies are constituted by verbal and/or mental activities, or 'strategy steps', that occur between the realization of a problem and realization of its solution or insolubility. In his model for analysing of translation process, Lörscher (2002: 100-103) identifies twenty-two strategy steps, which in turn combine in specific ways to build basic structures, expanded structures or complex structures of translation strategies.

The problem with Lörscher's definition of translation strategy is that is does not seem to take into account unproblematic processing of the material that is to be translated. Even though a translator may translate material without any problems, s/he is still using different

kinds of translation strategies. Moreover, the categorisation of strategies that Lörscher makes seems impractical and too complex for translating rules of a sport. Bergen (2006: 112) also points out that Lörscher utilises quite a complicated notation system for describing translation strategies, which further complicates the model. Thus, Lörscher's definition and categorisation do not seem relevant for the purposes of the present study. Instead, it seems more profitable to consider the following definitions and categorisations of translation strategies.

Jääskeläinen (1993: 116) defines translation strategies in a broader sense as "a set of (loosely formulated) rules or principles which a translator uses to reach the goals determined by the translating situation in the most effective way". Jääskeläinen also makes a distinction between two basic types of translation strategies: **global and local strategies**. According to Jääskeläinen, global translation strategies are general principles and preferred modes of action that the translator uses while translating, whereas local strategies point to activities that relate to the way the translator solves problems and makes decisions.

Chesterman (1997: 88) defines translation strategy simply as "a kind of process, a way of doing something". In this definition, translation is seen as an action which contains many hierarchical processes. Chesterman (1997: 92) also makes a distinction between comprehension strategies and production strategies. Comprehension strategies deal with the analysis of the source text and the nature of the translation commission, whereas production strategies relate to the ways in which translators process linguistic material in order to produce a target text. According to Chesterman (1997: 92), a categorisation of translation strategies could in its simplest form contain only one overall strategy, which involves changing something in the first translation candidate, because it does not seem good enough. This dissatisfaction on the produced translation candidate is the evidence of a translation problem. Thus, translation strategies can be regarded as kinds of changes which involve a choice between different possibilities of translation.

It is through a number of classifications of changes, previously examined by for example Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), Catford (1965) and Nida (1964), that Chesterman (1997: 93) arrives at his own classification. Chesterman divides local strategies into three groups: syntactic translation strategies, semantic translation strategies and pragmatic translation strategies. Each group contains ten subcategories, and the groups also overlap to some

extent. Chesterman's categorisation is based on classifying the strategies according to the actual choices made in individual problematic situations during the translating process. Table 2 summarises local translation strategies as categorized by Chesterman. The usage of these strategies will be later explained in the analysis part of the present study.

Table 2. Local translation categories as defined by Chesterman (1997).

Syntactic strategies	Semantic strategies	Pragmatic strategies
Literal translation	Synonomy	Cultural filtering
Loan, calque	Antonomy	Explicitness change
Transposition	Hyponymy	Information change
Unit shift	Converses	Interpersonal change
Phrase structure change	Abstraction change	Illocutionary change
Clause structure change	Distribution change	Coherence change
Sentence structure change	Emphasis change	Partial translation
Cohesion change	Paraphrase	Visibility change
Level shift	Trope change	Transediting
Scheme change	Other semantic changes	Other pragmatic changes

Bergen (2006: 111) uses the same categorisation as Jääskeläinen, but adds a third type of category called **meta-strategies**, which have been described by researchers such as Lörscher (1991; 2002) and Kussmaul (1995) within the framework of psycholinguistics as problem-solving and creativity. According to Bergen, The meta-strategies are translation strategies that relate to creativity and problem solving, that is, the way translators work, what they do before, during or after the actual translation process. In Bergen's model, global strategies aim at solving problems relating to the way the target text should affect the readers whereas local categories, in turn, respond to the question how various translation problems should be handled. Thus, Bergen uses the following analogy to a human body to define translation strategies:

> *Meta-strategies* [...] are like the skeleton of the body. They are the framework on which everything hangs. The *global strategies* [...] could be compared to the muscles that make the body move and determine the direction it will move in. *Local strategies* could be compared to the many vital systems which deliver air, nourishment, blood and hormones to the various

parts of the body to keep them functioning well. (Bergen 2006: 114-117, emphasis in the original.)

In conclusion, translation strategies that are used to solve translation problems can be categorized in many ways. Chesterman's three categories of local strategies shown in Table 2 will be applied to solve translation problems in the analysis part of the present study. Even though Chesterman's categorisation is not the only one available, this categorisation was chosen for two reasons. Firstly, it is up-to-date and presented clearly and understandably by the original author and using these categories does not require learning a complex notation such as that of Lörscher's. Secondly, Chesterman's categories of local strategies contain many specific sub-strategies that can be used as ready-made tools for solving translation problems that are found when translating the Laws of Rugby Union.

To sum up Chapter 3, in addition to the skopos, i.e. purpose of the translation, the concept of equivalence has to be taken into account when translating. In sport context, equivalence in sport sense aims at producing a translation which is functional in the target culture's sport context as well as interpretable and applicable identically to the source text. Sometimes finding equivalents may be difficult and result in various translation problems, which can be categorised in many ways depending on the point of view. In addition, there are many different kinds of translation strategies that a translator can use when solving problems that are encountered during translation process. Knowing that these strategies exist and being able to use them will help the translator to produce a translation that is not only functional and suited for the target audience, but also such that it meets the source text author's and commissioner's intentions as well as target text readers' expectations.

It is important to know how to pinpoint and solve translation problems, but to know the subject area that the source text handles is as important. This is especially significant when translating texts relating to sports, since different sports use different kinds of terminology and ways to express concepts related to the sport. The translator must get familiar with the sport and its terminology first before starting the actual translation. Thus, for the purposes of the present study, the next chapter will take a closer look on the sport called rugby, as well as its history and current status in Finland. Furthermore, since the translation work in the present study involves translating the Laws of Rugby Union, a brief history of the development of the Laws will be outlined.

4 BACKGROUND AND ORIGIN OF RUGBY

Rugby is a ball game that is played on a rectangular field (see Appendix I) with an inflated oval ball that may be handled or kicked. The objective of the game is to score more points than the opponent. Points are awarded for goals and for tries. Depending of the version of rugby, the game is played between teams of 7, 10, 13 or 15-a-side. In game play, the ball can be kicked in any direction, but it cannot be passed or knocked forward. (International Rugby Board 2014: 15.)

The following chapter introduces shortly the background and origin of rugby. The purpose is not to provide a complete history of rugby but to give an overview of the early stages of development especially relating to the form of rugby called rugby union. In addition, the following chapter gives an insight into the development of rugby in Finland. The main focus of the chapter is, however, in the history and development of the Laws of Rugby Union.

4.1 Origin of rugby

The roots of rugby date back to medieval England. During the Middle Ages, various forms of early ball games of violent nature were played in England. These different variations that are sometimes referred to as folk football were played between neighboring towns and villages. The games involved both kicking and handling of a ball made of an inflated pig's bladder, and there was an unlimited number of players on opposing teams. The objective of the game was to move the ball towards goals set up at each end of a town, using any means possible. (Rugby Football History 2007a.)

It is believed that the modern game of rugby football originated accidentally in England. According to a legend, it was William Webb Ellis, a pupil of Rugby school (at town of Rugby, England), who in 1823 during a football game first picked up the ball and ran with it (Arlott 1975: 882). However, there is little evidence that supports this popular myth. First of all, although the form of football played at Rugby school at the time permitted handling of the ball, running with the ball in hands towards the opposition's goal was prohibited (Rugby Football History 2007a). Secondly, the claim that Webb Ellis invented rugby did not surface until some years after his death, and the story was set forth by one man who had

based his arguments on hearsay. Thirdly, the myth does not explain how the other distinctive features of rugby came into existence. (Levinson and Christensen 1996: 842.) Finally, it can be questioned whether a single act could have changed a traditional game in such a fundamental way.

Around mid 19th century, two categories of football were played by boys from the upper classes in the public boarding schools in England. Different versions of the carrying game were played in schools such as Rugby, Cheltenham, Marlborough and Shrewsbury, whereas different versions of the kicking or dribbling game were played at Eton, Winchester, Harrow, Charterhouse and Westminster (Rugby Football History 2007a; Arlott 1975: 883). The different versions of a game adopted in each school depended on the space available: at Charterhouse and Westminster, for example, paving stones ruled out carrying came in which tackling was involved, whereas the grass surface at Rugby enabled more physical contact (Reyburn 1971: 2). In addition, in those days it was very common that the students developed their own set of rules for the games of football. Thus, before each game could take place, the participants needed to agree on ground rules.

When the pupils left boarding schools, they spread the variants of football to the universities and cities, which lead to the establishment of local rugby and football clubs (Arlott 1975: 883). However, it soon became obvious that games with such radical differences could not be merged as one. As a result, in 1863 the supporters of the non-handling game formed the Football Association (soccer), and a few years later in 1871, 21 amateur rugby clubs established the Rugby Football Union (RFU) (Reyburn 1971: 6). Soon after similar national rugby unions were also set up in Scotland (1873), Ireland (1879) and Wales (1881) (Arlott 1975: 888-891).

In addition to national rugby unions, in 1886, International Rugby Football Board (IRFB) was established. The founding of IRFB was a result of a disputed referee decision in the England-Scotland rugby game that took place in 1884. Due to the disagreement, England refused to play Scotland and thus, the other home nations Ireland, Scotland and Wales set up an organization based on amateurism with the object of settling disputes and ensuring that international matches would be played under unified codes. (Reyburn 1971: 52.) Later, also England's Rugby Football Union joined IRFB and the name of the organization was shortened to International Rugby Board.

At the time of the establishment of first rugby union (RFU) in England, rugby was played by rather homogenous upper-middle class, mostly in the schools and clubs in the southern part of England (Levinson and Christensen 1996: 835; Cox et al. 2000: 340). However, also in the industrial north of England many working class men started playing the game. The loss of earnings due to participation in a game of rugby became considerable, and thus the clubs started to compensate for so-called 'broken time'. Rugby football became also a more competitive game with cups and leagues to win, which attracted paying spectators. In short, rugby football especially in the northern regions of Yorkshire and Lancashire began to be recognized as a professional sport. However, the public-school elite of the south were opposed to not only cups and leagues, because they made the game over-serious, but also broken-time compensations. Consequently, in 1895, the RFU declared itself strictly an amateur organization. Thus, 22 northern clubs withdrew from RFU and formed Northern Rugby Football Union, which later in 1922 became Rugby League. As a result, the game of rugby split into two different codes: amateur rugby union and professional rugby league. (Levinson and Christensen 1996: 832-836.)

By the end of 19th century the version of rugby maintained by Rugby Football Union had also spread to colonies and dominions of the British Empire (Cox et al. 2000: 341). Nowadays rugby union is played in more than 100 countries across five continents. Rugby is also a national sport of New Zealand, Fiji and Wales, and it is very popular in other original home nations Scotland and Ireland, as well as in South Africa and Australia. Interestingly, unlike rugby, soccer "has never caught on and become the major sport of any English-speaking country outside Great Britain" (Reyburn 1971: 31). In addition, in 1995, IRB decided it was time for rugby union to become professional sport, and with the abolishing of the amateur principles that constituted the basis of the organization rugby continued to expand (Levinson and Christensen 1996: 841).

The first men's Rugby World Cup was held in 1987, and it has been held every four years ever since, the next one taking place in 2015 in England. The first Women's Rugby World Cup was held in 1991, and the next one is held in August 2014 in France. The 15-a-side version of rugby was also played at four Olympic Games, in 1900, 1908, 1920 and 1924 (International Rugby Board 2011). In addition, on 9 October 2009, the International Olympic Committee voted with a majority of 81 to 8 that rugby union seven-a-side format

be reinstated as an Olympic sport. Thus, rugby will be played at least in the 2016 and 2020 Olympics games. (BBC 2009.)

4.2   Rugby in Finland

Rugby was first played in Finland at the beginning of the 1980's. However, after around ten years of organized games being played, the interest in rugby decreased. The reason for the lack of interest was that most of the people responsible for organising rugby in Finland were students, and after graduation, these students had less time for rugby matters. Another reason was that there was no junior rugby development. (Flörchinger 2002.)

The Finnish Rugby Federation was established already in 1968 but no written records are preserved from the early years. After the lack of interest of rugby in the beginning of the 1990's, there were no organized events and the organisational work was discontinued. Nevertheless, the Finnish Rugby Federation was re-established in 1999 and at the same year it also gained International Rugby Board (IRB) and the European Rugby Association (FIRA-AER) accreditation. (Mälkiä 2007.) In Finland only the format of rugby union is played.

Today, the Finnish Rugby Federation has 15 active member clubs and around 590 registered players (International Rugby Board 2014a; Finnish Rugby Federation 2014). The objective of the Finnish Rugby Federation is to promote, develop and sustain the game of rugby in Finland and support local rugby clubs. The Finnish Rugby Federation is responsible for organizing the fixtures in Finland as well as the national team events. Finnish Rugby Federation receives the majority of its funding from the International Rugby Board, the Finnish government (grant provided by the Ministry of Education and Culture) and subscriptions from the member clubs. (Finnish Rugby Federation 2010.)

After the re-establishment in 1999, rugby has spread to 15 clubs throughout Finland, and it is played by both men and women. At the moment, male rugby teams exist in Helsinki (2 teams, and both teams have a second team which plays in Division 1), Espoo (2 teams), Tampere, Turku, Jyväskylä, Pori, Kuopio, Oulu, Vaasa, Hämeenlinna, Porvoo and Joensuu. Lahti, Rovaniemi, Kotka, Kajaani and Rauma had previously male teams, but they are not competing currently and the future of these rugby clubs is uncertain. Jyväskylä, Tampere, Pori, Turku, Vaasa, Vantaa and Helsinki (2 teams) also have female rugby teams.

Competitions are held each year as follows. Firstly, there are two male leagues for 15s rugby: the Finnish Championship and Division 1. The Championship is the premier division in Finland while Division 1 is aimed for developing players. Secondly, there are two competitions within women's rugby: the Women's 7s and the Women's 15s Championship. These competitions are run consecutively with the 7s being contested in the winter season and the 15-a-side Championship occupying the summer season. In addition, although junior rugby in Finland is growing, there is currently not any competitive junior league. Furthermore, some unofficial tournaments such as Snow Rugby and Midnight Rugby are held on a yearly basis. Finally, on an international level, Finland is currently represented by the Senior Men's 15s, Senior Women's 15s and 7s and Men's 15s under 20 years. (Finnish Rugby Federation 2014.)

Although a minor sport, rugby has managed to raise interest in Finland in recent years and the number of new players is slowly increasing. The development of rugby in Finland is still fairly slow because rugby in general is a rather unfamiliar sport in Scandinavia and rugby has to also compete in popularity with other sports such as ice hockey, football or inner bandy. Another minor cause for the difficulties in promoting rugby in Finland might be the lack of Finnish translation of the Laws of the game.

4.3   History of the Laws of Rugby Union

The laws of the game are written down for all to see. There may be a lot of secrets about how to win, but there is no secret about how to play.

Derek Robinson, 1975.

Although the myth of William Webb Ellis may be intriguing, it is evident that the game of rugby was not developed overnight. On the contrary, after Ellis supposedly laid the foundation of rugby, almost fifty years passed until the Laws of rugby achieved satisfactory level of standardisation, and the game of rugby established its distinctive features (Jones 1966: 75). The following chapters describe shortly the development of the Laws of rugby union from the 19th century until present day.

4.3.1 The first rules

It is worth noticing that prior to the standardisation of the first rules, the early ball games were played according to unwritten rules. Moreover, as noted in chapter 4.1, there were no common rules available, and each school in England played the game with their own set of rules. At Rugby school, the carrying game was favoured, although running with the ball was strictly prohibited.

It was not until in 1841 that running with the ball during a game of football was permitted in school of Rugby. However, passing the ball to another player was still prohibited, and if a player wanted to 'run-in' with the ball, the ball had to be caught on the bounce. (Jones 1966: 75.) The first rules at Rugby school also permitted hacking, that is, kicking player's shins to knock him off his feet (Levinson and Christensen 1996: 835). In 1846, the school of Rugby was the first school to publish the rules of Rugby Football. The printed rule book, titled 'Laws of Football as Played at Rugby School' comprised 37 rules. (Jones 1966: 75; Rugby Football History 2007b.)

Over the coming years, the rules were revised regularly. However, other public schools still had their own versions of the rules, which were influenced by the school premises available. Because of the wide variety of rules used across the country, a unified code was needed. Thus, between 1846 and 1863 several meetings were organized in order to reach a common set of rules or laws (both terms were used at the time). Nevertheless, the attempts to unify different codes of football into one were not successful. (Jones 1966: 75.)

4.3.2 The 1871 Laws

After the establishment of RFU in 1871, a committee was formed to draw a set of rules for the game of rugby. Three ex-Rugby School pupils, A. E. Rutter, E. C. Holmes and L.J. Maton, were asked to prepare a set of rules. However, the final work was done solely by Maton because he had broken his leg while playing rugby and consequently had to spent time indoors. Being a lawyer, he came up with a set of laws (and not rules), and the legal aspects are reflected not only in the term *laws* but also in the calligraphic that Maton used. The Laws of rugby were approved in June in the same year. (Rugby Football History 2007b.)

The 1871 Laws, consisting of 59 sections, made hacking and tripping illegal. Later changes to the original Laws included changes in scoring values in 1875, reduction of the number of players from 20 to 15 in 1877, introduction of a referee and umpires to the game in 1886, replacing of umpires with touch judges in 1889, and finally entrustment of the referee with the complete control of the game with the introduction of the advance Law in 1893 (Jones 1966: 76).

4.3.3   Modern Laws of Rugby Union

The Laws of Rugby Union continued to develop in the 20th century. Until 1930 each rugby union had its own set of laws for its home matches. In 1930 it was England that proposed that "all matches should be played under the laws of the International board" and soon Ireland followed suit. The same year it was agreed that all future matches were to be played under the Laws of the International Rugby Football Board (IRFB). (Rugby Football History 2007b.)

An interesting phase in the development of the modern Laws of Rugby Union was the creation of *The Laws in Plain English* by Derek Robinson. Derek Robinson (born 1932) is a British author best known for his military aviation novels. In addition, Robinson has written a lot of other books and booklets about the Laws of Rugby Union. He was a qualified rugby referee for over thirty years and is a life member of Bristol Society of Rugby Referees. (Dann 2014; Robinson, personal email message 25.6.2014.) In the 1960's Robinson was playing rugby in Manhattan RFC, and rugby was starting to expand in the East coast of the United States. New players joining rugby at the time were confused about the game, so Robinson decided to write a booklet called *Rugger – How to Play the Game*. One copy of the booklet also found its way to England, and the RFU liked it so much that they published own edition of it in 1966. (Rugby Football History 2007c.)

In 1968 Robinson contacted the RFU and offered to revise the traditional Law book published by the International Rugby Football Board (as it was then known). The IRFB felt the same need. The work required was huge, as explained in Rugby Football History (2007c):

He then carried out a massive cut and paste job, which reduced the number of laws by 25-percent and tried to knock some common sense into them. For instance, He created an Advantage Law. In the old law book, advantage was an obscure paragraph, hidden away and almost lost. The RFU ultimately had editorial control, deciding how to incorporate the re-writes into wider proposals it eventually made to the IRFB. The IRFB's 1969 law book eventually benefited from a number of these suggested improvements. (Rugby Football History 2007c.)

However, later in the early 1990's it seemed the official Law book was still too complicated and everyone knew it (The Independent 1994). The 1991 Law book consisted of 261 pages, but the actual Laws took up only 105 pages. The rest of the pages dealt with directives, rulings, and notes relating to the Laws. Moreover, the actual Laws were written in a legalistic language, using long words and sentences. Finally, there was only one picture, and even the formatting into paragraphs and sub-paragraphs was overcomplicated. (Rugby Football History 2007c.)

In 1991 Robinson again offered to rewrite the Law book in simple, easily understandable English to make it more user-friendly. The RFU supported the idea and set up a team consisting of Derek Robinson, Jim Crowe and Peter Hughes, all rugby referees at the time. With the expert help of Crowe and Hughes, Robinson rewrote the 1990 Law book. It took him 3 years to complete the rewrite which was named *The Laws in Plain English*. The IRB (the organization's name was changed in to International Rugby Board) liked the rewrite and published it. International players and referees warmly welcomed the new Law book worldwide (The Independent 1994). The re-written Law book appeared for three years alongside the old, official Law book, and during this time it sold around 60,000 copies. (Robinson 2007; Rugby Football History 2007c.)

However, regardless of the success of *The Laws in Plain English*, the IRB decided to stop publishing it. Instead, for the next few years, the IRB published the same old official Law book, with all its faults, until there was suddenly a new Law book published. According to Robinson (2007):

It looked a lot like The Laws in Plain English with similar layout, and similar brief headings within each law for quick reference. Also, I found the language to be quite comparable; short words, short sentences, and nothing legalistic. Finally, the illustrations seemed to us also quite alike that it was hard to believe someone had not traced over our original illustrations. (Robinson 2007; Robinson 25.6.2014, personal email message.)

It remains unknown why the IRB stopped publishing *The Laws in Plain English* which was popular among rugby players and coaches, and decided to proceed with and improve the old Law book instead. It is interesting to note that briefly in 2000, the Law book was called *Rugby: The Laws of the Game Made Easier*, which, according to Robinson, was a late concession to the Laws in Plain English (Robinson, personal email message 2.7.2014). Whatever the reasons, it is clear that Robinson's work with the Laws of Rugby Union was an enormous favor to the rugby community worldwide especially considering the fact that he never received any compensation or an official expression of gratitude from the IRB. (Rugby Football History 2007c; Robinson 2007.) It is obvious that today's Laws of Rugby Union still follows the lines that Robinson and his team used in developing *The Laws in Plain English*.

4.3.4 The Laws in the 21st century

Today, the International Rugby Board (IRB) is the governing and law-making body for the game of rugby union worldwide. The IRB defines and regulates the Laws of Rugby Union as well as owns the copyright in them. The IRB publishes the Law book on a yearly basis, with new additions and modifications to the existing Laws. The modifications are developed according to the principles of spirit and safety, and the changes are sometimes tried out before they are accepted:

> *The Laws of Rugby are developed with two central principles in mind: firstly, to allow players to play within the Spirit of the Game, and secondly, to protect the welfare of all players. Sometimes the IRB trials changes to the Laws, before deciding whether those changes should be implemented on a global basis and accepted into full Law. Law trials may apply only in a certain region or, for example, only the northern or southern hemisphere. (International Rugby Board 2014c: 14.)*

Even though the basic principles have remained the same, the Laws of Rugby Union that are in use today are a result of continuous changes and amendments that were set forth due to new and changing techniques of game play. Without going into details on the actual changes, it can be said that over decades, several attempts have been made in order to improve the Laws by removing ambiguity and making the game more safe and enjoyable. Major changes in the Laws that have been implemented in the 20th century include possibility to replace an injured player in 1968, addition of yellow and red cards in 1992 and tactical substitutions in 1992. (Rugby Football History 2007b.) The development of the

Laws is also reflected in the amount of Laws. The number of Laws was 59 in 1871, 36 in 1948, 28 in 1994 and 22 today. However, today's Laws are longer and more elaborate than the first standardized Laws in 1871. (Marti 2008: 120.)

There are four principles upon which the modern Laws of Rugby Union are based. First of all, the Laws provide equal opportunity to anyone, regardless of their gender, age, skills or physical abilities, to participate in a game of rugby. Secondly, the Laws ensure that rugby as a game is maintained in a way that its distinctive features such as backward passes and offensive tackles, scrums and line outs as well as rucks, mauls, kick offs and restarts of the game are always part of the game play. Thirdly, the Laws ensure that the game is not only enjoyable for the players to play both also entertaining for spectators to watch. Finally, the referee and the touch judges must apply the Laws in such a way that the game of rugby is always played according to the principles laid out in the Laws. The players and coaches must, in return, respect the authority of the match officials as well as principles of fair play. (International Rugby Board 2014: 8.)

Through the present study, the source text is referred to as the *Laws of Rugby Union*. Therefore it is worth noticing that the document describing how to play rugby is indeed in English called the *Laws* of Rugby Union and not the *Rules* of Rugby Union. This has also been pointed out by Morley (1998, cited in Marti 2008: 117):

> *Rugby Union Football is governed by laws and not rules. This is to add gravity to proceeding. It gives the impression that getting off-side is really a criminal offence and you were lucky to get away with just a penalty. It could have been six months hard labour. Keep in mind that there are more laws in rugby than the Soviet Union had under Stalin.*

There are several reasons for calling the rules of rugby in English as Laws. Firstly, other typical English sports such as cricket, tennis and association football have Laws and not rules. Secondly, in rugby, the term *Laws* (with the capital letter) has been used since the very beginning when the first set of Laws were formulated. Finally, the Laws of rugby are detailed and rather complicated and thus, they resemble legislation more than simple rules. (Marti 2008: 119-121.)

4.3.5 International versions of the Laws of Rugby Union

The full, official Laws of Rugby Union are currently available in English, French, Spanish, Chinese, Russian, Japanese, Italian, Dutch, Romanian, Afrikaans and Xhosa (Sport24 2013). All the different language versions of the Laws can be downloaded from International Rugby Board's Laws web page at http://www.irblaws.com/ (International Rugby Board 2014b).

Up to the present, the broadest Finnish translation of Laws of Rugby Union which is published consists of 4 pages including pictures, published in *Suuri Urheilukirja* (Alku 1975: 156-159). This translation is based on the Laws presented in original work, namely *Rules of the Game: The Completed Illustrated Encyclopedia of all the Sports of the World*, edited by Wilkinson (1974: 156-159).

There have been some efforts for translating the Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish, prior to the translation work described in the present study. Esa Launis started the translation of the Laws around 2006 with contributions from Mika Partanen and Mika Latva-Kokko, resulting in a raw translation of the Laws (Launis et al. 2002). The translation is based on the IRB Laws of Rugby Union 2002 and the length of the translation is 45 pages. However, it seems that the final, complete translation of Laws of Rugby Union still remain incomplete.

To sum up Chapter 4, although rugby in Finland is a rather new sport, rugby as a sport has a long history that dates back to medieval England. Furthermore, the Laws of the game have evolved from the 19th until today with contributions by many people and organisations. Although the Laws of Rugby Union have been translated into several languages, the official Finnish version does not currently exist. One of the aims of the present study is to improve the situation by translating the Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish. Therefore, the next chapter takes a look at how this can be achieved.

5   PROBLEMS OF TRANSLATING THE LAWS OF RUGBY UNION

This chapter concentrates on describing the research context of the present study. Firstly, the objectives of the study are laid out. Secondly, the data of the present study is described. Thirdly, the research questions and research design are defined. Finally, the categorisations of translation problems are defined.

5.1   Objectives of the study

The aim of the present study in a broad sense is to expand understanding of the translation process involving a sport-related text. More significantly, the present study will investigate the possible problems that the translator may face when translating the Laws of Rugby Union 2014 from English into Finnish. The present study will also investigate ways in which these translation problems can be tackled. In addition, the present study aims at proposing a more unified Finnish terminology relating to rugby. Thus, it provides translators some common solutions for translating rugby terminology into Finnish. Therefore, a practical contribution will be made to the professional field of translation, in terms of offering information on translating sports-related elements from English into Finnish.

As to the rugby-related terminology, in 2007 Sampo Mälkiä worked on rugby-related terminology and proposed Finnish translations for 36 key terms such as positions of the players (Mälkiä 2007: 39-41). However, the translations listed by Mälkiä seem rather vague and are not functioning as such, since most of them are not actually currently used by the Finnish rugby community.

The secondary aim of the study is to translate part of the IRB Laws of Rugby Union 2014 from English into Finnish. The Laws of Rugby Union were chosen as a subject of translation because they have not been completely translated into Finnish before. However, as stated before, Esa Launis started the translation of the Laws around 2006 with contributions from Mika Partanen and Mika Latva-Kokko, resulting in a raw translation of the Laws of Rugby Union (Launis et al. 2002). In 2002 there were 22 Laws, of which 18 were partly or completely translated. Unfortunately, the raw translation is not only incomplete but also now out-dated, since the Laws of Rugby Union change each year a

little due to new amendments and Law experiments. Thus, the final, complete Finnish translation of the contemporary Laws of Rugby Union still remains incomplete.

Ultimately, proposing a more unified Finnish terminology and translating the Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish will help not only to standardize the Finnish rugby terms but more importantly, to promote rugby in Finland at least on four levels. Firstly, establishing Finnish rugby terminology and translating the Laws into Finnish will help beginners learn the rules of the game more quickly. Secondly, players, coaches and referees that are already playing rugby in Finland will benefit of having the terminology and Laws written in their mother tongue. Thirdly, those unfamiliar with rugby can have the possibility to familiarise with the game more easily when they can better understand the rules and terminology. By translating the Laws into Finnish, the game of rugby comes closer to the general public. Finally, getting the Laws translated into Finnish will show the International Rugby Union that the rugby community in Finland cares a great deal about rugby, is constantly developing it and creating new opportunities for more people to join in playing, coaching or organising the game. This might help in getting more financial support from the IRB to the Finnish Rugby Union.

5.2   Data

The primary data used in the present study consists of a source text, that is, the English version of 2014 IRB Laws of Rugby Union published by the International Rugby Board, along with my translation of the Laws in Finnish. I downloaded the Laws on my personal laptop in a pdf format from http://www.irblaws.com/EN/downloads/.

The source text comprises 204 pages and the document itself can be divided in four parts. The first part covers foreword and definitions. The second part is formed by so called playing charter, in which the principles of the game and Laws are briefly outlined. The third part consists of the actual Laws of the game of fifteens rugby. The Laws of Rugby Union are complete and contain all that is necessary to enable the game of rugby to be played correctly and fairly. The fourth part includes the standard set of variations for under 19 rugby, sevens rugby, ten-a-side rugby as well as referee signals.

However, translating over 200 pages for the purposes of the present study would be quite a daunting task along with writing the present study itself. Thus, it was decided to translate

nine Laws, a total of 54 pages of the source text. The following Table 3 presents the Laws of Rugby Union that were chosen as the data for the present study.

Table 3. Data of the present study.

Law	Pages	Translated in 2002
Law 1: The Ground	6	Yes
Law 8: Advantage	2	Yes
Law 9: Method of Scoring	4	Yes
Law 10: Foul Play	9	No
Law 11: Offside and Onside in General Play	6	No
Law 12: Knock-on or Throw Forward	3	No
Law 16: Ruck	5	Yes
Law 17: Maul	6	Yes
Law 20: Scrum	13	No

The decision to include exactly these nine Laws was made in the following manner. First, it was decided that all four Laws that were not translated in 2002 should be included and thus, the Laws 10, 11, 12 and 20 were selected. Second, it was considered to be important to select also five Laws that were already translated, in order to make better comparisons between the differences in translating problems relating to whether there is a raw translation available for reference or not. Thus, the Laws 1, 8, 9, 16 and 17 were selected.

Rugby wise, these Laws were selected because of the following reasons. The *Law 16: Ruck*, the *Law 17: Maul* and the *Law 20: Scrum* represent the distinctive features of rugby, and were thus included in the data. Finally, the *Law 8: Advantage* was included because it "takes precedence over most other Laws" (International Rugby Board 2014: 60) and is probably one of the most useful Laws from the point of view of a rugby referee. In addition, the purpose of the Law 8 is "to make play more continuous with fewer stoppages for infringements" (International Rugby Board 2014: 60), so it advances the continuity of game play, which is also one of the distinctive features of rugby.

Of the remaining Laws, the *Law 15: Tackle: Ball carrier Brought to the Ground* and the *Law 19: Touch and Lineout* were also considered since these Laws are very essential in rugby. However, it was decided not to include these Laws because both of them had been translated already. More importantly, the *Law 19: Touch and Lineout* covers 21 pages, so it would have formed most of the current data (54 pages). Finally, the *Law 15: Tackle: Ball carrier Brought to the Ground* did not at first glance seem to include any special type of vocabulary or grammatical constructions which would have made translating difficult or challenging and thus, it was not included in the data.

It was decided not to include under 19, ten-a-side or seven-a-side variations or referee signals because the line had to be drawn somewhere and it seemed a better idea to concentrate on the 15-a-side rugby variation, since it is the most played variation in Finland. Finally, roughly 1/4 of the Law book[1] was meant to be included in the data. The nine selected Laws cover a total of 54 pages, which covers practically 1/4 of the whole document.

The raw translation of the Laws of Rugby Union 2002, which was composed by Esa Launis, Mika Partanen and Mika Latva-Kokko in 2006, will be the secondary data that is used in the present study.

5.3   Research questions

The present study aims at finding answers to the following three research questions:

1. What kinds of elements of sport lexicon can be found in the source text?

2. What kinds of problems can occur when translating the Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish and how these translation problems can be tackled?

3. On basis of the translated Laws of Rugby Union, what kind of practical recommendations arise with regard to rugby-related terminology in Finnish?

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[1] Here, the Law book comprises the Foreword, Definitions, Playing Charter, Laws 1-22, Under 19 variations, Seven-a-side variations, Ten-a-side variations and the Referee Signals, a total of 204 pages.

5.4   Research design

The following chapters describe methodology, translation commission and skopos of the translation for the present study. These components form the research design of the present study.

5.4.1   Annotated translation

The present study is **an annotated translation** i.e. translation with a commentary. It is a type of introspective and retrospective research which consists of translating a text and writing a commentary of the translation process at the same time (Williams and Chesterman 2002: 7). The annotated translation is usually reported in a written form, which includes a regular theoretical part and a translation part along with translation commentary and descriptive analysis. The theoretical part introduces relevant theories relating to Translation Studies and themes or subjects relating to Linguistics or Literature, as well the subject area of the source text. In the present study, the relevant theories of Translation Studies include the skopos theory, a theme relating to Linguistics is the language of sport and subject area of the source text is rugby. The commentary part is based on notes and observations that are written down during the translation process in a journal. The commentary usually includes discussion of the assignment, analysis of the source text and description of the completed translation process, along with a reasoned justification for translation choices that were made, using the relevant translation theories and concepts as the framework. (Vehmas-Lehto 1999: 6-7.)

Thus, the data analysis in the present study will be a description of my own translation process as well as translation problems encountered when translating the Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish. The English version of the Laws of Rugby Union (the source text) will be investigated in terms of sport lexicon as part of the source text analysis, and the source text and the Finnish translation of the Laws of Rugby Union (the target text) will be investigated in terms of possible translation problems. In addition, some problem-solving techniques for the translation problems will be identified. Finally, the present study will provide some recommendations for usage of rugby-related terms in Finnish.

Annotated translation as a research type seemed useful for purposes of the present study for many reasons. As García Álvarez (2007) points out, annotated translation provides more

time for reflection, because the line of reasoning is written down during the translation process. In addition, expressing the choices made during the translation in writing also helps the translators to rationalise their own translation process. Williams and Chesterman (2002: 7) also maintain that one of the advantages of this type of research is that it increases self-awareness which in turn can result in better translation quality. As Vehmas-Lehto (1999: 6-7) points out, the translator is more aware of the problems relating to the translation when researching a text that is translated by the researcher itself.

The annotated translation in the present study has been comprised with the functionalistic translation theory, skopos theory, in mind. Thus, the translation commission and skopos of the translation are discussed in the next sections. The source text analysis will be discussed later in the chapter that deals with analysis of the actual translation work.

5.4.2   The skopos of the translation

The intended audience of the translated Laws of Rugby Union can be described as follows. First of all, the translated Law book is aimed for the players, coaches and referees of the Rugby Union community in Finland. Moreover, the PE teachers or teachers-to-be might also be interested in reading the Law book. Finally, the translated Law book is aimed also for the general public, the media and the people of the sporting organisations in Finland.

Since there was no outside commissioner involved in this translation project, the translator was obliged to determine the skopos herself. The skopos derives from my familiarity with the target language, the target rugby audience and its needs, as well as the terminology of rugby. In addition, I have been playing rugby since 2008 and I have also played in the Finnish women's 7's and 15's rugby national teams (still currently playing in the 15's national team as a captain), so I have some understanding of what rugby is about.

Even though there was no outside commissioner involved in the translation project, the translator has full support from The Finnish Rugby Federation (SRL, Suomen rugbyliitto), as indicated in the following extract from a personal email between the translator and the current chairman of the Finnish Rugby Federation:

> *You've got the SRL's full support in your project and should you need any help in the immediate future, please feel free to ask either me, or George Mossford who's the Chairman of the Finnish Rugby Referees' Association. (Palemia Field, personal email message 8.3.2010)*

The general skopos of the translation is to present a coherent translation that provides the framework for the game of rugby similarly to the source text, and that is adapted to the Finnish culture for Finnish readers, without compromising the principle of loyalty as explained by Nord (1997). Thus, the Finnish translation of the Laws of Rugby Union is, in Nord's (2005: 80-81) terms, an instrumental translation. The target text is also an equifunctional translation, because it is capable of fulfilling the same functions as the source text.

In addition to the rather general skopos, I formulated the following five translation principles, which will apply to the translated Laws as a whole:

1. The translation should keep close to the source text. However, the overriding objective is always to produce fluent Finnish.
2. Source text elements are adapted to the Finnish culture and target language conventions.
3. For rugby-related terminology, Finnish words are favoured unless a loan word is more suitable for practical reasons.
4. For terminology that is not established in the Finnish language, a coined word may be used. However, clearly dialectal Finnish words are not accepted as new terms.
5. The intended skopos of the source text should be the same as in the translated text.

Finally, regarding Nord's principle of loyalty, in order to match the purpose of the target text to the intentions of the source text author, the following steps as formulated by Robinson (1994), the author of TULIPE, will be followed wherever possible and applicable to Finnish language:

1. Short sentences are better than long sentences.
2. Don't try to say everything at once. Break it into sections.
3. Make it active. Active statement is better than passive.
4. Make it personal, speak to the player.
5. Use everyday speech and avoid ambiguous words.

5.5 Categorisation of translation problems

There were many translation problems encountered during the translation of the Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish. The problems were categorized into four groups which are **linguistic translation problems**, **text-specific translation problems, pragmatic translation problems** and **sport-specific translation problems**. The first three categories were derived from Nord's (2005) categorisation of translation problems, except for that convention-related translation problems are regarded as a sub-category of pragmatic translation problems. Previously, the same choice of combining the categories has been made for example by Vehmas-Lehto (1999) and Lehmussaari (2006). The reason for this merge is that solving convention-related translation problems usually require applying some sort of pragmatic adaptation.

For the purposes of the present study yet another category, that of sport-specific translation problems, was formed by the translator. The category of sport-specific translation problems was added because the terminology problems found during the preliminary terminology phase as well as during the actual translation phase could not be placed easily under any other category. Although the source text is about rugby and the terminology problems are rugby-specific, the translation problems were not exactly text-specific since the same terminology problems can be found for example in a Finnish newspaper article on rugby or in a fictional book with references to rugby[2]. The sport-specific translation problems related to terminology could have been categorised also as pragmatic translation problems, because as noted earlier in the present study, rugby terminology in Finnish is not yet established, and translating them requires pragmatic adaptation for the Finnish audience to understand concepts familiar to the English-speaking audience. However, problems related to rugby-specific terminology were not in the present study regarded as pragmatic problems, because when translating terminology, one needs to take into account not only the expectations of the readers but also the features of the target language.

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[2] This actually happened in autumn 2012, when a professional translator, who at the time was translating a South African thriller into Finnish, contacted me through the Finnish Rugby Federation for assistance in translating rugby-related terminology present in the book.

Finally, although the terminology-related problems could be counted as linguistic translation problems, I wanted to make a distinction between problems caused by general vocabulary (and syntax) and rugby-related vocabulary. Thus in the present study, the former are considered as linguistic translation problems and the latter as sport-specific translation problems.

It seemed suitable to apply Nord's categorisation since both the skopos theory and Nord's categorisation of translation problems are functionalist in their nature. Moreover, the categorisation of the translation problems was done in order to draw attention to themes which were particularly important in translating the selected nine Laws of Rugby Union into Finnish. Since there were numerous problems encountered during the translation, for the analysis only the most interesting examples in each category will be presented in chapter 6.

6   TRANSLATION ANALYSIS

In this chapter, the translation process is described in short first. Next, the sport lexicon of the source text is briefly analysed. The main focus of this chapter is on the analysis of the translation problems found during the translation process of the source text, as well as the solutions to the problems encountered during the translation process.

6.1   Translation process

The translation process started already in September 2010 with preliminary research on existing rugby terminology in Finnish. For this, I first went through basically everything that has ever been written about rugby in Finnish: the material on Finnish Rugby Federation's web pages (Finnish Rugby Federation 2012), discussions on the web on Finland Rugby Forum (Finland Rugby Forum 2012), one seminar paper (Mälkiä 2007) and a thesis (Sironen 2010) in Finnish on rugby, material written in Finnish by Women's National Team coach Tytti Yli-Viikari (Yli-Viikari 2012), Finnish encyclopaedias which had articles on rugby (*Suomalainen tietosanakirja 7*, s.v. Rugby; *Urheilutieto*, s.v. Rugby; *Fokus urheilu 1*, s.v. Rugby), sport dictionaries written in Finnish (Raevuori 2005; Palvalin 1997; Sulonen and Leikkola 1952) and a few books on sports in Finnish (Urheilu, 2003; Urheilun sääntö- ja kunto-opas 2, 2000; Alku 1975). I could not find any books only about rugby that was written in Finnish.

Next, I read carefully the Laws of Rugby Union 2012 (International Rugby Board 2012a) as if I knew nothing about the game of rugby, to identify possible problematic rugby terminology in English. In addition to this, I went through three parallel texts, that is, the Laws of Rugby Union written in Spanish, Italian and French (International Rugby Board 2012b, 2012c, 2012d). I compared the terminology related to player's positions found in these texts to the existing terminology found in Finnish material. Based on this terminology work, in 2012 I finally compiled a terminology list of problematic rugby-related terms, which contained a total of 65 terms: 40 core rugby terms and 25 terms related to player's positions, and I translated this list of key rugby terminology into Finnish. The preliminary terminology work was done to make the actual translation process later on smoother, and any problems that occurred during the terminology work were recorded in a journal.

6.2 Analysis of the source text

After compiling the list of key rugby terms in Finnish, in February 2014 I analysed the skopos of the source text as well as the sport lexicon and legal language of the source text. For this, the 2013 English version of the Laws of Rugby Union (International Rugby Board 2013) was used as it was the latest version of the Laws available online at the time. In the following chapters, the source text analysis is presented in detail.

6.2.1 The authors and the skopos of the source text

The actual source text is divided into nine parts: the Foreword, Definitions, Playing Charter, Before the Match (Laws 1-6), During the Match (Laws 7-22), Under 19 variations, Seven-a-side variations, Ten-a-side variations and the Referee Signals, which all make a total of 204 pages. The source text also includes 94 pictures that not only help explaining some of the key terminology but also help in understanding each Law in question.

The author of the source text is International Rugby Board (International Rugby Board 2013). It is unknown who the actual writers of the text are, but it is assumed that the Law book is a collaboration of several authors. As seen above in the present study, throughout the years, the Laws have been subject to changes made by several people. The skopos of the source text is to describe everything that is necessary to "enable the game of rugby to be played correctly and fairly" (International Rugby Board 2013). The English version of the Laws is targeted for any rugby player, coach or referee who understands English and wants to learn how to play, coach or referee rugby within the spirit of the Laws. The source text is published on the Internet so that everyone with an Internet access can get a hold of the Laws of Rugby Union. Moreover, the online version helps in building understanding of how the Laws are applied on the field of play, because it can be used as a quick reference when taking the self-test exam for checking one's knowledge on the Laws.

As noted earlier in the present study, the current Law book resembles a lot of the Laws in Plain English. Thus it is reasonable to acknowledge that Derek Robinson should be recognized as one of the authors of the current version of the Laws of Rugby Union. In his guide to style and layout for the Laws in Plain English (TULIPE, as referred to by the author) Robinson (1994) states that the aim of TULIPE was "to let every player – of any age or ability – to understand the Laws easily." Robinson also points out that the style of

TULIPE is simple and straightforward. The viewpoint in the Laws is wherever possible that of the player, the referee or the touch judge. Based on the analysis of skopos, this seems to be the case also in the current version of the Laws.

6.2.2   Sport lexicon in the source text

As illustrated earlier in the present study, according to Zummo (2008), sport language can be seen as a special language, a combination of code and jargon and with special features relating to for example vocabulary. Therefore, to better understand the problems caused by sport language when translating sport related texts and more importantly, to find solutions to the translation problems, the analysis of source text will be presented next. Due to limited time and space, the source text was analysed only in terms of the characteristics of its sport lexicon, which are general sport lexicon, metaphors, metonymies, analogies of war, sexist language and anglicisms.

Most of the characteristics of sport lexicon as shown in chapter 2.3.1 can be identified in the source text. Firstly, the source text contains definitions of 30 key technical rugby terms. The following terms that relate to the playing conditions, playing positions and techniques used in rugby are defined in detail:

> (8) the ground, the field of play, the playing area, the playing enclosure, in-goal, the 22, the plan, the law of advantage, foul play, onside, offside, a knock-on, forward, charge down, a throw forward, bounce forward, a ruck, rucking, a maul, a scrum, the middle line of a scrum, the tunnel, the scrum half, the middle line, the hooker, props, locks, flankers, No. 8 and binding.

These terms listed in the example (8) are provided in a separate section at the beginning of the specific Law. The reason for this may be that it helps the reader to understand the actual content and application of the Law. Another reason may be that it is easy to check from the Law book what each of the terms mean when they are presented at the beginning of each Law.

Secondly, the source text contains many words that describe different kinds of actions that the players or referees perform during a rugby match. These include for example the following actions performed by the players:

> (9) kick, tap-kick, punch, strike, stamp, trample, trip, tackle, obstruct, charge, push, pull, lift, jump, run, pass, carry, wrestle, score, retaliate, loiter, choose, touch, catch, bind, throw, stand

as well as actions performed by the referees such as:

> (10) blow the whistle, award, apply the sanctions, permit, allow, order, caution, decide, report, suspend, admonish, call, penalise

It is obvious that the source text contains these kinds of verbs shown in the above two examples (9, 10) because the Laws of Rugby Union must not only describe how these actions can be performed but also they must regulate which of these actions can be performed and which are illegal. Moreover, some of these actions performed by the referee or by the players can be performed only if a certain condition relating to the weather, player's previous action or change in the movement or position of the ball is met, as in the following example from Law 9 Method of Scoring:

> (11) (a) If after the ball is kicked, it touches the ground or any team-mate of the kicker, a goal cannot be scored.
>
> (b) If the ball has crossed the crossbar a goal is scored, even if the wind blows it back into the field of play.
>
> (c) If an opponent commits an offence as the kick at goal is being taken, but neverthless the kick is successful, advantage is played and the score stands. (International Rugby Board 2013: 59, spelling mistake 'neverthless' in the original)

Furthermore, the source text contains many examples of outcomes of the actions, such as:

> (12) a sanction, an offence, an infringement, a knock-on, a throw forward, a try, a penalty goal, a penalty kick

as well as examples of equipment used in rugby, such as:

> (13) a ball, a whistle, a kicking tee, a yellow card, a red card, a jersey

In addition, the source text contains only two instances of sport venues (*match*, *game*) and one acronym, *IRB*, which refers to the International Rugby Union. Finally, the source text contains some everyday and slang words, which in rugby context are used in a different meaning. For example, the word *touch* is used in the source text to describe a situation in which the player touches the ball, but also as a term that refers to the area outside the actual playing area. Furthermore, the assistant referees who stand outside the playing area are referred to as *touch judges*. Similarly, instead of talking about a prostitute, the word *hooker* is used in the source text as a technical term to refer to the player who plays one of the front row positions.

There were also quite a few metaphors in the source text. The following example (14) from Law 10 Foul Play is an example of metaphorical use of *waste*:

> (14) (b) **Time-wasting**. A player must not intentionally waste time. (International Rugby Board 2013: 63, emphasis in the original)

Time-wasting is usually done in sport context in order to reduce the time available for the opposing team to score. Thus, play time is wasted especially by a team that is winning by a slim margin near the end of a game. Although it is penalised, time-wasting is present also in rugby. The rest of the metaphors will be discussed later in the analysis.

There were also some words which could be considered as a metonymy. For example, in the source text, the word *Union* is used to refer to any National Rugby Union, such as RFU, which is the governing body of Rugby Union in England. Moreover, since the Laws of Rugby Union are presumably intended to anyone who can understand English, the authors of the Laws may have wanted to use the more generalizable term instead of referring to a specific National Rugby Union. Interestingly, though, the name of the Finnish Rugby Union, 'Suomen rugbyliitto' is translated into English as *Finnish Rugby Federation*, not *Union*.

The source text also contained some examples which could be identified as analogies of war. For instance, the Laws state that a team can attempt to *gain territorial* or *tactical advantage*, or try to *keep or win possession* of the ball by *wrestling* for it in rucks and mauls, although sometimes a maul may just *remain stationary* when it has *stopped moving forward*. Sometimes a *defending team* has to *retire to their goal line*, when the *attacking team* is taking a conversion kick. Teams cannot perform *cavalry charges* or move in *a formation known as flying wedge*. (International Rugby Board 2013: 56-108.)

One reason for the existence of analogies of war in the source text may be that due to its nature, rugby is a competitive, contact sport which resembles war. As seen in chapter 2.3.4, many contact team sports imitate war because they include contents of physical strength which require war-relevant skills, reinforce group solidarity and identity, arouse strong emotions, value qualities such as courage, loyalty, stamina and discipline and the conduct is strictly regulated and ritualised. Based on the analysis of the source text's vocabulary, this seems to be the case also for rugby.

Finally, there were no instances of sexist language in the source text. One reason for the non-existence of sexist language may be that there is no need in differentiating between women and men in rugby because both sexes play the game according to the same rules. This is unusual because for example in women's ice hockey or women's lacrosse, some of the rules (especially relating to tackling and equipment) are different for women compared to the men's game (IIHF 2014; FIL 2014).

It is interesting that the 1994 rewritten version of the Laws as well as the 1998 version of the Laws both use third-person singular pronoun *he* and its possessive form *his*. However, in the current version of the Laws, all third-person pronouns that refer to the natural gender are, apart from three instances of the pronoun *his*, removed in all of the Laws. Instead, the current version of the Laws uses plural pronouns or modified clause or sentence structures. The following three examples illustrate this change (the last example is taken from the current version of the Laws, <u>Law 11 Offside and Onside in General Play</u>):

> (15) Off-side means that a player is temporarily out of the game. If *he* takes part in the game when off-side, *he* is liable to be penalised. (International Rugby Football Board 1994: 132, emphasis added.)

> (16) Off-side means that a player is in a position in which *he* is out of the game and is liable to penalty. (International Rugby Football Board 1997: 82, emphasis added)

> (17) Offside means that a player is temporarily out of the game. *Such players* are liable to be penalised if *they* take part in the game. (International Rugby Board 2014: 75, emphasis added.)

In comparison, since football and rugby have the same origin, also in football there is no need in differentiating between women and men. Curiously, the Law book of football still uses third-person pronoun that refers to the male gender for practical reasons, for it states that "references to the male gender in the Laws of the Game in respect of referees, assistant referees, players and officials are for simplification and apply to both men and women" (FIFA 2014).

6.2.3 Legal language

The source text has also some characteristics of legal language. Two obvious references to legal language are the name of the document itself, the *Laws* of Rugby Union, as well as references in the particular sections of the Laws to *Law amendment trials* which are set forth by the IRB. More importantly, as seen in chapter 3.2.2, legal language in general

conveys knowledge and information, as well as directs, affects and modifies people's behaviour. Many sections in the source text are not only informative but use performative markers such as *must*, as shown in the following passage from <u>Law 20 Scrum</u>:

> (18) (f) Front rows coming together. First, the referee marks with a foot the place where the scrum is to be formed. Before the two front rows come together they *must* be standing not more than an arm's length apart. The ball is in the scrum half's hands, ready to be thrown in. The front rows *must* crouch so that when they meet, each player's head and shoulders are no lower than the hips. The front rows *must* interlock so that no player's head is next to the head of a team-mate. (International Rugby Board 2013: 135, emphasis added).

Furthermore, many of the sections in the source text, especially the <u>Law 10 Foul Play</u>, contain language to pronounce judgements, impose obligations, confer rights, grant permission or express prohibition, by using performative verbs such as *award*, *caution* or *declare*, as seen in the following example:

> (19) If a penalty kick *is awarded* to a team but a player of that team is guilty of further misconduct before the kick is taken, the referee will *caution* or send-off the guilty player, *declare* the kick disallowed, and *award* a penalty kick to the opposing team. (International Rugby Board 2013: 67, emphasis added).

At many points, the source text resembles an actual Law book with short descriptions of what a player must or must not do during a game, and what the consequences (sanctions) for not obeying the Laws are, as shown in the following example from <u>Law 16 Ruck</u>:

> (20) (a) Players in a ruck must endeavour to stay on their feet.
>
> Sanction: Penalty kick
>
> (b) A player must not intentionally fall or kneel in a ruck. This is dangerous play.
>
> Sanction: Penalty kick
>
> (c) A player must not intentionally collapse a ruck. This is dangerous play.
>
> Sanction: Penalty kick (International Rugby Board 2013: 99).

One reason for the use of legal language as shown in the above examples (18, 19 and 20) may be that Laws have to be exact, precise and interpretable in a way that leaves no room for misunderstandings. Thus the authors of the current Laws of Rugby Union may have wanted to express the Laws precisely, using performative markers. Another reason for the use of language that resembles language used in legal context may be the decision of the IRB to stop publishing The Laws in Plain English and improve with the old Law book instead. As seen in chapter 4.3.3, the old Law book had many faults and one of them was its

language being too legalistic, and this fault may have stayed in the current Law book. This can be supported at least by the fact that the current Law book uses laundry lists (long lists of items subtitled (a), (b) etc.), passive sentence constructions, special words and other clause constructions that, according to Robinson, should all be avoided to make the Law book simple, user-friendly and easily translatable (Robinson 1994).

To sum up, many of the characteristics of sport lexicon as described in chapter 2.3 can be identified also in the source text. In addition, the source text has some similar characteristics of legal language described in chapter 3.2.2. Next, the analysis will move its focus from the source text to the specific translation problems found during the translation of the selected nine Laws from English into Finnish. The translation problems were anticipated by comparing the older versions of the Laws with the latest version.

6.3 Comparison of current version of the Laws with older versions

In June 2014 I contacted Derek Robinson, the author of the Laws in Plain English via email and asked whether there would be any possibility to get a copy of TULIPE in any format for research purposes. To my surprise, Robinson not only responded but also sent one original copy of TULIPE, the 98/99 Laws of Rugby Union and a guide to style and layout he used when rewriting the Laws.

Thus, after receiving the books, I briefly compared TULIPE (International Rugby Football Board 1994) and the 1998/1999 version of the Laws (International Rugby Football Board 1997) with the current, 2014 version of the Laws published by International Rugby Board (International Rugby Board 2014). This was done in order to see how much the Laws have changed during the past 20 years, to see how different authors have written about the same Law and more importantly, to identify possible translation problems in the 2014 version of the Laws. The brief comparison showed that TULIPE was completely different to the 1998/1999 version in terms of how the Laws were explained and divided into sections. The writing style of TULIPE was also different, and the current Law book resembles of it a lot.

6.4 Journal

A journal was kept in an electronic form both during the preliminary terminology work, during brief comparison of the different version of the Laws and during the actual

translation of the selected nine Laws in order to track the progress, any problems faced during the translation as well as general feelings of the translator. Keeping the journal turned out very useful for analysing the problems and solutions to them when writing the data analysis.

One disadvantage of the journal was that it was impossible to record every thought in every step of the translation, and unconscious processes obviously could not be recorded. Thus, at one point during the translation process I considered recording my thoughts, difficulties and decisions in speech by using a method called think-aloud protocol (TAP) which has been used in some translation studies for example to identify the translators' focus of attention and translation problems during the translation (Jääskeläinen 1993: 101). However, the method seemed time consuming and thus, due to lack of time the idea was abandoned. Nevertheless I tried to include in the journal any problems and as detailed solutions to them as possible, as well as optional translations which were not eventually chosen in the final version of the target text for some reason or another. I also tried to add any questions or doubts relating to the translation in addition to some ideas for checking the terminology present in rules of another sport, in the old version of the Laws or in the raw translation done earlier in Finnish.

During the translation process sport dictionaries in Finnish and common English-Finnish dictionaries were consulted. In addition, existing Finnish material on rugby was also checked for possible translations of the terminology. The raw translation done in 2002 was also checked for possible help during the translation process. However, since not all the Laws were translated in 2002, the raw translation was only partly useful. Furthermore, parallel texts in French, Italian and Spanish were also sometimes consulted.

The actual translation work of the selected Laws was started in July 2014 and it lasted about two weeks. The translation problems found during the translation as well as solutions to the problems are presented in the following chapter in more detail.

6.5   Analysis of the translation problems

Both during the preliminary terminology work and during the actual translation process there were several issues which caused problems in translating the Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish. Thus, in the following analysis, an attempt is made to illustrate

some of the main problems encountered during the translation of the selected nine Laws, as well as strategies used for solving these problems, both of which were recorded in the journal during the translation process.

In the present study, a translation problem was defined as a situation in which the translator's workflow has either paused or stopped completely due to a major doubt in translating, which caused the translator to consult raw translation, older versions of the Laws, parallel texts and dictionaries or encyclopaedias. During the terminology work and actual translation, there were 172 translation problems encountered in total. Table 4 shows how the translation problems were divided amongst the selected nine Laws and in the terminology work.

Table 4. Translation problems found in each Law and during terminology work.

Law	Pages	Translated in 2002	Number of problems
Terminology work	-	Yes, partly	65
Law 1: The Ground	6	Yes	15
Law 8: Advantage	2	Yes	7
Law 9: Method of Scoring	4	Yes	5
Law 10: Foul Play	9	No	18
Law 11: Offside and Onside in General Play	6	No	14
Law 12: Knock-on or Throw forward	3	No	7
Law 16: Ruck	5	Yes	7
Law 17: Maul	6	Yes	12
Law 20: Scrum	13	No	22
		Total	**172**

As shown in Table 4, the two most problematic Laws to translate were Law 20 Scrum and Law 10 Foul Play, both of which were not translated in 2002. However, the raw translation was helpful to some extent when translating the other Laws, since there were not as many problems encountered during the translation of those Laws which were already translated to some extent in 2002. Nevertheless, since the original raw translation was done 12 years

ago, it was clearly out-dated in many parts. Moreover, the current versions of the selected Laws had several additions which obviously were not translated in 2002.

Of the 172 translation problems, 65 were identified in the terminology phase and 107 were encountered during the actual translation. It is worth noting that during the translation phase, eight more translation problems relating to rugby-specific terminology were found, making the total amount of problems relating merely to rugby terminology to 73.

For the analysis, all the translation problems were categorised into four categories: sport-specific, linguistic, text-specific and pragmatic translation problems. Not surprisingly, 42% of the problems were sport-specific, that is, problems that had to do with rugby-related terminology only. Secondly, linguistic problems accounted for 31% of all the translation problems. These included problems related to the differences between the Finnish and English languages on lexical or syntactical level. Thirdly, 15% of all the translation problems were text-specific problems. These included problems related to the overall structure of the source text and style of the source text author. Finally, pragmatic problems accounted for 12% of all the translation problems. These included problems in rendering a passage of the source text to the Finnish audience in a way that the passage would be understandable in the Finnish rugby context, considering the background knowledge of the people involved.

It is worth noticing that over half of the problems, about 57%, dealt with either rugby-related terminology or with the overall structure and style of the Law of Rugby Union. One reason for this is that in the terminology phase, each problematic term was counted as one problem, which raised the total percentage of problems related to the Laws as a text about rugby on the whole. However, since the Finnish rugby terminology was not established at the time of starting the translation, the preliminary terminology work made the actual translating phase easier in terms of terminology. This is reflected by the fact that of the 107 translation problems encountered during the actual translation of the selected Laws, only 7% related to the rugby-specific terminology, while the rest, about 93% of the problems, were either linguistic, text-specific or pragmatic translation problems.

Many of the translation problems were solved using several translation strategies from each group (syntactic, semantic and pragmatic, as categorised by Chesterman, 1997). However,

the rugby-related terminology was mostly, with a few exceptions, translated by creating a neologism, that is, by coining a new term. As to the problems found during the actual translation phase, that is, when translating the actual source text and not mere terminology, 47% of the problems were solved using syntactic translation strategies. Moreover, 36% of the translation problems were solved by using pragmatic strategies. The semantic translation strategies were least used, because only 17% of the problems were solved by applying them. However, it is worth bearing in mind that when analysing the total number of strategies used, only the main translation strategy that was applied in solving each problem is counted, even though solving the problem might have required applying several translation strategies. The two main strategies used to solve translation problems during the translation phase were cultural filtering and explicitness change.

Next, examples of each translation problem category will be presented. The categories are presented in the order of their frequency, that is, the sport-specific translation problems are presented first. It is worth noting that only the most interesting or challenging translation problems are presented. In the following analysis, short examples are presented in a smaller font, and aligned and numerated with continuous numbers in brackets. Longer examples are also aligned and numerated, and presented in two columns so that the English example is presented on the left side followed by a page number in brackets, which refers to the source text The Laws of Rugby Union (International Rugby Board 2014). The Finnish translation of the source text passage is shown on the right side. Sometimes parts of the two passages are emphasized in italics to highlight the problem areas. Moreover, sometimes the word or words in italics are followed by an asterisk in brackets (*), which denotes a translation that, in the end, was not chosen in the final version. After the quote, the examples are discussed to illustrate the problems that occurred in translating the passage, as well as the used translation strategy identified. In addition, the possible shortcomings of the translator's decisions are discussed. The objective is to provide discussion of the translations and the choice that the translator has made during the translation process. Alternative translations are discussed when there could have been another obvious solution to the problem. However, due to limited space, this is done only when the rugby terminology is discussed.

6.5.1 Sport-specific translation problems

In the present study, the sport-specific translation problems were problems dealing with rugby terminology, and they formed 42% of all the problems. Most of the sport-specific translation problems were identified already during the preliminary terminology phase. These problems were divided into problems relating to playing positions and problems that relate to core rugby terms, and these are presented in the following. However, during the translation phase, a few sport-specific translation problems were also encountered, and examples of these are presented at the end of this section. All final translations of the rugby-specific terms are presented in Appendix II.

6.5.1.1 Playing positions

When translating the rugby terminology from the Laws of Rugby Union into Finnish, one of the most problematical areas was translating the playing positions. The fact that the established rugby terminology relating especially to playing positions in Finnish is currently practically non-existing caused a major problem. Another problem was that in English there are several options for different playing positions. For example, player with the jersey number 10 is called *fly-half*, *half-back*, *outside half*, *out half*, *stand-off*, *five-eight*, *first five-eighth*, *first five* or *halfback*, depending of the country. Thus, making a decision on a suitable translation for a playing position was not always easy.

At first, I considered of not translating the playing positions at all since Finnish rugby players are used to using either the English version of each playing position or their dialectical variants which in practise are the English versions of the terms adapted into the Finnish pronunciation. However, since the use of these adapted terms is somewhat consistent, it seemed as a good starting point for translating the playing positions. Next, I pondered upon whether to translate some or all of the terms or not translate them at all. Having considered advantages and disadvantages of translating all the names of the playing positions, I decided to translate them all. The following example (21) shows the translations of the playing positions in the definition placed at the beginning of Law 20 Scrum:

> (21) The player of either team who throws the ball into the scrum is *the scrum half*.
>
> Pelaajaa, joka vierittää pallon tunneliin rykelmäaloituksessa, kutsutaan *linkki-pelaajaksi*.

The middle player in each front row is *the hooker*.	Kummankin eturivin keskimmäinen pelaaja on *huukkeri*.
The players on either side of the hooker are *the props*. The left side props are *the loose head props*. The right side props are *the tight head props*.	Huukkerin molemmin puolin olevat pelaajat ovat *proppeja*. Avoimen puolen propit ovat *vasemman puolen proppeja* ja sisäpuolen propit ovat *oikean puolen proppeja*.
The two players in the second row who push on the props and the hooker are *the locks*.	Kakkosrivissä on kaksi pelaajaa, jotka työntävät proppeja ja huukkeria. Näitä pelaajia kutsutaan *lukkopelaajiksi*.
The outside players who bind onto the second or third row are *the flankers*.	Rykelmän uloimmat pelaajat, jotka sitovat kakkosriviin tai kolmosriviin, ovat *flänkkereitä*.
The player in the third row who usually pushes on both locks is *the No.8*. Alternatively, the No. 8 may push on a lock and a flanker. (p. 138, emphasis added)	Kolmannessa rivissä oleva *pelaaja 8* työntää yleensä molempia lukkopelaajia. Vaihtoehtoisesti pelaaja 8 voi myös työntää yhtä lukkopelaajaa ja yhtä flänkkeriä.

The most common strategy for translating the playing positions shown in the example (21) was to coin a new term. Most terms were nativised, that is, taking the original and then changing the written/spoken form so that it resembles Finnish words. Good examples of coining are terms *huukkeri*, *flänkkeri* and *proppi*. Since these forms are actually used at the trainings to some extent, it seemed reasonable to take them as official terms for the concepts they are used for. Forms such as *huukkaaja*, *flänkkääjä* and *proppaaja* were also considered, but these were discarded because the suffix -i seems to be in use also in the official terminology of other sports. For instance, in volleyball, there are playing positions such as *hakkuri* and *passari*, and in football one of the players is called *toppari*. *Linkkipelaaja* was also a completely new term that was coined. In sevens rugby, the word *linkki* is sometimes used to refer to a player that usually acts as the scrum half, although in sevens rugby every player usually performs even more different kinds of actions than in 15's rugby. In 15's rugby, the scrum half acts as a link between the forwards and the backs, thus the Finnish translation.

In the terms relating to the props, translating *loose head* and *tight head* for example literally into 'irtonainen pää' ja 'tiukka pää' would have resulted in a funny translation instead of a functional translation. Thus, the terms *loose head prop* and *tight head prop* were translated into 'vasemman puolen proppi' and 'oikean puolen proppi'. In these two cases, in addition to the coinage 'proppi', a translation strategy called cultural filtering was used. According

to Chesterman (1997), cultural filtering as a strategy involves domestication of source text elements for the needs of the target audience. Thus, for the Finnish audience, the words *loose* and *tight* were replaced with *vasen* 'left' and *oikea* 'right' to describe the two players' actual places in the scrum. This was done, because the terms *loose head* and *tight head* are not, in my opinion, translatable into Finnish in rugby context and thus their use should be avoided. If the sides need to be differentiated, words *avoimen puolen* 'open side' and *sisäpuolen* 'inside' could be used instead, thus referring to the side on which the prop is in the scrum, not to the place of the head of the prop.

As to the other translations shown in example (21), I decided to translate *lock* into 'lukkopelaaja' and *number 8* into 'pelaaja 8'. These are partly literal translations, because as described by Chesterman (1997), literal translation usually follows the source text form as closely as possible. Moreover, both of the translations apply the strategy of explicitness change, which means making the translation more explicit by adding information that is, although not explicit, in the source text (Chesterman 1997). In this case, the strategy of explicitness change is applied by adding the word *pelaaja* 'player' in the former and replacing the word *number* 'numero' with the word *pelaaja* 'player' in the latter term. The reason for the above combination of translation strategies used is that in parallel texts (in Spanish, French and Italian), the playing positions for lock and number 8 are translated word-for-word. Moreover, number 8 is the only position that does not have a specific name in English. It appears that the English speakers could not invent better terms for a lock and number 8, so it seemed justified not translating these into Finnish as something else, which might only confuse players who are familiar with the English terminology.

During the terminology work, some other options for translating the playing positions shown in example (21) were also considered. These are shown in Table 5, which shows both the possible equivalents in Finnish to an English term, as well as the source of the Finnish translation.

Table 5. Options for translating the playing positions (forwards and a scrum half) into Finnish.

English (jersey number)	Alku (1975)	Fokus urheilu (1993)	Suoma-lainen tietosana-kirja 7 (1993)	Mälkiä (2007)	Finnish Rugby Forum (2012)
loose head prop (1)	tukihyökkääjä	hyökkääjä	hyökkääjä	vasen tukimies	vapaa proppi, ulkotuki, vasen tukimies, pilari, sivu/ulkotuki-mies, vapaa tukimies
hooker (2)	pyydystäjä	hyökkääjä, raapaisija, sisäänheittäjä	hyökkääjä	numero kaksi, keskimies	nappaaja, pyyhkäisijä, kakkonen, kauhoja, koukkaaja, koukkija, heittäjä,
tight head prop (3)	tukihyökkääjä	hyökkääjä	hyökkääjä	oikea tukimies	sisäproppi, sisätuki, oikea tukimies, pilari, sivu/ulkotuki-mies, sidottu tukimies
lock (4, 5)	lukkohyökkääjä	hyökkääjä	hyökkääjä	lukko(pelaaja)	vasen/oikea lukko, työntäjä, nostaja
blind side flanker (6)	sivuhyökkääjä	hyökkääjä	hyökkääjä	sivutukimies	ulkosivu, sivutuki, vasen laita, sivumies, sokeanpuolen sivutuki, ulkosivumies, kylkimies

open side flanker (7)	sivuhyökkääjä	hyökkääjä	hyökkääjä	sivutukimies	avoin/sisäsivu, sivutuki, oikea laita, sivumies, avaranpuolen sivutuki, ulkosivumies, kylkimies
number 8 (8)	keskushyökkääjä	hyökkääjä, rykelmän johtaja	hyökkääjä	numero kahdeksan	kahdeksan, kasi, takalukko, sulkija
scrum half (9)	rykelmätukimies	rykelmätuki	tukimies	rykelmämies	pelinavaaja, ysi, jakaja, avaaja, eturakentaja

When translating and selecting suitable terms for the playing positions (1-9), I first eliminated those translation options that could not be considered due to the principle of skopos. Firstly, I decided not to choose any of the words *hyökkääjä* 'attacker', *puolustaja* 'defender', *heittäjä* 'thrower', *syöttäjä* 'passer', *jakaja* 'dealer', *potkaisija* 'kicker', *sulkija* 'player who closes', *työntäjä* 'pusher' or *nostaja* 'lifter' as shown in Table 5. Although the name of the playing position could be linked to the player's function on the pitch at least on the set pieces, in practice this might cause confusion in the Finnish audience. More importantly, in rugby according to the Laws, any player may take part in a scrum, ruck, maul or lineout, and thus any player can perform any of the actions described by these verbs linked to the name of the position as seen above. Thus, it would not be very clever to call one particular player as *nostaja* 'lifter', for example. Secondly, I avoided using words containing the suffix *-mies* 'man', for example *rykelmätukimies* 'supporting man in a scrum', *tukimies* 'supporting man', *rykelmämies* 'scrum-man', *keskimies* 'middle man', *sivumies* 'side man', *ulkotukimies* 'outside supporting man', *vapaa/sidottu tukimies* 'free/bound supporting man' or *kylkimies* 'flank man' as shown in Table 5. The reason for this was to make the names for positions gender-free, like in English or in other languages such as French or Spanish. Thirdly, I discarded ridiculous translations, such as *sisäänheittäjä* 'player who throws in the ball', *tukihyökkääjä* 'support attacker',

sivuhyökkääjä 'attacker from the side', *takalukko* 'lock at the back' or *pyydystäjä* 'catcher' as shown in Table 5. For a Finnish rugby player, these sound ridiculous because these terms are not used in the Finnish rugby context at all. For example, a word such as *pyydystäjä* 'catcher' sounds more as if it was borrowed from a Harry Potter book, and *tukihyökkääjä* 'support attacker' was not chosen simply because in rugby, the players usually talk about *tukipelaaja* 'support player' instead of *tukihyökkääjä*, and this player can be any player, not only a prop as Table 5 would suggest. Finally, I avoided using words referring to a playing number (except *No. 8*, 'pelaaja 8'), because these sounded too informal Finnish and using them would have been against the translation principles set forth in the present study. Thus, colloquial words such as *kakkonen* 'second', *kasi* 'eight' or *ysi* 'niner' were discarded. However, these, as well as translations such as *kakkosrivin pelaaja* for 'a lock' and *sulkija* for 'number 8' are used in the speech at trainings to some extent. If the current selections for translations are not established, these forms might be good options for replacements when the translation is revised in the future.

The advantages of the coinages for the playing positions as shown in example (21) are that firstly, it should be rather easy to adopt these neologisms into the Finnish language, since the corresponding official terms do not exist. Secondly, most of these translations are already in use in speech among the rugby players, coaches and referees in Finland. Thirdly, they are gender-free, which nowadays is rather important. Fourthly, using them in a proper Finnish sentence would be rather straight-forward, because all the selected terms for playing positions can be inflected according to the rules of Finnish grammar, as shown also in the example (21). Finally, the expectations of target readers are most likely met because of the above reasons and thus, the translations follow both the rules of skopos (Reiss and Vermeer, 1986) and principle of loyalty as set forth by Nord (1997).

It is worth noticing that the Laws of Rugby Union only define and describe the allowed behaviour of players with jersey numbers from 1 to 9. The reason for this is that forwards (numbers 1-8) are involved in so called set pieces (scrums and lineouts) which are one of the distinctive features of rugby and thus it is important to describe in the Laws what the forwards can and cannot do in such situations. The scrum-half (number 9) is the only back player involved in the set pieces since s/he acts as a link between the forwards and backs, and thus this playing position is also described in the Laws. However, all the playing

positions needed to be translated for their future use. Therefore, during the preliminary terminology work, also the back players' positions were translated into Finnish and these can be seen in Appendix II. However, due to limited space, these translations are not analysed in the present study.

6.5.1.2 Core rugby terms

As explained earlier in the present study, during the preliminary terminology work, a list of key rugby terms was identified. The list included nouns such as *a ruck*, *a maul*, *a scrum* and *a try*, as well as their derivations such as *rucking*, *mauling*, *uncontested scrum* and *penalty try*. The biggest problem in translating these core rugby terms was how to find or choose a corresponding word if there was no Finnish equivalent available, or the Finnish equivalent used in Finnish sport dictionaries, some older material or in the raw translation is not currently used at all among the Finnish rugby players, coaches and referees. For example, the terms *scrum, ruck* and *maul* are translated in English-Finnish general dictionary (Hurme et al. 2003, emphasis in the original) as follows:

(22)

scrum[mage]	[skrʌm(idʒ)]	**I** *s* (rugby) aloituskahakka **2** (ark) tappelu, kahakka
ruck	[rʌk] *s*	**1** suuri joukko, (massa) **2** rahvas, tavalliset ihmiset **3** (urh) jälkijoukko, peränpitäjät **4** (jalkap ym) ruuhka **5** (vankilasl) tappelu
maul	[mɔ:l]	**II** *s* **1** nuija, puuvasara, **2** (rugby jalkap) ruuhka

It is also worth noticing that none of these three terms shown in example (22), or other rugby-related terms for that matter, have been defined in any of the existing Finnish sport dictionaries (Raevuori 2005; Palvalin 1997; Sulonen and Leikkola 1952). Moreover, based on the translator's personal knowledge, the Finnish terms shown in the example (22) are not currently used in the Finnish rugby community. Rugby players in Finland usually tend to use the English terms *scrum, ruck* and *maul* with Finnish pronunciation, or Finnish equivalent terms used in speech *rykelmä* or *rykelmäaloitus* 'scrum', *kasa* 'ruck' and *mooli* 'maul'.

Consulting raw translation or books on sport in Finnish did not help, either. Raw translation uses word *röykkiö* for 'ruck' and *rynnäkkö* for 'maul', and these forms are not currently

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used at all in speech. Similarly, the old encyclopedias or books on sports in Finnish use also words such as *ryhmä* for 'ruck' or *ruuhka* for 'maul' (Alku 1975) which are not common to the Finnish rugby community. Although possible translations, these were discarded for practical reasons, and in the end the words *ruck* and *maul* were left untranslated, and *scrum* was translated as 'rykelmäaloitus'. Not translating these terms required applying the strategy of loan translation for *ruck* and *maul*, in Chesterman's (1997) terms meaning borrowing of individual terms straight to the target language. The strategy of explicitness change was used for the term *scrum*, because the word *aloitus* 'a start' was added to refer to the fact stated in Law 20 Scrum: "The purpose of the scrum is to restart play quickly, safely and fairly [...]" (International Rugby Board 2014: 138). Using the word *rykelmä* 'cluster of people', could be regarded as applying the strategy called trope change, in which several strategies are applied to translate figurative expressions into target language (Chesterman 1997).

I could have left the last term *scrum* also untranslated, but that would have caused problems in translating expressions such as *uncontested scrum.* More importantly, *rykelmäaloitus* is one of the few rugby-related terms established into Finnish, and thus it was chosen as a translation equivalent for *scrum*. Finally, since these three terms are not translated in Spanish or Italian (and the term *maul* is used as such also in French), there were no further grounds for domesticating terms *ruck* and *maul*.

As a translator, I could have been very creative when translating the terms for *scrum, ruck* or *maul*. For example, for translating the term *maul*, the following synonyms or near-synonym for the idea of 'gathering (together) in a group' were considered: *suma* 'jam', *tungos* 'congestion', *vyyhti* 'coil', *kerä* 'ball', *ruuhka* 'jam', *vaakarykelmä* 'horizontal scrum' or *pystyrykelmä* 'vertical scrum'. Using any of these terms could have caused a lot of confusion among the Finnish rugby community, as the following example (23) from Law 10 Foul Play shows:

(23)

Dangerous play in a *scrum*, *ruck* or *maul*. The front row of a *scrum* must not rush against its opponents. (p. 70, emphasis added)	Vaarallinen pelaaminen *tungoksessa*, *kasassa* tai *ruuhkassa*. *Tungoksessa* eturivi ei saa syöksyä kohti vastustajajoukkueen eturiviä. (*)

As shown by example (23), avoiding ambiguity and confusion and to achieve equivalence in sport sense were also reasons why words *ruck* and *maul* were left untranslated, and word *scrum* was translated. Ruck and maul are situations that occur during a game of rugby rather spontaneously, while scrum is a set piece which is awarded after an infringement. Thus, it seemed suitable to make a distinction of the terms through the choice of translation, rather than by using existing Finnish words that are synonyms for situations in which several people are involved.

Ruck, maul and scrum are key terms in rugby. Similarly, the term *try* is one of the key terms, because in rugby, the general aim is to score a tries. Thus, one of the most important translations regarding to achieving the equivalence in sport sense was the problem of how to translate the term *try* into Finnish. For a translator, it was obvious to use translation strategy of cultural filtering and translate the term *try* into Finnish as 'maali' and not as 'yritys' which in Finnish most commonly means, as a noun, 'an attempt'. After all, the purpose of any ball game is to score more goals than the opponent and not just count attempts for trying to score a goal. Moreover, the plural form *tries* in Finnish means 'yrityksiä' and could be translated as 'companies' or 'firms', and it does not sound very useful in the sport context. In addition, for example in football the ultimate purpose is to score *a goal*, which in Finnish is also translated as 'maali'. On the contrary, in American football, the goal made during the game is called *a touch down* and not a goal and the same term *touch down* is used as an anglicism also in Finnish language. It is worth noticing that in American football a touch down is not necessarily 'a touch down' in a literal meaning of the words because it is enough to run with the ball on a goal area so that a touch down is made. In rugby terms this anglicism could work because in rugby the ball has to be put down in the goal area for a try to occur. In other words, literally a goal in rugby **is** a touch down. However, nobody uses the term *touch down* in the Finnish rugby community, because first of all it sounds too much of a term relating merely to American football and more importantly, if a person wants to use the English term in rugby context, the original rugby term *try* is usually used instead. More importantly, the term *touch down* is already used in the Laws of Rugby Union to refer to a situation in which a team grounds the ball in their own in-goal area, so that a drop-out can be taken.

Another option for translating *try* into Finnish would have been 'juoksumaali' (literal translation of it being 'a goal made by running') to differentiate it from a goal that is scored for example by kicking a drop goal or a penalty goal. However, nobody actually uses the word 'juoksumaali' within the rugby community of Finland and thus, the translation was abandoned. Finally, one option could have been not to translate the word *try* at all but use the same English form also in Finnish. The problem with this option is that it is difficult to both pronunciate and decline in Finnish. On the contrary, the term *maali* 'goal' is easy to pronunciate, easy to decline and it is a word that already exists in the Finnish language. Moreover, it is already used in the sport context and everyone within the Finnish community understands what is meant by it. Thus, instead of using borrowed words *touch down* or *try*, coined word *juoksumaali* or word-for-word translation *yritys*, the existing word *maali* was the best option for translating the term *try* into Finnish. The choice for translating the rugby term *try* into 'maali' is the most appealing since it is understood by people within rugby community as well as by general public and thus, it fulfils the requirements of skopos.

To achieve equivalence in sport sense, there was a need to make a distinction between the following terms: *conversion goal* and *conversion kick*; *drop goal* and *drop kick*; as well as *penalty goal*, *penalty kick* and *penalty try*, since the same distinction is made also in English. The differences of these terms are reflected in the following example (24) from Law 9 Method of Scoring:

(24)

Penalty Try. If a player would probably have scored a try but for foul play by an opponent, a penalty try is awarded between the goal posts.

Rangaistusmaali. Jos pelaaja olisi todennäköisesti tehnyt maalin ilman vastustajan säätöjen vastaista peliä, tuomitsee erotuomari rangaistusmaalin. Rangaistusmaali katsotaan tehdyksi maalitolppien väliin.

Conversion Goal. When a player scores a try it gives the player's team the right to attempt to score a goal by taking a kick at goal; this also applies to a penalty try. This kick is *a conversion kick*: a conversion kick can be a place kick or a drop kick.

Lisäpistemaali. Kun pelaaja tekee maalin, on pelaajan joukkueella oikeus yrittää maalia lisäpistepotkulla. Tämä sääntö pätee myös rangaistusmaalin tapauksessa. *Lisäpistepotku* voidaan suorittaa joko paikkapotkuna tai pudotuspotkuna.

Penalty Goal. A player scores a penalty goal by kicking a goal from *a penalty kick*.

Rangaistuspotkumaali. Pelaaja tekee rangaistuspotkumaalin potkaisemalla *rangaistuspotkun* maaliin.

Dropped Goal. A player scores a dropped goal by kicking a goal from *a drop kick* in general play. (p. 62, emphasis added)	*Pudotuspotkumaali*. Pelaaja tekee pudotuspotkumaalin potkaisemalla *pudotuspotkun* maaliin maalitolppien läpi avoimessa pelissä.

The problem in example (24) was how to translate the terms for different kicks in a way that they could be distinguished from each other. The words *potkumaali* 'a goal made by kicking' or *maalipotku* 'a kick towards the goal' are not enough to make this distinction, because the points awarded from each kick are different (2 points for a conversion goal, 3 points for a penalty goal and for a dropped goal). Moreover, if *a conversion goal* was the only one called *potkumaali*, it would only cause confusion when a penalty goal or a dropped goal is made since they are also made by kicking. Therefore, for practical reasons, the general words *potkumaali* and *maalipotku* were abandoned and thus, there has to be different names for each way to score a goal by kicking, so that it is clear what type of a goal is made.

After applying the cultural filtering strategy to the word *try*, the term *penalty try* was translated as 'rangaistusmaali' by using literal translation strategy, and *penalty kick* was translated using the already existing Finnish word in the sport language, 'rangaistuspotku'. The word *conversion* could have been translated by borrowing the English term as 'konversio', resulting in *konversiomaali* 'conversion goal' and *konversiopotku* 'conversion kick'. However, since the conversion goal can be scored only after a try or a penalty try, that is, after receiving 5 points, I felt it was better to add the word *lisäpiste* 'an additional point' to the term, because a successful conversion goal adds the total score of the team by 2 points. This resulted in *lisäpistemaali* 'conversion goal' made by *lisäpistepotku* 'conversion kick'. Translation strategy applied in this case in Chesterman's (1997) terms is explicitness change, since the obvious word *lisäpiste* was added. Also, the word *potku* could be added later to the term, but *lisäpistepotkumaali* 'conversion kick goal' seems a bit too complicated term and for now, it was abandoned. For the general Finnish public that does not know what a conversion is, the word *lisäpistemaali* is better than *konversiomaali*. Finally, the word *dropped* 'pudotettu' was translated using unit shift translation strategy in changing the unit from an adjective to a noun as *pudotus* 'dropping', resulting in *pudotuspotkumaali* 'dropped goal' and *pudotuspotku* 'drop kick'.

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Of all the rugby-related terminology, two similar terms, *a knock-on* and *a throw-forward,* caused problems in translating. Leaving them untranslated would have resulted in more problems in translating verbs *to knock-on* and *to throw-forward*, as the following example from <u>Law 12 Knock-on or Throw Forward</u> shows:

(25)

Knock-on or *throw forward* inside the in-goal. If a player of either team *knocks-on or throws-forward* inside the in-goal, a 5-metre scrum is awarded in line with the place of infringement not closer than 5 metres from the touchline. (p. 83, emphasis added)	*Eteenpäinpudotus* tai *eteenpäinsyöttö* maalialueella. Jos kumman tahansa joukkueen pelaaja *pudottaa tai syöttää pallon eteenpäin* maalialueen sisällä, tulee erotuomarin tuomita rykelmä-aloitus 5 metrin päähän maalilinjasta sivurajan suuntaisesti, mutta ei kuitenkaan lähempää kuin 5 metriä sivurajasta paikkaan, jossa sääntö-rikkomus tapahtui.

Thus for practical reasons, as a translator I had to bend some of the rules of Finnish grammar when translating these two terms shown in example (25) into *eteenpäinpudotus* 'knock-on' and *eteenpäinsyöttö* 'throw forward', without space between the Finnish words, which is contrary to the Finnish grammar rules. This was done because the two terms are identically hyphenated in English, and thus, I felt it was reasonable to write the two Finnish words together in both terms to form a clear concept, although normally they would be written separately. As a result of the translation choice, the corresponding verbs *to knock-on* and to *throw-forward* were translated as 'pudottaa eteenpäin' and 'syöttää eteenpäin', both of which suit perfectly to the rules of Finnish grammar. Moreover, it is worth noticing that *eteenpäinsyöttö* as a term is also used in American football.

Solving the translation problem relating to terms *knock-on* and *throw-forward* as shown in example (25) required applying the strategy of cultural filtering in the former and partial translation in the latter. There could have been other possibilities to translate these terms, however, the only exiting translation of the word *throw-forward* is *tönäisy* 'a push' (Alku 1975), which is also used inconsistently as *töytäisy* in the same book. It seems that for the term *knock-on* there is no other previous translation than the explanation 'pallo syötetään eteenpäin' (Mälkiä 2007). Although the coined Finnish terms are rather long and the Finnish grammar rules had to be bent, I feel that considering both the equivalence in sport sense as well as the principle of loyalty (Nord 2005), these terms are rather good translations.

6.5.1.3 Other rugby terms

Some rather often used rugby terms that were not identified problematic in the terminology phase caused problems during the translation phase. These include the following terms: *onside*, *touch-in-goal*, *loitering, a drop-out*, *a touch down*, *to send-off*, *wheeled scrum* and *the playing enclosure*. I seem to have missed these terms when collecting the terminology list for terms to be translated, and in translating the selected Laws, these terms suddenly popped up and caused problems in translating. The translations of the first two terms are discussed in the following analysis. All the terms and their translations can be seen in the updated list of key rugby terminology in Appendix II.

Of these, the first term *onside* was the most problematic, since it affected the translating of one particular Law, that of <u>Law 11 Offside and Onside in General Play</u>. Problems occurred first of all in rendering the word as either a noun or as an adjective, as well as in rendering it with verbs *to be*, *to become* and *to put*. Another problem was that in the Finnish sport language official translation for *onside*, to my knowledge, does not exist, and translating the word for example as *paitsion paremmalla/oikealla puolella* 'on the better/correct side of the offside' would result in ambiguous meaning. The following example highlights these problems:

(26)

Law 11 Offside and *Onside* in General Play	Sääntö 11 Paitsio ja *paitsiosta vapautuminen* avoimessa pelissä
At the start of a game all players *are onside*. As the match progresses players may find themselves in an offside position. Such players are then liable to be penalised until they *become onside* again.	Pelin alussa kukaan pelaajista *ei ole paitsiossa*. Ottelun edetessä pelaajat voivat kuitenkin joutua paitsioasemaan. Paitsioasemassa olevia pelaajia voidaan tällöin rangaista, kunnes he *vapautuvat tai siirtyvät pois paitsiosta*.
In general play, a player can be *put onside* either by an action of a team-mate or by an action of an opponent. (p. 75, emphasis added)	Joukkuetoverit tai vastustajajoukkueen pelaajat voivat *vapauttaa* pelaajan *paitsiosta* avoimen pelin aikana.

The basic strategy for translating the word *onside* in example (26) and elsewhere in <u>Law 11 Offside and Onside in General Play</u> was to use cultural filtering to interpret to the Finnish reader what *onside* means. An example of this is the first sentence in which *onside* is translated as a noun *paitsiosta vapautuminen* 'freeing from offside'. However, when using the word *onside* with verbs, several translation strategies needed to be applied. Firstly, to

translate expression *all players are onside*, the translation strategy of antonomy was used to render it as *kukaan pelaajista ei ole paitsiossa* 'none of the players are offside'. Secondly, *they become onside* was translated using two verbs as *he vapautuvat tai siirtyvät pois paitsiosta* 'they are freed or move away from offside', because in rugby the player can become onside in three ways: by moving to a position which is not at offside (when attacking, behind the ball carrier or when defending, behind the imaginary offside line), or when the player is put onside my team-mates or opponents, as the last sentence in example (26) shows. The translation strategy in the second example was to use explicitness change in order to explain to the Finnish audience the meaning of the word.

Solving the translation problem relating to term *onside* as shown in example (26) required applying several translation strategies. Curiously, the term onside seems to have caused problems in the parallel text: in French and in Italian the word is translated ('en-jeu', 'in-gioco'), but in Spanish it is used as such ('estar/poner onside'). The raw translation does not translate the word at all, because the <u>Law 11 Offside and Onside in General Play</u> is not translated and the other Laws that have references to the word use an expression *poistaa paitsiosta* 'remove from offside'. To translate the word *onside,* it was obvious that the translator needed to be familiar with the Law in question, so this was one of the many occasions in which my experience as a rugby player helped in translating the passage and to meet equivalence in sport sense. Also, the example (26) shows that translating sport language is not always straight-forward, and mere insertion of translated sport terms is not enough.

One particular term, *touch-in-goal,* that was not identified problematic at the terminology phase, caused problems during translation. The problem was how to achieve equivalence in sport sense when translating certain passages of the Laws. The following example from <u>Law 10 Foul Play</u> indicates this translation problem:

(27)

If the ball lands in the in-goal, *in touch-in-goal*, or on or over the dead ball line, the mark for the optional penalty kick is 5 metres from the goal line, in line with the place where the ball crossed the goal line and at least 15 metres from the touchline. (p. 72)	Jos pallo putoaa maalialueelle, *sivurajan ulkopuolella olevalle alueelle* (*) tai takarajan yli, rangaistuspotkun paikka on 5 metrin päässä maalilinjasta kentän suuntaisesti kohdassa, josta pallo ylitti maalilinjan, ja vähintään 15 metrin päässä sivurajasta.

The problem shown in example (27) was that if the word touch-in-goal was translated merely as *sivurajan ulkopuolella oleva alue* 'touch', it would cause misunderstanding and most likely even wrong interpretation of the Laws. In example (27), the expression *in touch-in-goal* is wrongly translated as 'sivurajan ulkopuolella olevalle alueelle', which results in changing the Law so that if the ball lands in in-goal, on or over the dead ball line or *anywhere in touch*, the place of the penalty is always 5 metres from the goal line, which obviously is not the case if one is familiar with the Laws. Thus, it needs to be specified also in Finnish that the ball needs to land over that part of the touchline which "frames" the in-goal area 'maalialue', resulting in the following correct translation shown in example (28):

(28)

If the ball lands in the in-goal, *in touch-in-goal*, or on or over the dead ball line, the mark for the optional penalty kick is 5 metres from the goal line, in line with the place where the ball crossed the goal line and at least 15 metres from the touchline. (p. 72)	Jos pallo putoaa maalialueelle, *maalialueen sivurajan ulkopuolella olevalle alueelle* (*) tai takarajan yli, rangaistuspotkun paikka on 5 metrin päässä maalilinjasta kentän suuntaisesti kohdassa, josta pallo ylitti maalilinjan, ja vähintään 15 metrin päässä sivurajasta.

In example (28), the word *maalialueen* 'in-goal' is added to make it clear where the ball needs to land in this case. Thus, the term *touch-in-goal* needs to be always translated as 'maalialueen sivurajan alkopuolella oleva alue' to differentiate it from the term *touch* 'sivurajan ulkopuolella oleva alue'. For using the term *touch-in-goal*, I used a combination of strategies. First, I translated the word *touch* as 'sivurajan ulkopuolella oleva alue' by using the cultural filtering translation strategy. Then I translated the word *in-goal* as 'maalialue' by using an existing Finnish sport-related word. Finally, these two translations were combined to form a concept 'maalialueen sivurajan ulkopuolella oleva alue' that stands for *touch-in-goal*. Although the coined term is rather long, I felt it was compulsory to come up with a translation, because using the English word *touch-in-goal* as such in the Finnish text would be odd.

Translation of the rugby-related terminology from English into Finnish, that is, selection of the correct translation equivalents for English rugby-related terms was always done with the target audience in mind as required by the principle of loyalty (Nord 2005), so that any Finnish rugby player, coach, referee or the general public would understand concepts relating to rugby. However, the translator acknowledges the fact that some of the selected translations might not be the best choices because they are chosen subjectively by the

translator. Nevertheless, since the objective of the source and target texts as well as the background knowledge of the target audience were always considered when making the choices, the principles of skopos theory as set forth by Reiss and Vermeer (1986) are fulfilled. Furthermore, attempts were made to translate the terminology according to the guidelines set forth by the translator, and therefore Finnish words instead of loan words were favoured and colloquial and ambiguous Finnish words were avoided. Moreover, the objective in translating the terms was to translate them without compromising the principle of loyalty as described by Nord (1997). This means taking into account the source texts author's intentions as well as target text readers' expectations. This was accomplished by selecting the translation equivalents for the terms in a way that the equivalence in sport sense was met, as shown by the last three examples in this section.

6.5.2 Linguistic translation problems

Linguistic problems in the present study accounted for 31% of all the translation problems, and these were caused by the differences between the Finnish and English languages mostly on lexical or syntactical level. Some of the most problematic linguistic translation problems and strategies used to solve them are described in the next sections.

6.5.2.1 General vocabulary

One of the linguistic translation problems related to the question of how to translate the name of the whole document into Finnish. As pointed out earlier in the present study, there are several reasons why the source text is called Laws and not rules of rugby union, and it was also proved during the analysis of the source text that the source text even contains some aspects of legal language, as seen in chapter 6.2.3. However, even though there seems to be grounds for calling the rules of rugby as Laws in English, this is not the case in the Finnish language. In Finnish the common word *laws* is translated in general as *lait* which most commonly refers to actual laws regulated by the government, or the Laws of Physics or Mathematics. Moreover, in the Finnish sport context, the laws or rules (of a ball game) are always translated as *säännöt*, regardless of a game, as in *jalkapallosäännöt,* 'the rules of Association Football' or *amerikkalaisen jalkapallon säännöt,* 'the rules of American football'. Thus, keeping the skopos of the translation in mind, instead of translating the document name literally word-for-word into *Rugby Unionin lait*, I chose to translate the

name of the document into *Rugbyn säännöt* which best suits the Finnish audience. Moreover, since the only rugby code that has ever been played or is currently played in Finland is Rugby Union and not Rugby League, there is no need in differentiating the rugby code as in the English version. Finally, it is worth noticing that the same translation choice to translate the name of the Law book into *rules* has been done in French (*Règles du Jeu*) and Italian (*Regole del Gioco*) since both translate into English as *the Rules of the Game*.

The translation problem mentioned above was solved by using a near synonym *sääntö* 'rules' for the word *law* which was not the obvious first choice. This strategy is called the synonomy strategy and it is one of the syntactic strategies categorized by Chesterman (1997). In the translation *rugbyn säännöt*, the genitive form (as it is in the original) was also preserved. Other options to translate the name of the document into Finnish were *Pelisäännöt, Rugbyn sääntökirja* or *Rugby Unionin säännöt* but these translations were discarded, because they seemed too vague or complicated and the translation equivalents did not really correspond neither to the principle of skopos nor to the translation principles set forth in the present study as described in chapter 5.4.2.

In addition to the name of the document itself, the term *law* in a single, specific Law was translated using the same synonomy translation strategy as *sääntö*, as in *Sääntö 20: Rykelmäaloitus*. The reason for this translation choice was that both in the old, raw translation of the Laws of Rugby Union as well as in the official Finnish translation of the Laws of Association Football the word *sääntö* is used in each Law's name. Moreover, since the name of the whole document was translated as '*Rugbyn säännöt*', it was obvious to use the same word *sääntö* instead of *laki* in the name of each Law.

Some of the linguistic translation problems were caused by the differences between the vocabularies of Finnish and English. Some common English words caused problems in translating, considering especially the context of a sport text. The following passage (29) from <u>Law 17 Maul</u> is a good example of a problem caused by the negative of a common adverb *successfully*, combined with a common verb *end*:

(29)

A maul *ends unsuccessfully* if it remains stationary or has stopped moving forward for longer than 5 seconds and a scrum is ordered. (p. 111, emphasis added)	Maul *on päättynyt epäonnistuneesti* (*), jos se on pysähtynyt ja pysyy paikallaan kauemmin kuin 5 sekuntia, eikä hyökkäävä joukkue etene sen avulla kenttäasemassa. Erotuomarin tulee tuomita tällöin rykelmäaloitus.

In the passage (29), the problem was how to render the words *end unsuccessfully* in the translation so that the Finnish audience would understand what is being said. Translating the words *end unsuccessfully* as 'päättyä epäonnistuneesti' was my preliminary choice. However, these two words are not usually used together in Finnish, and thus the word-for-word translation did not sound proper Finnish. Therefore, I chose to apply cultural filtering and decided to use an expression used in the Finnish sport language. Thus the words *ends successfully* were translated in both examples as *päättynyt tuloksettomana* 'has ended without any result in a draw' as shown in the following similar passage from Law 16 Ruck:

(30)

A ruck *ends unsuccessfully* when the ball becomes unplayable and a scrum is ordered. (p. 106, emphasis added)	Ruck *on päättynyt tuloksettomana*, jos palloa ei voida pelata ulos ruckista. Erotuomarin tulee tuomita tällöin rykelmäaloitus.

The reason for this choice of translation was that the Finnish language is rich in adjectives, and the word *tuloksettomana* is commonly used for example in both Finnish sport language to describe a situation such as the result of a game which ends in 0-0, or an attack during a ball game which does not end to a goal or points being made as expected, as well as in the language of politics or Law, such as when a political meeting or a trial in court ends without a consensus, as in *äänestys päättyi tuloksetta* 'the voting ended without a result'.

Sometimes choosing an equivalent to an English word from several synonyms available caused minor lexical problems, especially when choosing the translation equivalent for a verb. This is reflected in the following example from Law 10 Foul Play:

(31)

If the ball *lands* in touch, the mark for the optional penalty kick is on the 15-metre line, in line with where it went into touch. (p. 71, emphasis added)	Jos pallo *putoaa* sivurajan ulkopuolelle, rangaistuspotkun paikka on 15 metrin linjalla kentän sivusuunnassa kohdassa, josta pallo meni ulos sivurajasta
All players in a position *to shove*. (p. 140, emphasis added)	Kaikkien eturivin pelaajien on oltava sellaisessa asennossa, että he pystyvät *työntämään*.

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<table>
<tr><td>Kicking. A player must not *kick* an opponent. (p. 68, emphasis added)</td><td>Potkaiseminen. Pelaaja ei saa *potkaista* vastustajaa.</td></tr>
</table>

The synonymy strategy was used in all of the cases, because the first obvious choice that came to my mind did not seem best. For the verb *to land*, I considered options *laskeutua* 'to land' or *pudota* 'to fall'. For the verb *to shove*, I considered options *sysätä*, *lykätä*, *työntää*, *tyrkkiä*, *töniä*, *tuuppia*, *tuupata* or *puskea* which all refer to 'the action of pushing someone or something'. For the verb kick, I considered between the options *potkia* 'to kick' (several times) and *potkaista* 'to kick' (one time). In the end, the verbs in each case were chosen as shown in example (31) based on how the passage would sound when read aloud to a native Finnish in the context of the Law in question.

6.5.2.2 Syntax

Another very common type of translation problem that was categorised as linguistic translation problem is that sometimes, the author seems to have wanted to say everything at once, resulting in very complex sentences as in the following example from <u>Law 20 Scrum</u>:

(32)

<table>
<tr><td>The scrum half must hold the ball with both hands, *with its major axis parallel to the ground and to the touchline over the middle line between the front rows, mid-way between knee and ankle*. (p. 144, emphasis added)</td><td>Linkkipelaajan täytyy pitää palloa molemmilla käsillään vaakatasossa siten, *että pallon isompi akseli on yhdensuuntainen maan ja sivurajojen kanssa. Lisäksi pallon tulee olla lähtötilanteessa hänen edessään nilkkojen ja polvien välissä. Linkkipelaajan tulee sijoittua rykelmään nähden siten, että hän pitelee palloa eturivien välissä kulkevalla kuvitteellisella rykelmäaloituksen keski-linjalla, metrin päässä rykelmä-aloituksen aloitusmerkistä.*</td></tr>
</table>

In the example (32), the complexity is caused by extensive use of prepositional phrases in a row. Solving the problem required applying several translation strategies. First, the cultural filtering was applied to explain where the scrum-half must stand when holding the ball. Next, the original sentence was split into three separate sentences, thus the unit shift strategy as described by Chesterman (1997) was applied. Although the resulting translation is much longer than the original, it hopefully describes the situation better to the Finnish audience.

Sometimes the English passive clauses turned out problematic, especially when combined with active clauses, as shown in the following example from <u>Law 11 Offside and Onside in General Play</u>:

(33)

In general play, a player *can be put onside either by an action of a team-mate or by an action of an opponent*. However, the offside player *cannot be put onside if the offside player interferes with play*; or moves forward, towards the ball, or fails to move 10 metres away from the place where the ball lands. (p. 75, emphasis added)	Joukkuetoverit tai vastustajajoukkueen pelaajat voivat vapauttaa pelaajan paitsiosta avoimen pelin aikana. Paitsiossa olevaa pelaajaa ei voi kuitenkaan vapauttaa paitsiosta, jos hän koskee palloon, liikkuu eteenpäin tai ei siirry 10 metriä taaksepäin paikasta, johon pallo putoaa.

The problem shown in the above example (33) was solved by applying clause structure change to the first sentence. According to Chesterman (1997), this strategy involves changing the clause type for example from finite to non-finite or active to passive. The passive clause in the first sentence in example (33) was changed from passive to active, and the prepositional phrase *in general play* was moved at the end of the sentence. The rest of the clauses were left somewhat unchanged, except for moving the conjunction *however* in the middle of the second passive clause. These changes to the clause structure were done in order to render the passage show in example (33) in a clear way so that the Law could be interpreted easily by the Finnish rugby players, coaches and referees.

To sum up, linguistic problems in the present study were caused by general vocabulary and difficulties in choosing the equivalent synonym, as well as complex sentences formed with either passive clauses or prepositional phrases. Linguistic problems on lexical and syntactical level were solved mostly using syntactic translation strategies. However, cultural filtering (and sometimes explicitness change) was often applied first, before changing the structure of the phrases, clauses or sentences. The meaning of the text was not altered that much, because synonomy and antonomy where the only semantic translation strategies that were applied to solve linguistic problems. I seemed to have favoured syntactic and pragmatic translation strategies for two reasons. Firstly, to keep the meaning of the text and thus, the meaning of the Laws the same as in the original and secondly, to add explanations to difficult passages for the Finnish audience in mind. Thus, not only was the equivalence in sport sense achieved, but also the principles of skopos and loyalty were followed.

6.5.3 Text-specific translation problems

Only about 15% of all the translation problems were text-specific problems. Text-specific translation problems in the present study included problems related to the structure and style of the source text. Examples of both types of problems are presented in the following sections.

6.5.3.1 Structure of the source text

One of the special features of the source text is that it contains many definitions. The definitions are given usually at the beginning of the Law, and sometimes the definitions are lengthy, sometimes short. Occasionally, the longest definitions did not seem very accurate or well-constructed in English, and translating them for the Finnish audience was at times problematic. A good example of the translation problems related to definitions is the definition of *a scrum*, 'rykelmä', which was one of the longest definitions and the most difficult definition to translate. The definition and its translation are shown in example (34) as presented in <u>Law 20 Scrum</u>:

(34)

The purpose of the scrum is to restart play quickly, safely and fairly, after a minor infringement or a stoppage.	Rykelmäaloituksen tarkoitus on aloittaa peli uudelleen nopeasti, turvallisesti ja tasapuolisesti pienen rikkeen tai pelikatkon jälkeen.
A scrum is formed in the field of play when eight players from each team, bound together in three rows for each team, close up with their opponents so that the heads of the front rows are interlocked. This creates a tunnel into which a scrum half throws the ball so that front row players can compete for possession by hooking the ball with either of their feet. (p. 138)	Rykelmäaloitus muodostetaan peli-alueella seuraavasti: Kahdeksan pelaajaa kummastakin joukkueesta järjestäytyy omalla puolellaan kolmeen riviin rykelmän omaiseen muodostelmaan. *Muodostelmat asettuvat vastakkain ja eturivit kiinnittyvät toisiinsa siten, että eturivissä olevat pelaajat kyykistyvät yhtäaikaisesti, nojaavat vastapuolen eturiviin* ja asettavat päänsä lomittain vastapuolen eturivin pelaajien kanssa. Näin syntyy rykelmä, jonka väliin jää pallon mentävä tunneli. Linkkipelaaja vierittää pallon tunneliin, jotta eturivien huukkerit voivat kamppailla pallon hallinnasta jaloillaan.

The main problem with the above passage (34) was how to describe the forming of a scrum in Finnish in a way that persons who have never seen a game of rugby or forming of a scrum could understand at least some parts of the description. For an English speaker it

might be obvious, but as most of the Finns have never seen how scrum is formed, it may seem completely odd. Thus, I decided to add the words *rykelmän omaiseen muodostelmaan* to describe the appearance of a scrum and binding of the three rows together, as well as to justify the selection of the word *rykelmäaloitus* for translating the term *scrum*. Furthermore, I felt it was compulsory to add a sentence that describes what the front rows do before their heads are interlocked. Translating the verb *close up* as 'lähestyä' did not seem right, since the front rows should already be on the spot, opposite each other, squat and lean on each other just before the heads are interlocked. Therefore a sentence as shown in italics in example (34) was added. Here the strategy of cultural filtering was applied to describe in a more detail the way the front rows are interlocked.

Another example of a translation problem related to a definition is shown in example from <u>Law 12 Knock-on or Throw Forward</u>:

(35)

A knock-on occurs when a player loses possession of the ball and it goes forward, or when a player hits the ball forward with the hand or arm, or when the ball hits the hand or arm and goes forward, *and the ball touches the ground or another player before the original player can catch it*. (p. 81, emphasis added)	Eteenpäinpudotus tapahtuu, kun pelaaja menettää pallonhallinnan ja pallo ponnahtaa eteenpäin, tai kun pelaaja lyö palloa kädellään tai käsivarrellaan eteenpäin, tai kun pallo osuu pelaajan käteen tai käsivarteen ja ponnahtaa eteenpäin *ja tämän lisäksi kaikissa edellä mainituissa tapauksissa* pallo koskettaa maata tai jotain toista pelaajaa ennen kuin pallon pudottanut pelaaja saa pallon kiinni.

The definition shown in example (35) was problematic because the term *knock-on* is given in a way that the different ways of making a knock-on are explained all in one long sentence. In my opinion, the definition in English is not very readable, because the situation explained in the last clause (shown in italics) needs to happen in all of the three ways in which a knock on can occur. Translator who is not familiar with the Laws of Rugby Union in practise might not know this.

For translating the passage shown in (35), I wanted to follow Nord's principle of loyalty, and thus I decided to translate the passage literally very closely to the original. Moreover, for the Finnish audience, I thought it was necessary to add a reminder that the ball needs to always touch the ground or another player, so a clause *ja tämän lisäksi kaikissa edellä mainituissa tapauksissa* 'in addition to all occasions above' was added. Simple word *and*,

in my opinion, was not enough to convey the idea to the Finnish audience. Thus the translation strategy of explicitness change was used to make more visible information which can be interpreted from the text.

Another way of translating the definition shown in example (35) could have been to use a simple bulleted list for each way that the knock-on can happen and add the last condition for example in bold print or other indication that it is a required end condition, but as the original (and parallel texts in French, Spanish and Italian) did not use bulleted list, I decided to keep the formatting same.

Occasionally, some text-specific translation problems caused by badly constructed clauses were solved with the help of TULIPE. For example, the following passage (36) from the Law 11 Offside and Onside in General Play seemed at first incomprehensible, because it was difficult to understand which of the players are offside:

> (36)
>
> When a player hands the ball to a team-mate in front of the first player, the receiver is offside. (p. 79)
>
> Kun pelaaja ojentaa pallon joukkue-toverille joka on ensimmäisen pelaajan edessä, on pallon vastaanottaja paitsiossa. (*)

However, the same passage in TULIPE is written as in the following passage:

> (37) When a player hands the ball to a team mate in front of him, the team-mate is off-side. (p. 136)

Removing the third person pronouns from the current Law book has resulted in a sentence which is difficult to translate. However in TULIPE, the same passage was written in a clear manner, and thus it was worth checking the old version. This resulted in the following translation which is more understandable:

> (38)
>
> When a player hands the ball to a team-mate *in front of the first player*, the *receiver* is offside. (p. 79, emphasis added)
>
> Kun pelaaja ojentaa pallon *edessään olevalle joukkuetoverille*, on *kyseinen joukkuetoveri* paitsiossa.

In example (38), the translation strategy of explicitness change into less informative was used. The translation was realized by not translating the words *first player* 'ensimmäinen pelaaja' and *receiver* 'vastaanottaja' but use only the words *pelaaja* 'player' and *joukkuetoveri* 'team-mate'. This was done to clarify the badly constructed clause.

Inconsistencies and repetitive passages in the source text sometimes caused minor problems in translating. For example, a sentence stating that the position of a penalty kick after an infringement should be on the offside line occurs 14 times in the source text. However, the occurrences are written differently depending on the Law, as shown in the following example:

> (39) Penalty kick at the offending player's offside line. (p. 80)
>
> Penalty kick on the offending team's offside line. (p. 105, 106, 110, 138)
>
> Penalty kick on the offside line. (p. 137, 150)

The last of these sentences is especially problematic because the translator does not know which team's offside line the penalty kick should be taken from. Usually it is the offending team's offside line, thus for uniformity, all the sentences shown in example (39) were rendered similarly into Finnish as *Rangaistuspotku rikkoneen joukkueen paitsiolinjalta*. Translating the sentence as *Rangaistuspotku rikkoneen pelaajan paitsiolinjalta* would suggest that each player have their own offside lines, which is not the case. The strategy used in this case was explicitness change, to add the words *rikkoneen joukkueen* 'non-offending team's' to all repeated expressions of p*enalty kick on the offside line*. This way the equivalence in sport sense was better achieved.

Finally, one minor problem during the translation of this specific text type (a rule book of a ball game) was that the current Law book does not contain an Index of terms. It contains a list of definitions, but after the term there is a reference to a Law in which the term is used and not to a page number. As a result, it was sometimes hard to find the actual page of the Law in which the term was used in a sentence. In TULIPE there is an Index of terms, with references to a page the terms are used on. This implicates that for any person writing a rule book, it is suggested that an index of terms with references to page numbers should be added for easing the work of translators.

6.5.3.2 Figure of speech and legal language

As seen in Chapter 2 of the present study, the language of sport contain many figurative expressions ranging from metaphors and metonymies to expressions referring to war. The language of rugby is no exception, and this is reflected in the Laws of Rugby Union as seen during the source text analysis. Although problems relating to figure of speech could be

counted as linguistic translation problems, in the present study, these are regarded as text-specific, because first of all they might not be present in another text on rugby and secondly, it was somewhat surprising to find out there were metaphors used when describing the content of the Laws.

The following example from <u>Law 10 Foul Play</u> illustrates one obvious metaphor present in the Laws:

(40)

Foul play is anything a player does within the playing enclosure that is against the letter and spirit of the Laws of the Game (p. 102, emphasis added)	Pelikentällä tai sen reuna-alueella tapahtuvaa *sääntöjen vastaista peliä* on mikä tahansa sellainen pelaajan toiminta, joka on vastoin rugbyn sääntöjä ja henkeä.

The term *foul play* can be considered as a metaphor which is figure of speech, and the definition in example (40) says it neatly: "anything a player does [...] that is against the letter and spirit of the Laws". Problem in this case was to select a suitable Finnish term to stand for the concept. In the target text, the term *foul play* is translated as *sääntöjen vastainen peli* 'play against the rules', which is the most common translation of the term into Finnish. Other options such as *vilunkipeli* 'playing by cheating', *ruma peli* 'ugly play', *vilppi* 'cheating', *epäurheilijamainen käytös* 'unsportsmanlike conduct' or *epäreilu peli* 'unfair play' and their combinations where also considered when translating the term *foul play*, but these were discarded because the concept *sääntöjen vastainen peli* best conveys the idea in the definition. The translation strategy used in this case could be labelled as trope change, which according to Chesterman (1997) involves using a term or phrase to compare two unrelated things.

Problematic figure of speech is present also in some other terms as shown in the following example from <u>Law 8 Advantage</u>:

(41)

After *the ball has been made dead*. Advantage cannot be played after *the ball has been made dead.* (p. 61, emphasis added)	*Pallo on ulkona pelistä*. Etua ei voi peluuttaa, jos *pallo on pelattu ulos pelikentältä, jos erotuomari on viheltänyt pelin poikki, tai jos lisäpiste-potku on potkaistu.*
Flying Wedge and *Cavalry Charge*. A team must not use the 'Flying Wedge' or the 'Cavalry Charge'. (p. 73, emphasis	*Kiilamuodostelma* ja *rynnäkkö*. Joukkue ei saa edetä hyökkäyksessä käyttäen "kiilamuodostelmaa" tai "rynnäkköä".

added)

All these terms *making the ball dead*, *Flying Wedge* and *Cavalry Charge* in the example (41) can be regarded as analogies of war, which is typical figure of speech in sport language as seen in Chapter 2. These terms turned out problematic, because rendering them literally into Finnish would have resulted in expressions such as *kuollut pallo*, *lentävä kiila* and *ratsuväkiryntäys*, which to a native Finnish speaker sound weird concepts. More importantly, these would not be understood by the people among the Finnish rugby community. Here again, the strategy of trope change was applied to invent a new trope in the target language as was the case with terms *kiilamuodostelma* and *rynnäkkö*. The term making ball dead was translated using unit shift as *pallo ulkona pelistä* 'ball out of play' which was then further explained according to the Laws.

Similarly, the source text contains a few metonymies, the obvious one being the term *team*. However, one of the most challenging metonymy to translate was the term *front row*. Problem was not in rendering the words itself but the context in which they were used. This problem is reflected in the following example from Law 20 Scrum:

(42)

Front rows coming together. First, the referee marks with a foot the place where the scrum is to be formed. Before the two front rows come together they must be standing not more than an arm's length apart. The ball is in the scrum half's hands, ready to be thrown in. The front rows must crouch so that when they meet, each player's head and shoulders are no lower than the hips. The front rows must interlock so that no player's head is next to the head of a team-mate. (p. 139)	Eturivien liittyminen yhteen. Aluksi erotuomari merkitsee jalallaan kenttään paikan, johon rykelmäaloitus muodostetaan. Ennen kuin *eturivit voivat liittyä yhteen, eturivissä olevien pelaajien pitää seisoa korkeintaan käsivarren etäisyydellä toisistaan. Eturivin pelaajien täytyy ensin kyykistyä yhtenäisenä rivinä, jotta eturivien liittyessä yhteen* kenenkään eturivin pelaajan lantio ei ole hartioita ylempänä. Tämän jälkeen eturivien tulee liittyä yhteen lomittain siten, että kenenkään eturivissä olevan pelaajan pää ei ole oman joukkuetoverin pään vieressä. Samaan aikaan, kun eturivit liittyvät yhteen, linkkipelaaja valmistautuu vierittämään pallon sisään rykelmä-aloitukseen.

In the example (42), the translation strategy of cultural filtering was used to translate the passage in a way that the expected audience would understand it. This required adding explanatory sentences on what the particular players in the front row must do, as shown in the example (42) in italics. This resulted in a longer passage, but not only definitely more

informative, but also more suitable towards the expected readers of the target text.

Finally, as seen during the source text analysis, the source text has also some characteristics of legal language. Thus a further, although surprisingly minor source of translation problems in the source text was the legal language. Typical problems caused by legalese are shown in the following example from <u>Law 10 Foul Play</u>:

(43)

Intentionally *Offending*. A player must not intentionally *infringe any Law* of the Game, or play unfairly. The player who intentionally *offends* must be either *admonished*, or *cautioned that a send off will result if the offence or a similar offence is committed, or sent off*. (p. 67, emphasis added)	*Sääntöjen rikkominen* tahallaan. Pelaaja ei saa tahallaan *rikkoa* pelin *sääntöjä*, tai pelata epärehellisesti. Pelaajaa, joka tahallaan *rikkoo sääntöjä*, tulee *varoittaa* siitä, että seuraava tahallinen *sääntö-rikkomus voi aiheuttaa pelaajan poistamisen kentältä joko väliaikaisesti tai kokonaan*.

As illustrated in example (43), to avoid terms that sound too legalese to the Finnish audience, on a general level I decided to apply cultural filtering translation strategy by translating both verbs *to offend* and *to infringe* as 'rikkoa sääntöjä', an expression which is often used in Finnish sport language. This was done not only in the passage shown in example (43) but also throughout the Laws. Moreover, when translating the passage (43), I ignored the verbs *to admonish* and *to commit*, thus the strategy of explicitness change was also applied to make the passage less explicit. This was done by using common Finnish words to make the passage readable and easily understandable, without sounding too legalistic in Finnish.

To sum up, the text-specific translation problems related to the structure of the text type as well as author's style of writing. The Laws of Rugby Union as a document contains lots of definitions which proved to be problematic to translate. Moreover, sometimes badly constructed clauses as well as inconsistent and repetitive passages caused translation problems. As to the author's style, figure of speech at some parts of the Laws, as well as words and expressions common to legal language caused problems. Of the text-specific problems only problems relating to figure of speech were solved using semantic strategies (trope change). The rest of the problems were solved using mostly pragmatic translation strategies, namely explicitness change and cultural filtering.

6.5.4 Pragmatic translation problems

Pragmatic translation problems accounted for only about 12% of all the translation problems. These included problems relating mainly to particular parts of longer sections of the source text and translating them in a way that the particular section would be understandable, both considering the background knowledge of the Finnish readers and interpretability of the section. In general in practical problems, the difficulty was not in the vocabulary, syntax, author's style of writing or not even in the way the text was structured, but in certain concepts that were clearly foreign to the target audience.

Knowing that some of the possible readers of the target text might not understand certain concepts, I sometimes felt the need to interpret part of the Laws in a way that any Finnish reader would understand what is being said. The following example from <u>Law 1 The Ground</u> is a good example of the need to interpret certain rugby-specific concepts:

(45)

Type of surface. The surface should be grass but may also be sand, clay, snow or artificial grass. The game may be played on snow, provided the snow and underlying surface are safe to play on. It shall not be a permanently hard surface such as concrete or asphalt. *In the case of artificial grass surfaces, they must conform to IRB Regulation 22*. (p. 27, emphasis added)	Pinnan tyyppi. Kentän pinnan tulee olla nurmikkoa. Jos nurmikenttää ei ole käytettävissä voidaan ottelu pelata myös savi- tai hiekkakentällä tai keinotekoisella nurmella. Ottelu voidaan pelata myös lumikentällä, edellyttäen että lumi ja sen alla oleva alusta eivät ole vaarallisia. Mitään kovaa alustaa, kuten sementtiä tai asfalttia ei hyväksytä. *Keinotekoisen nurmen tulee täyttää IRB:n laatuvaatimukset*.

Understanding the last sentence of the passage in example (45) requires that the reader is familiar with another document, that of IRB Regulation 22, which sets standards for artificial pitches in terms of the material and markings on the pitch. Thus, the strategy here was to explain to the reader that IRB regulation 22 refers to the required quality standard of the rugby pitch. This was accomplished by using cultural filtering translation strategy. Similarly, I felt the need to explain how the pitch should be marked, as shown in the following example from <u>Law 1 The Ground</u>:

(46)

There are six dash lines 5 metres from, and parallel to, each goal line. Two dash lines are positioned 5 metres and 15 metres from each touch line. A further two dash lines are positioned in front of	Kummankin maalilinjan suuntaisesti kulkee kuusi katkoviivaa, jotka ovat 5 metrin etäisyydellä itse maalilinjasta. *Katkoviivat on merkitty molempiin kenttäpäätyihin seuraavasti*: kaksi katko-

each goal post so that there is 5 metres between these dash lines. (p. 29)

viivaa on merkitty 5 metrin ja 15 metrin päähän kummastakin sivurajasta. Toiset kaksi katkoviivaa on merkitty maali-tolppien eteen siten, että viivojen väliin jää 5 metriä.

I tried to translate the passage in example (46) by keeping in mind whether a person reading it could draw the dash lines on the playing area after reading the passage. This was accomplished by using the translation strategy of information change which, according to Chesterman (1997), involves adding information that is not present in the source text. With the addition, I think the translation is more readable and better compromises the idea of rendering the passage (46) for the Finnish audience, because most of the new players have never seen a rugby pitch or markings on it in their life.

Occasionally, some concepts in the Laws were also foreign in the Finnish rugby context. This is illustrated in the following example from <u>Law 1 The Ground</u>:

(47)

In respect of:

Pelikentän mittojen tulee

(i) Matches between *the senior national representative team or the next senior national representative team* of a Union against the senior or next senior national representative team of another Union; and

(i) *maajoukkueiden tai kakkosmaa-joukkueiden* välisissä rugbyotteluissa ja

(ii) International seven-a-side matches; (p. 28, emphasis added)

(ii) kansainvälisissä seitsemän pelaajan rugbyotteluissa

Problem in the example (47) was how to render the passage in a way that the principles of skopos theory are followed and the Finnish audience would understand the translation. Firstly, in Finland we have currently only men's and women's national teams which are all senior players. Thus, adding the word *seniori* 'senior' or *aikuinen* 'adult' to modify the noun phrase *maajoukkue* 'national team' would only confuse the Finnish audience, because both of the national teams are for adults. Secondly, although some sports in Finland do have two national teams (A-maajoukkue and B-maajoukkue), this is not the case in Finnish rugby. Furthermore, the next senior national representative team is usually in rugby context referred to with the letter 'A' as in *France A*, but this would not work in the Finnish context since *A-maajoukkue* is usually the one that is first sent to represent our country. Thus, the only way to translate the term *next senior national representative team* was to use the word *kakkosmaajoukkue* which is sometimes used in the Finnish context. Consulting the raw

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translation or previous versions of the Laws did not help in translating example (47) because the passage was not found in them, so it was obvious that it has been added recently to the Law. Consulting parallel texts in French or Spanish did not help, either, because the passage shown in example (47) had been translated rather literally in both parallel texts. Therefore, I chose to translate the passage using the cultural filtering strategy.

One of the practical translation problems was how to translate the calls of a referee to the Finnish audience. The example from Law 20 Scrum illustrates this problem:

(48)

The referee will call *"crouch"* and then *"bind"*. The front rows crouch and using their outside arm each prop must bind. [...] Following a pause, the referee will then call *"set"* when the front rows are ready. The front rows may then engage. (p. 140, emphasis added)	Erotuomari kutsuu *"crouch"*, ja sen jälkeen *"bind"*. Tällöin eturivit kyykis-tyvät, ja uloimmaista käsivarttaan käyttäen kukin proppi sitoo vastapuolen proppiin. [...] Lyhyen tauon jälkeen, kun eturivin pelaajat ovat sitoneet toisiinsa ja vastustajaan, erotuomari kutsuu *"set"*. Tällöin eturivit lukkiutuvat lopullisesti yhteen.

Since most of the referees in Finland are native English-speakers and those who are Finnish tend to also use the English calls when the scrum is formed, I decided to apply the loan translation strategy and leave the calls of a referee as they are in the source text. Moreover, since the Finnish rugby players are already used to hearing these calls in English, it was better to leave them in English. Therefore, this translation choice fulfils both the author's intentions as well as target-text readers' expectations.

In summary, pragmatic translation problems were caused by rendering those sections of the Laws that contained information which was assumed to be unfamiliar for the Finnish readers. Only 12% of the problems were pragmatic in their nature. However, the selection of the skopos theory as the background theory of the present thesis might have affected to the small amount of pragmatic translation problems encountered, because the mind-set of the translator was always to take into account both the background knowledge and the circumstances of the situation of the intended readers. Thus, most of the pragmatic translation problems were solved using pragmatic translation strategies, of which the most used was cultural filtering. The pragmatic strategies were used in order to keep the skopos of the target text same as that of the source text. Moreover, these strategies were used to explain unfamiliar concepts, thus domesticate them, to the expected target text reader.

Sometimes also syntactic translation strategies such as loan translation were used to solve pragmatic translation problems.

To summarize the whole analysis, based on the analysis of the strategies used to solve the linguistic, text-specific or practical translation problems, it was interesting to note that synonymy and trope change were basically the only semantic strategies used in translating the Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish. Of these two strategies, the former is applied on the level of words and the former on figurative expressions. Therefore, it is rather justified to claim that the application of translation strategies on the whole did not affect to the meaning of the source text. This implies that regardless of the action of translation, the meaning of the target text has remained the same as that of the source text.

According to the rules of skopos theory, the purpose of the target text is essential in that the strategies used in translating are determined by the skopos. The skopos of target text was to present a coherent translation aimed for Finnish readers. This was achieved by constantly thinking about the target readers when translating the terminology in the preliminary phase as well as producing the actual target text in the translation phase. This was also seen in the particular strategies applied: most of the translation problems that occurred during the translation phase were solved by using either the strategy of cultural filtering or the strategy of explicitness change.

As to the principle of Loyalty as set forth by Nord (1997), the most used strategy to solve a translation problem (apart from problems related to terminology) was cultural filtering. This implies that the target reader's expectations were taken into account when translating the selected Laws. As the principle of loyalty refers to the attitude and behaviour of the translator to produce a functional text in the target language culture rather than aiming for pure fidelity on the lexical and syntactical level, the present study has succeeded in following this principle rather well. Furthermore, to achieve equivalence in sport sense, it seemed justified to make certain linguistic, syntactic and pragmatical changes to the original text to respect the stylistic conventions of the target culture.

However, it is worth remembering that the analysis presented in the present study is very subjective. When I consider having used cultural filtering, others might have considered it for example as paraphrasing (a semantic strategy). Thus it cannot be proofed without a

doubt that the meaning of the Laws is not altered through translating. However, as seen in the above analysis, many of the passages shown in the examples where translated with both the skopos of the translation as well as the target audience in mind. Therefore, the requirements of both skopos and the principle of loyalty are fulfilled, and it seems that the final translation is equivalent also in the sport sense. In any case, the target text should be read by several people who actually know the game of rugby, in order to get feedback of the translation, and how the Laws are understood and applied by the native Finnish people in a communicative situation that is different compared to the situation in the source text.

6.6 Finalising the translation

The final, translated Laws of Rugby Union into Finnish were proofread by Emmi Laine (Master of Science in Chemistry), a native Finnish speaker, former rugby player and currently both a rugby referee and a rugby coach. Laine is a true expert in rugby: She started playing rugby in France in 2004, and played in Finland on national level until 2012, and on international level in both 15's women's national team (2006-2011) and 7's women's national team (2007-2011). Laine started also refereeing in 2007 and became an international referee in rugby in 2009. In autumn 2010 she refereed women's rugby in London. Currently she referees and also coaches the women's team of Helsinki Rugby Club. Laine holds IRB's certificates in refereeing (levels 1 and 2) and coaching (levels 1 and 2). (Laine, personal Facebook message 5.8.2014.)

As a rugby expert and sort of a pioneer in Finnish women's rugby, Laine's feedback and suggestions for improvement on the translated Laws were very valuable. Based on her suggestions, I made some minor changes mostly into sentence structures and corrected spelling errors. I finalized the translation of the selected Laws in August 2014. Since the data of the present study was nine Laws, only the selected Laws and their translations are presented in Appendix III. All the other Laws that were not selected as part of the data in the present study were also translated during the summer of 2014, and finalized based on Laine's feedback and comments. The first real and full translation of the Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish is now finally complete.

7   CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the findings of the present study are first summarized. Next, the limitations and evaluation of the present study are considered, and finally some suggestions for further study are provided.

7.1   Summary of findings

The primary objective of this study was to investigate the possible problems faced when translating the selected nine Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish, as well as to find ways in which these translation problems can be solved. The secondary goals of the present study were to expand understanding of the translation process involving a sport-related text and make recommendations on the Finnish rugby-related terminology. As a result of the translation work completed, all the remaining Laws of Rugby Union were also translated into Finnish.

The skopos theory by Reiss and Vermeer (1986) combined with the principle of loyalty by Nord (1997) provided an adequate theoretical framework for the specific area of translation in the present study. Translation of the Laws of Rugby Union from English into Finnish clearly benefited from a consistent application of the guidelines of the skopos theory. These included a clearly stated purpose of the translation, which was to produce a coherent translation that provides the framework for the game of rugby similarly to the source text, adapted to the Finnish culture for Finnish readers, without compromising the principle of loyalty as explained by Nord (1997). The purpose of the translation then defined the translation strategies used. Chesterman's (1997) syntactic, semantic and pragmatic translation strategies were used for producing a functionally appropriate translation that was equivalent in sport sense.

The translation problems encountered during the translation were categorised into four categories which are sport-specific, linguistic, text-specific and pragmatic translation problems. Most of the problems belonged to the category of sport-specific translation problems, and these were mostly solved by creating a neologism. The other translation problems encountered during the translation phase were mostly solved by applying cultural filtering or explicitness change.

Occasionally during the translation, it was necessary to seek help by consulting other sources. For this, the old version of the Laws, the raw translation in Finnish and parallel texts in French, Spanish and Italian proved to be very helpful. Thus, if a translator has these kinds of resources available when translating the rules of a game, it is recommended that they are consulted as early as possible.

Even though there were many translation problems, the translation process was still rather smooth because of the careful terminology work done by the translator prior to starting the actual translation. In addition, completing the translation was rather quick because the translator was very familiar with rugby, which was the subject matter of the source text. Thus, when translating any kinds of sport-related texts, it is essential that the translator is familiar with the sport in question. Moreover, in case of a sport which has either minority status in the target culture or its terminology is not well established in the target language, it is important to complete preliminary terminology work, that is, translate all the necessary terms in the target language before starting the actual translation of the text. Being familiar with the subject matter and knowing the terminology is beneficial in any kind of translation, and based on some of the result of the present study, the same is true in translating sport-related texts.

7.2 Evaluation

When interpreting the findings of the present study, it should be kept in mind that there are some limitations for the present study. Firstly, the translation problems found in the present study concern rugby union but might not be present in some other sport, especially if it is popular in Finland. For example, ice hockey is very popular in Finland and its English terminology and their Finnish counterparts are quite well known even amongst the common people. Therefore, as to the terminology, a well-known and well-established sport in Finland might not cause any problems to the translators in general since equivalent terminology in Finnish already exists. Moreover, the problems found in the present study might apply only to the Finnish language. For example, even though the Laws of Rugby Union have not yet been translated in Swedish, rugby as a sport has a longer history in Sweden and thus, the language used in it may have already been established and well known amongst common people, including translators.

Secondly, different translators produce different kinds of texts and possess different kinds of competences, so the areas that were problematic for me as a translator when producing the target text might not be problematic at all for another translator. For example, a translator who has been translating lots of sport related texts during his or her career might be used to the sport language used in different sports. In addition, experienced translators may have for example more knowledge on solving translation problems more efficiently, possess knowledge on translation memory tools and have access to them and are accustomed to using various translation strategies for meeting the requirements of skopos. I, on the other hand, do not have that much experience in translation as a profession, which might have affected on the overall translation quality.

The third limitation of the present study relates to the restricted size of the data used in the present study. The data of the present study consisted of 54 pages from the Law book, and if all of the current Laws of Rugby Union (204 pages) had been selected as the data there might have been more translation problems, and also of different kinds. This applies also to the kind of data consisting of different genres than those analysed in the present study. Thus, considering the limited data, it is important to be careful with generalisations.

Finally, another limitation of the present study relates to the translation quality. The present study did not attempt to evaluate the translated text in any way, since the focus was only on the translation problems and how they can be solved in the context of the present study. However, the reason for the lack of translation quality assessment is simple: it seems that self-assessment criteria for evaluating translation quality do not exist. In addition, since I acted as the translator, it would have been difficult to remain completely objective when assessing the quality of the translation I have made. However, many methods for evaluating translations made by others have been developed and proposed (see for example House, 1997), and these as well as translation evaluation tools or corpus tools could be used when evaluating the Finnish translation of the Laws of Rugby Union.

As to both the writing process and translation process, I learned a great deal. I learned not only about how to write a proper academic thesis, but I also learned the theory and practise of translation basically from the scratch. There were no courses offered in Translation Studies at the time of completing my studies at the University of Jyväskylä, so during the studies I had not taken any courses on translation. By finding out information on

Translation Studies and writing the theoretical part I gained knowledge on various translation theories and concepts relating to translation. Working with the practical part of the present study taught me many valuable lessons on translation techniques and strategies, problem-solving in translation, decision-making and different ways to find information also on the subject matter. I learned how to conduct a small-scale translation project, which in the present study consisted of doing background work on rugby terminology and subject matter; translating of terminology; consulting of parallel texts, older versions of the source text and raw translation; translating the source text; consulting an expert on the subject area and getting feedback on the translation; and making final corrections based on suggestions and feedback. Finally, as an added bonus for a rugby player, the translation process also taught me many valuable lessons on the Laws of Rugby Union.

As to the contents of the present study, I could have decided not to discuss the topic of sport language at all and concentrate only on the problems found during the translation and their solutions. However, I felt it was necessary to discuss the characteristics of general sport lexicon for identifying at least some of the translation problems before the actual translation and for analysing the skopos of the source text, since I decided not to analyse the source text with the functional model of text analysis provided by Nord (1997). I decided to discard Nord's model, because first of all it seemed too complex for the purposes of the present study and more importantly, I felt that Nord's functional model of text analysis is more suitable when analysing a source text which is a literary work such as a novel, a poem or a drama.

7.3   Recommendations on Finnish rugby terminology

Based on the translation work done in the present study, some recommendations for the future usage of Finnish rugby terminology arose (see Appendix II). The suggested list of key rugby terms in Finnish has already been used in translating the Beginners Guide to Rugby Union, 2014 Edition (International Rugby Board 2014c) from English into Finnish. The corresponding Finnish version (International Rugby Board 2014d) is available currently both online and in a downloadable pdf file at the IRB's web page. In future, the suggested list can also be used as a quick reference, or when translating other types of rugby-related texts such as fictional novels or articles.

It is hoped that the suggested terms are used consistently in future to establish them in the Finnish language. However, the translator recognizes the fact that especially the rugby players and coaches will always use terminology suitable for their needs and habits. Furthermore, the suggested list is neither complete nor perfect and modifications are bound to happen when current rugby players and coaches in Finland either adopt the terms or discard them partly or completely. It is assumed that the new generation of Finnish rugby players will at least learn the suggested rugby terms in Finnish and as a result might use them consistently. Hopefully also the translated Laws of Rugby Union into Finnish would encourage current players to study the Laws of rugby more to understand them a little better and in that way improve the quality of rugby played in Finland. It is also hoped that the translated Laws would help more people to join rugby in Finland in the upcoming years.

7.4   Suggestions for further study

The topic of the present study provides many opportunities for future research. Firstly, while the present study focused on translation problems and their solutions, further study could concentrate on comparing the different translations of the same source text, in this case, the Laws of Rugby Union translated into French, Italian, Spanish, German or Dutch, for example. Comparisons could be done on lexical, syntactical or pragmatical level only, or in all levels, to gain knowledge on the choices different translators make and strategies they use when translating the same source text.

Another topic of research could be the question of translation quality. A research could be conducted on the quality of the translation made in the practical part of the present study, as well as on the existing language versions of the Laws of Rugby Union. The assessment could be based on an existing translation quality assessment model, such as the one presented by House (1997).

Yet another opportunity for further research from the point of view of Translation Studies could be translating the rules of another ball game such as lacrosse, from English into Finnish and see if similar problems compared to those found in the present study arise. It would also be fruitful to see whether, in case of similar translation problems, those problems could be solved using the same strategies as in the present study.

From a terminological point of view, further study could be conducted on the origins, first recorded instances and etymology of the English rugby terminology. It might be valuable to find out how today's rugby terms came into use, starting from the early development of the game until the 21st century. Secondly, another line of research from a terminological point of view could be to gather a term bank, a corpus or a dictionary of rugby terms, along with their explanations and examples of use. This type of research should be conducted in a way that parallel texts in different languages and of different genres are compared, so there would also be a possibility to gather a multilingual term bank or dictionary. As pointed out earlier in the present study, rugby-related terms have not been defined in any of the existing Finnish sport dictionaries, so it would be useful to gather them in one document for example with the help of a corpus tool.

As to the English version of the Laws of Rugby Union, one type of research could compare the different versions of the Laws in different years to see how the Laws have evolved. As seen in the present study, one turning point in the history of rugby was when the game became professional. In other words, this turning point could be taken as the base for the analysis, and the research could examine how the change from amateurism to professionalism was reflected not only in the Laws of Rugby Union but also in the game of rugby union.

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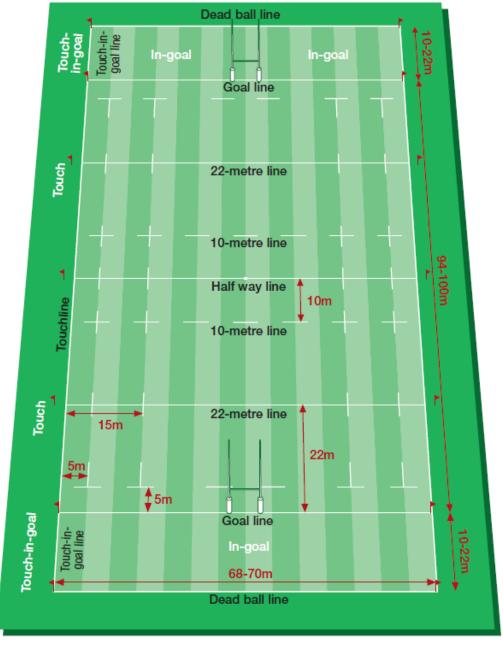Yli-Viikari, T. (2012). *15-rugbyn naisten maajoukkueen pelikirja*. Unpublished paper.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I. The Ground

(International Rugby Board 2014: 25)

The Plan

APPENDIX II. List of key rugby terminology in Finnish

Core rugby terms	
English	**Finnish**
10-metre line	10 metrin linja
22-metre line	22 metrin linja
advantage	etu
conversion goal	lisäpistemaali
conversion kick	lisäpistepotku
dead ball line	takaraja
drop goal	potkumaali
drop kick	pudotuspotku
drop-out	22 metrin potku
field of play	pelialue
field of play	pelialue
forward pass	eteenpäinsyöttö
foul play	sääntöjen vastainen peli
free kick	vapaapotku
goal-line	maalilinja
half-way line	keskilinja
infringement	sääntörikkomus
in-goal	maalialue
kick	potku
kick off	aloituspotku
knock-on	eteenpäinpudotus
Law	sääntö
Laws of Rugby Union	rugbyn säännöt
lineout	rajaheitto
loitering	viivyttely paitsiossa

maul	maul
momentum try	maali, joka tehdään liikkeen jatkumona
offside	paitsio
onside	paitsiosta vapautuminen
open play	avoin peli
pass	syöttö
penalty	rangaistuspotku
penalty goal	rangaistuspotkumaali
penalty kick	rangaistuspotku
penalty try	rangaistusmaali
perimeter area	pelikentän reuna-alue
place kick	paikkapotku
play advantage	peluuttaa etua
playing area	pelikenttä
playing enclosure	pelikenttä ja sen reuna-alue
pushover try	työntömaali
referee	erotuomari
ruck	ruck
scrum	rykelmäaloitus
send-off	pelaajan poistaminen kentältä
tackle	taklaus, taklata
tactical advantage	taktinen etu
temporarily suspend	pelaajan poistaminen väliaikaisesti kentältä
territorial advantage	alueellinen etu
the 22	22 metrin linja
throw forward	eteenpäinsyöttö
touch	sivurajan ulkopuolella/yli/ulkopuolella oleva alue
touch down	22 metrin aloituksen merkkaus

touch judge	linjatuomari
touch-in-goal	maalialueen sivurajan ulkopuolella olevan alue
touch-in goal line	maalialueen sivuraja
touchline	sivuraja
try	maali
uncontested scrum	luovutettu rykelmäaloitus
wheeled scrum	käännetty rykelmäaloitus

Playing positions

English	Finnish
loose-head prop (1)	vasen proppi, (avoimen puolen proppi)
hooker (2)	huukkeri
tight-head prop (3)	oikea proppi, (sisäpuolen proppi)
lock (4)	lukko(pelaaja)
lock (5)	lukko(pelaaja)
blind-side flanker (6)	(kapean puolen) flänkkeri
open-side flanker (7)	(avoimen puolen) flänkkeri
number 8 (8)	pelaaja 8
scrum-half (9)	linkki(pelaaja)
fly half (10)	pelinrakentaja
inside centre (12)	sisäsentteri
outside centre (13)	ulkosentteri
left wing (11)	vasen laita
right wing (14)	oikea laita
full back (15)	takapelaaja
front row / front row players	eturivi / eturivin pelaajat
second row / second row	kakkosrivi / kakkosrivin pelaajat
third row / third row players	takarivi / takarivin pelaajat
props	propit

locks	lukot (lukkopelaajat)
flankers	flänkkerit
centres	sentterit
wings	laiturit
backs	takapelaajat
forwards	etupelaajat

APPENDIX III. The source text and the target text

On cd.